
The Impact of Entrepreneurship Education on Developing Students Entrepreneurial Attitudes and Intention in Emerging Economies: An Assessment of the Nigeria Case

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Lemun Yatu Nuhu

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Declaration

I, Lemun Yatu Nuhu, hereby declare that this PhD Thesis titled "*The Impact of Entrepreneurship Education on Developing Students Entrepreneurial Attitudes and Intention in Emerging Economies: An Assessment of the Nigeria Case*" is my original work. The thesis has not been submitted in whole or part for another degree or qualification of any comparable award at this or any other university or other institution of learning.

The whole thesis is a result of my original research work. Wherever contributions of others are involved, they are clearly acknowledged and referenced.

Lemun Yatu Nuhu

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Publications

The following listed publications have been produced as a direct or indirect result of the research presented in this thesis: -

Journal Papers:

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Papers in Refereed Conference proceeding:

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Abstract

Entrepreneurship has gained global approbation as a vital tool for facilitating economic development (Taylor & Plummer, 2003). In most developed and developing countries, it trendy to view entrepreneurship as the remedy for decaying and deteriorating economic activities (Matlay, 2001). Developing economies face enormous challenges with high levels of unemployment among the youth, especially university graduates, due to the saturation in the labour market and also the fewer job openings that exist in the labour market. For similar reasons, entrepreneurship education has become an essential component of the new curriculum within the education system at all levels (Primary, secondary and tertiary level) especially in transition economies (Jones, 2019; Pulka et al., 2015; Li and Matlay, 2005; Li et al., 2003). Entrepreneurship education is widely believed to be playing a significant role in developing employability skills among students and in developing the needed skills and attitude for entrepreneurial venturing (Ahmed et al., 2020; Towers et al., 2020).

While the number of entrepreneurship education programmes is growing, the impact of such programs is under-investigated. Existing studies portray an unclear picture of the impact of entrepreneurship education; hence, the growing interest in impact study in this area (Nabi et al., 2017). This thesis contributes to an understanding of the impact of entrepreneurship education on developing the entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions of university students in the context of a developing country (Nigeria).

This study utilised a cross-sectional and mixed-method approach in exploring the entrepreneurial attitudes (EA) that are required of entrepreneurs. It assesses how well the Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in emerging economies (Nigeria) develop these EAs among students. The research also seeks to establish whether any link exists between the entrepreneurial attitudes developed by the students and their

entrepreneurial intention. It utilises a pragmatic research philosophy, in which quantitative and qualitative data were collected using survey strategy through questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews to address the different levels of the study.

The result of the qualitative research in the first phase of the study revealed some of the challenges of entrepreneurship education in Nigerian higher education, alongside the tough nature of the Nigerian context for entrepreneurial venturing. It equally revealed some of the entrepreneurial attitudes that are essential and fundamental for entrepreneurial venturing and survival within the chosen research context. One of the essential points worthy of note in the qualitative findings of the study is the mismatch between the views of the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators. Their views differ on the essential entrepreneurial attitudes that are required for business venturing in the Nigerian context. Equally, the research established that both the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators show disbelief in the effectiveness of the HEIs in delivering the expected outcomes of EEd.

The second phase of the study involved collecting quantitative data from students across selected higher education institutions in Nigeria. The findings from this study revealed an insignificant impact of entrepreneurship education on the entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions of the students. More specifically, the result of the survey does not suggest any significant difference in the entrepreneurial attitude of the students when first and final year student are compared except for one of the attitudinal dimensions, achievement motivation which showed a variance in the score between the first and final year students. In other words, the finding shows that the number of years spent in an entrepreneurship programme in a Nigerian HEIs contributes little or nothing to improving students’ attitude towards entrepreneurship. This has profound policy implications giving that students in their final year on an entrepreneurship program do not have a well-developed an attitude towards entrepreneurship; that is, they do not differ from the students who are in their first year. Which means, the entrepreneurship programme has not helped them towards having a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship.

In terms of contribution to knowledge in EEd, the study provides insight for entrepreneurs, policymakers, practitioners, researchers, and educators, by providing a clearer view and a more in-depth understanding of the issues related to entrepreneurship education within higher education. From a practical point of view, the findings of the study provide recommendations on how entrepreneurship education programmes can be made more effective in developing the entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions of the students. The thesis overall, answers some of the questions that researchers have been raising and the calls for future research on the impact of entrepreneurship education with a specific focus on contextual uniqueness, and how EEd could be more effective in delivering its expected outcome (Liu et al., 2019; San-Martín et al., 2019).

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INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY.

1.1 Introduction:

Entrepreneurship is increasingly gaining global acknowledgement as an essential catalyst for expediting economic development (Taylor & Plummer, 2003). In most countries of the world, including both developed and developing economies, it has become fashionable to view entrepreneurship as the panacea for the decline and deterioration in economic activities (Matlay, 2001). It plays a vital role in the economic prosperity and social stability of many developed countries. Developing economies face massive challenges with high levels of unemployment among their youth, especially university graduates due to the saturation in the labour market and also the fewer job openings that are in the labour market (Longe, 2017). For similar reasons, entrepreneurship education has become a crucial component of the new curriculum in higher education institutions, especially in these economies in transition (Pulka et al., 2015; Li and Matlay, 2005; Li *et al.*, 2003).

Entrepreneurship education (EEd) is progressively acknowledged as the most effective way of facilitating the transition of a rising graduate population from education to work (Santos, et al., 2019; Nwokolo et al., 2017; Lackéus & Middleton, 2015). Not surprisingly, this topic has showed itself to the top of the political agenda and has become a high priority element of public policy throughout the industrially developed and developing world respectively (Luthje and Franke, 2003; Katz, 2003; Matlay, 2005). With the benefit of entrepreneurship education, schools and other educational institutions are able to increase the awareness of entrepreneurship as a career choice, encourage young people's entrepreneurial spirit, support the development of their entrepreneurial skills and attitude and also influence entrepreneurial intention and actual entrepreneurial behaviour and action (Chiu, 2012; QAA, 2012; 2018; Matlay, 2005; Greene & Saridakis, 2007).

Entrepreneurship education seeks to produce graduates with the attitude and the mindset to come up with original entrepreneurial ideas in response to identified needs and gaps in society, with the capability to act on them (QAA, 2018; Shaver & Commarmond, 2019). In short, having an idea and making it happen. The graduate ought to be proficient in recognizing opportunities and developing ventures, by setting up new businesses or developing and growing part of an existing venture. The EEd program focuses on getting students ready to apply their enterprising disposition and attributes to a range of diverse contexts, including new or existing businesses, charities, non-governmental organisations, the public sector, and social enterprises (Quality Assurance Agency (QAA), 2012). Importantly, entrepreneurship education programs are widely recognised and referenced as making a difference in achieving this process (World Economic Forum, 2009). However, in moving it further beyond the traditional business model, it needs to be well structured and appropriately designed to deliver effective outcome (Gibb, 2002; Gibb, 2005).

The Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) for higher education UK, captures the focus of entrepreneurship education as being centred on equipping students and graduates to develop their overall effectiveness beyond the educational setting. Entrepreneurial effectiveness is attained by developing 'enterprise awareness, entrepreneurial attitude and capability', which are then applied for effective performance or outcome (QAA, 2012; 2018). This model is essential in this research as it outlines the various potential stages or steps that a student will need to follow in their development as an effective entrepreneur or an 'entrepreneurial graduate'. Though some of the stages outlined by the model are not as well developed and established in some societies like it is the case in other societies. Nabi & Liñán (2011) recommended that advancing research in the context of developing countries make a significant contribution in terms of expanding understanding and shedding more light on the issues emerging around graduate entrepreneurial intentions.

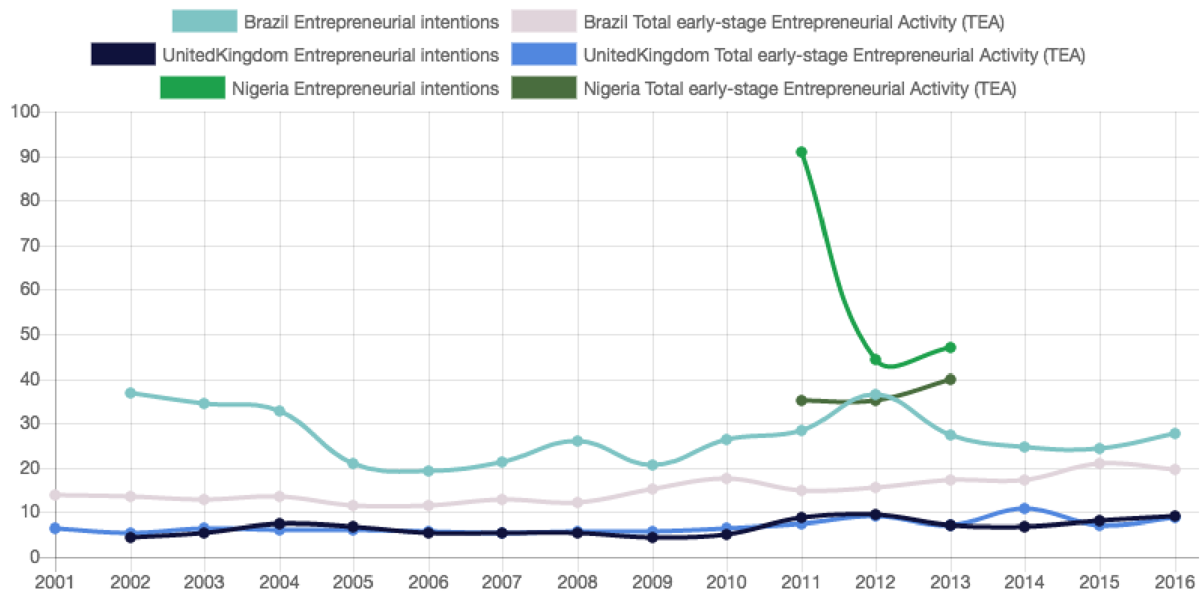
Social psychology literature and research have demonstrated support on the effect of attitudes on behaviour and intention (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Krueger, 1993; Krueger & Brazeal, 1994; Bird, 1995). Within this research paradigm, any method or style that develops students' attitudes has more significant implications for business education than just skills acquisition. Attitudes are open to change and can be influenced by educators and the education setting and by an environment that fosters entrepreneurial activity (Florin et al., 2007).

The context of the research is Nigeria; It is the largest economy in Africa, with 2018 GDP of USD 397.27 billion (World Bank, 2019). As the 7th most populated country globally and the largest within the continent, the economy enjoys favourable demographics, with a population of 187 million, of which 54% are within the 15-64 years age bracket, and 27% of these are young people (PwC, 2016; CIA, 2020). Nigeria could be classed as a frontier economy or an emerging market, as it falls under the category of economies or countries which are more developed than the least developing economy, but too small, risky, or illiquid to be generally considered an emerged market (Berger, 2012; Speidell, 2017). Guerrero (2013) describe countries like Nigeria as a frontier economy; typically characterised by a combination of abundant natural resources and low labour costs. Principally, such frontier markets are increasingly beginning to consolidate as a real alternative to developing economies.

Despite all of the potential that the country presents, it is beleaguered with problems that are very commonplace and typical of the characteristics of most frontier economies, ranging from high poverty rate, unemployment and increasing crime rate.

1.2. Research Background

Nigeria is an emerging economy in the continent of Africa, blessed with both human and material resources which the economy can use as leverage for its growth and development. However, the reverse is the reality. With over 50 years of political independence, the majority of Nigerians are still living below the poverty line, despite its abundant natural resources. Similarly, Nigerian Universities are producing a large number of graduates at the end of every academic session that cannot be catered for by the existing labour market (Garba, 2010). The reality of the current Nigerian labour market is such that there are more graduates pursuing job vacancies than the actual jobs available (Vanguard, 2019). This phenomenon accounted for the fluctuating unemployment rate among the graduate population- from 40.3% in 2012 and 2016 to 36.5% in 2018 (Akinyemi, et al., 2012; Jacob & Ehijiele, 2019; Stutern, 2016).



Source: (GEM, 2016): Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Attitudes

Entrepreneurship is increasingly appraised and appreciated as a way forward for coping with socio-economic ills and realities (Sofoluwe et al., 2013). Countless research contributions like (Nelson, 1977; Sofoluwe et al., 2013; Fayolle et al., 2019) viewed entrepreneurship education as an essential factor and means for employment generation, and also economic growth is encouraged, especially within the context of developing countries. Research shows tangible evidence of the increasing interest and commitment of stakeholders in fostering entrepreneurship as an alternative career option, especially in developed countries like the US, the UK, and Canada. However, when compared with developing countries, in terms of utilising the benefits of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education in steering entrepreneurial activities and economic development; research evidence demonstrates that the emerging economies still have a long way to go, (Bruton et al., 2007; Smallbone et al., 2014).

1.3 Conceptual Clarification

1.3.1. Entrepreneurship

No single business subject has garnered more attention over the past few decades than entrepreneurship has (Desman, 2008). However, the terms entrepreneur and entrepreneurship, like most terms or concepts in humanities, have no unanimously accepted definition. Gibb (2005) alluded to the assertion that despite the colossal increase in the academic literature over the past decade in entrepreneurship- progress in advancing and developing lucid concepts of entrepreneurship, has been relatively slow.

The person who initiates and takes a risk or embarks on an entrepreneurial venturing to make some gains is called an 'Entrepreneur'. The term entrepreneurship can be encapsulated as an attempt to profit by taking risk and initiative. In some cases, entrepreneurs are perceived as agents of change and the engine for stimulating growth in an economy. They can also act as accelerators in generating, disseminating, and applying innovative ideas for a greater good in society (OECD, 198). In other words, entrepreneurship is more about finding opportunities and developing these opportunities for the purpose of creating value (Danka, 2000). While the definition may be limited in terms of scope, however, it emphasises two cardinal attributes that describe the entrepreneur, these include, a high degree of initiative and the willingness to take a high degree of risk with the hope of gain in it (Burns, 2001). It is unobjectionable to assert that entrepreneurship was initially skewed more towards new venture creation and growth (Gibb, 2005); for example, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor encapsulates it as an attempt to create a new business enterprise or to expand an existing business by an individual, a team of individuals or an established business (Matlay et al., 2010). However, the definition and the focus of entrepreneurship is increasingly becoming multifaceted- extending beyond just new venture creation.

The concept (entrepreneurship) is increasingly moving away from the limited perspective of business creation to embracing other diverse constructs into its paradigm. Gibb (2000) postulates a broader perspective and definition which relates to ways in which people in all kinds of organisations behave in a certain way that allows them to either cope with or take advantage of uncertainties and complexities within and around them. This definition embodies different aspects, including ways of doing things, ways of seeing things, ways of feeling things, ways of communicating things, and ways of learning things. Similarly, the Northern Ireland government's "Entrepreneurship and Education Action Plan" also advanced a broader perspective in defining the concept. It considered entrepreneurship to be the ability of an individual to acquire a range of essential skills and attributes, to make a unique, innovative and creative contribution in the world of work- whether in employment or self-employment" (Matlay et al., 2010). By extension, Stevenson et al., (1983) advanced further that the pursuit of these opportunities ought not necessarily to be within the resources that are available to the entrepreneur but also resources currently beyond their control. In other words, the definition suggests a demonstration of a highly innovative process for operating with little or no resources.

The explanations mentioned above, on the concept of entrepreneurship, tally with the assertion that, right up to 1960- the definitions attributed to entrepreneurship are more along the lines of economic theory (Desman, 2008). However, after 1960, the attention and focus expanded beyond just an economic theory. Entrepreneurship became an array of personality traits (McClelland, 1961; Collins & Moore, 1970) and the resultant effect of a series of developmental experiences (Di Vries, 1980; Zaleznik, 1991). The entrepreneur was a type of individual who exhibited specific attitudes and behaviours (Bird, 1992; Timmons, 1994) on the one hand, and on the other, represented a facilitator who influenced others to achieve their desired ends or goals (Byers et al., 1997). Entrepreneurship had become both an individual and a social activity. Regarding a person, the term is often used to describe an entrepreneurial individual as mentioned earlier as an entrepreneur.

A review of the existing literature by Spiteri et al. (2014) identified and outlined five categories of definitions that are ascribed to the concept. The first category pinpoints the issue of risk-taking as a critical attribute of an entrepreneur. For example, Palmer (1971) vies that the ability to take, correctly interpret and adopt measures to minimise such risk defines a successful entrepreneur. In other words, without it, the entrepreneurial individual will be equivocal- without the tendency and temerity for risk-taking and mitigation. The second category involves the coordination of the factors of production. Say (2001), for example, posits that the role of an entrepreneur is to coordinate resources or factors of production in order to expedite economic development and growth.

Similarly, Stevenson (1983) alluded to the point that, the pursuit of opportunity which in most contexts defines entrepreneurship, is beyond the resources currently controlled by the entrepreneur- meaning the entrepreneur is saddled with the task of 'thinking out of the box' to figure out how best to coordinate resources for the best advantage. The third category highlights the personality traits of an entrepreneur, which, in some contexts, is referred to as entrepreneurial behaviour. Kirby (2003), for example, is one of the contributors on the behavioural side of entrepreneurship- he outlines the essential personality traits of an entrepreneur like the locus of control and creativity. A fourth category look at entrepreneurship by distinguishing entrepreneurial roles from managerial roles. For example, Hartman (1959) differentiates an entrepreneur from a manager by stating that the entrepreneur is the source of all formal authority (Hartman, 1959).

Definitively, other descriptions of the concept tend to concentrate on the creativity and skills of an entrepreneur. Undeniably, creativity is highly linked to entrepreneurship. Schumpeter (1961) remarked that an entrepreneur is differentiated from other business entities/individuals through the entrepreneur's ability to produce or invent something innovative that delivers a shift in markets and wealth creation. Collins and Moore (1970) opined that innovation is a critical element in entrepreneurship. Considering the above, the following description of an entrepreneur is provided. An entrepreneur is an individual that generates innovative ideas, creates new markets, and/or alters present markets resulting in the enhancement of wealth. The goals and action-oriented attitude of the entrepreneur lead to the administration and utilisation of the factors of production. Such administration efforts ensure the implementation of the creative ideas developed, and the mitigation of the risks pertinent to such ideas (Spiteri & Maringe, 2014).

1.3.2. Entrepreneurship education

Governments around the world are seeking to create entrepreneurial economies, where competitiveness and growth can flourish, and innovation and creativity can propel new ways to improve the social and economic well-being of their people (Garavan & O'Cinneide, 1994). Entrepreneurship Education (EEd) is pivotal to such an agenda. It facilitates the building of an entrepreneurial attitude and the honing of a mindset and skills that will be essential for entrepreneurial venturing. Enterprising graduates are more likely to find and lead dynamic new ventures and transform any organisation they join or manage. Defining the term EEd, although it is not commonplace to have a universally accepted definition or description for what EEd is and represents, Fayolle (2007) gave a broader definition that covers different situations, aims, methods and teaching approaches, with a focus not just limited to the immediate creation of a new business. Other definitions like Lawan and Gujrati (2019), captures it as any pedagogical programme or process of education for entrepreneurial attitudes, and skills, which requires developing a variety of personal qualities that could increase entrepreneurial activities. The interventions approach sees EEd as a deliberate and purposeful intervention of an education system, into the life of its students, with the objective of empowering them to be able to survive in a business world full of uncertainties while also adding value. The focus of this form of intervention is primarily an action orientation, which embodies a multi-dimensional student-teacher approach. Entrepreneurship education builds and accelerates the entrepreneurial process, providing all the means needed for starting up new ventures (Postigo and Tomborini, 2002).

1.4 Research problem

Whilst the literature shows extensive research in entrepreneurship education experience, and its attendant impact in developing the entrepreneurial attitude of students in the context of developed economies (Ede et al., 1998; Packham et al., 2010; Fayolle & Gailly, 2015), very little has been done comprehensively regarding the context of an emerging economy like Nigeria (Tende, 2014; Yatu et al., 2018). Moreso, there is a wide evidence from several studies (Hussain, et al., 2010; (Nabi & Liñán, 2011) suggesting that contextual differences and peculiarities could influence the dynamics of the impact of EEd on students in a learning environment (Akinbola, et al., 2020; and Mbeteh, 2018).

Over the years, Nigeria has witnessed a series of entrepreneurial initiatives, programs, and policy implementation around EEd, intending to promote entrepreneurial activities and boost overall economic development. For example, the federal government through the ministry of education mandated the incorporation and teaching of entrepreneurship in schools at all levels (Inyang & Enuoh, 2009; Oghojafor et al., 2011; Akpan et al., 2012; Aladekomo, 2004). However, there is a dearth of research evidence that assesses the impact and success of these policies and initiatives with regards to shaping the attitude of students for more entrepreneurial behaviour and outcome (Pulka et al., 2015). As such, this study utilises a mixed-method design in exploring these areas.

Despite the ceaseless attention shift in Nigeria towards EEd in tertiary institutions, which is commonly and widely seen as the bedrock for job creation and overall economic development (Arogundade, 2011), the HEIs in Nigeria that turns out a large number of students from over 365 tertiary institutions, have not achieved much success in developing the entrepreneurial attitude of the student. At best what it delivers is- ‘learning about entrepreneurship’ (Entrepreneurship awareness) and not so much of ‘learning for entrepreneurship (enterprising attitude) (QAA, 2012, 2018; Yatu et al., 2018).

The findings of several studies, for example, Uzoma et al. (2015) and Amuda, et al., (2019) whose focus assesses the objectives of EEd programme in Nigerian universities, suggest that EEd in Nigeria equips graduates with the required knowledge and some skill for entrepreneurial venturing. However, they lack the support system or after school ‘graduate resources’ that will facilitate the nurturing of their ideas and bringing it to reality. While the skills are essential, having the attitude is fundamental, as it would trigger a higher level of motivation and inspiration for independence, creativity, innovativeness, and risk taking-which are very core individual entrepreneurial attitudes for entrepreneurial venturing and expedition (Bolton & Lane, 2012). Hence, it is worthwhile and needful to evaluate the impact of EEd in higher education on developing the entrepreneurial attitude of graduates on a large scale; with the ultimate aim of encouraging and promoting entrepreneurship effectiveness (Ojeifo, 2012). Yatu et al. (2018) highlighted a dearth of rigorous research that explores Nigerian entrepreneurship education; after completing a systematic literature review, the conclusion of the study called for rigorous research in this field.

Additionally, an all-encompassing literature review equally revealed a dearth of research contribution in the area of stakeholder involvement in shaping the EEd process within the Nigerian context. This gap is in tandem with a series of studies (Ikebuaku & Dinbabo, 2018; Agwu et al., 2017), whose findings and conclusions made a call for research investigations in the entrepreneurship education process, which involves stakeholders contributing in shaping the EEd process from multifaceted angles (Gianiodis & Meek, 2019).

1.5. Research Questions

In carrying out a full-scale study into the problems outlined above, four fundamental questions are set out to guide the research as shown below.

1. What entrepreneurial attitudes are perceived by Nigerian entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators as being the most important for entrepreneurial venturing in Nigeria?
2. Which of the entrepreneurial attitudes are developed among students through the Nigerian HEIs?
3. Which entrepreneurial attitudes can predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of students?
4. How can entrepreneurship education in Nigeria be improved to be more effective in developing the required entrepreneurial attitudes and the entrepreneurial intention of graduates for the Nigerian context?

1.6 Research Aim and Objectives.

The research explores the perception of Entrepreneurs and Entrepreneurship educators (stakeholders) on the required entrepreneurial attitudes (EA) that are required for entrepreneurial venturing in Nigerian. It assesses how well the Nigerian Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) develop these EAs among students. Equally, it seeks to establish whether any link exists between the entrepreneurial attitudes developed by the students and their entrepreneurial intentions. From this exploration, it is also the aim of the study to make recommendations, as to how entrepreneurship education in Nigeria's HEIs can be improved in order to be more effective in producing entrepreneurial graduates, with the required entrepreneurial attitudes. In achieving the above-mentioned research aim, four specific and clear objectives are set out to guide the entire study.

Research Objectives:

The specific objectives include:

1. To explore the perception of Entrepreneurs and Entrepreneurship educators as to the entrepreneurial attitudes that are required of Nigerian entrepreneurs using a qualitative research approach.

2. To utilize a quantitative research approach in assessing which of the entrepreneurial attitudes are developed among students through the Nigerian HEI.
3. To determine which entrepreneurial attitudes developed from the current entrepreneurship education can predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of students.
4. To make recommendations for improving the effectiveness of entrepreneurship education in Nigeria.

1.7. Practical Justification of the Study

The economic importance of entrepreneurship in economic development has been recognised for several decades (Nelson, 1977; Schumpeter (1947). For example, Schumpeter, who is perhaps ascribed as the first principal economist to analyse the role of entrepreneurship in economic development, he ascribed innovation to the entrepreneur and describes entrepreneurship as the machine or engine that fuels economic development. He argued that "to study the entrepreneur is to study the central figure in modern economic history".

The Organisation for Economic Corporation and Development (OECD) has outlined some attendant socio-economic benefits of entrepreneurship: an active approach that guarantees practical entrepreneurship would help with combating unemployment and poverty, thereby eliminating dependence and passivity (Oluremi et al., 2016; OECD, 1998).

The opportunity that entrepreneurship offers for problem-solving helps in solving countless problems within the economy. Tying well with the viewpoint of Allan Gibbs on the role of entrepreneurship in society, and perhaps the fundamental reason for its current political attractiveness, is that, it provides a prospect and an opportunity for individuals and organisations of all backgrounds and in all works of life, to deal with, provoke, and perhaps enjoy an increasingly complex and uncertain world (Gibbs, 2005).

More specifically, throughout Africa and indeed, other emerging markets- graduate unemployment, alternative career options, enterprise creation and entrepreneurship education are significant areas of policy interests, attracting so much attention and investment for improvement. Despite that, there is still yet a dearth of research in some of these areas. This research will contribute to the relatively limited empirical research that has been conducted in this area in Nigeria, as observed by Ojeifo (2012) and Ayatse, (2013). Additionally, a vital benefit of the study will be a significant contribution to the currently existing knowledge in the fields of entrepreneurship education and the development of entrepreneurial attitude among graduates, in frontier economies like Nigeria. In other words, the study challenges the existing model or paradigm of entrepreneurship education and hopes to show how it can be improved and made more effective in developing graduates with the right entrepreneurial attitude for entrepreneurial venturing. Whilst the research equally contributes to developing and operationalising a survey instrument (questionnaire) that is specific to the context of an emerging economy like Nigeria, it further gives clarity as to the entrepreneurial attitudes that are key to the Nigerian context, and how these can be incorporated into the entrepreneurship development and training programme, to help encourage potential entrepreneurs to take actions beyond just their intention (Welter, 2011).

Furthermore, valuable insights and useful frameworks for entrepreneurship education will emanate from this study which will be beneficial to a variety of stakeholders, from- educators, education institutions, policymakers, graduates and entrepreneurs respectively (Oviawe, 2010).

In answering the research questions and satisfying the objectives for the study, the researcher devised a methodological framework that is deemed fit with the objectives of the study. The detailed research methodology is captured in chapter three.

1.8. Structure of the Study

The thesis is organized into eight chapters. Each chapter focuses on certain aspects of the study, and it is designed in a logical sequence with the aim of answering the research questions. Chapter one which is the introductory chapter provides a brief background of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education, alongside its importance and identifies the research problem. The chapter equally explains the aims and objectives; research questions; the scope of the study; and the significance and justification of the research.

Chapter 2 reviews the state of knowledge on entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education in general and more specifically within the Nigerian context. With the research problem in mind, the review explores the extent of research around the problem identified in chapter one, including identifying and narrowing the research questions. The chapter evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of the methods, which have been utilized in addressing similar problems. The review also aimed at unpacking understanding of the concept of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education, and at the same time attempts to x-ray the support system that is available for institutions and entrepreneurs in developing an entrepreneurial capacity in the economy. It is predicted that the review of the state of knowledge on entrepreneurship and more specifically, EEd, will provide some methodological and theoretical pointers for this study and clarify the identified research problem.

Chapter 3 presents the methodological constructs that are devised to answer the research problem and satisfy the objectives of the study. This chapter equally identifies the philosophical standing or position of the study, which is then followed by the methodological strategy employed in the study. Mixed method was deemed to be the most appropriate approach for the study; hence, the chapter also explains how it will be applied at the various stages of the research process. At the same time, a model of the analytical framework is equally presented and explained.

Chapter 4 introduces the first phase of the research, which centres on the qualitative aspect of the study- specifically; the chapter presents and discusses the analysis of data collected through interviews with entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators. Within this chapter, themes emerged from the analysis that formed the basis for the second phase of the study.

The fifth chapter focuses on operationalising a survey instrument (questionnaire) to be used in the second phase of the study, which is the quantitative phase. The operationalisation process was achieved by integrating the themes that emerged from the qualitative study in chapter 4. In order words, preliminary analyses from the interviews were incorporated into the construction of the questionnaire. Much effort was expended in ensuring that the data collected was valid and reliable.

After identifying the higher education institutions to be included in the study and completing the questionnaire operationalisation for the study, the next stage was the collection and analysis of data, which is captured in Chapter 6.

Chapter 6 recounts the activities involved in the quantitative data collection process, which began with the pilot exercise. The pilot exercise was deemed necessary, and an initiative to ascertain whether there was any aspect of the questionnaire that needed reviewing before the actual questionnaire was administered to the research population. The chapter captures the quantitative data collected and the analysis.

Chapter 7 provides a detailed discussion on the findings of the study from the data analysis in the preceding chapter. The quantitative findings are interpreted in a way that equally integrates the findings from the qualitative research in chapter 4. The implications of these are equally detailed in the chapter. Additionally, the chapter also looked to spotting the new insights that may emanate from the study, which hitherto may not have been uncovered in the EEd literature.

Finally, Chapter 8 provides a conclusion that summarises the thesis. Significant findings under each research question are identified and discussed; and in the process, the contribution of the thesis to the state of knowledge in EEd is explicated. The chapter ends with the limitations and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2:

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

There is clearly a spelt-out interconnectedness between entrepreneurship and education (Belitski et al., 2017; Nabi et al., 2017; Matlay, 2008). While entrepreneurship is widely regarded and accepted as the engine that fuels innovation, employment generation and economic growth, equally, education has the power to foster the entrepreneurial capacity needed for entrepreneurial activities. Hence, the need to leverage the opportunities presented by entrepreneurship education as a means of developing the required human capital. The opportunity equips individuals with the skills and attitudes for entrepreneurial behaviour in various areas and context of endeavour.

This section (2.2) starts with a discussion on the nature and drive of entrepreneurship, its historical origin and growth, the role (importance) it plays in economic development. Following that, section 2.4 discusses the literature on EEd in general, which is the main crux of the thesis- with specific emphasis on the meaning of EEd, contextual difference, mode of delivery and also how the outcome is being measured. Given the context under which the research is being conducted (Nigeria) – section 2.5 reviews EEd within the Nigerian context- its origin, policy initiatives and how entrepreneurship development takes place within the Nigerian HEI. The ensuing sections (2.6 and 2.7) look at the variables or constructs that are commonly used in Entrepreneurship education literature, such as entrepreneurial intention, attitude and the attributes associated with an entrepreneurial attitude, alongside the attendant importance of an entrepreneurial attitude. Similarly, section 2.8 displays the conceptual and theoretical framework that is being adopted to underpin the research being carried out.

2.2. Understanding the Nature and Drive of Entrepreneurship.

Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) in a multi-country survey, have made stout inputs to the understanding of the concept and nature of entrepreneurship and how the various types of entrepreneurship have an effect on economic growth across different countries and regions (Xavier et al., 2013). Entrepreneurship research, especially in emerging economies enjoys the distinction or categorisation related to economic development as given by the GEM consortium; these are opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurship (Desai, 2009). Another conventional categorisation is formal and informal entrepreneurship (Williams & Nadin, 2010). These distinctions are often used interchangeably, and in some cases the descriptions are related to the motivation and drive of the entrepreneur in question, hence the use of terminlogies like the pull and push factors.

When exploring the nature and the motivation of entrepreneurs for entrepreneurial venturing, not just in the past century but also in the current 21st century, it is common place to situate it within the the milieu of varied driving forces or factors (Gódány, et al., 2021). The pull and push factors are widely used in literature to drive home the point on the driving force and the motivation of entrepreneurs. It is Important to state that both the pull and the push factors act as motivators depending on the context and the individual entrepreneur (Jim-Suleiman, et al., 2021). While the pull factors are often associated with inherent conditions like the personality trait, personal background, available opportunity and professional experience, the push factors on the other hand are the motivators that are external to an individual or an organisation which are usually unpleasant experiences or situations in some instanced, for example- early retirement due to disability in service, post-retirement economic hardship, business environment, and government regulations (Uddin, et al., 2014). These and many other life incidences could be the fuel or catalyse that pushes an individual to begin an entrepreneurial venture.

The push–pull factors are the longest standing conceptualization of entrepreneurial motivation in entrepreneurship literature, it measures the extent of necessity and or opportunity that drives and motivate an individual to become an entrepreneur (Amorós, et al., 2021). The opportunity-driven entrepreneurship has “pull factors” as its driving force. It is often a by-product of a more active choice of an entrepreneurially minded individual attempting to take advantage of the unexploited or underexploited opportunity for profiteering (profit-making). This type of entrepreneurship is directly related to the Schumpeterian conception of ‘opportunity recognition and utilisation’. Because of the ‘pull’ effect associated with the type. In this case, there is more likelihood of a high contribution to economic growth (Prasetyo, 2019). Conversely, the necessity-driven entrepreneurship, on the other hand is much more informed by “push-factors”- in other words, since entrepreneurs are generally pushed into entrepreneurial activities (self-employment, innovation etc.), the underlining motivation is quite different (Amit & Muller, 1995; Dawson & Henley, 2012). Bell (2012) argued that because of the subsistent motivation or reason for entrepreneurial venturing, they usually operate on a small scale and involve simple business activities, as such, their contribution to economic growth is generally limited. Developing economies of the world fit perfectly well with this category or description (Gódány, et al., 2021).

The other categorisation is formal and informal entrepreneurship. The formal type is the one that operates within a legal framework of an economy. Usually, the entrepreneurs are more skilled at running a business and more likely to have access to external finance. The informal entrepreneurship, on the other hand, operates typically outside the legal framework of the economy, and more often than not, without any formal business registration. Even though the entrepreneurial informality may have different degrees of variation, in the sense that both types from time-to-time default into the practice that is unlike its expected nature. Williams & Nadin (2010) are of the opinion that the incident of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial informality is more associated with developing economies, most of whom are necessity-driven. While the research shows different positions or views on these different types, in terms of advantages and disadvantages; La Porta & Shleifer (2008) who are more dualist in their approach- believe that the coexistence of each of the types within an economy is inevitable with each contributing its quota to economic growth but in different degrees.

While entrepreneurship is continuously perceived as providing multifaceted opportunities for financial freedom, job creation, innovation, and economic growth; however, Ekore & Okekeocha (2012) are of the view that, despite the attendant rewards that come with entrepreneurial venturing, the number of individuals known to consider a career in entrepreneurship, even when the financial support available is largely limited, this also includes some university graduates. This implies that the accessibility or availability of resources to start an income-generating venture and the possible attendant benefits are not necessarily sufficient to get an individual into entrepreneurship. Operationally, the meaning of the concept entrepreneurship transcends just starting up a business as rightly observed by (Gibb, 2005). It entails opportunity-seeking with a corresponding behaviour or action towards taking full advantage, with the ultimate goal of providing value for all. The defination of entrepreneurship expands to include a mindset or a way of thinking that results to value creation or problem solving.

The historical background of the growth of entrepreneurship will beam a bright light and cast a fresh understanding of the concept of entrepreneurship and the research generally.

2.3 History and Growth of Entrepreneurship Practice

Tracing the origin of entrepreneurship may seem a very daunting task, as there is no specific epoch that entrepreneurship could be solely attributed or ascribed to. While the era of the industrial revolution is often associated with the origin of entrepreneurship, the work of Casson & Casson (2014) introduces evidence of entrepreneurial endeavours from a considerably earlier date - the medieval period. Between 1250 and 1500, the church merchants, and members of the royal court all participated in pursuits that displayed the entrepreneurial characteristics of innovation, risk-taking and judgment. Even though the central thesis of this review is far from a historical genealogy of entrepreneurship, it is nevertheless essential to have a glimpse of its historical precedence.

Entrepreneurship has developed progressively over the years but has indeed emerged as an academic discipline in the latter part of the 1990s. The field has been dominated by researchers from Anglo-Saxon countries over the past 20 years, with particularly strong representations from the US, UK, and Canada (Meyer et al., 2014).

Beyond the historical suggestions and realities of the concept of entrepreneurship, there are concerted working sets of assumptions, in other words, theories that seek to espouse and advance further knowledge and understanding of the entrepreneurship idea. While some have a more extensive subscription and support as an acceptable body of knowledge, there are still ongoing debates for a lot more.

Whatever the different theoretical extrapolations or suggestions that try to advance explanations and insight on entrepreneurship and its different aspects- there is a wider consensus on its importance and contributions to economic development (Kuratko & Hodgetts, 1998; Gibb, 2005; van-Praag, 1999; & Matlay, 2008).

The link between entrepreneurship and education is widely established and still generates interest among researchers. Fayolle and Gailly (2006), observed that a strong influence and incentives among students to choose or opt for an entrepreneurial career are the presence of entrepreneurship education programmes being offered and the positive image of venture creators within the educational institutions. Evidently, a longitudinal study in Columbia on the impact of entrepreneurship education shows that the highest entrepreneurship rates were achieved in the universities that had invested the most in entrepreneurship guidance and education for their students, Varela and Jimenez (2001). What then is entrepreneurship education?

2.4 Entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurship education has been widely acknowledged and captured as playing a important role in enhancing the entrepreneurial skills, attitudes and intention of individuals in different contexts- especially among students (Uyogi, 2015; Matlay, 2005; European Commission, 2012; Consortium, 2004; Pittaway & Cope, 2007). Vesper and Gartner (1997) reported that the period from 1970 ushered in an incomparably rapid increase in the number of universities offering entrepreneurship courses; from just a few in 1970 to more than 400 in 1995. Since then, the number has been increasing exponentially (Rasmussena & Sørheimb, 2006).

Global Entrepreneurship Monitors-GEM (2010:8) define entrepreneurship education as a process of “building knowledge and skills either “about” or “for the purpose of” entrepreneurship generally, as part of recognised education programs at primary, secondary or tertiary-level educational institutions.” Researchers like Nabi & Holden (2008) observe that there is a propensity for a debate or variance in opinion on the concept of “enterprise” and “entrepreneurship”, and similarly between “enterprise” and “entrepreneurship” education. Whilst enterprise (and enterprise education) are often used in a wide sense to refer to a set of life skills for students (e.g. coping with uncertainty) representing an “enterprise for life” approach that most students should possess, regardless of discipline as reflected in university-wide enterprise agendas for lifelong learning (QAA, 2018). Gibb’s (2005) interpretation of this is along the path of inclusivity. In other words, it provides “opportunities in organisations of all kinds and in all walks of life”. Entrepreneurship (and entrepreneurship education) on the other hand, are narrower in their interpretation. In other words, they amplify specific students/graduates who are in the process of starting up or trying to start up their businesses and are therefore learning skills for starting up this venture (Nabi & Holden, 2008). However, other perspectives, like the guidance for UK higher education providers on EEd, suggests that EEd does not exclusively lead to venture creation (QAA, 2018).

Entrepreneurship education is widely recognised as an essential or necessary condition for the entrepreneurial journey or process towards producing entrepreneurial graduates. Developing entrepreneurial graduates is, therefore, essential to our future success (Gibb, 2005). Universities and other Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) are ideally placed to expose students to the environment and experience which foster entrepreneurial intention and activities consequently. However, it is not sufficient to develop entrepreneurial intention for subsequent action. An entrepreneurial attitude is recognised as an essential variable that enables students to accumulate the pool of assets required to engage in entrepreneurial process (Matlay, 2008; Souitarisa et al., 2007; Solesvik et al., 2013). The position of this investigation is that developing an entrepreneurial attitude is highly crucial in the entrepreneurial journey of a student, even though the literature suggests that among other variables, it seems under-researched.

Interestingly, Robinson et al. (1991) put forward an argument that ties with the theoretical standing of planned behaviour- claiming that the attitude construct or model of entrepreneurship has implications for entrepreneurship education programmes, as attitudes are open to change and can be influenced by educators and practitioners.

Entrepreneurship education could be seen as having different elements, which include- knowledge, skills and attitude. Of these elements, the actualisation of them might include the conventional process of lecture, experiential learning, and exposure to other exogenous variables that could help shape the entire process.

It is a commonly held view that entrepreneurship education is an imperative that would make a positive contribution to improving the entrepreneurship orientation of people, leading to the acquisition of skills, attitude, creativity, confidence, drive and courage, in order to create employment for the self and others (Onuma, 2016; Ikebuaku & Dinbabo, 2018).

EEd has come to symbolize all forms of knowledge delivery that seek to inspire individuals to create real wealth in the economic sector, thereby furthering the cause of development of the nation. Bassey and Archibong (2005), maintained that the objective of entrepreneurship education is meant to empower graduates regardless of their areas of specialisation, with skills that will enable them to engage in productive economic activities. This is not just when they are unable to get conventional jobs in the public or private sector, but also with them pursuing it as a viable alternative career option. In other words, it is a process of reorientation from job seekers to job creators.

Policymakers also hold a strong believe that expanded levels of entrepreneurship can be achieved via education (European Commission, 2006; Margherita et al., 2016) and especially entrepreneurship education. Therefore, such education is promoted and implemented into school curricula in many of the European member countries (European Commission, 2006) and the United States (Kuratko, 2005). A fundamental assumption underlying these programs is that entrepreneurship skills can be taught and are not fixed personal characteristics. Though research findings, for example, the work of Oosterbeek et al. (2010) on the impact of entrepreneurship education program on entrepreneurship skills and motivation of college students, did not find any significant effect on intention and self-assessed entrepreneurial skills; however, the outcome of other studies established a significant relationship between EEd with other variables like employability, business performance, and entrepreneurial awareness (Bell, 2016; Ekpoh & Edet, 2011; Karlan and Valdivia). EEd seems to be the most talked-about construct with regards to entrepreneurship and developing entrepreneurial graduates.

Operationally, the definition of EEd in this research covers multifaceted situations, aims, methods and teaching approaches. In a broader sense, EEd encapsulates any pedagogical program or process of education that targets the development of skills and attitude of an individual, while also developing certain qualities of the individual for entrepreneurial behaviour, not limited to just immediate business creation (Fayolle et al., 2006). From a transformational angle, EEd is regarded as a social transformation plan that leverages the instrumentality of education, to change or influence the psyche and belief of the participants towards a vocation, employment or an activity that allows the creation of value- Santos et al. (2019) relate the term and the definition to a perspective of ‘empowerment’.

While the outcome of an EEd programme and the experience in producing entrepreneurial graduates with the skills and attitude required for exhibiting entrepreneurial behaviour is not entirely clear, as opined by Matlay (2008), understanding its overall importance will be highly essential.

2.4.1. Importance of Entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurship has arisen over the last two decades as debatably the most forceful economic influence the world has ever experienced (Urbano & Aparicio, 2019). With that growth comes a similar climb in the field of entrepreneurship education. The current growth and development in the curricula and programs devoted to entrepreneurship and new-venture creation have been remarkable. So also the number of colleges and universities that offer courses related to entrepreneurship has increased from a handful in the 1970s to over 1,600 in 2005 (Kuratko, 2005).

While studies in this area especially from the literature related to psychology have made significant contributions to some of the factors that stimulate entrepreneurial venturing, which has focused on a personality trait, (McGrath RG, 2000 and Almodóvar-González, et al., 2020), other studies have focused on antecedents and environmental influences. For example, Burns' work on entrepreneurship and small businesses (Burns 2001), acknowledges EEd as one of the precursor influences on individuals becoming new entrants to industry via self-employment. Well-constructed entrepreneurship programmes can enhance a better entrepreneurial outcome in the process.

Different contributors hail EEd as contributing to facilitating the accumulation of entrepreneurial intention and mindset among students (Neneh, 2012). While the debate surrounding whether entrepreneurship can be taught or learnt in university is still ongoing, there is an increasing consensus that some entrepreneurial skills can be taught. The literature suggests that different variables such as - genetics, location, family background, work experience and adequate education, could substantially enhance the probability of becoming an entrepreneur and even entrepreneurial success. Critically, many of the factors are unrelated to genetics and support the counter paradigm that "entrepreneurs are often made, not born (Garavan & O'Cinneide, 1994). EEd exposes students to environments and experiences that foster entrepreneurial intention, mindsets, and the behaviours and capabilities to deal with an increasingly complex and uncertain world (NCGE, 2008).

Despite the growing number of literature on the importance of EEd in fostering the entrepreneurial intention of students, there is generally little evidence to suggest that the outcome results in students becoming entrepreneurs (Souitarisa et al., 2007; Oosterbeek et al., 2010). The work of Oyyugi (2015) on the mediating effect of self-efficacy, found a link between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention among university students in Uganda- they argued in their work that self-efficacy is what strengthens the link between EEd and entrepreneurial intention. In other words, EEd enhances the development of individual self-efficacy.

In the work of Oosterbeek et al. (2010) on the impact of entrepreneurship education, it was observed that policymakers in Europe and the United States believe that more entrepreneurship is needed to reach higher levels of economic growth and innovation, which is also believed to be supported by EEd. Indeed, pragmatic research supports positive connections between entrepreneurial pursuit and economic outcomes such as economic growth and innovation (Van Praag and Versloot, 2007). Similarly, the increased attention paid to EEd across the world by policymakers and political decision-makers over the years could undoubtedly be linked to its recognised attendant importance as a possible solution to rising unemployment rates and as a recipe for economic prosperity. In other words, EEd helps with the process of shaping the experience of students to create a different reality in them, which is targeted at entrepreneurial pursuit or venturing. Garavan & O'Cinneide (1994) alluded to the point that the recognition of this is behind the steps taken by many countries in preparing new policy measures that support EEd and enterprise development.

2.4.2. Entrepreneurship Learning in HEI

Human capital elements such as education, experiences and specific knowledge have long been argued to be critical for entrepreneurial success (Elerta et al., 2014). Integrating entrepreneurship education at universities could take different forms or approaches as opined by Streeter et al. (2002). In their conceptual framework, they distinguish between two: first, there is the focused approach, and second, there is a unified or university-wide approach. While the focus model is exclusively situated for faculty students and staff in a single academic area, the unified model targets students outside the realms of one single school, to include those in other disciplines.

Even though the intended outcomes of EEd differ significantly in terms of agenda and contexts- measuring the efficiency with regards to delivering the intended outcome creates another heated debate. Reviews of entrepreneurship education programmes (Gorman et al., 1997; Casado et al., 2018 and Mamun et al., 2017) and courses (Fiet, 2001) show that there are little uniformity and considerable diversity regarding objectives, philosophy, content, pedagogy, and outcomes. In other words, there is a great disparity with little consensus regarding some of the issues mentioned above.

The justification for the inclusion of entrepreneurship curricula in universities is that it will support graduates in acquiring an improved understanding of entrepreneurship, and also prepare them with an entrepreneurial mindset and attitude for the world of work and prepare them to act as entrepreneurs and managers of new businesses (Gibb, 2005). Consequently, the objectives of entrepreneurship education as concisely presented by the European Union (2002) include: boosting students' awareness of self-employment as a career alternative (the central message is that you can become not only an employee but also an employer of labour). Similarly, the objective centres on promoting the development of personal qualities that are relevant to entrepreneurship, such as creativity, risk-taking and responsibility; and providing the technical and business skills that are needed in order to start a new venture". From the foregoing, it can be deduced that exposure of university students to entrepreneurial education will ginger-up entrepreneurial drive in students and if properly packaged, can be a significant factor in chronic unemployment reduction among graduates.

However, there are still arguments claiming that much of the entrepreneurship learning in HEIs is just merely a creation of awareness. Several studied like Katura & Dakung, (2014) in a review of the performance of entrepreneurship programmes and course materials, they found a significant incongruence between the course materials and activities associated with the teaching of entrepreneurship, and this is in relation to what is really experienced by entrepreneurs at point of launching their entrepreneurial venture. Similarly, acknowledging this kind of inherent reality, Fayolle and Klandt (2006) proposed that the focus and paradigm of entrepreneurship education and educators needs to change. The effort and focus need to be on shaping the culture, state of mind, behaviour and phenomenon involved in the entrepreneurial process, such as opportunity detection and appreciation (Rarick & Han, 2015).

The necessity for an entrepreneurial opportunity-focused mindset goes further than entrepreneurial vocation or a career, it includes a broader career viewpoint- for example, a recent New York Times article argued for a shift from traditional resume building to a more present-day approach to job creation. Equally, strategic management education has called for a mindset that requires a relentless focus on opportunities, questioning the dominant logic in the face of constant environmental changes. It has been detailed that numerous facets of this entrepreneurial perspective among women can be developed through educational experiences. Even though the results of Israel & Johnmark (2014) studies on the impact of EEd on developing mindset among female students at the University of Jos did not find a significant impact. However, The European Commission (2006) report is of the position that entrepreneurial behaviours, skills, and attributes, nurtured by well-designed pedagogies and exposure to experience, are essential components of being able to 'feel' what it is like to be entrepreneurial and are key to the creation of entrepreneurial values.

Gibb (2005) from experience, is of the opinion that whatever HEIs do in entrepreneurship teaching- there is rarely a link with any notion of developing personal behaviours, skills, and attributes; because the course development in the university context is overwhelmingly focused upon knowledge content and associated academic concepts (QAA, 2012,2018). As such, there is a need to address the imbalance that is inherent in entrepreneurship education. Stimulating entrepreneurial behaviour is an integral part of entrepreneurship learning, as observed by Gibbs (2002). However, most HEIs do not seem to set out precisely the desired behavioural attitudes to be supported, and even if they do, not many of them indicate clearly how it is proposed to develop them- except for a very few. Additionally, very little evidence demonstrates a clear linkage of various pedagogies to targeted entrepreneurial behaviours. In most programmes, the main teaching methods are lectures, cases, projects, and entrepreneur/stakeholder presentations, which may or may not be delivered in a manner designed to stimulate entrepreneurial behaviour. Gibb (1994), assert that the apparently major case method approach that is prevalent in some contexts can be an anti-entrepreneurial mode of teaching if its emphasis is upon rationale and analytical analysis rather than intuitive decision making and creative experiment.

The standard or yardstick for ascertaining what constitutes a high-quality Entrepreneurship education or programme is still very fluid and indeterminate (Vesper & Gartner, 1997). Additionally, EEd being an interventionist approach by HEIs does mean that measuring the outcome and the impact of EEd will be of immense value in tracking progress and performance. Whilst the literature has pointed out extensive efforts towards measuring and ascertaining the quality and outcome of what HEIs do in EEd, most of the studies are predominantly in the context of developed countries, with relatively limited studies in emerging-developing countries. In the UK for example, as indeed in the EU and its members' states, the key policy objective around entrepreneurship education centres on developing the entrepreneurial capacity of citizens and organisations, with a framework that can be used as a basis for the development of curricula and learning activities in institutions of learning. Ultimately the ambition is to foster entrepreneurship as a competence (Bacigalupo et al., 2016). This kind of framework sets the tone and the benchmark from which a series of impact studies on entrepreneurship education in that context stems from. The reverse is the case in the context of many developing countries like Nigeria- when measuring the impact of EEd; such frameworks are rarely available and largely under-researched (Gabadeen & Raimi, 2012).

2.4.3. Impact of Entrepreneurship Education

As young people progressively become the target of entrepreneurial and enterprise policy ideas, initiatives, and enterprise education in schools equally increases, so does the need to effectively assess the impact of these programs against their initial objectives. Though EEd ranks very highly on the policy agenda of most economies of the world, there is a dearth of available research which is rooted in assessing its impact (von Graevenitz et al., 2010).

Evaluating the impact of education and specifically, EEd is somewhat a daunting task, mainly due to the confusion as to what to actually measure and what criteria would be best suited for the measurement. McMullan & Gillin (1998) is of the opinion that only in the medium or long term can education be conveniently measured. As for EEd, there are different suggestions as to how the impact could be measured, for example, Kolvereid & Amo (2007), alluded to the position that there is a widely arrived consensus on 'start-up rate' as standard for measuring the success or impact of entrepreneurship education. Similarly, a longitudinal study, such as the one conducted by Varela & Jimenez (2001) provided evidence of a positive correlation between entrepreneurial training and guidance and actual entrepreneurship rates. While Klofsten (2002) also highlighted the significance of entrepreneurial education and training on actual behaviour, Vesper & Gartner (1997) on the other hand, stressed the prominence and significance of alumni start-ups when ranking entrepreneurship.

There is diverse literature and a variety of studies that demonstrate some of the attributes or variables that are developed from EEd programmes, some of which predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention level of participants in the program. For example, the work of (Adekiya & Ibrahim, 2016; Ekpoh & Edet, 2011) shows that skills and attitude developed from the programs increased the intention of students. Conversely, studies like Oosterbeek et al. (2010) on the impact of EEd on the skills and motivation of students evidenced that the program does not have the intended effects: the effect on students' self-assessed entrepreneurial skills is insignificant, and the effect on the intention to become an entrepreneur is even negative. The variation in these study outcomes perhaps may be attributed to the contextual differences as observed by (Nabi & Liñán, 2011).

The skills-set required for entrepreneurial behaviour or venturing, which is more often than not assumed to be acquired through training, seems to enjoy the attention of researchers (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, 2010). In contrast, other behavioural variables like attitude and mindset are not as widely covered in entrepreneurial research. Equally, there is a contextual imbalance in terms of the extent of research contribution on the outcome of entrepreneurship education that links entrepreneurial behavioural variables with entrepreneurial intention (Adejimola & Olufunmilayo, 2009).

Despite the crucial role that EEd plays in the entire process of influencing and shaping entrepreneurial intention, It is argued that without an entrepreneurial mindset and attitude, skills could get misdirected. Similar, Neneh's (2012) exploratory work on the impact of entrepreneurial mindset on SMEs alluded to the idea that the requirement for success in business, especially in the new economy, transcends just skills acquisition and development into having an entrepreneurial mindset and attitude.

Thus, the behavioural orientation of an individual could also be seen as an instrument for gauging or ascertaining the impact of the effect of EEd. Determining the impact of EEd is relevant both to policymakers and also HEIs providers. Several studies have evidenced a substantial piece of research conducted around the subject area. However, the work of Nabi et al. (2017) shows that EEd impact research is still mostly focused on short-term and subjective outcome measures and tends to severely under describe the actual pedagogies being tested.

2.4.4. Entrepreneurship Education- Global Context

There is an unprecedented drive around the globe, towards encouraging a greater proportion of students to consider and pursue venture creation as an alternative career path upon graduation (Crammond, 2020). This is exemplified in the dramatic rise in the number and status of entrepreneurship programmes in universities, from North and South America, Europe, Asia, and more recently, Africa. Nabi & Holden (2008) opined that beyond its benefit as a pillar for economic growth and development, it increases the competitiveness of the graduates that are produced (Entrepreneurial graduates). Diverse stakeholders have not only provided additional resources earmarked for research but are also supportive of the development of entrepreneurship programmes (Fayolle 2007; Klandt 2004). Increasingly, the economic growth of the future, in virtually all economies, has often been linked with entrepreneurship programmes and universities as a key stimulator. Even though there are ongoing debates and research findings that seem to suggest that the EEd spearheaded by HEIs is not delivering the expected outcome of producing entrepreneurial graduates as of yet (Oosterbeek et al., 2010), this assertion is also being contested on the grounds that the objectives and contexts under which EEd is run are very different (Nabi & Liñán, 2011).

The USA is often seen as one of the early countries praised for the starting and recording of a high incident of EEd. But up until the 1970s, few universities were offering teaching programmes in entrepreneurship, except for Harvard Business School of course, which since 1926 had offered an entrepreneurship course in disguise. The real growth of small business and entrepreneurship education came in the 1970s and 1980s through to the 90s and the 2000s (Katz, 2003, 2008; Kuratko, 2005; Solomon, 2007). The surge in EEd programs across the globe is in response to multiple interests. On the one hand, it satisfies the curiosity and interest from students about and for entrepreneurial careers (Flemmin, 1994) and, on the other hand, the increasing awareness of policymakers on the relevance of entrepreneurship as a pillar and contributor to economic development (Hytti & Kuopusjarvi, 2004).

Previous research studies in different contexts have demonstrated that there is a considerable connection between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial activities. For example, studies like Kolvereid and Moen (1997) indicated that students with a major in Entrepreneurship have a stronger intention to be engage as entrepreneurs and are likely to initiate businesses. The study of Yahya, et al., (2019) which looked at entrepreneurial intention among Business students in Lebanon supports the connection between EEd with intention. The research investigates the attendant relationship between students' family background, personality traits and entrepreneurship education with their entrepreneurial intentions, of which the outcome establishes a correlation between the dependent and the independent variables, especially EEd- *"Students with strong entrepreneurship education have greater entrepreneurial intention in which increase in entrepreneurship education level do significantly relate to the entrepreneurial intention of students"* (Yahya et al. 2019 pg. 20). Similarly, another study in South Africa on career choice shows a relationship between emotional intelligence and entrepreneurship as a viable career option (Kanonuhwa et al., 2018), as indeed the study of Ramadhan et al. (2021) in Indonesia which evidenced the Influence of Entrepreneurship Education and Entrepreneurial Attitude Orientation of students toward Entrepreneurial Intention. Noel's (2001) study established that students who graduated in entrepreneurship reached higher scores in entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial self-efficacy than students who graduated in other disciplines. Equally, the Varela and Jimenez (2001) study showed that there is a relationship between a university's investment in the advancement of entrepreneurship and the percentage of students becoming entrepreneurs. Additional research by Autio, Keeley, Klofsten and Ulfstedt (1997) establish that entrepreneurship education builds a positive image for the would be-entrepreneurs and contributes to the choice of entrepreneurship as a professional alternative by graduates. Wilson, Kickul and Marlino (2007) established that entrepreneurship education could also increase a student's interest in entrepreneurship as a career. Though the work of King (2003) suggests that there is still a dearth of research that focuses on graduate careers in a non-traditional context, specifically graduate entrepreneurial careers in terms of entrepreneurial intentions and developmental experiences.

Generally, studies show that contextual difference might account for the variation in entrepreneurial activities, the nature of EEd and the type of entrepreneurship (necessity and opportunity-driven) inherent in a country. Braun's (2012) studies show that there is somewhat a difference between the EEd in developing and developed countries.

2.4.5. Entrepreneurship Education in Developed and Developing Countries

Although international comparisons are difficult to make with any accuracy, simply because the social realities that shape each society differ from one another, it might appear that some countries are doing far better than others, depending on what indicators are used or the criteria for assessing the differences.

The whole incident of entrepreneurship education is clearly more developed in some countries than others (Nabi & Liñán, 2011). EEd contributes to rising innovative ideas and also to building competencies and attitude for alternative careers in different countries around the world. This is not just in developed countries like the US, the UK and other European countries but also the developing countries where entrepreneurship and EEd have largely been recognised and welcomed as the key to solving some of their socio-economic problems. The disparity in the understanding, acceptance and commitment to entrepreneurship and its attendant role in economic development is also reflected in the level of attention and investment done on the drivers and motivators of enterprise development. Entrepreneurship education, which has been found to be having a significant influence in stimulating entrepreneurial intention and activities also receives different attention (Fayolle & Gailly, 2019; Matlay, 2005).

The work of Nabi & Liñán (2011) suggested that whilst entrepreneurship education receives a very high level of attention in many developed economies like the US and the Uk and many countries in Europe in terms of policy formation, implementation and funding- conversely, developing economies suffer from less investment and poor implementation of some of the policies that could stimulate entrepreneurialism. In other words, The problem indeed with many developing countries is not so much of a lack of entrepreneurial policies; it is quite largely the implementation of such policies that is limited. Santos et al. (2019) exploring EEd from the context of developing countries are of the view that tailoring the provision and focus of EEd towards an empowerment perspective would deliver a better outcome for the students. EEd with an empowerment perspective would potentially contribute to the creation of new ventures and overall economic growth and development.

While research in EEd has enjoyed a large body of contribution, especially in the context of developed economies, such findings may not be generalizable, but rather context-specific (Solomon, 2007; Mbeteh, 2018). Studies in this area especially from the context of emerging economies are relatively still growing, in other words-additional studies are still required (Santos et al., 2019; Yatu et al., 2018).

The work of Solesvik et al. (2013) on entrepreneurial assets in a transition economy context, confirmed that Entrepreneurship Specific Education (ESE) in universities increases the intensity of students' entrepreneurial attitudes, though the research was within one country, it still gives a good platform or base for some form of comparison with other countries.

The Department for Business, Innovation and Skills, (2008) posits that a critical factor for economic growth and development in every economy is the prevalence of a supportive environment and graduate entrepreneurs (Nabi & Walmsley, 2010b). Unfortunately, the experience in most developing countries in relative terms delivers the opposite of the stated assertion. Braun (2012) reporting on the incident of immigration in Europe, suggested that many individuals in developing economies are more prone to migrate to other parts of the world- mostly developed countries (Europe and America) with the expectation and hope for better education and better employment prospects. This goes to suggest that there is a potential mismatch or variance in what the two worlds (developed and developing) have to offer its citizens. The education system is not in any way immune from these problems and of course, the EEd may reflect that in some way.

The resultant effect of EEd not delivering on its promise of empowering individuals with the requisite entrepreneurial attitudes and competences alongside the favourable environment are some of the driving forces behind migration level as observed by Nabi & Liñán (2011), and this consequently results in "Brain drain" in most of the developing world. The resultant effect is where we see in many of the developing countries, for example, in Africa and Asia, a high skills shortage, especially in terms of graduate expertise and entrepreneurship. This ends in a loss of essential and exceedingly skilled human capital.

Additionally, researchers have often linked entrepreneurship in developing countries with informality and the necessity-driven type of entrepreneurship. In contrast, in the developed countries' the formality and opportunity-driven type seem to be the case. This variance also means an inherent dichotomy in entrepreneurship education and programs. Enterprise development centres like the HEIs will often have their EEd objective closely connected to the reality and the need of the environment and society where they operate. Benedict & Venter (2010) reported a high entrepreneurial intention in developing countries when compared with developed ones. It is not very clear whether the increased entrepreneurial intention is as a result of EEd that provides awareness or the uncountable problems (unemployment, low per capita income, insecurity and poor infrastructure) that is pushing the entrepreneurial intention of citizens to increase.

Increasingly, there are a growing number of countries in numerous developing countries trying to improve the profile and development of business education and graduate entrepreneurship in their context, not only as an avenue for providing an ethos of graduate venture creation and entrepreneurial development but also to support as a vital source of national competitiveness and economic growth. While the challenge for the emerging economies has always been develop graduate entrepreneurs with the appropriate supportive environments that can facilitate to this growth, nevertheless, research shows that there is a dearth of research in this field, particularly, the aspect of graduate entrepreneurship and the role of higher education and entrepreneurship education in the emerging world.

In general, the emerging world can benefit from graduate entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education, but not essentially as exactly as developed countries, considering the diverse range of issues, circumstances, challenges, and contexts involved. Contextualising the offer and the provisions of EEd is of immense value in developing the entrepreneurial attitude and intention of students towards and entrepreneurial behaviour. This view is widely espoused and evidenced in the findings of several studies within the research area. for example, the work of Olutuase et al. (2020) on the model for stimulating and developing entrepreneurial skills through EEd in an African context established that optimising the yields of the desired outcome in entrepreneurship education will require an EEd that righly aligns with contextual pecularities.

There is a global acknowledgement of the importance of EEd in a different context. Similarly, researchers have argued that what HEIs do in the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship is an area of importance that should be giving close attention, more so, as it is more context specific (Olutuase, et al., 2020; Gibb, 2005; Nabi & Liñán, 2011). Additionally, the substantial body of literature and previous research on EEd and entrepreneurial intention has focused on industrially well-developed countries; in other words, it is widely studied primarily in advanced economies. Extending this research to different regions and international contexts would be an immense contribution to the field, as observed by (Nabi & Holden, 2008). It is equally observed that EEd is an emerging area that requires more study in other contexts, such as developing countries (Nabi & Liñán, 2011; Olutuase, et al., 2020).

2.5. Entrepreneurship Education and Enterprise Development- Nigerian Context

Interest in entrepreneurship and enterprise development has been growing significantly during the civilian administration, especially from 1999. Even though studies like Oghojafor et al. (2011) traced the historical origins to 1964 when the federal government set up various institutions and agencies to steer the development of entrepreneurship, via aiding small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in their drive to grow. The need to stimulate the economy towards a more diversified path and open windows of opportunity for individuals has been very pivotal to the running of the economy. The socio-political environment has dramatically changed from one where entrepreneurship was almost seen as a mere waste of time, to one where entrepreneurs now hold influential political positions and, in most cases, play a crucial role in influencing political outcomes.

Early initiative on enterprise development was centred on the production of manpower for sustaining the country's new independence status, as there were concerns regarding the availability of skilled people to take over the government jobs that were vacated by the colonialists (Aladekomo, 2004). The policy attention of government and the agenda of HEI pretty much continued on the path of human capital development for bridging the skills gap in the economy. Fast forward to the period after the oil boom in the 1970s and the major challenge confronting Nigeria was that of rebuilding its economy in ways that encourage new opportunities for social and economic transformation to help with poverty reduction and wean her away from an over-dependence on its oil reserves.

Until the last decade, the policy focus and programmes for boosting entrepreneurship and enterprise development in Nigeria have been centred on initiatives like (establishing micro-finance banks, agricultural, rural credit schemes, tax relief for investments, import duty relief, national poverty eradication schemes, World Bank SMEs and loan schemes). The study of Mitra et al. (2011) is of the view that less attention and emphasis is given to entrepreneurship education; in other words, the development of entrepreneurial minds and attitudes of undergraduates or the encouragement of graduates to explore various kinds of entrepreneurial activities as part of their career development plans did not, however, form a central part of the HEI equation.

While enterprise education is well established in many countries (Fayolle, 2013), it is still somewhat developing in Nigeria. Distinct meanings are ascribed to entrepreneurship education in diverse tertiary institutions in the country. Some of these programmes are embedded in form of a vocational and technical education rather than developing the spirit and the mindset of entrepreneurship, which is the inspiration and the incentive for entrepreneurial activities and performance in various disciplines (Ayatse, 2015).

The increasing number of university graduates is matched by worrying levels of graduate unemployment in the country. The work of Abubakar Salisu Garba (2010) on refocusing the education agenda towards entrepreneurship development, acknowledged Entrepreneurship (generally seen as starting a new business) as a pivot for self-employment or new job creation. Hence, entrepreneurship education has considerable policy appeal.

With the skyrocketing unemployment rate in Nigeria, self-employment and small enterprise initiatives are presently high on the country's national priority and agenda (Akinyemi, et al., 2012). The hope is that they will provide alternative avenues and opportunity for meaningful employment or productive economic activities. Annually, the number of university graduates joining the labour market from university in search of gainful employment is in thousands; sadly, in pursuit of jobs that are scarcely available. Ubong (2018) noted that the main challenge is not limited to the tackling the already sizeable unemployed graduates, but also that of absorbing the new entrants into the labour market. Several studies (Madumere-obike, 2006; Amaewhule, 2007 and Nwangwu, 2007) maintained the view that at the root of this situation is the fact that the training, which tertiary students receive, has not been completely successful in preparing them with the desirable skills and competencies required for job creation and self-employment

The recognition of this crucial fact underlies the mandate of the Federal Government to all tertiary education regulatory agencies, to establish necessary mechanisms for the introduction, development, and sustenance of entrepreneurial culture among Nigerian young people. To make up for the curricula inadequacies in meeting the employment problem, the National Universities Commission (NUC) in July 2004, organized a workshop on entrepreneurship for Nigerian universities as a way forward. The NUC workshop produced a draft curriculum on entrepreneurial studies for Nigerian Universities (Nwokolo, et al., 2017). Consequently, many universities have initiated entrepreneurship education programmes. This is an attempt to reverse the graduate unemployment trend, by giving the needed entrepreneurial skills training to the students for setting up businesses; this will open up the alternative route for the students to consider self-employment as a viable career option. A systematic literature review study on the research focus and agenda of EEd in Nigeria (Yatu et al., 2018) shows that there is a reasonable amount of published research in the area. However, it is not rigorous and not based on indexed journals.

2.5.1. Origin of Entrepreneurship Education in Nigeria

The history of Nigeria's education system could be traced back to the colonial period when the educational policy was aimed toward serving the interests of the colonial government in terms of supply of workforce for their effective administration of the Nigerian colony and protectorates (Aladekomo, 2004). The policy was designed with the main intention of producing Nigerians who can read and write to hold certain positions such as clerks, interpreters, and inspectors' e.t.c without any entrepreneurial or professional skill to stand on their own or even establish and manage their venture.

Arogundade (2011) asserted that after 45 years of attaining independence, it remains almost undeniably convincing that Nigeria has not yet attained her optimum level of development. Perhaps due to the attendant realities of poverty, unemployment, infrastructural neglect, corruption, and other social problems, and of course the vicious cycle of the mono-cultural nature of its economy (Oghojafor et al., 2011).

Arogundade (2011) is of the opinion that the move towards entrepreneurship development, which is heavily fostered by EEd, is one of the reasons for the wake-up calls to the realities that characterised the country.

Before the recent rush in adapting EEd as the key to unlocking the myth of entrepreneurship as a pillar for economic development, Nkechi et al. (2012) suggested that entrepreneurial training of some sort existed in Nigeria. However, most of the past efforts and initiatives were skewed more towards establishing vocational training centres, with the main objective of developing specific sets of skills for certain tasks or jobs.

Most parts of Nigeria's history that were majorly characterised with military dictatorship did not witness much attention to entrepreneurship and very little on EEd to say the least. This could perhaps be attributed to the nature of a typical military dictatorship anywhere in the world, which is more of a state-controlled arrangement. The central government controls political and economic activities, giving little or no room for economic stimulation by market forces. EEd was not much mentioned during those epochs (1966-1999). The oil-boom of the 1970s could also be attributed for the less attention given to entrepreneurship development and EEd in Nigeria. The economy became mono-cultural (depending solely on oil); as a result, the country abandoned every other venture and focused solely on oil. Akpan et al. (2012) suggest that entrepreneurship development and especially EEd began to take centre stage of policy attention in more recent times, from 2008 (Olorundare & Kayode, 2014). The most recent bold step by the country is the move of the Federal Ministry of Education directing higher institutions to mount and run General Studies and the Bachelor of Science degree in Entrepreneurship.

Despite of the directive, there exist different types of approaches in the teaching of entrepreneurship in Nigeria with the majority taking entrepreneurship as being skill acquisition. The question and the challenge on "what to teach and how to teach what to teach" centres some of the attendant challenges with the enterprise and entrepreneurship education. Hence, the need to convoke and set a definite agenda for inculcating entrepreneurial skills and indeed attitudes to the students rather than approaching it automatically. Such convocation, no doubt, is bound to raise the issues of the possibility of teaching entrepreneurial skills and attitudes and how best to approach it within the HEIs. These indeed become a dilemma for the HEIs who the umpires for are charting the cause of entrepreneurship development.

2.5.2. Nigerian Universities and Entrepreneurship Education

The National Universities Commission (NUC) is the authority responsible for regulating, developing programmes and ensuring a high standard in university education in Nigeria. By Decree (Act) No. 48 of 1988, the Commission was empowered to lay down minimum standards for all programmes taught in the Nigerian Universities. In order to adapt the higher education curriculum towards innovation in the 21st-century knowledge economy, the Commission initiated a process for review of the Minimum Academic Standards (MAS) in all academic programmes in Nigerian universities. This led to the emergence of a Benchmark Minimum Academic Standards (BMAS) document, which spelt out the learning outcomes and competencies expected of graduates of each academic programme without being overly prescriptive and at the same time providing the requisite flexibility and innovativeness consistent within the ambience of institutional autonomy (NUC, 2007).

The new BMAS provides a paradigm shift from highly prescriptive content-based curriculum to outcome-based curriculum and expectations for each programme, a curriculum that not only complies with the Minimum Academic Standards but also exposes students to a wider range of knowledge that integrates entrepreneurship studies, (Okojie, 2008). The desire for innovation is all geared towards producing high-quality graduates that are more relevant in the knowledge-based society of the 21st century and can compete favourably in the global arena.

Despite the regulatory and policy attention gained in favour of entrepreneurship education in the university curriculum, studies like Israel & Johnmark (2014) are still of the opinion that uniformity concerning “How”, “Who”, and “What” to teach in entrepreneurship with regards to its contextual and conceptual understandings, appears to be an unfinished debate. This happens mainly due to the likely varied perspectives held by various people when designing entrepreneurship programmes. For example, ‘from the educators’ viewpoints, ‘the student-entrepreneurs’, and ‘those who design the programmes’ and ‘the evaluators.’ Moreover, the entrepreneurial curriculum is developed differently across universities, either as a non-compulsory module within business courses or as a specific course on entrepreneurship (Israel & Johnmark, 2014).

The report from the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) in higher education on enterprise and enterprise education in the UK, opined another categorisation that is generally used in classifying Entrepreneurship teaching and courses in higher education, which includes courses 'for' entrepreneurship and courses 'about' entrepreneurship (QAA, 2012). The decisions on methodology to be adopted in teaching entrepreneurship courses, therefore, would be primarily influenced by the aim of the educational objective. Thus, the major challenge of entrepreneurship in relation to education is the appropriateness of curriculum and teaching methods in developing students' entrepreneurial mindset and capability (QAA, 2012). Regarding the content of the entrepreneurial courses, contemporary contributions to EEd research indicate that the entrepreneurship course content should be with an emphasis more on hands-on teaching methods. In other words, the core structure which teaching entrepreneurship courses should draw on should include critical thinking, experiential learning, skills development and the need to think about entrepreneurship as a career and should allow guest speakers who are experienced entrepreneurs, to be incorporated in the education process (Matlay, 2008; Kolvereid & Amo, 2007).

The functionalist disciplinary approach to teaching entrepreneurship is the typical Nigerian pedagogy. In other words, the approach only attempts at best to 'fill in the gaps' but not ignite that passion and motivation for entrepreneurial action. Several studies in EEd in Nigeria like (Ifedili & Ofoegbu, 2011; Udu, 2014) alluded to the standpoint that HEIs are more oriented towards a kind of EEd that at best only exposes students to learning 'about Entrepreneurship and less of learning 'for entrepreneurship'.

A large number of recent articles in Nigerian journals have been devoted to the development of entrepreneurship in the country and its contribution to economic growth (Akpan et al., 2012; Udu, 2014). Though of late, there is increasing attention on entrepreneurship education in literature, yet few of these works in the literature explore the outcome of EEd (Klofsten, 2000; Ifedili & Ofoegbu, 2011).

This study seeks to explore in some way the outcome of EEd in terms of its impact on the entrepreneurial attitudes and intention of students. The extant literature and research contributions in this area, for example, Yatu et al. (2018) show an extensive contribution in the area of entrepreneurial skills development but a dearth of contribution on the attitudinal and behavioural constructs that could impact or influence the entrepreneurial intention of students. Equally, in terms of what higher education does in the teaching of entrepreneurship and enterprise development, studies like Arogundade (2011) and Yatu et al. (2018) suggest a strong emphasis on entrepreneurial awareness creation, with little emphasis on building capacity and developing the requisite attitudes for entrepreneurial behaviour. Similarly, different studies (Lawan et al., 2019; Yatu et al., 2018) have shown that the theoretical focus of the curriculum and pedagogy is evidently more than the experiential aspect, which could inherently impede the overall objective and focus of a 'comprehensive-type' entrepreneurship education.

2.5.3. Challenges of Entrepreneurship Education in Nigeria

Challenges facing Entrepreneurship Education in Nigeria are multifaceted. While others tend to attribute leadership and institutional fragility as a major challenge in the Nigerian Entrepreneurship education space; some, on the other hand, relates the challenges to the ineffective nature of the entrepreneurship curriculum implementation, to the extent that achieving the central aim of the entrepreneurship education programmes is difficult or almost impossible (Garba, 2004). Unlike others, the specialised education programs that are being translated into practical reality at the implementation stage for the benefits of learners (Okebukola, 2004; Onyeachu, 2008) EEd offer a different challenge. Insufficient experts in the field of entrepreneurship, the absence of relevant textbooks on entrepreneurship education/programs, and ineffective style and pedagogy are some of the challenges facing entrepreneurship education in Nigeria.

There are several studies on entrepreneurship education in Nigeria, especially discussions regarding the challenges that entrepreneurship education in Nigeria faces. The findings of a systematic study on the focus of research in entrepreneurship education literature in Nigeria by Yatu et al. (2018) show that there is a large percentage of scholarly engagement on the challenges of EEd in Nigeria.

Available evidence from literature indicates that the introduction of entrepreneurship into the curriculum of higher education in the western world, especially the US, began as far back as 1947 (Kuratko, 2003). By the 1990s, the number of tertiary institutions that mounted entrepreneurship programs soared to about 1,050 schools, as against 300 in the 1980s (Solomon et al., 1994; Kuratko, 2003). In the case of developing countries like Nigeria- the reverse is the case. The introduction of entrepreneurship education into the curriculum of higher education in a context like Nigeria is very recent. Studies that focused on the challenges facing entrepreneurship education in Nigeria have referenced the early stage of the introduction of the program as one of the challenges. This is premised on the argument that new beginnings are often plagued with a plethora of challenges, and more so, the introduction of anything new in human society takes time to develop fully.

Human resources (Manpower) have been largely mentioned in literature as one of the key challenges inhibiting the growth of entrepreneurship education in Nigeria. The inadequacy of competent lecturers in the field of entrepreneurship to make the course practically interesting and goal-oriented, in contrast to the current reality, which is almost purely centred on theoretical instructions, (Gabadeen & Raimi, 2012) is a fundamental problem. Similarly, the style of teaching by many educators, which stresses very basic and theoretical writing of a business plan has been severely criticised and viewed as flawed in the literature (Ifedili & Ofoegbu, 2011).

Whilst Ifedili and Ofoegbu (2011) observed the challenges and limitations in the theoretical contents of entrepreneurship education being delivered to the undergraduates across Nigerian higher institutions; there is equally a severe deficiency in the books, hand-outs and other learning materials made available to the student on an entrepreneurship education course in the Nigerian tertiary institutions. Consequently, the absence of standard learning materials/textbooks on entrepreneurship education leaves the students with limited or almost no option other than falling back on the scanty hand-outs/training manuals made available by course instructors.

Inadequate funding is widely being blamed for the challenges of entrepreneurship education in Nigeria and the debilitating standard and condition of the education sector in general (Akinbola et al., 2020). It is argued that funding constraints have adversely affected the implementation of the entrepreneurship education curricula, as attested to by the National Universities Commission and counterpart supervisory agencies (Gabadeen & Raimi, 2012). More recently, there is emerging evidence suggesting that interventionist agencies established by the government to manage, disburse and monitors the public funds allocated to funding education and research, are involved in high-level mismanagement and the pilfering of such funds (Punch, 2020). This constitutes a big challenge for the education industry as a whole, and to the development of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education in particular.

It is common for undergraduate students to perceive entrepreneurship education as one of the unnecessary elective or general courses forced on them by their respective school/departmental authorities in order to fulfil graduation requirements (Ifedili & Ofoegbu, 2011; Gabadeen & Raimi, 2012). In many universities, the programmes are not a standalone program but instead are being delivered as an elective module, which is mostly done just to meet a regulatory requirement not necessarily driven by the value that could emanate from running the programme, this is one of the challenges and limitations inherent in the Nigerian EEd approach (Kulo et al., 2018). Such a mediocre and a lacklustre atmosphere and approach may not give room for vibrant participation and engagement in the entrepreneurship programme, both on the part of the students and the lecturers (Ifedili & Ofoegbu, 2011).

Outside the four walls of a university setting, the Nigerian business environment has also been widely referenced as contributing to the challenges of Entrepreneurship education in Nigeria. The business environment echoes the unpleasant experiences of self-employed graduates and entrepreneurs, some of these are evidenced in realities like the multiple taxes, harsh business regulations, inadequate infrastructural facilities for small businesses, high rate of inflation, labour regulations and stringent laws on starting/ running a business just to mention but a few (Kisunko, Brunetti & Weder, 1999). Gabadeen and Raimi (2012) observed that these send a wrong signal to the undergraduate students who are taking a compulsory course in entrepreneurship education in several tertiary institutions; the message is that the current option on trial (Developing future entrepreneurs via Entrepreneurship education) is potentially not a viable means for guaranteeing a successful future career (Ubong, 2018).

Similarly, Sofoluwe et al. (2013) noted in their study on EEd and employment stimulation in Nigeria, that individuals that opted for self-employment after receiving entrepreneurship education/training in Nigeria were faced with multiple and unpleasant challenges, for example- the constraint of access to bank credits, lack of government interest in promoting small businesses, incidences of harassment/extortion by government officials, the poor state of infrastructural facilities and a poor telecommunication system (Eneji et al., 2020). Other studies like Mambula (2002); Ariyo (2005); and Chu et al. (2008) have also acknowledged similar challenges facing entrepreneurs; it correlates with some of the potential factors identified in the literature as affecting the drive, attitudes, and intention of others to start on the entrepreneurial path (Raza et al., 2018).

Garba (2004) recognised that the entrepreneurship education curriculum is ineffectively implemented hence the difficulty in achieving its goals and objectives at the implementation stage for the benefits of learners. Different studies like Okebukola (2004) and Onyeachu, (2008) have suggested that this is attributed largely to insufficient experts in the field of entrepreneurship, the absence of relevant textbooks on the entrepreneurship education/program and an ineffective style of teaching by the facilitators of the programme (lecturers).

The challenges mentioned above appreciate the findings of several research studies on the challenges of entrepreneurship education in Nigeria. More pertinently is the fundamental question of whether the evident challenges do allow room for the current entrepreneurship education to deliver outcomes that are worthy of an entrepreneurship education program objective- which of course will include developing the entrepreneurial attitudes and intention of students towards entrepreneurship behaviour and action?

2.6. Entrepreneurial Intention (EI)

The construct of intention seems to play a vital role in human decision making as observed by Krueger (2009), as the crucial predictor of behaviour. As such, it should afford us the many opportunities to explore its connection with other vast arrays of variables, theories and models that relate to decision making within the purview of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial processes.

Studies have shown that entrepreneurial intention plays a crucial role in the understanding of the entrepreneurial process (Shapero and Sokol, 1982; Krueger, 1993; Krueger and Brazeal, 1994). As societies tussle for the endless presence and supply of new entrepreneurs to energize and consolidate economic growth and to maintain or increase the level of education and training required in a high-tech world- Joensuu et al. (2013) contend that ascertaining the impact of higher education on the development of entrepreneurial intentions is an essential area that needs attention.

As an essential part of the start-up process, Nabi & Liñán (2011) portrays it as a cognizant state of mind that directs personal attention, experience, and behaviour toward planned entrepreneurial behaviour. More specifically, other scholars like (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993; Bird, 1988; Thompson, 2009) viewed it as conscious awareness, conviction by an individual that he/she intends to embark on entrepreneurial activity, like setting up a new business venture and plans to do so in the future.

In the psychology literature, intentions have proven to be the best predictor of planned behaviour, mainly when that behaviour is rare, hard to observe, or involves unpredictable time lags. This same construct is incorporated into entrepreneurship exposition; in other words, Entrepreneurial Intention (EI) is a widely referenced outcome variable that predicts entrepreneurial activities.

Literature shows that the impact of education on EI has been widely studied for example (Lee et al., 2011; Fayolle et al., 2005; Joensuu et al., 2013). While some studies argued in favour of HEI as a catalyst for increasing the likelihood of EI (Ertuna and Gurel, 2011; Lanero et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013), others, are of the opposite opinion (Kangasharju and Pekkala, 2002; Henley, 2005; Wu and Wu, 2008; Nabi et al., 2010). Despite the divergent views on these issues, Joensuu et al. (2013) contend that both views consist of rational arguments. Participants of higher education benefit from resource advantage, which enables a successful entrepreneurial career on the one hand; a higher education degree, on the other hand, equips a person to be more desirable for employment and they may view salaried employment as a more attractive alternative to entrepreneurship.

When considering the mechanisms through which education influences intentions and the relative effectiveness of the various forms of education. Basu (2010) is of the view that despite all that the literature suggests on the EEd and intention, there is still limited understanding of the effect of entrepreneurial education on venture creation intentions.

The underpinning model that most researchers adopt in exploring this area has always been the entrepreneurial intention model. Krueger et al. (2000) opined that the predominant theory that is espoused to this model is Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), as propounded by (Ajzen, 1991).

Kolvereid (2014) recognised the prevalence of other intervening variables like background factors that could impact the behavioural intention of an individual. He argued that be it personal, social or informational; the effect is not direct but only indirect. Based on this theory, an effective educational concept should alter one or more of the antecedents of intentions by influencing the beliefs they are based on. This would, in turn, influence entrepreneurial intentions, which, finally, would impact upon entrepreneurial behaviour.

Substantiating the claims of this theory is the work of (Noel, 2002) which found that entrepreneurship graduates have higher intentions to set up a business within the next two-five years, compared to the graduates of other business majors or non-business majors (Johara et al., 2017; Moraes et al. 2018; Karimi et al., 2016). In the same line, Souitarisa et al. (2007) equally confirmed an increase in self-employment intentions among students having participated in an entrepreneurship program, while students in a control group did not exhibit the same change.

Whilst there is a growing body of study espoused to the impact and influence of EEd in shaping the behaviour and the human capital acquired by the EEd participants (Solesvik et al., 2013); exponents of the human capital theory and the TPB also acknowledged the influence of other social context and variables other than EEd, as playing a vital role; for example, family background, personal experience, and environmental realities (Mambula, 2002; Ariyo, 2005; Chu et al., 2008). Though the Kolvereid (2014) study posits that the effect or influence is indirect, in other words, another variable(s) exist whose effect is more direct. This assumption is being criticized on the grounds that, while intent might be a good predictor of behaviour, it is not automatically translated into action. In fact, some people could have developed the intention but may never act on it or behave entrepreneurially (Nabi & Walmsley, 2010b). For example, the entrepreneurial intention survey conducted by Ward et al. (2008) in the UK on start-up activity suggested that while a significant proportion of students have strong entrepreneurial intentions to start-up their own business, only a small proportion actually started. This partly supports the position that EI does not automatically result in behaviour and action, but of course, it plays a crucial role in influencing and shaping it. Equally, Joensuu et al. (2013) researched the impact of education on EI in Finland- and expanded the debate with their finding that intention may decrease during studies. However, the initial intention level does not influence the development of intention in the future.

Expanding further on the behavioural intention debate, Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) categorized it into a conditional and unconditional behavioural intention. While the conditional intention depicts a situation where the manifestation of intention is incumbent upon other variables, the unconditional intention, on the other hand, does not have a condition surrounding the manifest intention.

The work of Shapero and Sokol (1982) tends to link EI with attitude, especially in perceived feasibility and desirability. Attitudes are partly derived from prior exposure to entrepreneurial activities. There is an undeniable vast acceptance and recognition of the importance of EI in the process of business start-ups (Nabi & Liñán, 2011; Nabi & Holden, 2008). The attitudes that underpin entrepreneurial intentions are learned and based on experience. Thus, relevant entrepreneurial education programmes could be developed with a more comprehensive knowledge of students' entrepreneurial attitudes. Significantly, these can be assessed and changed and thus allow for the possibility of attitudinal change and developing more suitable student-centred education programmes for would-be entrepreneurs.

A handful of scholars like (Gibb, 1994; Israel & Johnmark, 2014) have argued that other behavioural constructs like the attitude of an individual when worked upon or reprogramed, could potentially influence the entrepreneurial intention level of students. Thus, while developing a relevant entrepreneurial education programme, Florin & Rossiter (2007) suggest that a thorough understanding of students' entrepreneurial attitudes will be highly beneficial, especially given the fact research findings like Harris and Gibson point to the direction that the attitudes that reinforce entrepreneurial intentions are learned and based on experience (Harris & Gibson, 2008). Furthermore, it has been contended that attitude is a better approach to the study of entrepreneurship than either personality or demographics as observed by (Robinson et al., 1991). These attitudes are more likely to be influenced by educational programs than other variables like personality traits and the demography of an individual since they are learned, and experience-based (Florin et al., 2007).

Additionally, they can be measured and changed and thus allow for the possibility of attitude change and developing more appropriate student-centred education programs for aspiring entrepreneurs as observed by Nabi & Holden (2008). In other words, a thorough understanding of wide-ranging entrepreneurial attitudes allows room for developing entrepreneurial education programmes that are relevant and tailor-made towards achieving a specific set of entrepreneurial objectives. What then, is the dynamic of the entrepreneurial attitude construct?

2.7. Entrepreneurial Attitude (EA)

Entrepreneurship scholars look at entrepreneurial behaviour through an attitudinal viewpoint, based on the belief that entrepreneurial attitude is a more reliable measure of entrepreneurial behaviour, which can be improved by interventions from the environment (Robinson et al., 1991; Ajzen, 2002; 1991). The field of psychology analyses behaviours in general and sheds light on the mental process leading from attitudes and beliefs to effective action (Gorgievski & Stephan, 2016). This domain gives a strong footing for the development of debate in attitude orientation development, providing insight into the psychological processes essential for achievement. An example of the very first few pieces of research that incorporated attitudinal scale to predict entrepreneurial activity was the work of Robinson et al. (1991), the work asserts that attitude is a better descriptor of entrepreneurs than other constructs/variables such as personality attributes or demography. A key benefit of using the attitudinal approach in predicting entrepreneurial intention is that it can be more domain-specific, which increases its link with actual behaviour and reduces unexplained variability. Attitudes tend to change with time and situations through a shared process of interaction with the environment. Carlson (1985) is of the view that predicting the potential future action of an individual is less tasking once the person's attitude has been measured. This makes it an important construct worth looking at closely with regards to predicting the future behaviour of an individual.

The idea of attitude being a behavioural construct is increasingly gaining attention not only in the entrepreneurial world but also in the world of employment- especially within the context of manpower recruitment. The work of Reed & Stoltz (2011), conducted thousands of interviews with top employers, including many of the world's best, in an attempt to ascertain what they really look for in their prospective employees. Given a choice between someone with the desired attitude who lacks the skill-set for the job, and another with the complete skill set but lacking the attitude- 96% of the surveyed participants favoured the right attitude over skill-set as the key element in the candidates/employees they seek and retain. The conclusion of the research is that the attitudinal construct is crucial. Once the attitude is developed, the skillset could take care of itself.

Similarly, entrepreneurship in many contexts tends to be associated more with the attitude of an individual as against skill set, the personality of the person or even demographic characteristics. A focus on developing or instilling just skills sets as against attitude may be counterproductive. In a recent report of the World Economic Forum, on 'the future of jobs and skills- it suggests that efforts to place unemployed youth in apprenticeships in certain job categories through targeted skills training, maybe self-defeating, as the skill requirements in that job category are likely to be drastically different in just a few years' time. In the same report, it is asserted that 65% of students entering primary school today are largely being prepared for jobs that are not known and the skills that will be required for such jobs are very much uncertain. Likewise, if the skills are known, they stand the chance of being replaced within 5 to 10 years of their lifespan. It is therefore critical that broader and longer-term changes to basic and lifelong education systems are complemented with a specific, urgent and focused effort that will drive it beyond just developing skills sets (World Economic Forum, 2016).

The idea of "Better skills equal better jobs" seems to be the worldwide assumption or prescription among HEIs, governments or policymakers worldwide. Hence, the investment of billions into ventures or initiatives that will upgrade people's skills with the hopeful expectations of increasing employability and thereby reducing unemployment. As true and sound as the idea of skills acquisition might be, contributors, for example human resource experts, are of the position that the speed with which skills hit obsolescence regardless of industries, due mainly to the constant change in technology and consumer needs, shows that it has to be more than just skills. Equally, the recruitment industry alludes to the fact that the skills which companies will be in most demand is often an ambivalent task to ascertain. However, there seemed to be a growing consensus on the type of individuals that most companies would like to hire which is more towards the attitudinal orientation of the prospective hire (Reed & Stoltz, 2011). Correspondingly, Bell (2016) found out that proactive disposition and achievement motivation (attitudes) are statistically linked with the likelihood of graduates being employed after six months of graduation. In other words, equipping graduates with just employment skills will only amount to having graduates that are half-baked and likely very unprepared for the fast-changing reality of the business environments. Hence, any process that fosters the development of their attitudinal disposition will be worthwhile.

While there is reasonable research consensus that a personality trait in some way plays a role in predicting behaviour, it is also important to note that there are other antecedents and environmental influences on the behaviour of the individual (Burns, 2001; Fayolle & Gailly, 2015). Thus, EA is what Gibb (2002; 2004b) proposed as a modern paradigm in EEd, which focuses more on the state of mind and behaviour of an individual. Importantly, its formation or development takes cognizance of social norms and environmental realities. EA is a vital entrepreneurial resource that allows an individual to promptly sense, act, and mobilize, and adapt in the face of uncertain dynamic conditions or environment (Ireland et al., 2003; McGrath RG, 2000). This resource, in part, are behavioural in nature; in other words, it taps into the thinking and behavioural process of the individual. Entrepreneurial attitude refers to a specific state of mind, which orientates human conduct towards entrepreneurial activities and outcomes. Individuals with an entrepreneurial attitude are often drawn to opportunities, innovation, and new value creation. Other characteristics include the ability to take calculated risks and accept the realities of change and uncertainty. Generally, entrepreneurship researchers engaged in cognitive research in an attempt to understand how individuals identify entrepreneurial opportunities and act upon them.

Repeatedly, the literature identifies education as being a crucial indices in fostering an entrepreneurial attitude. Therefore, developing the attitudinal disposition of individuals ought to be central to the focus of teaching and learning in the university approach (Rauch & Hulsink, 2014; 2015). As essential as this is in the entrepreneurial learning process, Gibbs (2005) is of the opinion that it seems somewhat neglected in the conventional university pedagogical approach.

Entrepreneurship is increasingly being broadened in terms of its meaning, application, and contexts. It is not solely about business skills or starting new ventures; it is a way of thinking and behaving (attitude), relevant to all parts of society and the economy. Thus, entrepreneurship education ought to be a broader process, which supports the development of the individual's attitude, behaviours, skills and capabilities and can be applied to create value in a range of contexts and environments- from the public sector, charities, universities and social enterprises to corporate organisations and new venture start-ups (Gibb, 1994). Entrepreneurial and enterprising graduates should be equipped to fulfil their potential and to create their own futures.

Entrepreneurial attitude, like other behavioural constructs, e.g., mind-set, has received relatively little theoretical or empirical attention within the field of entrepreneurship education research. EA is conceptualized herein as a general construct, characterized by innovativeness, risk-taking, independence, and being opportunity driven. These descriptions tally with the work of Bolton and Lane on individual entrepreneurial orientation. (Bolton & Lane, 2012). The EA generally links to an individual's beliefs, that he or she is capable of successfully performing the various roles and tasks of an entrepreneur.

The concept of entrepreneurial attitude leans more towards a paradigm-fit in the theory of entrepreneurial emotion as opined by (Souitarisa et al., 2007). The work of Souitarisa et al. (2007) on the effect of entrepreneurship program on entrepreneurial intention, acknowledged that while learning and resource utilisation have an impact on the outcome of the entrepreneurial program, inspiration plays a much more significant impact. Therefore, if the target is to increase the number of entrepreneurs in the student population, then the inspirational part of the programmes has to be designed purposefully, and instructors should be trained competently, not only to teach the entrepreneurship curriculum but also to change the 'hearts and attitude' of students. A very rare but instructive ancient truism "as a man thinks in his heart, so is he" seems a well-articulated statement of reality, that depicts how thinking could influence the attitude and the intention, behaviour and action of an individual. In other words, an external variable like EEd and its pedagogy, that targets the thinking realm (Mind-set) and attitude of individuals, would easily influence numerous outcomes in the individual's intention, behaviour and action.

Solvesvik et al. (2013) captured attitude as the by-product of the accumulation of several entrepreneurial assets that result in an intention to start a business; these assets include entrepreneurial specific education ESE, alertness, and risk-taking. Intentions are determined as a by-product of attitudes, and attitudes are affected by 'exogenous influences' as observed by Souitarisa et al. (2007).

An entrepreneurial attitude is quite vital because of the degree and nature of entrepreneurs' exposure to complex and uncertain situations. Kuratko (2002:150) pointed that the present-day business environment is characterised by increasing risk, a decreased ability to forecast, and fluid industry boundaries that need an entrepreneurial attitude that must learn and unlearn trends and events in order to minimise failure while taking advantage of opportunities. This attitude needs to create or help shape its environment by creating strategic and entrepreneurial alertness for it to survive the chaos, complexity, and contradictions. Moreover, entrepreneurial attitude incorporates three aspects, namely, affection (feeling and emotion), cognition (thoughts and belief), and conation (action and behaviour). It is worthy of mention that the combination of all the three dimensions of entrepreneurial attitude in terms of affection, cognition, and behaviour, motivate one to become an entrepreneur. The attitude also allows entrepreneurs to make convincing decisions in the face of uncertainty. Whilst skill is essential; it is not as flexible as the attitude, which adapts to the fast pace of the complex changing business world (Neneh, 2012).

2.7.1. Attributes of Entrepreneurial Attitude

The degree to which individuals hold a favourable (positive) or unfavourable (negative) valuation of entrepreneurial behaviour is largely the explanation advanced in literature for entrepreneurial attitude (Nicolaides 2011; Miralles, Riverola and Giones, 2012). Fayolle & Gailly, (2015) empahsised that rise of entrepreneurial intention is largely influenced by a number of personal, and environmental factors, of which attitudinal factors are prime among them. Attitude does not exist in a vacuum or isolation. There are numerous interconnections between attitudes and other various interrelated phenomena (Gasse, 1985, p. 538; Sbaver, 1987, p. 152). For example, Niljinda et al. (2019), identified factors influencing attitude toward entrepreneurship based on Robinson's Model of Entrepreneurial Attitude Orientation Scale (Robinson, and Haynes, 1991). While some of the factors induce negative influence, others engendered a positive one, for example, education, family and personal experiences, innovativeness, self-efficacy, risk-taking and independence (Yousaf, et al., 2021). Some of these attitudinal attributes have been found and evidenced to be playing an influencing role on intention and entrepreneurial behaviours and activities (Barbosa, et al., 2006; Anwar, et al., 2021; Yousaf, et al., 2021).

Research studies around the area of personal variable with regards to entrepreneurship have identified several attributes or characteristics that tend to distinguish entrepreneurs from others who are not as entrepreneurially inclined (Brockhaus, 1975; Brockhaus & Horwitz, 1986; Collins & Moore, 1970; Gartner, 1990; Sbapero, 1975; Swayne & Tucker, 1973). Four key constructs emerged from the body of research on personality traits and entrepreneurship- they include Need for achievement (McClelland et al., 1953; McClelland, 1961), Self-esteem (Crandall, 1973), Innovation (Kirton, 1976; 1978) and Locus of Control (Levenson, 1973; Rotter, 1966). Self-efficacy in particular, has been adjudged as playing a critical role in motivating and propelling individuals to establish a new ventures or for any kind of entrepreneurial activity (Yousaf, et al., 2021). While Yousaf, et al., (2021) study found that self-regulation have a partial mediation in the relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and students' entrepreneurial intention, the results of the study ultimate revealed that students' entrepreneurial self-efficacy has the most significant and positive impact on their intention to become an entrepreneur. More specifically, the attitudinal construct (self-efficacy) affects the students' entrepreneurial intention not just directly but also indirectly, as argued by Bandura, (2012), that is the most influential factor that affects behaviour.

Similarly, the study of Karimi, et al., (2017) which Tests the relationship between personality characteristics, contextual factors and entrepreneurial intentions in a developing country- found out that the Need for achievement, risk taking and locus of control are factors that are found to influence entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial activities.

Achievement in business refers to tangible results associated with the start-up and growth of a business venture. While innovation in business relates to perceiving and acting upon business activities in new and unique ways, Perceived personal control of business outcomes, concerns the individual's perception of control and influence over his or her business—similarly, Perceived self-esteem in business, pertains to the self-confidence and perceived competency of an individual in conjunction with his or her business affairs.

The earlier personal variable research lends a conceptual lead for the entrepreneurial attitude orientation (EAO) research, and these attitudinal constructs or orientations are commonly used in dealing and exploring research around business motivation and/or research. Robinson (1991) is of the view that this is not intended to be an exhaustive list of the attitudes associated with entrepreneurship; rather, it is intended as a starting place.

The policy document of the National Council for Graduate Entrepreneurship (NCGE) identifies the following attributes as related to entrepreneurial attitude, which affects entrepreneurial behaviour and intention (Gibb, 2005). These attributes are:

- opportunity seeking and grasping
- taking initiatives to make things happen
- solving problems creatively
- managing autonomously
- taking responsibility for, and ownership of, things
- seeing things through
- networking effectively to manage interdependence
- putting things together creatively
- using judgment to take calculated risks

The debate that seeks to understand whether these aspects of an entrepreneurial attitude can be developed among students and how they can best be facilitated through EEd is long-lingering. Gibb (1994) is of the view that attaining consensus on how best to facilitate the process of developing this among students is still some distance away. Though recent development in the approach taken by some HEIs beams a ray of hope. While debating how the entrepreneurial attitude can be developed; the idea of whether it predicts an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of students is equally another important aspect worth considering.

Empirical studies have strengthened the emergence and argument of the entrepreneurial intention model as a good predictor of entrepreneurial behaviour and activities. Souitarisa et al. (2007) in their studies on the competing models for entrepreneurial intention found out that situational (for example, employment status or informational cues) or individual (for example, demographic characteristics or personality traits) variables are poor predictors of EI. In other words, predicting entrepreneurial activities by modelling only situational or personal factors usually resulted in disappointingly small explanatory power and even smaller predictive validity. However, varied studies like Luthje & Frank (2003); Peterman & Kennedy (2003) and Ezepue (2008) alluded to the view that individuals can be systematically taught or trained to develop their attitude for entrepreneurial activities. According to the study, training can shift intentionality and perceptions about entrepreneurship.

2.7.2. Importance of an Entrepreneurial Attitude

Entrepreneurial attitude is often related to the behavioural aspect of entrepreneurs. The attitude significantly impacts the behaviour of an individual and individuals who have a high tendency for entrepreneurial behaviour which plays a vital role in the economy. Luke et al. (2007) outlines different levels of analysis in presenting the benefits. The first level is the individual level of analysis. At this level, entrepreneurial attitude can lead to behaviour or action that develops new ventures, which exploit viable opportunities and generate additional wealth for the individual. At the organisational level, entrepreneurial attitude can result in behaviour that creates new competencies and the enhancement of wealth generation for the organisation (product and process innovation). For example, entrepreneurial behaviour can lead to competitive advantages for competing firms. This is a salient benefit, which can increase the financial wealth of the organisation, because it may reflect in a more significant market share and an improved reputation regarding the firm’s products (Johnson et al., 2005). The entrepreneurial level is also at the organisational level, but it is not regarded in a holistic sense across the whole organisation but for a particular business unit (Luke et al., 2007). At this level, entrepreneurial behaviour leads to higher creativity and flexibility within the organisation. The importance of flexibility and creativity in organisations is increasing. As articulated by Hamel (2000), the twenty-first century is an age of revolution where “change is discontinuous, abrupt and seditious” (Kirby, 2003, p. 299). At the inter-organisational level, entrepreneurial attitude directs fruitful entrepreneurial relations between firms; for example, in the automotive industry growth in mergers and acquisitions is envisaged due to strategic incentives to increase market share and organisational growth, high liquidity and expected economic growth in China and India (PWC, 2013). The development of new firms, as stimulated by entrepreneurial attitude and behaviour, can help to diminish unemployment and stimulate economic growth (European Commission, 2003).

2.8. Review of Theories

This section provides a review of selected relevant theories that underpinned EEd provision, pedagogy, and delivery (Fayolle, 2013; Kuratko, 2005). These reviewed theories are related to the research objectives and the overall area of the study.

While the literature on entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education in Nigeria is fast-growing, there is still yet a rarity of studies explaining the requisite entrepreneurial attitudes essential for the Nigerian context and the interconnection between these attitudes and entrepreneurship education outcome within the Nigerian HEIs (Udu, 2014). Several researchers have argued that people have intentions towards a particular behaviour and that these intentions, in turn, determine actual behaviour (Bird 1988, 1992; Ajzen 1991; Krueger 1993). Some of these assumptions have over time gained some strong theoretical standing. It is worthwhile to explore some of the underpinning theories that will give a precise framing for this study.

There is an element of the theory upon which every practice or activity hinges on (Udu 2014). Entrepreneurship theory, therefore, tries to present in a concerted approach, loose facts or underpinning philosophies about creating, sustaining and expanding existing organizations and/or the making of entrepreneurs. Hence, theories or existing working-sets of assumptions are required in order to understand how entrepreneurship works. Theories are not only essential in terms of saving time when searching for information, as they provide a useful guide, but they also allow the understanding of how events are related with a probable appreciation of direction of casualty. Entrepreneurial efforts will be neither efficient nor practical; they will instead be a waste of energy and resources. Hence, robust theories allow for useful information to be obtained, which gives knowledge and clues as to how variables can be related.

Entrepreneurship studies and researchers draw a lot from different disciplines in an attempt to develop or establish theories in the entrepreneurship discipline or advance understanding of happenings, events and phenomenon within the field of entrepreneurship (Chu, 1998:9).

Mainstreams	**Research Subjects**	**Line of Inquiry**
Psychology: Traits and behavioral	Entrepreneurs' characteristics and entrepreneurial process	Causes (Why)
Sociological: Social and cultural	Entrepreneurs of different social or cultural backgrounds	Causes (Why)
Economics	Relationship between economic environment and entrepreneurship	Effects (What)
Management	Entrepreneurs' skill, management, and growth	Behavior (How)

Table 2.1: Field of Entrepreneurship

From Chu 1998:9

The fields of psychology, sociology, and economics, among others, have been the main disciplines upon which most of the theories are developed. The entrepreneurial theories developed from these disciplines include psychological, sociological, and economic theories. A "psychological theory", for example, recognizes traits, motives and personalities as the main factors that instil the entrepreneurial spirit in an individual. Psychologists hold the view that there is an inner urge or force in a person that makes them desire a change of status and position. Those identified with the psychological theory are, David McClelland (1961) and Hagen Everett (1963). The "sociological theory" on the other hand is of the view that a person's atmosphere or environment is the major inspiring factor for entrepreneurship and that ideas, traits, and motives are not enough on their own for an entrepreneur or entrepreneurship to manifest. Simply put, an individual's sociological background acts as a push factor in the social context of entrepreneurship. In other words, entrepreneurs are a by-product of their socio-cultural, political, legal, and religious variables or structures in their societies. Some scholars associated with the sociological theory of entrepreneurship are Max Weber (1949), Thomas Cochran (1965) and Frank Young (1971). Conversely, the "economic theory" of entrepreneurship is made up of scholars who see reasons for people becoming entrepreneurs as purely economically driven. That is, the forces of demand and supply create opportunities that pull individuals to take advantage of them or bridge the gap. Proponents of the deterministic economic school of thought hold the view that entrepreneurs are more likely to act on the pull factor (opportunity) rather than push factors (necessity) (Amit & Muller, 1995; Dawson & Henley, 2012).

While theories are majorly formulated to proffer explanation, predictions, or advance the understanding of certain phenomena; in numerous cases, theories also challenge and extend existing knowledge within the limits of critical bounding assumptions. A theoretical framework gives the structure that holds or supports a theory in a research study. The framework (theoretical framework) introduces and describes the theory that fits and explains the research problem under study.

There are multifaceted theories that exist in different fields and contexts, whose application and usage are also multi-disciplinary. Researchers and studies in one-discipline leverage on concepts and theories from other disciplines or fields in order to make sense or advance the understanding of the phenomenon in other fields. Predominantly, studies in the field of business, management and entrepreneurship have over the years enjoyed a pride of place in developing and using theories whose root is in psychology (e.g., The Theory of plan behaviour by Ajzen 1985), sociology, economics and even biology. Reviewing the literature on the common theoretical framework adopted by researchers in EEd over the years (Kolvereid, 2014; Klofsten, 2000) suggests that the dominant theoretical frameworks that are found in most EEd studies include: Human capital Theory (HCT) and the theory of plan behaviour (TPB) (NCGE, 2008).

2.8.1 Theory of Plan Behaviour (TPB)

This construct has since become highly dominant in entrepreneurship research, especially during the past decade (Kolvereid, 2014). The underpinning assumption is that entrepreneurial behaviour is a by-product of intentionality, which consequently results in action. Besides, human beings play an active role as agents in their advancement and development; therefore, Entrepreneurship engagement is not accidental to humans- but intentional. In a nutshell, entrepreneurial behaviour is determined by the entrepreneurial intentions, which are themselves determined by three antecedents or core conceptually independent determinants:

1. Attitude towards starting up.
2. Subjective norm; and
3. Perceived Behavioural Control ("PBC").

The theory of planned behaviour was originally presented by Ajzen (1991). It is an extension of the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). This theory presumes that human social conduct is reasoned, monitored, or planned in the sense that it considers as the resultant aftereffects of the considered behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 2000). The model has been utilized for the prediction of several kinds of human actions, for example, electoral choices, intention to stop smoking, etc. This theory provides a proven framework to analyse how an entrepreneurship education programme (EEP) might influence the experience of its participants regarding their entrepreneurial behaviour. From this perspective, the influence of EEd is to modify or alter individual attitudes and subsequently, their intentions with regards to entrepreneurial behaviour or action.

The theory of planned behaviour is increasingly becoming dominant in entrepreneurship research. It is part of the bigger family of intentional models that have been used to try to explain the advent of entrepreneurial behaviour. Krueger and Carsrud (1993) are of the view that intention seems to be a better immediate predictor of behaviour than attitudes, beliefs or other psychological or sociological variables. However, attitudes and beliefs predict intentions. Thus, intentions serve as a mediator or facilitator for action. In terms of evaluation, it means that measuring the impact of an EEP on attitude and intention gives an indirect way to evaluate its impact with regards to entrepreneurial behaviour. This research argues that EEd is a fundamental factor and ingredient that could be leveraged upon in shaping and channelling the subject norms and attitudinal behaviours of an individual and society towards a behaviour, action and activities that are entrepreneurial and productive, (see the conceptual framework as illustrated in figure 2.1).

The link between intentions and behaviour is very well explained in psychology (Nwankwo et al., 2012). For instance, the theory of planned behaviour by Ajzen (1991) posits that intentions reflect the motivational factors that influence behaviour and are a reliable indicator of how hard a person is willing to try and how much effort he/she makes to perform a behaviour. The aim of Entrepreneurial intention is centred on either new venture creation or creating new values in existing ventures (Vesalainen and Pihkala, 1999).

Furthermore, intentions are broadly seen as a powerful interpreter and predictor of behaviours, especially in the case of purposive, planned, and goal-oriented behaviours (Bagozzi, Baumgartner & Yi, 1989). Thus, since the tasks involved in venture creation deals with needs identification and making provision for such needs for profitable gains, it can be classified as a purposefully and goal-directed behaviour which can be reliably predicted by entrepreneurial intention. This position is in coherence with Krueger, Reilly, and Carsrud (2000), who maintained that entrepreneurial action can be classified as an intentional behaviour or intention as a predictor of planned entrepreneurial behaviour.

Fayolle et al. (2006) point to the fact that the orientations and behaviours of students and young graduates are shaped by multifaceted personal and environmental factors. For example, the social status of entrepreneurial activities and situation in the participant's environment play a vital role in the making of entrepreneurs. Equally, the relationship between the parental role model and preference for a self-employment career has also been acknowledged in literature as playing a vital role in the making of an entrepreneur (Matthews & Moser, 1995). It is therefore immensely important to identify and use an all-encompassing theory-based framework for assessing the impact of entrepreneurship education experience of students, on their entrepreneurial intention.

The central element of the theory of planned behaviour is the individual intention to perform a given behaviour. The theory offers a lens for understanding how human behaviour and intention could be planned, influenced, and shaped through EEd for an expected entrepreneurial behavioural outcome, which ultimately leads to action.

The three elements (Attitude towards behaviour, Subjective norm, and Perceived Behavioural Control) identified in the theory of planned behaviour above, are the antecedents of intention and consequently influence future behaviours. The underlying basis of the intention and the determinants of behaviour are perceptions, which are developed gradually from beliefs. A very fundamental aspect of this theory is the flexibility that it provides to the influence of potential exogenous variables that may play a role in the development of the beliefs and attitudes of an individual (Fayolle et al., 2006).

2.8.2. Human Capital Theory

Drawing support from established theories, like the Human Capital Theory (HCT) reinforces the importance of EEd to economic development. Extensively developed by Becker (1964) from the work of Scultz (1961) the theory assumes that Investment in human capital development is considered to be essential for improving the value of the individual and consequently the economy as a whole. The proponents of this theory, like Becker, equate investment in an individual's education and training as being similar to business investments in equipment. In order words, investment in human capital is worthwhile; both for the investor and also to the person being invested in (Becker, 2009).

Human capital theory gives a good underpinning lens to this research, as it seeks to examine the impact of acquired variables such as education, learning and experience on the career outcome or overall productive capacity of an individual; in the case of this research- entrepreneurial attitude and intention development. The introduction of this theory in the review is underpinned by the assumption that education can serve as a key determinant of decision and choice, as it provides and empowers students with the requisite tools, skills, and the mindset that will shape their intention towards an entrepreneurial behaviour and new venture creation (Ojeifo, 2013).

This similar to the original thought of one of the early proponents (Becker), that training raises the productivity of workers by imparting useful knowledge and skills, hence raising workers' future income by increasing their lifetime earnings (Becker, 1994). It postulates that spending on training and education is costly and should be considered an investment since the aim is intending to increase personal incomes. In cognizance of this fact, education should be designed to create and enhance the supply of entrepreneurial attitude, initiative and activities. The bottom line here is to inculcate the spirit of entrepreneurship in the student through education. Deductions to be made from this theory, are that calling for a staider adjustment in education policies and a new curriculum in line with contextual demand is paramount.

The Solesvik et al. (2013) study on entrepreneurial assets found out that EEd encourages students to develop human capital that can increase the intensity of their entrepreneurial mindset and attitude in contrast to students who are not exposed to an EEd program. Notably, students need to accumulate and mobilize general and specific human capital to discover and exploit entrepreneurial opportunities. Human capital is the set of idiosyncratic skills, competences, experience, and knowledge related to a task, and the ability to increase this capital through learning- in the context of this research we specify the learning to be “Entrepreneurial learning” (Foo, et al., 2019 and Nogueira, 2019). Individuals’ motivations; abilities; skills; knowledge and learning shape their ability to discover and exploit an entrepreneurial opportunity and achieve an advantage for their firms.

The worth of an individual or the degree of productivity of that individual is somewhat connected to the human capital profile of the individual (Becker, 1975). In other words, the ability to acquire or hone as much human capital as possible gives an edge or a more significant value proposition both to an individual and a business. EEd is part of the input process that seeks to inspire students to accumulate and mobilise human capital assets that can boost or shape their entrepreneurial attitude and intention to start a business and or engage in enterprising venture or behaviour within a multifaceted organisational context. (Solesvik, et al., 2013; Souitarisa et al., 2007; Matlay, 2008).

Most developing economies in the world share very similar attributes, ranging from large population size, poverty, unemployment, inadequate infrastructure and inefficient governments. Human capacity development (human resource) has, for a long time, been recognised as one of the keys or pathways to economic development. Different countries have experimented with different initiatives over the years, in an attempt to build their human resources to boost per-capita income and overall economic development. Hence, Human capital theory equally provides an additional lens from which this research is viewed.

2.8.3. Stakeholder Theory

While the theory of plan behaviour presents a useful underpinning for the development of entrepreneurial programme and pedagogies, Valliere et al. (2014) however, believe that designing a robust EEd program involves other stakeholders other than just the designers. The literature on Stakeholder Theory within the context of entrepreneurship education tries to describe the connection between the new educational programme and the various stakeholders that have an interest in it. The stakeholder perspective argues that if the objective and the expected outcome of EEd is centred on producing entrepreneurs who will be engaged in entrepreneurial activities that could potentially add to economic development; then there is the need for the involvement of different partners in developing these entrepreneurs. Thus, programme development champions must, therefore, endeavour and attempt to engage the different stakeholders in their programme designs (Matlay, 2011).

NO.	THEORY
1	Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)
2	Human Capital Theory (HCT)
4	Stakeholder theory

Table 2.2: Underpinning Theoretical Lens

Regardless of the model or theoretical underpinning that a study adopts, there will always be advantages and disadvantages. However, the model or theory that relates more closely and provides a better sense-making to the research questions of the study will always be the most appropriate theoretical framework. The theories mentioned above have been tested and widely used in previous studies (for example, Krueger Jr et al., 2000). They have the benefit of having exogenous factors captured in the attitudinal concepts, which in turn affect intention (Souitaris et al., 2007; Tkachev et al., 1999). This deepens insights into the underlying assumptions and the relationships (connections) among the theories in explaining the study phenomenon (Shepherd Wiklund, 2005).

Considering the nature of the research questions that the study seeks to answer, the thesis benefits highly from the review of these theories. While the theory of planned behaviour provides a theoretical framework well-suited for unpacking the entrepreneurial attitudes developed amongst students from EEd, the Human capital theory and the stakeholder theory offer an institutional elucidation that acknowledges the existence of Stakeholders both within and outside of an organisation. Human capital and stakeholder theory see HEIs as stakeholders and investors in human capacity development, alongside other stakeholders' outsiders the HEIs.

Using a multi-theory approach in research is not an uncommon phenomenon. Marvel et al. (2014) study of human capital and entrepreneurship research, opined strong support for a multi-theory approach which leverages on the limitation of one or single theory with the strength of another. The multiple theories reviewed give a suitable lens that underpins the study. More so, the pragmatic nature of the research philosophy makes the various theories even more appropriate in terms of providing a broader understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

The conceptual model below in figure 2.1 depicts a hypothetical relationship between the provision of entrepreneurship education and the behavioural outcome of the entrepreneurship program. The framework is a model with four interface constructs, which includes the Entrepreneurship Education Programme (EEP), the entrepreneurial attitude, intention, and behaviour/action. The framework assumes that a robust entrepreneurship education program will develop the required entrepreneurial attitude of students in a way that will increase their intention towards an entrepreneurial behaviour or action. While the stakeholder and human capital theory give a wide lens of understanding on the significance of the contribution of stakeholders like educators, institutions, and entrepreneurs in the development of entrepreneurship programs, the theory of plan behaviour, on the other hand, demonstrates how an expected behaviour or action can be shaped through influencing the behaviour and intention of an individual.

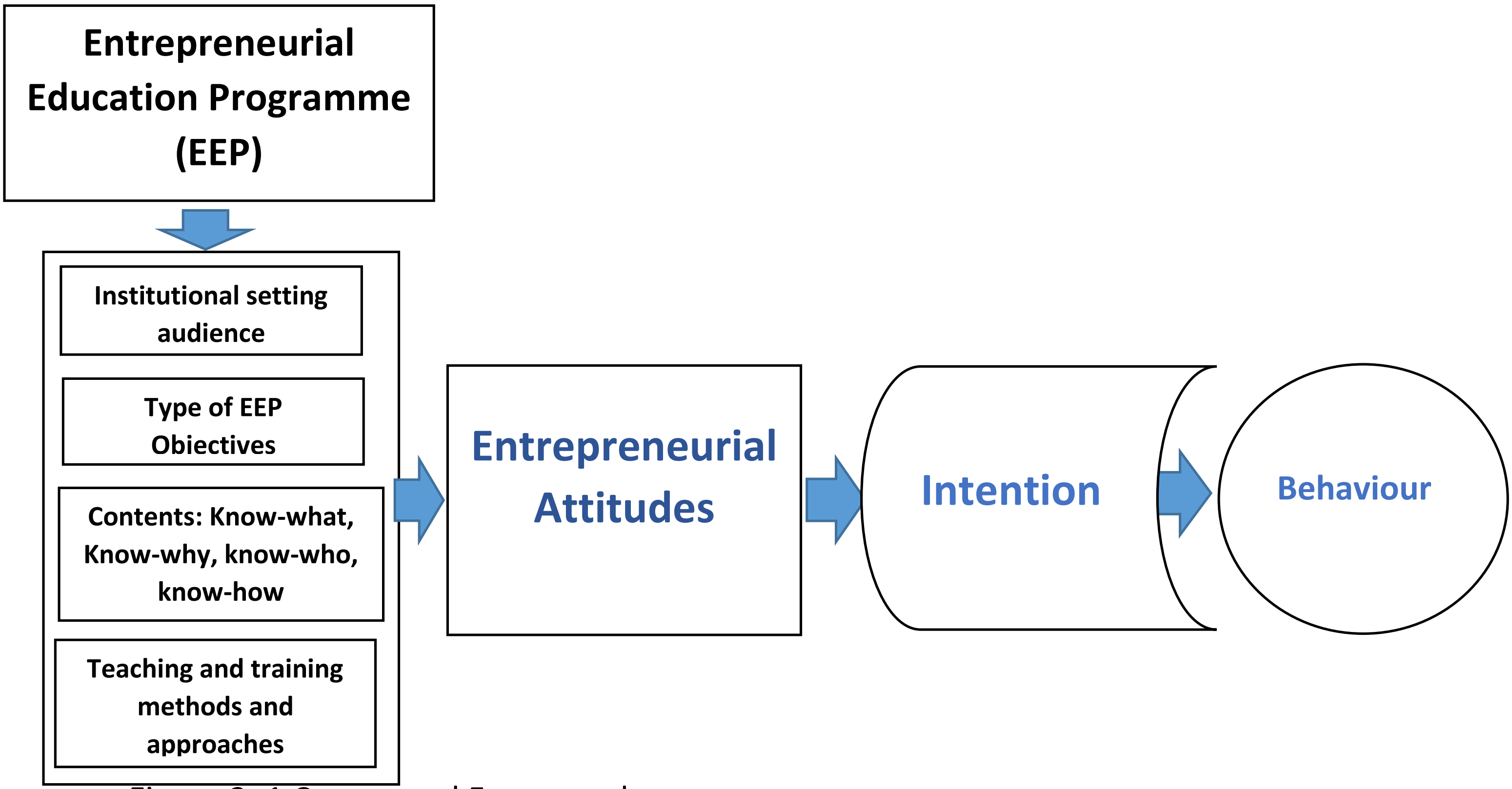


Figure 2: 1 Conceptual Framework

2.9 Literature Review Summary

Entrepreneurship education is still at its embryonic stage in many developing countries like Nigeria as compared to other developed economies of the world. Even though most Nigerian HEIs have initiated entrepreneurship programmes- literature, however, shows that there is little research available to comprehensively assess the outcome and its attendant impact on the entrepreneurial attitude of the students taking the courses. Though several studies like Ekpoh & Edet (2011) and Mahmoud et al. (2019) attempted to ascertain the impact of EEd on the career intentions of students, such works are limited in terms of sample size representation and the geographical location which is onesided. The journals within which most of these research outcomes are published are found to be low ranked journals. For example, Yatu et al. (2018) suggested that over 80% of the reviewed articles for a study on research contributions in the field of entrepreneurship education within the Nigerian context, were published in journals not ranked or indexed in the ABS journal rankings or the Scopus database.

2.9.1. Research Gap

While the reviewed literature points to the extensive effort towards measuring and ascertaining the quality and outcome of what HEIs do in EEd as noticed earlier, the concentration of the studies is in the context of developed countries, with relatively limited studies in developing countries like Nigeria (Yatu, et al., 2017)

Several studies underpinned by the human capital and stakeholder theory, give pride of place to human capacity development and the involvement of stakeholders in the process of building and developing this capacity (Bischoff et al., 2018). The literature reviewed reveals a dearth of research contribution in the area of stakeholder involvement in shaping the EEd process within the Nigerian context. This gap dovetails the conclusions from a series of studies (Ikebuaku & Dinbabo, 2018; Agwu et al., 2017), whose research made a call for research investigations in the entrepreneurship education process, which involves stakeholders contributing in shaping the EEd process from multifaceted angles (Gianiodis & Meek, 2019).

This study, therefore, explores the impact of entrepreneurship education on the entrepreneurial attitude of students, covering different HEIs across different locations where the institutions are operating. In doing so, this research is designed in such a way that stakeholders like entrepreneurs and also entrepreneurship educators, who are considered as critical stakeholders, are involved in the initial process of determining the entrepreneurial attitudes that are required of entrepreneurs in the Nigerian context.

When determining the effectiveness of entrepreneurship education, primarily within the Nigerian context, the literature review did not demonstrate a clear standpoint of consensus on how effective the current system is, and what aspects of entrepreneurship education should be assessed to determine its effectiveness. However, several studies have made suggestions for more research in different aspects that improve the curriculum, pedagogy and develop the required entrepreneurial attitudes and intention of students (Onuma, 2016; Amuda et al., 2019; Bischoff et al., 2018).

This study seeks to integrate the stakeholders' contribution to ascertaining the requisite entrepreneurial attitudes for business venturing within the Nigerian context. Equally, the study also throws more light as to how effective is the current system in developing the entrepreneurial attitudes of the students. The study positions itself to examine entrepreneurship education as such an 'exogenous influence' that shapes and develops the entrepreneurial attitudes and intention of university students towards an entrepreneurial behaviour. The methodological approach taken to explore the area is a mixed-method approach, which is examined in more detail in the third chapter.

CHAPTER 3:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology used to conduct the research study as well as the issues connected to the chosen research methodology. The chapter demonstrates the steps that were taken to address the research design, the data collection and the method of analysis used for the research study. These issues are addressed in light of the research objectives and the research questions developed in section one. Equally, the chapter presents the various aspects of the methodology that combine to give an underpinning justification for the chosen research method. The section overall provides a methodological framework that is coherent and easy for readers to understand and to follow through.

The chapter starts with the philosophical position that underpins the study and the methodology adopted. The section discusses the two research methods (qualitative and quantitative), with specific emphasis on the mixed methodological approach and its rationale, as it is the adopted methodology for the study. The methodology of the study is justified in terms of its appropriateness and usefulness to the research questions and objectives outlined for the study. The overall research philosophy, research method, design, and sampling process, are explained in this section.

3.2 Research Philosophy

It is imperative in social science research that scholars have a clear idea about the implications of the philosophical paradigms of the research. The way a researcher thinks about knowledge, its nature and the development of knowledge is what Saunders et al., (2012) argues as research philosophy. The philosophy of research could be seen as a body of knowledge that provides explanation and justification on specific phenomenon around us or about the environment in which we live. In other words, the philosophical debate centres on extrapolating the nature of reality and existence, and the best way of enquiry into the nature of the world. The popular terms used in these descriptions are the 'Ontology and the 'epistemology' (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Stressing the importance of the philosophical position in research, Sekaran & Bourgie (2013) are of the view that it allows researchers to come to terms with their personal world views about research. It also informs and influences the choice of the questions that are considered as essential and the methods for collecting and analysing data that will give the best answers to the research questions. Additionally, the philosophical position helps put the research in perspective, within the boundaries of a widely used philosophical underpinning or position.

3.2.1 Research Ontology and Epistemology.

The ontological philosophy of research seeks to provide clarity to claims and assumptions about the nature of social reality and existence. Claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units are consists of and how these units interact with each other. Ontological assumptions are concerned with our belief of what constitutes social reality. Brown (2006) explains that the ontological perspective unveils the researcher's view on reality or understanding of what is real. With regards to ontological questions- Hay (2002: 64) explains that the basic ontological question is "What is out there to know?" However, Lichtman (2006) and Johnson et al. (2008) proposed a chain of ontological questions which includes: Is reality objectively external to the researcher or subjectively internal within reach of the investigator? Is there a single reality which is objective, or are there multiple subjective realities?

Ontology sees the phenomenon of the world of our existence from different angles. These viewpoints include, 'one truth' which means that facts exist and can be revealed, (realism). The other viewpoint is the angle of 'many truths' which suggests that facts depend on people's different perspectives and observations (relativism or interpretivism). The third viewpoint is the perspective of 'No truth', which assumes that facts are just a by-product of human creations (Nominalism), or 'obscure truth' which asserts that facts are concrete but cannot be accessed directly, (Internal realism). The obscurity in the existence of the truth is what birth 'critical realism' See (Table 3.1).

The Ontology of a researcher by its nature leads or informs the epistemology of the research (Crotty, 1998). What then is epistemology?

Epistemology means “the possible ways of gaining knowledge of social reality or how we inquire into social reality. In other words, it is simply how we know that what we claim to understand, does or does not exist.

Epistemology is divided into objectivism and subjectivism (Crotty, 1998). The Subjectivist school suggests that there is no objective truth anywhere and that people create meaning from reality in a value-laden manner (Bryman, 2008; Guba and Lincoln; Saunders et al., 2012). Objectivism, on the other hand, presumes that reality and truth can only be known through a value-neutral manner, which is observable and a replicable fact. Objectivism is more common and applicable to the natural sciences (Bryman, 2008; Diesing, 1966; Horns, 2010).

This thesis adopts both epistemological perspectives because of the nature of the investigation, which requires a qualitative and quantitative commitment in the data collection and analysis process. Both epistemologies provide a deeper understanding of the issues surrounding the relationship between entrepreneurship education and its impact on developing the entrepreneurial attitudes of students in Nigerian. The combination of these two perspectives is what some researchers refer to as pragmatism.

The thesis puts weight on the ontological position that reality is multiple and could be uncovered by the researchers through multiple ways like interviewing, observations and questioning of social actors. This way of using any means suitable to satisfy a research objective is equally seen as pragmatism. Pragmatism is particularly suitable to this research as part of what the study seeks to do is to unearth views, perceptions or opinions from different respondents (entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators) with the view to understanding a phenomenon under investigation

Specifically, the ontological and epistemological commitment of this study leans more along the lines of critical realism and pragmatism. While the pragmatic underpins the whole research; critical realism is fundamental for the application of methods and the interpretation of the research findings. Critical realism acknowledges that external realities exist, but not all the phenomena can be measured; instead, it can best be explained or described through the instrumentality of human interaction: human interaction and interpretation shapes and influences social realities and outcome. For example, part of this study looks at attitude development, which different scholars like (Abelson, 1982; Chaiken & Stangor, 1987; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960) have observed as being relatively less stable than other variables like personality traits. The endless changing nature of the world and humans, both across time and across situations through interactive processes with the environment, supports the assertion that our reality is a by-product of our subjective human interaction and construction. In the same way, the philosophical standing observes that researchers are susceptible to bias and flawed methods when it comes to the ways of investigating or researching the world. As such, a combination of mixed or multiple methods in collecting data will help arrive at a useful understanding of what is happening around our world (Saunders et al., 2009).

The pragmatic approach involves using the method which appears best suited for the research problem, and not getting caught up in philosophical debates about which is the best approach. Pragmatic researchers, therefore, grant themselves the freedom to use any of the methods, techniques and procedures typically associated with quantitative or qualitative research. They recognise that every method has its limitations and that mixing the different approaches in a single study can be complementary.

They may also use different techniques at the same time or one after the other. For example, they might start with face-to-face interviews with several people or have a focus group and then use the findings to construct a questionnaire for the subsequent stages or phases of the research, intending to carry out statistical analysis.

Depending on which measures have been used, the data collected is analysed appropriately. However, it is sometimes possible to transform qualitative data into quantitative data and vice versa, although transforming quantitative data into qualitative data is not very common. Being able to mix different approaches has the advantage of enabling triangulation. Triangulation is a common feature of mixed-method studies.

Similarly, the pragmatic philosophy that underpins the study allows the researcher the freedom of using every applied method that yields practical and useful results in answering the research questions raised in the study. The protagonists of this philosophy see everything around us as an essential tool for understanding and finding our way into the world around us.

There has always been considerable debate as to where mixed-method research sits in relation to research design (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Fetters, et al., 2013)). This is due mainly to the fact that both quantitative and qualitative research designs are related with contrasting philosophical positions or paradigms. For example, qualitative research is linked with interpretivism and inductive methodologies, while quantitative is often link with positivism and deductive methodologies see (fig 3.1). Methodology literature suggests that there are three dominant paradigms from which researchers are free to choose from based on their research alignment: interpretivism, positivism and pragmatism (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). However, scholars like Brown (2006), Horn (2009) and Denscombe (2010) identify interpretivism and positivism as the two dominant paradigms in academic research. Broadly speaking, the ongoing and dominant argument suggests that the third one is only a fusion or hybrid of the popular two, which is developed for researchers with a mixed-method orientation (Saunders et al., 2012).

The choice of these two paradigms (critical realism and pragmatism) as the philosophical underpinning or position of our research is informed by the balance that they allow in the research. A pure critical realist viewpoint could potentially tilt towards extremism, thereby denying a piece of research the chance of ensuring practicality and relevance in the research and outcome. Thus, the pragmatic paradigm, on the other hand, helps bring that balance with regards to freedom of choice of research design (method, strategy, data collection technique, etc.).

Additionally, the pragmatic nature of the research lies in the fact that the study investigates what is working in real life, which is entrepreneurship and its role in job creation and overall economic development. Similarly, the investigation appeals to and sits very well within the critical realist ontology, as the study equally tries to find out what is not working and what could be done to enhance the effectiveness of entrepreneurship education in entrepreneurial development of graduate entrepreneurs.

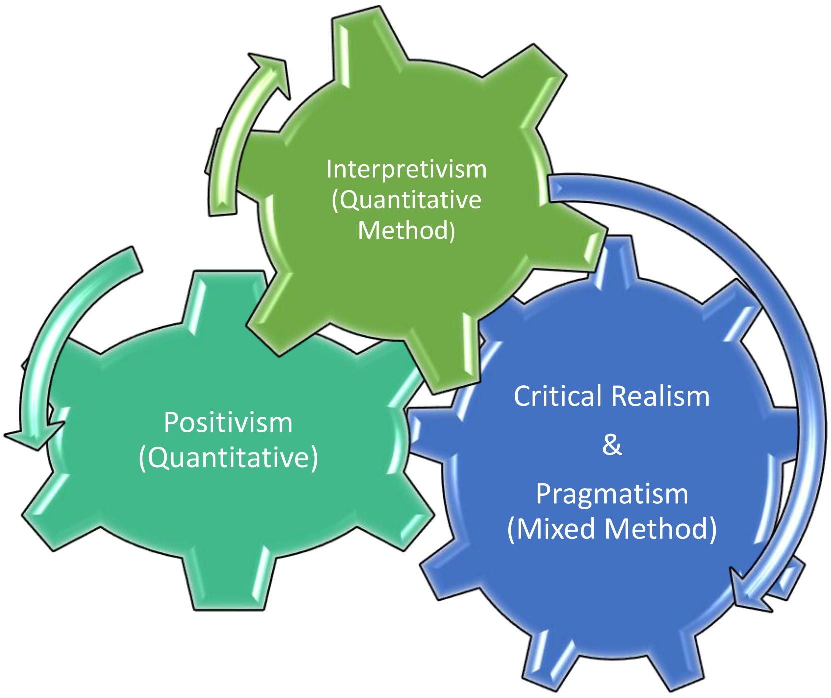


Figure 3.1 Three Dominant Research Paradigms

3.3 Research Method

3.3.1 Mixed-Method Approach.

"Not everything that can be counted counts and not everything that counts can be counted." Albert Einstein, 1879 – 1955 (Zambon & Guenther, 2011)

The mixed-method research is the term generally used in literature for when quantitative and qualitative research methods are being integrated within a single project. In order words, the approach integrates the data collection techniques and analysis procedures within a single study. This approach of combining methods in social science research is increasingly gaining momentum (Timans et al., 2019). Mixing research methods in a single study does not necessarily imply that the findings of one study provides an avenue for another study; it could also mean that the findings of the previous study could also be combined with the findings of the successive study.

The definition of Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, p.5) on the concept suggests that mixed-method research is equally a research design with philosophical commitments and assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. The method is rooted in epistemological and ontological commitments which steer the direction of the collection and analysis of data, and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in the different phases of the research process (Bryman et al., 2015). The fundamental position and argument of this method are that the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches within a single study provides a clearer and comprehensive insight into a research problem than either of the approaches alone could. In other words, the rationale for mixing both kinds of data within one study is grounded in the fact that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are sufficient by themselves, to capture the trends and details of a situation. Rightly captured in the quote above, that not everything that can be counted counts and not everything that counts can be counted (Albert Einstein, 1879 – 1955).

When used in combination, quantitative and qualitative methods complement each other and allow for more robust analysis, taking advantage of the strengths of each through the process.

The mixed method has enjoyed much patronage and usage amongst researchers. While there is possibly more awareness of mixed-method research and its potential attractiveness to researchers; there are numerous impediments encountered by researchers when executing a mixed-method research. For example, integrating the results, and writing for diverse audiences could be highly challenging in many instances, especially where there is a dearth or absence of architype studies to refer to. Bryman (2007) observed that over-stressing the findings from a favourite or more trusted method, could results to a subconscious pressure or a feeling of obligation to over-emphasise certain results and methods, simply to increase chances of a study being accepted for publication.

Bryman (2007) is of the view that lack of a clear rationale, especially in mixed-method research, can be an indication of indecisiveness between methods, or insufficient understanding of the approach, which potentially could result in an improper use of mixed methods. Therefore, advancing a clear rationale for undertaking and adopting a mixed methods research helps tackle some of the challenges inherent with this methodology type and gives a clear and robust methodological standing for the study.

3.3.1.1 Justification for Mixed Method.

Fayollea & Liñán (2014) conducted work on future research in entrepreneurship education using intention as an impact factor; they opined that scholars should seek to conduct studies with a high standard of methodological rigour. Specifically, they are of the view that researchers should attempt to triangulate their findings using multi-method studies or adopt a mixed-method research approach that allows independent or a combination of research methods. This will allow the collection of reach data that could result in a robust finding. Equally, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) observed that a mixed-method research approach allows a researcher to use different methods for different purposes in the same study, which ultimately increases the reliability and the rigour of the research outcome.

Even though the mixed method has been criticised by scholars like Bryman (2006) on the grounds of generating data that multiplies the likelihood of an unanticipated outcome, nevertheless, it provides such a wealth of data that exhumes more understanding on the inquired phenomenon, and potentially foregrounds new inquiries into other areas.

More specifically, there are several reasons why a mixed-method enjoys adoption by researchers in their various investigations. Mixed-method research allows room for triangulation. Triangulation is the use of different data collection and analysis techniques to explore the same phenomenon with the aim of establishing convergence and corroboration.

Mixed method research enables a researcher to use methods and techniques that complement each other (Complementarity). Complementarity in the methods and techniques of research helps with enriched explanation, illustration and clarification of research outcomes from one method to the other (Greene et al., 1989).

Furthermore, mixed-method research opens doors for innovation in research as it explores a given phenomenon using different techniques. The potential outcome could be an uncovering of new possible realities or variables that positions the research investigation in a different perspective. Interestingly, adopting a mixed method in a research investigation allows the researcher to expand the breadth and range of the inquiry he/she is carrying out because different methods are involved in the four different inquiry components.

The work of Bryman (2006) which analysed the content of over 232 articles, unpacked more specific justification for mixed-method researchers, with clear rationales as to why the mixed-method approach should be given close attention in research. Even though not all of the justifications outlined by Bryman are necessarily applicable to this study, the points highlighted below from this analysis, support the grounds of this research for using mixed methodology.

Completeness – Employing both quantitative and qualitative research enables the emergence of a more comprehensive account in mixed-method research. The aim of the study suggests that the investigation is attempting to answer different questions in a single piece of research. This process could take either the 'concurrent approach' where all the questions and the stages are being tackled at the same time or the 'Sequential approach' where one stage informs or substantiates the subsequent stage(s), as it is the case in this study. The full discussion is captured in the next session. Mixed-method research takes a pride of place for such research dynamics, as it allows for the use of a single methodological tradition (mixed method) to tackle different questions with different stages in a single study as in the case of this research (O'Byrne, 2007).

Instrument development/Operationalization – this is one of the crucial advantages of mixed-method research. The approach allows the use of findings from one stage to contribute to developing instruments, for example, a questionnaire for the next stage of the study or for verification of findings. In this piece of research, the operationalization of data collection instrument is considered as a critical point and justification for the choice of the mixed-method approach. It forms part of the second phase of the research, of which the findings from the qualitative study would be used in operationalizing a robust questionnaire instrument for the survey phase of the study, see (Figure 3.2). Onwuegbuzie, et al. (2010, p.60-61) proposed a model that expound clearly how such integration of different research outcomes can be achieved in one study. The detail is captured in the subsequent chapter.

Bryman & Bell (2015) having done work on business research methods opined that there are different types of mixed-method design, which include: convergent parallel design which entails a simultaneous (same time) collection of quantitative and qualitative data- with equal priority to both methods. The design is also called 'concurrent design'. This kind of design tends to be associated with a triangulation exercise, whereby the researcher aims to compare the two sets of findings or seeks to offset the advantages and the disadvantages of both methods. The other type of mixed-method research design as advanced by Bryman et al. (2015) is an exploratory sequential design. Saunders et al. (2009) have a similar classification. The sequential design is also a way of collecting data, with a process that flows from one stage to the other. This type is associated with investigations in which the researcher wants to generate a hypothesis which can then be tested using quantitative research or a type of investigation that aims to develop or operationalise instruments, such as a questionnaire which can then be employed in a quantitative investigation. In other words, one process or stage of the data collection informs the next stage or process of data collection.

This research adopts the exploratory sequential design, as the data collection process flows from one stage to the other. The sequential progression in the research process allows the researcher to use or leverage the findings from one stage of the research, to inform or develop the subsequent stage of the research. In other words, a mixed-method approach takes pride of place for a researcher to develop instruments for potential use in the next phase or stage of the research, as shown in the mixed-method data collection integration diagram in Figure 3.2. It is considered that the first stage of data collection will be to conduct an interview with entrepreneurs and educators, to identify the entrepreneurial attitudes and attribute that they consider as important for setting up a business in the Nigerian context. The second stage of the research benefits from the first stage as it involves a questionnaire development that seeks to identify the attitude and attributes that students developed from EEd, see (Figure 3.2). Some of the variables from the questionnaire would emanate from the qualitative findings of the research, and the process then refines and operationalises a questionnaire for the Nigerian context.

Credibility –the mixed approach that uses both quantitative and qualitative methods heighten the integrity of the research outcomes. There is a relative paucity of mixed-method approaches being used for exploring the entrepreneurial attitude of students within the context of Nigeria, which makes ‘credibility’ also a relevant justification for the adoption. In other words, not many types of research of similar focus have mixed methodology as part of their methodological framing or design. The approach helps to offset the inherent strengths and weaknesses of different research methods and also enables them to augment the process of the investigation and also the findings

Utility – the combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods potentially gives useful, and practical benefits and advantage to practitioners and other stakeholders. The pragmatic and applied nature of this research makes it significant to reflect on the usefulness and the practicality of the findings to diverse stakeholders, as such, 'utility' is also a significant rationale for adopting the mixed-method approach in this research (Greene, et al., 2001). Equally, as mentioned earlier, the methodology has philosophical conventions that guide the direction and the whole process of the collection and analysis of data; thus, the mixed approach helps the researcher significantly in understanding and interpreting any surprising or unexpected finding of the different research methods.

3.3.1.2. Limitations for Mixed Method

Whilst several findings of research that utilised mixed method have indicated the extreme usefulness of the method as a tool that brings together the strengths of other forms or inquiry while minimizing the limitations (Greene, et al., 2001; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Bazeley (2002) argued that the appropriate use of mixed methods is difficult to deliver. Mixed method research is generally a costly and time intensive research design that could potentially pose challenges for many researchers. It is sometimes argued that a mixed methods research is limited and criticised for its lack of clear purposed and substantive focus (creswell, 2014). Similarly, the work of Brannen, (2017) on mixed methods in qualitative and quantitative research raises a potential limitation which centres on the challenge that comes with combining different methods within a single research-more specifically is the question of movement between paradigms at the levels of the epistimology and theory. It could get untidy and messy sometimes if the apprioppriate methods are not being chosen in the process (Brannen, 2005).

Even though the two methods may produce contradictory findings of the same phenomena, or at least unrelated ones – "it is likely that quantitative methods and qualitative methods will eventually answer questions that do not easily come together to provide a single, well-integrated picture of the situation" (Patton, 1990, pp. 464-5). The research questions and objectives that drive this study, however, require a combination of both the quantitative and qualitative techniques for data collection and analysis procedure, this is more widely referred to as 'mixed-method approach'. The next section will explore in detail each of the methods and how they are being integrated and used in the research.

3.3.2 Qualitative and Quantitative Research.

The choice between a quantitative and a qualitative approach in research dominates the concerns of many researchers. The terms qualitative and quantitative are widely used in business and management research to differentiate or distinguish both data collection techniques and data analysis procedures as observed by (Saunders et al., 2009). At a base level, while quantitative is predominately associated with numerical data and uses large sample sizes in testing theories, qualitative on the other hand is non- numerical, that is, it uses words and meanings in building theories, and it is often in smaller samples. Some other research design choices allow for a combination of only data collection techniques and analysis procedure within either quantitative or qualitative research- this is what Saunders referred to as a 'Multi-method'. While some researchers use only one type of method (Mono method), others suggest that both types may sometimes be appropriate (Borch and Arthur, 1995; Hyde, 2000).

3.3.2.1. Qualitative Data Collection

Data collection is always a crucial aspect of every research, as data is fundamental to research problems. Without the data, the research questions would almost be non-existent or not necessary. Saunders & Townsend (2016) are of the position that in reporting research that draws on qualitative interviews, it is incumbent on researchers to explain and justify their data collection and analysis transparently in relation to their purpose (Baker and Edwards, 2012; Robinson, 2014), in that way, it allows users to judge its utility. This is not only limited to reporting qualitative research but also research that is quantitative or mixed in nature. The section presents how the entire data is being collected and the procedures involved. Starting with the instruments for the data collection and also the analysis.

3.3.2.1.1. Interview.

An interview is simply a purposeful discussion between two people. Rubin & Rubin, (1995) in their work on qualitative interview-the art of hearing data, are of the opinion that the interview is a professional conversation, intending to get participants to talk about their experiences and perspectives and also to capture their language and concepts with regards to the topic under study (Braun & Clarke, 2013). This technique is widely recognised and acknowledged as a viable instrument for gathering valid and reliable data that is relevant for answering a research question and meeting the need for a research objective. Interviews can be either structured, semi-structured or unstructured. Structured interviews usually make use of questionnaires based on a predetermined and standardised set of questions. Saunders et al. (2009) refer to this as ‘interview administered questionnaires.’ While it allows the researcher to get definite answers to their research questions, it does not allow room for the respondent to express his/her opinion, as such it limits the amount and depth of data that the researcher can glean from the interview.

A semi-structured interview type, on the other hand, is non-standardised, usually, the researcher, in this case, will have a list of themes and questions to cover. Even though it lacks the orderliness and the structured nature of the previous type discussed, it allows the respondent much freedom to express his/her view more, which means the researcher ends up with more data. The unstructured interview is very informal. While it gives much information with depth, it could be misdirected and derail the whole focus of the research.

3.3.2.1.2. Selection of Semi-Structured Interviewing.

Semi-structured interviews have been well-defined as “guided, concentrated, focused and open-ended communication events, which are co-designed by the investigator and interviewee(s) and take place outside the stream of everyday life”. This technique allows room for the researcher (Interviewer) to develop a flexible interview guide with questions, probes and prompts for the actual interview (Miller & Crabtree, 1992, p. 16). The use of Open-ended questions in data collection process allow participants to answer questions freely and at their own pace without any kind of pressure, and to the level of detail, they are comfortable with. The collection of rich and relevant data for a research is often considered as a by-product of a free, conducive, and relaxed atmosphere, of which an open-ended questioning in an interview guarantees.

This research adopts the semi-structured approach because it benefits from the attributes and the formal guided direction of a structured type of interview with some of the flexible attributes of the unstructured type. It is called semi-structured because it is often seen as a “guided, concentrated, focused and open-ended communication.’’ The questions, probes and prompts are written in the form of a flexible interview guide. The interview schedule of open-ended questions was developed based on the key themes that emanated from the literature. Due to the focus of this thesis being on the impact of entrepreneurship education on the entrepreneurial attitude and intention of entrepreneurship students, the questions were written targeting entrepreneurial educators and entrepreneurs as well. Apart from the free response that the semi-structured interview affords its participants in terms of the level of details they divulge, it is argued to be the most often considered technique for rich data collection.

Furthermore, the semi-structured type of interview could be said to be the most ethical way of information gathering from participants, simply because the process of the question asking, and the responding is devoid of any form of force, restriction or duress. Contrary to the case of the close-ended type that restricts the will and views of the respondent. Significantly, the efficacy of open-ended questions in an interview lies in their ability to generate responses and reactions which can be flexibly probed further by the researcher to allow the emergence of new insights and themes from the interview. More so, it accommodates the interviewee's preferred pace and progression during the interview, while at the same time ensuring that the response required for answering the main research questions are being obtained. The interview results are obtained either through direct questioning or freely elicited by the interviewee (Saunders, et al., 2019; Oppenheim, 1992).

3.3.2.1.3. Qualitative Data Analysis.

Qualitative methods in research have the potential for enhancing the overall quality of research. Not only do they help in the exploration of individual perception and situational experiences, rather than advancing reductionist explanation on issues like the entrepreneurship education in Nigeria, but they are also timely in new theory generation (Henwood and Pidgeon 1995). Rather than merely aiming to validate the kind of attitudes required for entrepreneurial venturing among university students, the qualitative approach allows new potential predictors to emerge from the perception of the respondents in the interview. After that, it could result in new theory generation or operationalising an instrument for subsequent research- as is the intention and ambition of this phase of research. Because of the need for some form of structure and flexibility, a semi-structured interview was considered to be the most suitable technique for data collection. The flexibility in the semi-structured method allows for us to elicit new themes and subsequent potential predictors that would otherwise not have been common with the research context, or the existing literature reviewed, especially as part of the objective of this research explores the perception of respondents; hence, flexibility in data collection approach will be essential

The interviews with the entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial educators will be audio-recorded and transcribed for onward analysis. Transcription is an essential part of qualitative research that involves typing up what is being recorded into a textual form. It is more or less, the initial or preparatory step for analysing the raw audio data set. Braun & Clarke (2013) classed the transcription styles into two- the 'orthographic or verbatim style' and the 'audio transcription style'. While the former transcribes only what is being said verbatim, the latter (audio transcription style) captures exactly what was said and how it was being said.

This study adopts the verbatim or orthographic style of transcription, as the investigation concerns itself more with opinion or perception as against visual elements. The transformation from a spoken word (recording) into a written language is important as it creates a clear and a complete version of what was uttered as possible in the text transcript, without changing anything. This enables the researcher to also have a flavour of how people express themselves in the context in which the data is being collected. The transcribed interview is then coded using the computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software NVivo (version 10.0.368.0 SP3) developed by an Australian company QSR International in 1999 (Lee et al., 2010). Even though the software does not do the analysis it is especially valuable for processing a large number of interviews or voluminous transcripts, and for creating text data matrixes to compare responses among the respondents, to explore connections and reveal hidden patterns in data as we will see in the explanation of thematic and content analysis below.

3.3.2.1.3.1. Thematic Analysis.

Another widely used analytical tool in qualitative research is the thematic analysis (TA). It is used for analysing interviews and textual materials. The thematic analysis (TA) type technique is utilised to give meaning or to make sense of the transcribed data. This type of analysis breaks the data into smaller units to reveal their characteristic elements and structure. TA is a widely used technique for analysing qualitative data. This technique suffices for this research study.

Thematic analysis has received quite a number of definitions. Braun and Clarke (2006) view thematic analysis as a technique in qualitative analysis for identifying (underlying ideas, assumptions, and conceptualizations in interviews, texts, and open-ended responses), analysing data and for reporting the themes and patterns that emerged from the data; they added that thematic analysis is employed by interpretivists and realists to report their experiences and meanings adduced to social reality. According to Horn (2010), thematic analysis is a form of template analysis, the emerging themes and codes are identified based on insights from grounded theory. The meaning deduced from themes and patterns in qualitative research could be identified through an inductive/bottom-up approach or, through the deductive/top-down approach (Boyatzis, 1998; Hayes, 1997). Beyond ordinary thematising, the thematic analysis goes further to interpret various aspects of themes/sub-themes that emerged after the transcription and coding of raw data (Boyatzi, 1998).

The steps involved in the thematic analysis include (a) The researcher relates to and familiarises themselves thoroughly with the data; (b) Identify and generate preliminary codes/categorisations; (c) Try to search for common themes; read, review and fine-tune the themes when better insights are gained from the data; (d) Refine and name themes; (e) Produce the final report on the basis of which conclusions would be based (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Denscombe, 2010; Horn, Saunders et al., 2012). These five steps above are adhered to in a systematic manner while transcribing the audio recording from the interviews conducted for the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators into text and analysing the transcript.

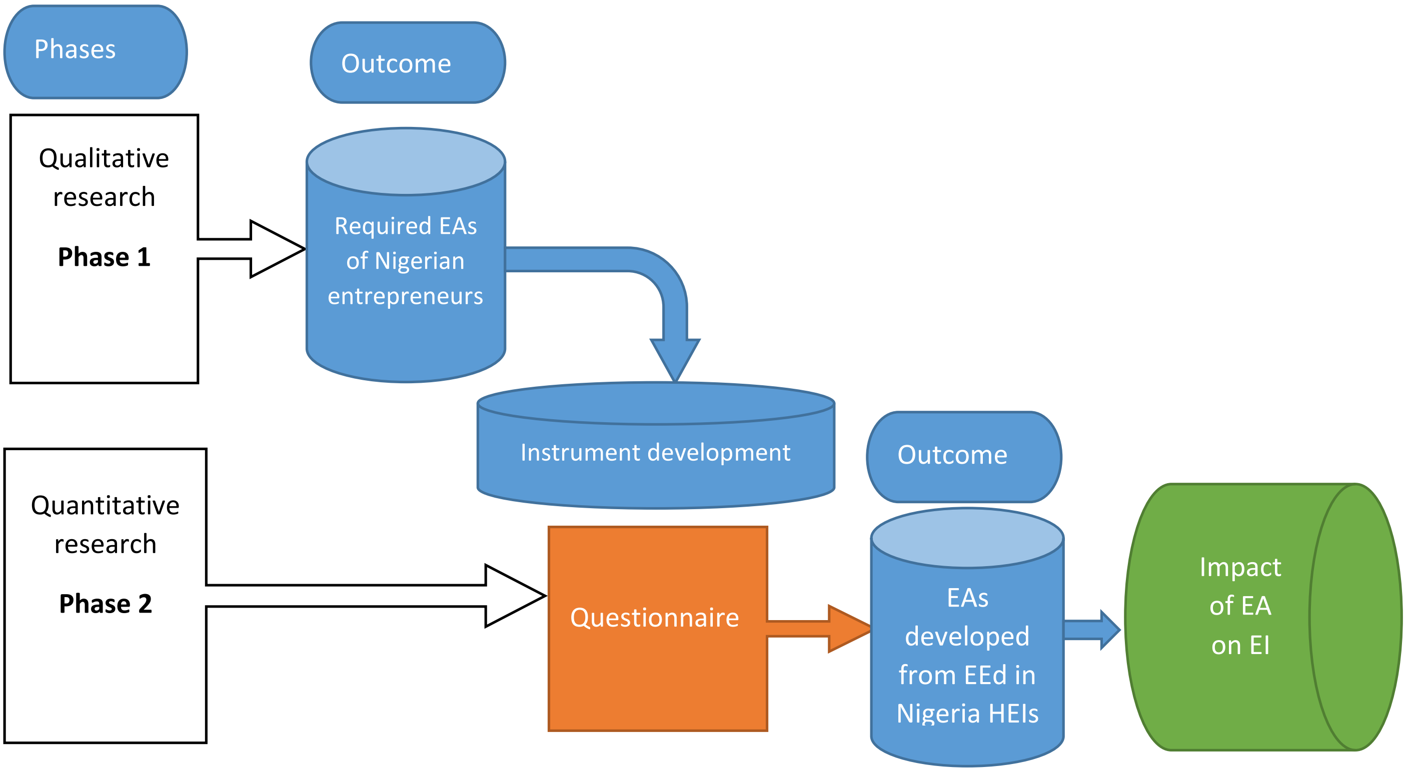
No	Step	Explanation
1	Transcription	This step involves the careful conversion of voice data to verbatim textual data which must be checked repeatedly against the contents of the tape for accuracy.
2	Coding	This step involves the extraction of relevant codes, themes and key issues from the transcribed data. Repeated checks against the original data are emphasised to identify patterns.
3	Analysis	This entails making informed meaning out of the codes/themes, not just paraphrasing but bringing convincing argument out of the themes that emerged.
4	Overall	This step emphasises the need to be meticulous in capturing all the themes as well as ensuring justice is done to all phases of the thematising of data.
5	Written report	This is the last step, which ensures that the researcher's claim on thematic analysis is matched with the final write-up.

Table 3. 1: Thematic Analysis Steps

Source: Braun and Clarke 2006 (2006)

The next phase of the research involves questionnaire design development. Thematic and content analysis process are basically the methods adopted in analysing the content and identifying the themes in the data, from which the questionnaire development process sets in. The diagram below (figure 3.2) shows the point at which the two stages of the data collection process are integrated.

Figure 3.2 Integration of Mixed-Method in Data Collection



3.3.2.2. Quantitative Data Collection

The quantitative data collection is concerned with gathering and interpreting numerical data. This data can be classified (well-ordered), measured or categorised using statistical analysis (Goertzen, 2017). This type of analysis is essential when it comes to unearthing patterns (or relationships) and for making wider generalisations (or inferences) to a wider population. The quantitative data collection more often than not involves one or more of the following: Surveys, tests, or questionnaires – administered in groups, one-on-one, by mail, or online. This study utilises an operationalise questionnaire as the instrument for the data collection.

3.3.2.2.1 Questionnaire.

A questionnaire is one of the data collection instruments in quantitative research, where each person or participant is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order. This includes structured interviews and telephone questionnaires as well as questionnaires answered without the interviewer being necessarily present. Saunders et al. (2009) observed that this technique is one of the most widely used instruments for data collection; its greatest usage in business and management research is within the survey strategy.

The questionnaire for the study will be designed in the second stage of the research. The outcome of the qualitative stage will be integrated into the process of designing the questionnaire; after which the operationalised version of the questionnaire will then be used for the students' survey. The questionnaire will be administered among first and final year students in the Departments of Economics, Business Administration, Accounting and Finance from three different universities, in a survey, see chapter five for details on the questionnaire operationalisation process. The final year students well be chosen because they would have gone through the entrepreneurship education experience either as an elective or a full degree program and are about to face their professional career choice, equally, they belong to the category of a class of the highest entrepreneurially informed students in the system. The inclusion of the first-year students in the chosen category for the survey is solely to enable a comparison of the two groups. It is assumed that the impact of the current EEd in the Nigerian HEIs will be significantly evident in the proposed two chosen groups. More detail of the questionnaire development is presented in the subsequent sections.

3.3.2.3. The Research Design.

Research design depicts a framework, or a well-planned technique chosen by a researcher to hone-in on the research methods that are suitable for conducting a piece of research from the beginning right to the end (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The design of research could equally be termed as the coherent formation or outline of an enquiry which allows data collected through a dominant research strategy to provide research questions with relevant, adequate, reliable and credible answers (Saunders et al., 2019). The plan of how a researcher aims to go about providing answers to research questions is fundamentally what research design is about. Likewise, the design also captures the type of data required, the proposed sources of data, the techniques for data collection, method of data analysis, findings, risk factors and ethical issues involved in the research (Saunders et al., 2012).

The design in this research takes a sequential style approach where one stage precedes the other (Creswell, 2014). The first stage of the research is the qualitative phase (see figure 3.2) which adopts a semi-structured interview technique in collecting data among entrepreneurs and educators. The objective at this stage is to understand the entrepreneurial attitude and attributes that are perceived to be the most important or essential for entrepreneurial venturing within the Nigerian context. Equally, the outcome of this interview will partly inform the development of the data collection instrument (questionnaire) for the next stage of the research. The qualitative stage precedes the quantitative phase where questionnaires are being developed to identify the attitude that students develop as a result of the EEd experience; this is the second stage in the research design.

The flow of the data collection assumes that the first stage, which is the qualitative stage (interview with entrepreneurs and educators) might unveil some other attitudinal variables, other than the prevalent ones found in the literature. The outcome (First phase) which would support the operationalization of an appropriate questionnaire for the second phase of the research. The focus of the second phase will be to understand and identify whether the Nigerian EEd experience facilitates the development of such attitudes among students. Developing a questionnaire with input from the outcome of the qualitative stage increases the robustness of the instrument, as against starting with a questionnaire survey before the interview stage, this could exclude some of those vital context-specific variables that could emanate from the interview.

The second stage is the quantitative process, which is a survey that makes use of an operationalized questionnaire to identify the kind of attitude developed as a result of the entrepreneurship education experience. This strategy is invaluable and suitable for the design of this research because it allows easy generation of data from the research population via questionnaire and online engagements with the target population. The results could be analysed quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics. Significantly the strategy gives some degree of independence and control of the research progression to the researcher, from which possible reasons for relationships between variables could be deduced. Additionally, the strategy could enable the generation of findings that will be representative of the whole population within a reasonable period and at a bearable cost to the researcher.

This is the overall mixed-method design and how the methods are integrated into the study from the 1st phase to the 2nd phase, as shown in figure 3.3 below.

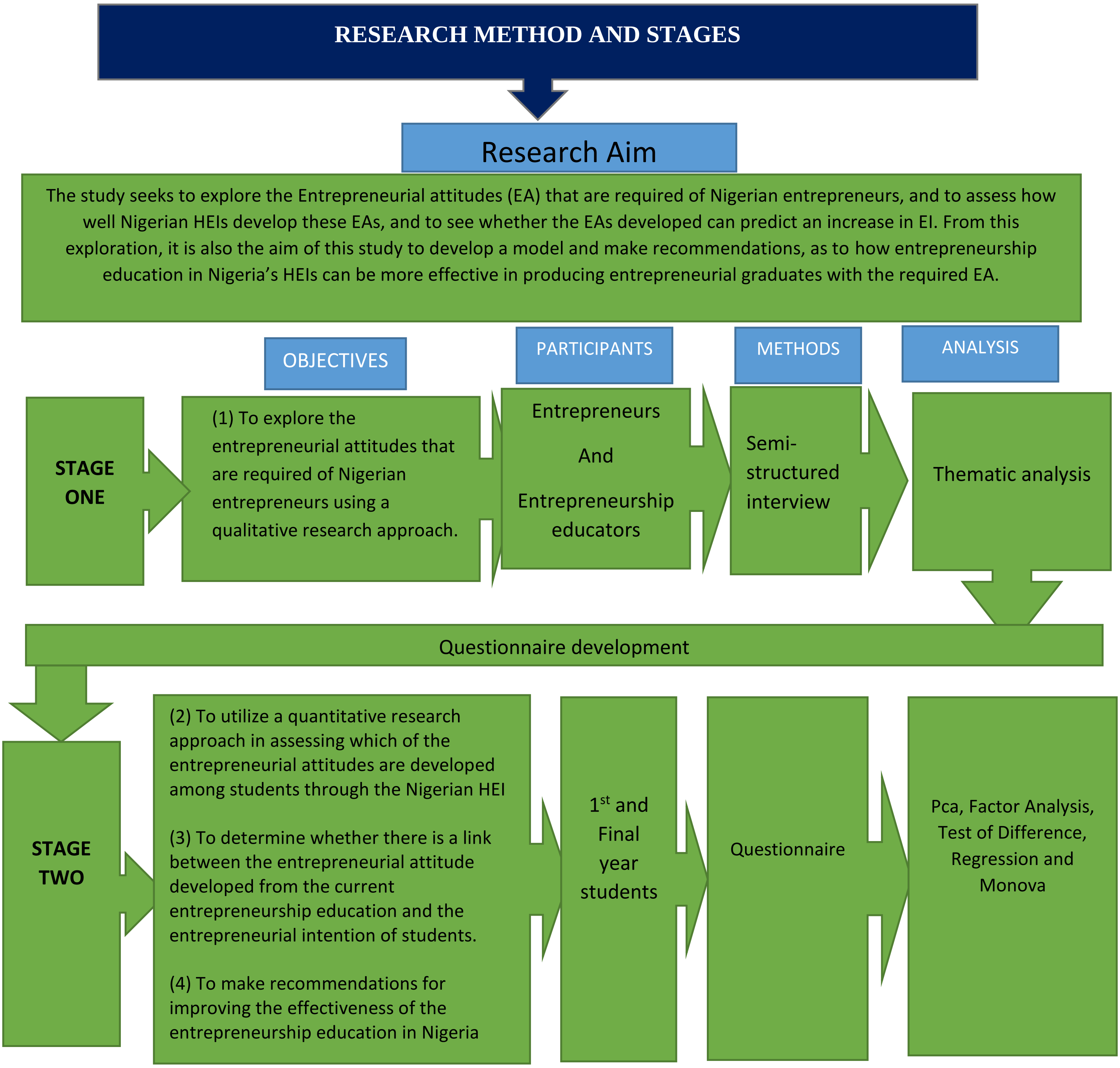


Figure 3. 3. Mixed-Method Research Design Diagram

3.3.2.4. Sampling Frame and Process.

The sampling frame in every research entails the list of all those within a population from which a sample is drawn, or who can be sampled for a particular research study.

The decision about the identification and selection of organisations, places or people for the collection of the data, is what is commonly termed as the sampling process. The sampling decisions often play an essential role in determining the quality of the research, especially as it is almost impossible to collect data from an entire research population (Saunders et al., 2009). Therefore, sampling allows the collection of data from an informed and manageable sized population. While quantitative enquiries border on achieving a representative sample that enables generalising results of a population, the qualitative, on the other hand, is more concerned with the depth of the exploration of the phenomenon under study.

3.3.2.4.1 Research Population and Sample.

Sampling begins with precisely defining the target population. The population for any research investigation is the full set of cases or elements from which a sample could be drawn from. While the population for research encapsulates the entire groups and elements; research sample, on the other hand, is a proportion of the population, a slice of it, or a part of it that possesses the same characteristics as the population. In other words, a sample is representative of the main population?

There are three clusters of the population for this research, namely the entrepreneurs, business and management academics (educators) and students in the Nigerian universities. From these different clusters, the research samples are taken for data collection purposes.

Entrepreneurs and academics are targeted to form part of the first stage of the research, as the research at the first stage seeks to understand their perception on the entrepreneurial attitude, they perceive to be essential for entrepreneurial venturing in Nigeria. The students constitute the population from which the sample for the second stage of the study will be drawn from. The aim at the second stage is to identify the entrepreneurial attitude and attributes students developed as a result of EEd and whether these could predict an increase in their entrepreneurial intention.

The researcher proposed to limit the data collection to a specific geographical region, which is the Northern Region (NR). With regards to education and a high tendency for entrepreneurial activities in Nigeria, the northern region is more at a disadvantage in comparison to the Southern Region (SR). Therefore, a study within this region (NR) that investigates the impact of entrepreneurship education on developing entrepreneurial attitudes among students will be a significant contribution. Within the (NR), the researcher specifically targets the North Central Zone (NCZ) of the region, which is one of the 6 Geo-political zones. The choice of a specific zone is informed by the large size of the region in terms of population, and the selected zone has the highest concentration of universities. Thus, focusing on this specific zone would not only be convenient and cost-effective for the researcher given the large size of the population, but it is equally considered appropriate for extracting a purposive sample for the study that will enable a comprehensive investigation of the research problem.

The following universities (Nasarawa State University, University of Jos and Benue State University) were selected from this zone (NCZ) as the target or sample population for the survey. The choice of these universities over other universities in the zone is informed by the fact that they have well-established faculties/centres solely dedicated to entrepreneurship development and teaching entrepreneurship as a full program (Entrepreneurship Development Centre-Nasarawa State University; Centre for Entrepreneurship Studies-University of Jos and Centre for Entrepreneurship Studies- Benue State University). Alvesson and Ashcraft (2012) considered it essential to interview participants in a research sample to ensure coverage of the entire research population through variation and also demonstrating that the data collected is of sufficient depth to provide salient information in relation to research purpose and of sufficient breadth to allow coverage within the responses. In the case of this study, the variation in the participants for both the qualitative and quantitative investigation is in the selection of the different institutions from which the target samples are drawn. The research enjoys the cosiness of engaging with educators and students from different institutions with centres that have entrepreneurship at the core of their focus. This gives sufficient breadth and a great wealth of information and data for tackling the research questions and objectives.

3.3.2.4.2 Sampling Method.

Sampling techniques are generally classed into two types- probability and non-probability sampling (Saunders M et al., 2003). Probability sampling is the techniques that allow a piece of research whose objective is around estimating the statistical characteristics of the target population from the sample to meet its definite aim. In other words, probability sampling allows a researcher to answer the research question or to address objectives that require statistical inferences about the characteristics of the population. Equally, in probability sampling, the elements within the population have a known chance of being selected as part of the target population. They are usually equal for all the elements in the population. This type of sampling technique is usually associated with the survey and experiment research strategy. “Non-probability sampling” on the other hand, has an unknown chance of any of element within the population being selected as part of the sample. Saunders et al. (2009) opined that non-probability sampling might also allow generalisation about the target population, but not on statistical grounds.

3.3.2.4.2.1. Purposive Sampling.

The purposive sampling technique is a type of non-probability sampling that entails using judgement to select cases or elements that will enable the research questions to be answered and also meet the research objective. This is sometimes known as judgemental sampling. Even though deciding on who or what to include or exclude is critically important, the technique offers this research an ample opportunity to intentionally choose a specific type of sample with knowledge, experience and expertise that will provide useful data or information for the study.

3.3.2.4.2.2. Snowballing.

Snowballing is equally a non-probability sampling technique that thrives on referral. It is commonly used when there are difficulties in identifying members of the desired population. The snowballing technique works in such a way where the researcher makes contact with one or two cases in the population and then ask the new cases to identify further cases and also ask the new cases to identify further new cases. The apparent problem or downside to this technique would have been, gathering a bunch of unsuitable research samples. However, the sampling criteria and boundary that we design would mitigate such tendency because each referred sample or potential interview respondent would first of all have to meet up or fit in with the research sample selection criteria (RSSC).

The snowball sampling technique is particularly suitable for a relationship-oriented culture because of its referral nature (Eide & Allen, 2005). Working with or within a diverse population poses many challenges to qualitative researchers, especially with regards to recruiting participants; knowing and/or being known is crucial to the successful recruitment of participants within such diverse and relationship-oriented based cultures. Interestingly, the culture and the context of this research is within a relationship-oriented culture, where things get done easily and quickly in the light of relationships or “knowing someone personally” or “knowing someone who knows someone”. Thus, snowballing provides a pride of place for easy access to the research sample that fits the set criteria via referrals.

3.3.2.4.2.3. Simple Random Sampling.

Random sampling is one of the probability sampling types. It involves selecting the sample at random from the sampling frame using a computer or random number tables. In this probability sampling type, the likelihood of each entity being part of the sample or selection is known and with equal chances. This entails selecting the samples in a regular manner until the required sample size is reached. The technique allows the selection to be without bias, and it can be said to be a representative of the target population.

The simple random sampling fits well with the second stage of the research as it targets students randomly from a targeted population. The sampling technique allows room for statistical inference of the characteristic of the target population.

The sampling technique for this piece of research, therefore, is a combination of both the probability (random) and non-probability (purposive and snowball) sampling types. The combination fits well with the mixed approach design of the study and the pragmatic philosophical position of the study.

3.3.2.4.3. Sampling Criteria and Sample Size.

Sampling criteria is the list of characteristics of the elements within the entire research population that are determined beforehand to be essential for eligibility, to form part of the target sample. The sample size, on the other hand, shows the amount or number of elements, participants or cases predetermined to make up the sample that represents the entire population in a study.

Specifically, the data collection process in this study appeals to the sequential process approach (Stage by Stage), in contrast to the concurrent approach (all together at once) (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The first stage of the data collection targets entrepreneurship educators with a minimum of five years of lecturing experience. Five years is a reasonable number of years for an academic to gain some degree of mastery and expertise worth sharing. The selection will also put into consideration how active the educators are within academia and the potential contribution they are making within the field, which is evidenced through their journal publications within the area. A purposive and snowballing technique allows the researcher to easily identify the participants for this phase of the research and match them against the listed criteria in order to ascertain their eligibility and suitability as part of the research sample. The selection of the entrepreneurs will be based on the number of years they have been running their business and the age of the business. A minimum of five years is the selection criteria for the entrepreneurs, as business failure statistics suggest that most SMEs fail within their first five years. Thus, any entrepreneur who still runs his/her business after five years will have much value to add to the expected research data.

The second stage of the research will survey 600 students across three universities in the North-central part of Nigeria. The targeted students must have been enrolled for an entrepreneurship degree program or have taken entrepreneurship as an elective module. In order to ensure that there is no imbalance in the size of the data collection from the research population; in other words, not having more from one university and less from the other, the researcher spread the questionnaire distribution equally; from which 200 respondents from each university were expected.

The specific sample size appropriate and sufficient for a piece of research has always been an inconclusive debate among researchers. While the extant literature in this area reveals that researchers rarely state the precise number of participants while conducting an interview and drawing sampling guides (Baker & Edwards, 2012). Saunders & Townsend (2016) on the other hand are of the view that while a number of between 15 and 60 interview participants is likely to be considered sufficient, the actual number of participants is contingent on the research purpose and a variety of epistemological, methodological and practical issues. Expert opinion and advice suggested that sample size for a study should be such that the size is not so small, such that it is difficult to obtain data saturation and yet not too large to make in-depth analysis difficult. This opinion is espoused by Saunders & Townsend (2016), in their study on reporting and justifying the number of Interview Participants in Organization and Workplace Research, similar to Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2005). The table below shows a summary brief of the research sample in this study.

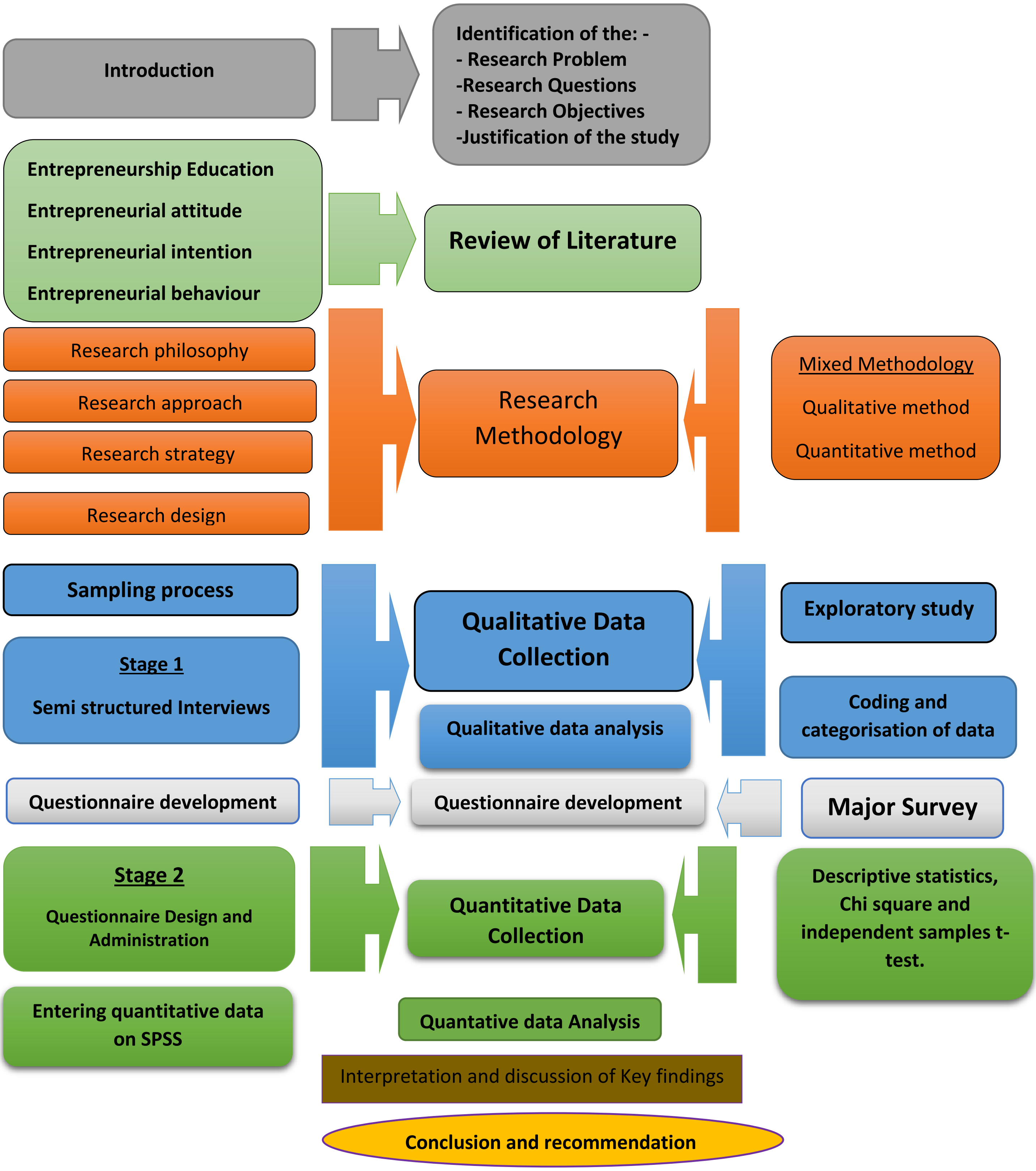
Population Sample	Expected Sample Size	Location	Selection criteria
1st Stage			
Entrepreneurship Educators	9	3 Universities (NCZ)	• Five years of teaching experience within the field of business and management. • The educators must be from these three universities. • The educators must be active contributors to entrepreneurship research- evidenced through journal publications in the field of entrepreneurship.
Entrepreneurs	9	Nigeria	• The entrepreneur must have set-up and run a business in Nigeria. • The business must be a minimum of 5 years of age. • The business must be an SME, not a large company or enterprise.
2nd Stage			
Students	600	3 Universities (NCZ)	• The students must be from one of these three universities. (Nasarawa State University, University of Jos and Benue State University) • The Universities must be within the Northcentral zone of Nigeria. • The students must have been enrolled for an entrepreneurship degree or must have taken entrepreneurship as an elective module. • The students must also be in their first or final year of study.

Table 3. 2 Research Sample Summary

3.4. Research Process Diagram.

The research process diagram (RPD) below shows the flow of the research and how it is structured and how it progresses (Fig 3.4). The first chapter presents the introduction of the thesis, which details the research problem, questions, aim, objectives and justification for the study. The second chapter of the thesis captures a review of the literature, from which the gaps in the literature are identified- giving grounds and further justification for the current study. The methodology is outlined in the third chapter of the thesis. The chapter gives a clear and vivid justification for the choice of the mixed methodology adopted for the study. The chapter equally details the data collection and the analysis stages of both the qualitative and the quantitative parts of the research. Within the methodology chapter, just before the second stage of the research, instruments were developed, following the findings from the qualitative phase of the study. Interpretations and discussions of findings of the research alongside implications are captured in the fifth chapter, and then the conclusion and contributions are in the last chapter (Six chapter).

Figure 3.4 Thesis Design Process Diagram



3.5. Reflection on Research Process and Methodology

Reflexivity in research or the process of reflection on what has been done or the choices made in a research process especially the research methods used is increasingly becoming paramount (Davis, 2021). It is found to be a major strategy for quality control especially in qualitative research (Berger, 2015). The process allows a deeper understanding of how actions and research outcomes may be impacted by the characteristics and experiences of the researcher- it is argued that, at the heart of reflexivity is the idea of self-awareness. Much more importantly, a good piece of reflection unearths limitations, challenges/difficulties, and 'what could have been done differently during the cause of a research investigation.

The beginning of the research process was quite challenging for me mainly because the nature of the study was self-funded, and the research area was purely born out of personal interest (Williams & Satherley, 2021) and desire for a deeper understanding around entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education. Unlike funded PhDs that have predetermined research topic, focus, questions, objectives, and methodology; it took me a significant amount of time with close support of my supervisory team to figure out a clear direction and research focus for my study and also the definitive research methodology for the study. But at the end, the rigorous process of rewriting and refining the focus within the milieu of a broader debate gave a clearer direction for the subsequent stages of the study.

Similarly, in terms of philosophical orientation and positioning, I had assumed from the inception of the research that my position is incline more towards a constructivist researcher having come from a social science background where most of my work are predominantly qualitative in nature. However, as the process evolved, especially with my research objectives and the design of the current study, I have come to develop an equal appreciation for positivism as philosophy in research especially with regards to data collection and the analysis. As a result, this study combines and adopts a pragmatic approach with a mixed methods research.

It is important to also mentioned that the entire research process has its peaks and trough moments (Butler-Rees, 2020) - in order words, high moments when the entire process of reading and writing is going smoothly with clarity of direction (The hill of light) and on the other hand low moments where everything is slow and clarity of direction is limited (Valley of confusion). My experience has taught me that while the high and peak moments are good and should be taking advantage of to get a lot done, the low moments too could be advantageous in the sense that new knowledge, direction and clarify could emerge at the end, because of the unending questioning and developmental critique that is inherent with such moments and through the process.

Upon reflecting on the entire data collection process, especially the qualitative research aspect in which Semi-structured interview technique was utilised with telephone as medium for the data collection; whilst the use of telephone interview offers considerable benefits (Rahman, 2015) ranging from- being cost effective and easy to conduct, anonymity (Haslerig, 2021), being able to gather multiple points of view through multiple interviews, able to conduct interviews across a wider geographical scope within the shortest possible time frame and , the advantages that a face to face interview format offers could potentially be a shortcoming in the research (Tran & Luong, 2020), for example the face to face format avoids the tendency of respondents actually answering the call then hanging up at any time, and also allows behaviour and body language to be observed through the process. things being equal, what I would have done differently, is incorporating a face-to-face interview format in the research designed.

CHAPTER 4:

QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH:

DATA COLLECTION RESULTS AND ANALYSIS RESULTS

4.1. Introduction:

This chapter focuses on data collection, analysis and presentation of the results for both the qualitative and quantitative part of the study. The entire chapter is divided into three (3) parts. The first part of the chapter discusses the first phase of the study- the qualitative exploration of enterprise and entrepreneurship education in Nigeria following a detailed explanation of the overall research methodology in the previous chapter (chapter three). This section presents and discusses the analysis of data collected through interviews following a pilot interview exercise. The first part of the chapter equally deepened the analysis of the qualitative data vis-à-vis the themes that emerged from the research. The first part concludes with the emerging themes to be utilised for operationalizing the data collection instrument (questionnaire) for the next phase of the research.

The second part of the chapter focuses on developing questionnaires for the second phase of the research-

Following on from the first part of the research that explored the perception of the entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators on the required attitudes for entrepreneurial behaviour and action in the Nigerian context; the third part turns attention towards entrepreneurship education and the students of entrepreneurship education. These students are vital, specifically concerning the entrepreneurial attitude they have developed as a result of the entrepreneurship education experience in the Nigerian context. More specifically, the third part looks the quantitative aspect of the study with data collected from a survey conducted among students using questionnaire technique.

PART ONE

4.2. QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.2.1 Pilot Interview exercise

A pilot study is one of the means through which the content validity of research instruments (Interview and interview questions) is tested. According to Fink (1995) and Saunders et al. (2012), a pilot study provides a researcher with a platform for testing a data collection instrument before it is perfected and adopted for final administration to the target audience.

In developing the interview questions that would help in obtaining the necessary information for answering the research question in this study; a pilot interview was thought to be appropriate in order to sharpen the researcher's interview skills and also to identify and refine the specific questions that would be asked in the main interview, and also the most effective order in which the questioning will follow. The pilot establishes the efficiency of the interview schedule (Louise Barriball & While, 1994). The pilot interview was conducted with recruited participants who volunteered to take part in the exercise. The sample for the pilot exercise comprised of selected entrepreneurs in the UK and Nigeria; as well as academic staff within the University of Worcester Business School and Nasarawa State University Nigeria. The criterion for selecting the pilot sample was based on the researcher's judgment of who has a good knowledge of the area being researched and would potentially give constructive feedback to improve the actual data collection process. The rationale for the pilot study was to elicit practical feedback on the interview questions in terms of clarity of instructions, language construction, the framing of questions, the time it took for one interview with each participant and to ascertain if privacy is sufficiently respected (Fink, 1995). Even though the research context is Nigeria, the pilot test included voluntary participants both from the UK and Nigeria. This was to ensure that the interview schedule is comprehensible enough to anyone, not just in one context. Generally, the process was to help lessen 'data collection' inaccuracy and errors generated because of inadequate interviewing techniques (Bryman, 2008). Hence, there was less risk of an error being encountered or generated during the main study.

	Entrepreneurs	Entrepreneurship Educators
United Kingdom	1	1
Nigeria	1	2
Total	2	3

Table 4. 1: Pilot Interview Sample

Even though the method for this research is predominantly mixed in nature, it is essential to emphasise that the qualitative phase is critically essential as it provides the grounding for operationalising the instrument for the second phase of the study which is the quantitative phase.

The interview included two main sections with a total of five open-ended questions (sets of three and two questions per section) and a series of prompts. The first set of questions investigated the perception of entrepreneurs on the dynamics and complexities of doing business in Nigeria; this was aimed at getting the entrepreneurs talking and thinking about entrepreneurship in Nigeria, it also set the tone and background for the main question which was intended to elicit responses from the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators on the entrepreneurial attitudes required for entrepreneurial venturing in such a context. See below an example of the questions framed in the first section for eliciting information from the entrepreneurs and the educators:

> **Question 1:** What is it like for you, being an entrepreneur in Nigeria?
> **Question 2:** What are the essential attitudes required for entrepreneurial venturing in Nigeria?
> **Question 3:** In your view, as an educator, what are some of the essential entrepreneurial attitudes that a business student should develop for entrepreneurial venturing in Nigeria?

The second set of questions was designed to explore the perception of the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators on the viability and effectiveness of Nigerian entrepreneurship education in producing entrepreneurial graduates with the required entrepreneurial competence. Furthermore, it is the objective of the research to develop a framework and make recommendations for effective entrepreneurship education in Nigeria. Hence, the final set of questions was designed to explore and capture the views of the entrepreneurs and educators with regards to how the current state of entrepreneurship education could be improved. See below the sample of the questions:

> **Question 4:** Do you think we can train or groom entrepreneurs via the current entrepreneurship education in Nigerian Universities?
>
> **Question 5:** How can entrepreneurship education in Nigeria be made more effective in developing the required entrepreneurial competencies of students in Nigerian universities?

Following the pilot interview feedback, the researcher had to moderate one of the questions (Question 2), as it appeared too general and as such the responses, especially from the entrepreneurs, were not as detailed as expected. The question was moderated and redrafted to be very personal to the experience of the entrepreneurs and was rephrased as “What are some of the attitudes that have helped you in your entrepreneurial journey in Nigeria?”

4.2.1.1 The Interview Process and procedure

From the different types of interviews, a telephone interview was adopted as the technique to be utilised. Increasingly, virtual interview types are no longer regarded as poor substitutes for face-to-face interviews but rather a different type of interview method with all its merits and demerits as indeed the other types (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Researchers like Cachia & Millward (2011) consider the telephone medium in a qualitative research interview as a complementary fit. Similarly, the participants’ views of a telephone interview, in other studies like Ward et al. (2015) reported a positive experience using the telephone medium.

This technique enables a thorough exploration of opinions and practices while averting the inherent challenges of cost and travel linked with face-to-face interviews and also the difficulty that could be inherent in the face-to-face approach as observed by (Ward et al., 2015). Equally, several studies (Bryman, 2008; Oppenheim, 1992) considered the conduct of telephone interviews to be more on a faster pace than face-to-face interviews. The additional advantage of utilising this interview procedure in the context of this study was the level of comfort provided to the participants, given that the time schedules of most of the entrepreneurs is such that, they are seldom available. Hence, the virtual approach allowed them to respond to the interview questions wherever they were, without having to get them fixated in one place.

Eighteen (18) interviews in total were conducted with the participants, of which nine (9) of those were with entrepreneurs, and the other nine (9) were with entrepreneurship educators. The study seeks to assess the impact of entrepreneurship education on developing the required entrepreneurial competencies among students in higher education institutions (HEIs), and whether these competencies lead to an increase in their entrepreneurial intention. Hence, in the interview process, the researcher asked the participants a series of open-ended questions, and the participants responded in their own words. Prompts and probes were brought in during the course of the interview to catalyse and encourage participants to open up and expand more on their answers and to provide more details on the topic or the issue being discussed. While most of the respondents were comfortable with the telephone interview, the duration for each interview varied. On average, each interview lasts about 45 minutes, with a few of them going slightly above 60 minutes.

During the interview process, the participants were asked a series of open-ended questions, and the participants responded using their own words. Prompts and probes were utilised at the course of the interview, as suggested by Braun & Clarke (2013). This prompt, catalyses and encourages participants to open up, to expand upon their answers and provide more details on the topics and the issue being discussed.

Data saturation is a common term used in qualitative research, to mean a situation where there is a recurrent emergence of the certain same variables or themes in a data collection process (Saunders & Townsend, 2016). It has been asserted that failure to reach data saturation could have a negative impact on the validity of one's research (Fusch et al., 2015). In this study, we define data saturation as the point at which there is enough information to replicate the study or when the ability to obtain additional new information has been stretched and attained; then the data collection process is upheld and ended. This position is in tandem with the research outcome of Saunders & Townsend (2016) on reporting and justifying the number of interview participants in organization and workplace research.

The interview was recorded in an audio format, which was then transformed into written text, ready for analysis through the process of transcription.

4.2.1.2 The Demographics of the Interviewees

The demographics of the interviewees from the nine (9) selected entrepreneurs, and nine (9) entrepreneurship educators are as illustrated in Table 4.2 & 4.3 below.

SN	Company	Job Title	Number of years in Business	Age	Gender
1	A	Founder	6 Years	33	Male
2	B	Co-Founder	5 Years	37	Male
3	C	Founder	7 Years	34	Male
4	D	Co-Founder	8 Years	43	Male
5	E	Founder	6 Years	36	Female
6	F	Co-Founder	5 years	38	Male
7	G	Founder	7 Years	32	Female
8	H	Founder	9 Years	37	Male
9	I	Co-Founder	5 Years	37	Male

Table 4.2. Demographics of The Interviewees from Selected Entrepreneurs

SN	University	Job Title	Number of years as an entrepreneurship educator	Age	Gender
1	A	Senior Lecturer in Entrepreneurship and Business Management	10 years	45	Male
2	B	Entrepreneurship Lecturer	6 Years	44	Female
3	C	Lecturer in Enterprise Management	7 Years	42	Male
4	D	Senior Lecturer in Entrepreneurship	12 Years	55	Male
5	E	Business & Management Lecturer	7 Years	59	Female
6	F	Lecturer in Entrepreneurship	5 Years	38	Male
7	G	Senior Lecturer in Entrepreneurship	19 Years	55	Male
8	H	Lecturer Entrepreneurship and Management.	5 Years	38	Male
9	I	Senior Lecturer in Entrepreneurship and Management	6 Years	47	Male

Table 4.3. Demographics of The Interviewees from Selected Entrepreneurship Educators

A total of nine (9) entrepreneurship educators across three (3) different universities were interviewed. The interviews were conducted from mid-July to mid-August 2017. In terms of their job titles and cognate job experiences, most of them were entrepreneurship or business school educators with a minimum of five years of work experience in academia. Again, the research is issue-based and not gender-based; as such, the predominance of males (78%) over females (22%) in the interview response has no impact on the qualitative findings.

4.2.2. Validity and Reliability in Qualitative Inquiry.

The commitment of every research is to ensure that research results or outcomes are not only defensible but also credible; these are bound in the ambition of both quantitative and qualitative research methods (Maher et al., 2018). Reliability refers to the consistency of the measure of a concept (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Saunders et al., 2000; Creswell, 2014) and validity concerns the integrity of the research conclusions (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Assessing the research measurements of reliability and validity starts with ensuring the content validity of the research instrument.

Content validity can be seen as the extent to which a measurement reflects the specific intended domain of content. It could also be construed as the ability of the items in a measuring instrument or test to adequately measure or represent the content of the property that the investigator wishes to measure. Therefore, a measure has content validity if there is a wide-ranging agreement among the subjects and researchers that the instruments have measurement items that cover all the content domain of the variables being measured. In the case of this study, the qualitative phase of the research would be said to have content validity if there is clarity and consonance in the interview questions and the research objectives. Likewise, McDaniel and Gates (1996), advanced some certain criteria that must be satisfied before it can be applied in empirical fieldwork. These criteria included

- Carefully defining what is to be measured
- Conducting a careful literature review and interviews with the target population
- Let the variables be checked by experts

For the purpose of ensuring the content validity of the qualitative phase of this study, the criteria proposed by McDaniel and Gates (1996) was adopted. The proposed research questions and interview questions were developed and defined carefully and guided by the overall study aim and objective, equally underpinned with some literature. Moreover, the interview questions and protocol has been checked, reviewed and examined by the researcher as well as academic research experts from The University of Worcester Business School, Aston University Business School, Birmingham City University Business School, Nasarawa State University and Plateau State University. Thereafter, the clarity and the suitability of the interview questions were tested through a pilot study.

In an attempt to ensure and guarantee rigour and robustness in the process of the data analysis, the procedure for the data analysis will follow distinct steps including data familiarisation which involves listening to the recorded interviews very carefully before the next step which is transcription. Almost all qualitative research studies involve some degree of transcription (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The transcribed data takes a verbatim approach to ensure that any form of potential bias from the research in terms of including only those sections that seem appealing to the researcher are eliminated. Coding the data is the next step in the analysis process, which will be carefully carried out with the sole purpose of allowing themes to emerge from the data (Maher et al., 2018).

4.2.4. Qualitative Interview Results and Analysis:

Entrepreneurship education has been broadly examined in the academic literature with regards to its role in predicting and influencing the entrepreneurial intention and outcome of university students (Fayolle et al., 2015). Several universities and entrepreneurial training platforms or organisations develop entrepreneurship programs and curriculum that are aimed at facilitating the delivery and actualisation of this expected outcome in many contexts. However, while there is much support for these predictors, one major problem regarding the academic literature on these kinds of entrepreneurial initiative and its impact on developing the entrepreneurial attitude of the university students- is the lack of much consideration given to the perception of not only the entrepreneurship educators but also that of the actual entrepreneurs. They are potentially significant contributors in shaping the program, the content and ultimately, the outcome of entrepreneurship programs. It appears that instead, there has been more research conducted to generate more evidence on the challenges of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education and contributions to debates on concepts and theories.

The exploratory study in this chapter considers the importance of, not just what is contained in the literature or the perception of entrepreneurship educators alone, but also the views and perception of entrepreneurs in shaping the entrepreneurship education offering and ultimately the entrepreneurial attitude and intention of university students. As such, this second part of the chapter detailed a qualitative study that was conducted in order to complete the first research objective. The objective is to explore entrepreneurship education in Nigeria and the entrepreneurial attitudes required for entrepreneurial venturing within the Nigerian context- as perceived by Nigerian entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators. It was essential to explore whether the entrepreneurial attitudes identified from the literature review may be different, given the specific context of this research- Nigeria.

The answers of the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators collected during the interviews were transcribed, sorted, and analysed using thematic analysis. The frequency of the participants' words was used to identify and categorise the different themes that emerged from the participants' responses.

This semi-structured interview analysis is structured in three main sections. The first section is devoted to providing a business context to the nature and dynamics of doing business in Nigeria as an entrepreneur; in terms of its complexity and the attendant inherent challenges. The second section focused on exploring the perception of the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators with regards to the attitudinal behaviours required for entrepreneurial venturing in the Nigerian context. Finally, the third section summarised the chapter with a mention and explanation of the themes that emerged, which are then integrated into operationalising an instrument for the second phase of data collection in the study.

4.2.4.1. Entrepreneurs and the Nigerian Business Context

This section is not the focus of the chapter; it also deviates slightly from the main objectives of the research. However, it is relevant to the study as it gives a proper contextual understanding of the dynamics and the complexities of doing business in

Nigeria as an entrepreneur. Consequently, it provides a good background for delving into the main research objective which the research sets to achieve in this chapter.

The central objective is to explore the required entrepreneurial attitudes for entrepreneurial venturing within the Nigerian context. The educators were not included in answering this question as it was thought that the entrepreneurs are more hands-on in running a business than the educators, except for those (educators) who also run businesses alongside lecturing. Hence, the response of entrepreneurs would be much more appropriate. The researcher proposed that Nigeria is a tough environment where doing business or surviving as an entrepreneur is tough and requires a certain kind of attitudinal quality.

In order to determine or understand the dynamics of doing business in the Nigerian context, the perception of the entrepreneurs was thought to be appropriate in eliciting responses to this very question. The researcher sought the viewpoints of selected entrepreneurs.

When asked the question on the dynamics of being an entrepreneur and doing business in Nigeria; the respondents were unanimous in their response, that Nigeria is tough and expensive with enormous Infrastructural challenges. This is not only limited to the previous points; the interview equally found out that negative attitudes towards entrepreneurship with unfavourable government policies are also typical of the dynamics of doing business in the Nigerian context.

The deduced conclusion from the entire transcript of responses by the nine entrepreneurs to this question was not entirely surprising. Doing business in Nigeria or entrepreneurial activities has many challenges. Especially because of insufficient support or a poor attitude towards entrepreneurship from both the government and the public. For example, entrepreneurs E, F, G and I during the field interview reported that-

"I will be lying if I tell you that it is easy. It is tough and challenging. I sometimes feel like quitting, because there is a lot of rejections and barriers in the process. What I keep doing to myself is becoming creative every day to make sure that I get to the people I want and to tell them what I do".

(Company E, Field Interview- Entrepreneur)

"Government policies play a crucial role in the entrepreneurial journey- it could either lodge or dislodge you. We have suffered from government policies but also gain from it".

(Company F, Field Interview- Entrepreneur)

"Being an entrepreneur in Nigeria is highly challenging but also interesting. The culture, psychology and attitude of many Nigerians, and also some government policies are issues that could be mountainous or challenging for an entrepreneur in Nigeria."

(Company G, Field Interview- Entrepreneur)

"One of the main things that is holding Nigerians and the Nigerian economy down is the job dependency psyche and attitude of many. virtually everybody is looking for a job, Thus, the idea of entrepreneurship as a career path is very foreign to many- which makes doing business in Nigeria demoralising."

(Company I, Field Interview- Entrepreneur)

This goes to show that surviving as an entrepreneur in such an environment requires tough gumption and strong individual grit, in other words, resilience or perseverance (Unachukwu, 2009). To some of the interviewees, being an entrepreneur in Nigeria is about having a super conviction of finding one's way without expecting any support from the government, because little or no support would come from the government anyway. The entrepreneurs seemed not to believe in any effort or support from the government, as it is often seen as politically driven or motivated, which is usually short-lived. This point was particularly stressed in the responses obtained from company B and D below when they opined that-

"Being an entrepreneur in Nigeria is not an easy one, I see entrepreneurs going through a lot, and some are having to abandon it along the way. Any individual or business that is not self-driven cannot survive it in Nigeria, because the system does not encourage entrepreneurs".

(Company B, Field Interview- Entrepreneur)

“There isn’t wide acceptance and support for entrepreneurship unless one persists against all the odds- you will easily give up in the Nigeria entrepreneurial context”

(Company D, Field Interview- Entrepreneur)

The perception of the entrepreneurs to this question, in many ways, appraises a lot of the challenges that are commonplace within the Nigerian entrepreneurial ecosystem. Corruption which manifests itself in the form of bureaucratic bottlenecks in many ways and Infrastructural challenges are some of the lamentations of the entrepreneurs (Ubong, 2018). Not only are challenges adding to the cost of doing business in Nigeria, as alluded to by many of the respondents, for example, see (company A and C’s) response below, but they are also discouraging entrepreneurial activities and the growth of the entire entrepreneurial ecosystem, including EEd (Kulo et al., 2018).

“*It is challenging because the infrastructures available to facilitate the growth of entrepreneurship and profitable business in the country is very limited or almost non-existent in most cases. As such, the exciting bit is that we try to do the best we can with what we have.’’*

(Company A, Interview- Entrepreneur)

"Running a business in Nigeria has a very high cost because of poor infrastructure. For example, the power system is very poor, you often have to source for your independent power supply to run your business if it requires so much of that"

(Company C, Field Interview- Entrepreneur)

In support of the findings above is the outcome of Mambula’s work on the perception of SME growth constraints in Nigeria which lends credence to these views (Mambula, 2002). The true entrepreneurship-led transformation will require a synergy between the government policies that regulate the business environment and the entrepreneurs that operate within. However, unfavourable attitudes and policies of the government appeared to be the theme that most of the entrepreneurs alluded to as a key challenge that defines the reality of being an entrepreneur in Nigeria. Similarly, Chukwuemeka (2011) is espoused to the notion that government policies on entrepreneurship are ill formulated or ill implemented.

From the emerging themes, the expensive nature of doing business in Nigeria is due mainly to the infrastructural challenges inherent within the system. This theme has been widely mentioned in the literature as an aspect that when improved, can boost the entrepreneurial activities in the eco-system (Onifade, 2010).

Based on the findings of this research, it would appear that the inherent challenges of doing business in the Nigerian context would almost and always require an entrepreneur to develop or operate with a certain kind of attitude and characteristics; otherwise, the reality of the Nigerian context will make the entrepreneurial journey even more difficult and challenging. Like one of the entrepreneurs would put it when expressing his experience of running a business in Nigeria that

"Doing business in Nigeria sometimes almost feels like one is being given an assignment from hell to execute."

The succeeding question (Interview question 2) gives a glimpse into the kind of an entrepreneur that one would need to be in order to survive or do well in such a tough and challenging environment like Nigeria. In other words, the attitudes that are required or would be invaluable for an entrepreneur to survive or thrive within the Nigerian context. This dovetails with the first objective of this thesis, which seeks to explore the entrepreneurial attitudes that are perceived by Nigerian entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators as the most required and essential for entrepreneurial venturing within the Nigerian context.

4.2.4.2. Attitudes for Entrepreneurial Venturing in Nigeria

The first interview question and the other preceding theme sets the background and captures the perception of the entrepreneurs with regards to doing business as an entrepreneur in the Nigerian context. More broadly, the interview phase of the study sets out to unearth responses from the two categories of respondents who are both adjudged as entrepreneurship education stakeholders. On the one hand, are the entrepreneurs and on the other hand, are the entrepreneurship educators. The objective of the question was centred on unpacking the views of the entrepreneurs and that of the entrepreneurship educators on the attitudes required of entrepreneurs within the Nigerian context for entrepreneurial venturing.

The questions put to the two categories of our respondents were the same except for the variance in the context and the kind of promptings that were applied at the course of the interviewing. Whilst the context and the promptings for the entrepreneurs were around the real world of business, for the educators, the questions and the promptings were coined to reflect the world of education viz-a-viz business students or students on entrepreneurship programmes.

Regarding the question of the essential entrepreneurial attitudes for entrepreneurial venturing in Nigeria, from the eighteen respondents (entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators) interviewed, emerged five (5) key themes). The themes (proactiveness, risk-taking, networking, and self-efficacy and achievement motivation) were the dominant and the most mentioned themes amongst the respondents, especially the entrepreneurs. In the same like manner, we obtained from the educators' similar themes with related interpretation, these included-persistence, self-belief, risk-tendency, and collaboration, these themes are somewhat similar and related in interpretations (See Table 4.4). As result, the research converged most of them into a single theme which gives a broader definition to it within the context the study.

Although there are similarities in the themes that emerged from the interview responses of both the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators, it can equally be observed from the findings, that most of the themes especially the ones with dominant frequencies as obtained from the educators are more of an extension of theorisation and conceptualisation. They essentially link very closely with the ideation stage of the business growth lifecycle. For example, see the response of an interview with one of the entrepreneurship educators

"*I strongly believe that students would need the following attributes to withstand the heat of the Nigerian entrepreneurial furnace: clear vision, solid business plan, independence, moral support, innovativeness, creativity, and sound knowledge of business environment".*

(Entrepreneurship Educator F)

Whilst this view is relevant in the overall process, the educators seem to be a bit more fixated on the elementary aspects of the overall development of the entrepreneurial behaviour of the students. This view is supported by multiple studies in the Nigerian context that shows how theoretically oriented is the overall program provision of the universities (Inyang & Enuoh 2009; Onifade, 2009; Yatu et al., 2018).

Scott & Bruce (1987) are of the view that all businesses pass through distinctive stages- each with its characteristics as they develop, even though with regards to these distinct stages of business growth- consensus in scholarship is far from being reached. Churchill et al. (1983) suggested five stages that businesses go through. Bozward & Rogers-Draycott (2017) in their work on a staged competency framework, equally opined nine stages with distinct characteristics. They are equally espoused to the idea that at each of these stages, entrepreneurs need to develop or operate with a certain kind of competency or attitude. Research has evidenced that clarity on the attitudes required of entrepreneurs throughout the different phases of their business development could potentially impact on successful business growth (Churchill & Lewis, 1983). Although Mitchelmore & Rowley (2010) eluded that despite the theoretical importance of entrepreneurial competence, it has not enjoyed the advanced and broader discussion in entrepreneurial literature.

Additionally, during the interview, the respondents used some words or phrases which are not very conventional in passing their message across or buttressing their points forward. Some of those words/phrases were being coined or interpreted with words or phrases that are more widely used in literature. For example, words like "rugged", "street wisdom", "street smart" were used to refer to one's ability to be proactive (See Table 4.4). See an example of interviews with company C and D.

"A lazy man cannot do business in Nigeria. You will have to be 'rugged', in other words, 'up and doing', to be able to survive the tough and hash entrepreneurial ecosystem in the country.''

(Company C, Field Interview- Entrepreneur)

"As an entrepreneur in Nigeria, I have found street 'wisdom' or being 'street smart' a crucial attribute that has added great value to my entrepreneurial journey. It allows you to be able to spot opportunities and create value that could yield you a huge return or revenue on whatsoever you have invested.''

(Company D, Interview- Entrepreneur)

This is not particularly uncommon, having an avalanche of different words and phrases being used to pass a message or put an idea forward. Even in the entrepreneurship literature, there are scholarly contributions that present evidence of the elusiveness in the definitions of some terms and concepts (Mitchelmore & Rowley, 2010; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). Therefore, what the study has done is not to water down or substitute the content of the interview but rather use themes or constructs that are widely used and more effective in representing the emerging themes (see Table 4.4).

4.2.4.2.1. Achievement Motivation

There was a high frequency of this theme being mentioned during the interview. Just like other themes, it means different things to different people, particularly with the two different groups of our respondents. Whilst the interpretation of the entrepreneurs of achievement motivation also relates to self-drive, the same themes emerged in the interview with the educators as self-belief. This is not unusual, as the interpretation of concepts can sometimes be ambivalent due to perceptive discrepancy. These themes are rooted in an individual's beliefs and expectancies for success- which are more or less very intrinsic. It can be gathered that lack of motivation for achievement is likely to hinder one's entrepreneurial drive especially in an environment where entrepreneurial challenges are at their peak as we have seen in the case of the Nigerian context. Below are some of the clearly expressed views of both the entrepreneurs and the educators with regards to the need for an individual to be highly motivated and wired with the zeal and passion for achieving and succeeding; otherwise, the Nigerian business environment will kill the entrepreneurial drive.

"Running a business in Nigeria will require an individual to be highly focus-driven and motivated, with a large dosage of optimism for success, because the system as it is, is conspired to frustrate you.''

(Company A, Interview- Entrepreneur 2017)

"The ability of individuals to say, 'I can do it' (self-believe) is not always there. Self-determination and believe in what they want to do is important. There is equally the need to be optimistic and resilient because the journey could be very frustrating.

Hence, students who are about to graduate with the intention of venturing into the entrepreneurial world will need psychological capital.''

(Entrepreneurship Educator H- Interview 2017)

The above excerpts from the interview transcript suggest that given the challenges within the Nigerian business environment, the majority of the respondents on both sides (entrepreneurs and educators) are of the view that having a strong self-belief and motivation to achieve is a very crucial attitude to have as an entrepreneur. It is such an interesting observation from the outcome of the research, seeing how the respondents were more in favour of individuals and businesses building a certain kind of attitude and the qualities needed, to withstand the storm in the business environment as against having belief and confidence in the system and the institutions to make things easier. It is evident that the system will do virtually little or nothing in changing and improving the expected outcome, as rightly captured below in the words of one of the respondents -

"Any individual or business that is not self-driven and motivated cannot survive it in Nigeria, because the system does not encourage entrepreneurs.''

(Company B, Interview- Entrepreneur 2017)

Therefore, achievement motivation is an attitude that is very crucial for entrepreneurial venturing in the Nigerian context, as it suggests making a conscious effort in getting the most out of the available little or no resources and support.

4.2.4.2.2 Networking:

Networking is one of the vital entrepreneurial attitudes that was resounding amongst the respondents in all the two categories of research population (Entrepreneurs and Entrepreneurship Educators). Networking is crucial both as a skill and as an attitude for enhancing social capital and success along the entrepreneurial career path, (de Janasz & Forret, 2008; Farinda et al., 2009). The respondents expressed deep sentiments on the fact that the peculiarity of the Nigerian context is such that knowing the environment and the people within the environment is critical to any form of entrepreneurial behaviour. For example, the vignette of (company I) below, which suggests that *"A lot of the things that one would need to do will require* *establishing some form of relationships,''* this shows how critical networking is in this context.

Networking is increasingly recognised as an essential construct or an aspect of social capital; not only in a relationship-oriented culture alone but also even in a rule-oriented culture or setting. Networking could be termed as relations with colleagues, acquaintances, or contacts, which can provide opportunities to access financial and human resources. In a more simplified way, it refers to social relations among persons generating productive results. It is a valuable resource since it facilitates economic activity (Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998; Burt 1992), allows entrepreneurs to be more efficient and to be able to access privileged business opportunities. This view is widely espoused across our interviews, both with the entrepreneurs and the educators. They expressed deep sentiments on the fact that the peculiarity of the Nigerian context is such that knowing the environment and the people within the environment is critical to any form of entrepreneurial behaviour, as an example see the vignette of (company I) below, which suggests that

"A lot of the things that one would need to do will require establishing some form of relationships"-this shows how critical is networking in this context.

(Company I, Interview- Entrepreneur 2017)

As a variable for measuring entrepreneurial attitude, its usage is somewhat uncommon, for example, Baughn et al. (2006) in their study on cognitive factors and how they relate to an entrepreneurial interest in business students in China, used the term 'Social support' as did indeed other studies like Anderson et al. (2002) who use the term 'Social capital and networking capital'. The literature, however, shows a growing recognition and appreciation of the importance and role of networking in the entrepreneurial process and outcomes (Aldrich and Zimmer, 1986). Entrepreneurs are embedded in a social network that plays a critical role in the entrepreneurial process. In the broadest terms, social networks are defined by a set of actors (individuals or organizations) and a set of linkages between the actors (Brass, 1992) that smoothens the overall entrepreneurial process. Several studies like (Hoang and Antoncic 2003; Kwon and Arenius, 2010; Tatarko & Schmidt, 2016)) show clearly documented evidence of the ways in which individuals take advantage of their own social affiliations and network strategies in pursuit of their entrepreneurial goals.

Interpersonal and inter-organizational relationships are viewed as the media through which actors gain access to a variety of resources held by other actors. Network relations, for example, provide emotional support for entrepreneurial risk-taking, and this, in turn, is thought to enhance persistence to remain in business (Gimeno et al., 1997). There seems to be a wider acceptance of the place of social capital, which is viewed as networking in the entrepreneurial process in Nigeria, both categories of our respondents (educators and entrepreneurs) alluded to the criticality of the place of social network in surviving as a business and as an entrepreneur in Nigeria. For example, see the quotes below from company I:

"Entrepreneurial venturing in Nigeria would always require you to know your way around the business environment (environmental awareness). It's not exactly a straightforward business environment. A lot of the things that one would need to do will require establishing some form of relationships and network. Additionally, Cultural sensitivity is key, because cultural insensitivity can just affect one's business negatively. Example going to sale bear in Kano, which is a religious infested state will be a foolish business decision, but places like Delta and Benin will be a perfect location.''

(Company I, Interview- Entrepreneur 2017)

Whilst the entrepreneurs used the word networking and building relationship to refer to the idea of networking; the educators mostly referred to it and used the word 'collaboration' in referring to the utilisation of social network and relationships for one's benefit in entrepreneurial venturing. For example, Entrepreneurship Educator B was very clear and vivid in their views during the interview that- "*Business students should develop the ability to network, collaborate, and form partnerships and solve problems"* as these are the critical attributes that the Nigerian business terrain would easily accommodate. See the full vignette below.

"Business students should develop the ability to network, collaborate, form partnerships and solve problems. These are critical attributes that the Nigerian business terrain would easily accommodate."

(Entrepreneurship Educator B- Interview 2017)

A high level of social capital which is built on a favourable reputation, relevant previous experience, and direct personal contacts, often assist entrepreneurs in gaining access to venture capitalists, potential customers, and others. Once such access is gained, the nature of the entrepreneurs' face-to-face interactions can strongly influence their success. Specific social skills, such as the ability to read others accurately, make favourable first impressions, adapt to a wide range of social situations, and be persuasive, can influence the quality of these interactions (Baron & Markman, 2000).

4.2.4.2.3 Proactiveness

Proactiveness like other themes that emerged from the interview correlates in interpretation with other themes like resilience, independence, personal initiative and self-drive. Following the interviews with the research sample, proactiveness can be summarised as the ability to adapt, survive and also produce results in different situations, especially an unfavourable atmosphere. In doing so, it will sometimes require one having the ability to understand the language and the way of life of the common man on the street and using it to one's advantage. This on its own is a kind of invaluable wisdom that is so rare yet highly valuable, as contained in the words of one of the entrepreneurs interviewed,

"As an entrepreneur in Nigeria, I have found street wisdom or being street smart a crucial attribute that has added great value to my entrepreneurial journey. It allows you to be able to spot opportunities and create value that could yield you a huge return on investment or revenue on whatsoever you have invested".

(Company D, Interview- Entrepreneur 2017).

During the interview with the entrepreneurs and the educators, when probed further on the behavioural requirement for business survival- self-drive and resilience were some of the themes that emerged, which by way of interpretation depict our working definition of proactiveness. For example, Company A, who is an entrepreneur, believes that "*Any individual or business that is not self-driven and motivated cannot survive it in Nigeria, because the system does not encourage entrepreneurs". (Company B, Field Interview- Entrepreneur 2017). Similar, one of the educators expressed a similar view when asked the same question, he expressed that "Resilience is a key trait that every entrepreneur need, because of the uncertainty of the typical* *business environment. Students should begin to develop their minds and willingness and readiness to take blows whenever they come, because the blows will come" (Entrepreneurship Educator D- Field Interview 2017).*

With regards to the degree of interdependence that society maintains among its members, Nigeria is generally a collectivist inclined culture (Hofstede-Insights, 2019). Nevertheless, the entrepreneurial attitude that is being suggested seems to be more aligned with an individualistic culture as against the collectivist type. Not only is there competition but also, it's a case of so many people pursuing the same scarce opportunity to take advantage of, no wonder, one of the entrepreneurs expressed his views on behavioural attitude required for entrepreneurial venturing in Nigeria as *"the willingness of Business students to want to go out of their own way and be what they want to be and to stand out of the crowd. This is the ability to be independent which often would require a lot of confidence in one's ability and the vision to drive it forward. These are crucial areas for entrepreneurial venturing in Nigeria" (Entrepreneurship Educator E- Interview 2017)*

4.2.4.2.4. Risk-Propensity:

Risk-taking behaviour or propensity is consistently related to entrepreneurs (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996) and has been pointed out by many authors, such as Chen et al. (1998), Gürol and Atsan (2006); Bolton and Lane (2012); Moruku (2013) as one of the most important attitudinal behaviours of entrepreneurs. This entails having the attitude and the willingness to venture into the unknown without fear of failure. In our interview, both categories of the respondents (entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators) alluded to the place and importance of risk-taking propensity as a crucial aspect of entrepreneurial venturing. For example, entrepreneurship educator D in expressing his view on the place of risk-taking in the overall process of entrepreneurship opined "*When you see these entrepreneurs, you must have to admire them for the risks that they have to take and the self-believe they have in their ideas".* The respondent went further to say that "*Students should begin to develop their minds and the willingness and readiness to take blows when they come because they will" (Entrepreneurship Educator D- Interview 2017).* Again, this buttresses the fact that risk-taking, like in many other contexts, is crucial in the entrepreneurial journey.

4.2.4.2.5. Self-Efficacy

The interpretation of some of the themes constructed from the interview shows a high degree of conceptual proximity, in other words, the semantic closeness of the relationship. For example, “persistence and self-efficacy”, some of the respondents used self-efficacy, while some used persistence and patience, in which case this study opts for the construct that is more widely used in entrepreneurial studies and in different contexts. Self-efficacy is conceptualized as the belief in one’s own capacity to control the internal and external necessary resources for the success of a project or an activity, or it could be captured as having the staying power or the ability to hold on for as long as possible, with expectations.

In this case, self-efficacy is used to also mean persistence, as demonstrated in the interview with an entrepreneur (Company A) who opined that-

“Doing business in Nigeria (Entrepreneurship) is not like a buffet where you will just go into it and eat, to succeed- patience and persistence are required.’’

(Company A, Interview- Entrepreneur 2017)

This view further buttresses the fact that the context of doing business in Nigeria is such that one needs to always go far and beyond in organizing and executing actions to achieve intended results, despite the attendant challenges and difficulties inherent in a place. Some of the respondents used the word rugged to suggest that within the Nigerian context, you will have to be ‘up and doing’, as clearly expressed in the words of one of the entrepreneurs (Company C, Field Interview- Entrepreneur 2017) who suggested that “A lazy man cannot do business in Nigeria. You will have to be rugged, in other words, ‘up and doing’ or demonstrate a high level of self-efficacy, to be able to survive the tough and harsh entrepreneurial ecosystem in the country.’’ This also corroborates the expression of the entrepreneur in company A above.

Having the right entrepreneurial attitude is a critical success factor in entrepreneurial behaviour and action, especially in a sturdy and challenging context like Nigeria. It is quite clear from the dominance and frequency of mention of these aforementioned themes in the interview that networking qualities, proactiveness, self-efficacy, risk-propensity and achievement motivation are key for entrepreneurs in this context, as we see that the emergence of these themes is quite prevalent in the interview transcript with both the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators. The emerged themes from both the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurial educators as discussed above gives a good blend of what is required of an entrepreneur from the idea stage to the next phase of the business growth (survival stage) as observed by (Scott & Bruce, 1987). These attitudes are rooted in training and development that is effective, which also can serve the needed tonic for business success in Nigeria.

4.2.5 Qualitative Research Summary

This section presented the analysis of the interviews granted by nine (9) entrepreneurs and nine (9) entrepreneurship educators in Nigeria. Thematic analysis was the analytical tool used for unpacking the qualitative data from the interview. The focus of the qualitative phase was twofold, that is to ascertain what entrepreneurial attitudes are perceived by Nigerian entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators as being the most important for entrepreneurial venturing in Nigeria. The second aspect centred on operationalising a questionnaire for assessing how well the current Nigerian HEIs are doing in developing these entrepreneurial attitudes among students, and whether there is a link between the entrepreneurial attitudes developed from the current entrepreneurship education and their entrepreneurial intention. The chapter also provides a bit of a background on the reality of being an entrepreneur in the Nigerian context. The interview response and the outcome of the question relating to being an entrepreneur or doing business in Nigeria, it buttresses the results from other studies, which suggests that doing business or entrepreneurial activities in Nigeria has a peculiarity or uniqueness that also would require certain or unique attitudes or behavioural dispositions to survive and thrive.

To this end, the section has not only examined and discussed the current circumstances related to entrepreneurship in Nigeria and entrepreneurship education, but it also demonstrated that Nigeria is indeed a tough environment for doing business and surviving as an entrepreneur. The nature of the business environment requires certain kinds of attitudes or qualities to survive and thrive in that context. Amongst the most prevalent attitudinal characteristics mentioned across all the interviews with the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators included, proactive dispositions in the midst of a tough and difficult environment, high self-efficacy in the face of obstacles and challenges, willingness to exercise high risk-taking propensity, achievement motivation in spite of pessimism and also the skills and ability to interact with others, to exchange information and develop helpful contacts, which is termed as networking in the context of this research.

Whether the current entrepreneurship education in Nigeria is as viable and effective as it should be in producing entrepreneurial graduates with some of the attitudinal characteristics, we are yet to ascertain that. This leads us into the next phase of the study, which aims at ascertaining how well the entrepreneurship education is doing in terms of developing some of these attitudinal characteristics that are identified as crucial for an entrepreneur and entrepreneurial success within the Nigerian context. Hence, the next phase involves designing a questionnaire, where the themes from the exploratory study are being operationalised in a questionnaire format for a survey among students. The diagram (Figure 3.3) on the integration of mixed-method in data collection shows the point and how the two stages of the data collection processes are integrated. As discussed above, the entrepreneurial attitudes that will be taken forward to the next stage for the questionnaire operationalization include: Achievement motivation, Networking, Pro-activeness, Risk-taking and Self-efficacy

No.	VARIABLES	INTERPRETATION
A	**PROACTIVE**	
1	Rugged	The ability to adapt, survive and also produce results in different situations, especially the unfavourable ones
2	Street Smart	Ability to understand the language and the way of life of the common man on the street and using it to one's advantage
3	street-wisdom	Ability to understand the language and the way of life of the common man on the street and using it to one's advantage
4	Optimism	Having a positive attitude despite of the obvious negatives around
5	Cultural Intelligence	Ability to understand diverse cultures and blending in and also being able to use it to one's advantage.
6	Problem solving	being able to provide solutions to identified problems
B	**ACHIVEMENT MOTIVATION**	
7	Persistence	the attitude of not being tired even when one feels tired
8	Clarity of mission	Being clear and unambiguous on what one is set out to do or achieve.
9	Patience and perseverance	having the staying power or the ability to hold on for as long as possible, with expectations
10	Doggedness	Having a mind-set that is made up and willing to hold on until results come
11	Endurance	not giving up too soon
12	Hard work	Not being lazy but putting in every required effort for a desired result
C	**NETWORKING**	
13	connection or leveraging	knowing resourceful persons that could be of an advantage to one's business or ideas
14	Networking	ability to Build the right support system that could benefit one in different areas
15	Collaboration	Ability and the skills to work with others in achieving a set objective or common goal.
D	**RISK TAKING**	
16	willingness to fail	attitude of not being afraid of failing
17	Risk tendency	Having the attitude and the willingness to venture into the unknown without fear
18	curiosity	having an inquisitive mind that wants to know or learn more
E	**SELF-EFFICACY**	
19	Self-belief	having confidence in one's ability

20	self-efficacy	Being effective as a person
21	Task oriented	Not being lazy, but doing what needs to be done
22	courage	being fearless and bold in one's pursuits of ideas
23	self-control	being able to exercise restrain to tendencies where necessary
24	persuasive	The ability to win or convince others to one's advantage
25	positive mind-set	A way of thinking that believes that everything is possible.
26	Delay gratification	The attitude to delay short term gratification for a long-term bigger benefit
27	Financial education	freedom to control one's financial destiny
28	Prudence	being able to manage one's finance, especially a savings culture

Table 4.4: Qualitative Interview Themes

PART TWO:

4.3. QUESTIONAIRE DEVELOPMENT

4.3. Operationalization of Data collection instrument

This section of the research seeks to operationalize a survey instrument that will be utilised in collecting data from students (student survey), intending to determine how well Nigerian entrepreneurship education is doing in developing these attitudes among students.

The operationalization of the questionnaire represents the first transition from the qualitative stage to the quantitative stage, and the introduction of quantitative methodology, see (fig 3.3). Even though the development of the questionnaire was not the main aim of the study, it does, however, provide a suitable data collection method for conducting the student survey which is the quantitative aspect of the study. Majorly, the themes from which the questionnaire is being operationalised from stem from the findings of the qualitative analysis in chapter four, which is the first phase of the study. They include:

1. Achievement motivation.
2. Networking.
3. Pro-activeness.
4. Risk-taking and
5. Self-efficacy

Psychological testing, usually known as the psychometric test, was involved in phrasing the questions. Anastasi & Urbina (1997) sees it as an objective and standardized measure of a sample of behaviour. They believe that test results are a by-product of the samples of an individual's behaviour, the most common type of test, are a series of items. Performance on these items produces observable test scores. A score on a well-constructed test is assumed to reflect a psychological construct such as achievement, attitudinal disposition, cognitive ability, aptitude, emotional functioning, personality, etc. Differences in test scores are thought to reflect individual differences in the construct the test is set out to measure (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997).

Entrepreneurial attitudes such as self-efficacy, achievement motivation, and risk propensity are examples of underlying characteristics which are a broader part of the attitude theory. This has been used in many studies and benefited in terms of the theoretical and practical approach to entrepreneurial attitudes (Bird, 1995). The themes were extrapolated from the data analyses, which formed the basis for the questionnaire operationalisation. The research identified five themes (above) that characterised the major issues around the perception of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators on the needed entrepreneurial attitudes that fuel the intention for business venturing or fostering entrepreneurial behaviour.

4.3.1. Entrepreneurial Attitudes Measurement and Scales

Any test designed to measure attitude is open to criticism regarding the dimensions used. Studies have shown the widespread criticisms or variation in opinion among scholars on what dimensions to include or exclude in the measurement of entrepreneurial attitudes. For example, McCline et al. (2000) criticised Robinson et al. (1991) for ignoring certain dimensions like risk perception and opportunity recognition among other dimensions. Similarly, the study of Athayde (2009) when considering latent enterprise potential in young people (15– 19-year-olds) and how this could be developed through a Young Enterprise (YE) programme- it arrived at a mixed result when using risk-taking as a dimension. Hence, the research ignored this dimension in testing for attitude towards entrepreneurship. Kobia and Sikalieh (2010) also discussed the lack of consensus on the nature of risk-taking. Florin et al. (2007) used five traits, and Hatten et al. (1995) used four.

From the foregoing, it appears that several entrepreneurial dimensions can be used, as long as the usage or the utilisation is pertinent and justified. Furthermore, there is a growing consensus among researchers on the usage or utilisation of these dimensions or constructs. The combination of the results of several studies (Florin et al., 2007; Lumpkin *et al.*, 2009; Runyan *et al.*, 2008; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996, 2001; Wang, 2008) suggest that the attitudinal construct or dimensions can either be used collectively as in the work of Lumpkin *et al.* (2009) and Runyan *et al.* (2008) or separately as shown in the studies of Lumpkin and Dess (1996, 2001) and Wang (2008).

Certain items in the attitude section of the questionnaire echo those questions asked in other studies, in particular Robinson et al. (1991), even though they have been reworded to focus on students and their particular situation (as opposed to focussing on business people and a business context). Some have been devised especially for this questionnaire. The items that were specifically designed were derived primarily from the outcome of our qualitative study. Each general dimension is assessed using several items that cover the three components of an attitude (affect, behaviour, and cognition). These components are used majorly because; studies like Florin et al. (2007) opined that attitude could be better understood when these three components are considered simultaneously.

With regards to the entrepreneurial attitude measurement, it utilises questionnaires with scales and items that have already been validated and used in several prior research studies (Florin & Rossiter, 2007; Lumpkin, 1998; Lumpkin and Dess, 2001). The items in their questionnaires are similar in content and had been employed in other studies in different contexts. However, in order to fit the context of this current study and the outcome of the first phase of the research; some slight moderations have been brought to bear, especially in the rewording of some of the items in the questionnaire. The detail is shown in the subsequent sections of the document and appendix 10.1.

4.3.1.1. Pro-activeness:

Proactiveness is one of the essential attitudes required of entrepreneurs. Whilst some researchers use competencies as the suffix to the pro-activeness (Sánchez, 2011), others use dimensions and orientations, respectively. Whichever suffix used, the concept (proactiveness) entails the tendency to initiate and maintain actions that directly alter the surrounding context; in other words, it is wrapped around the inclination to act on opportunities.

Shapero (1982) has suggested that the proclivity of proactiveness to act on opportunities is one of the factors that can impact on the intention-behaviour relationship. In the specific context of entrepreneurship, Crant (1996) found that entrepreneurial intentions were positively associated with having a proactive attribute. Likewise, this type of attitude has been mentioned in the literature of

Shapero and Sokol, (1982) and Krueger and Brazeal (1994) as an important precursor of intentions and entrepreneurial potential.

The scales adopted in this research, combined and utilised the item scales to measure the participant's tendency for proactive behaviour. These items are based on the study of Florin & Rossiter (2007), which develops an instrument, validates and establishes the reliability of the instrument in measuring the attitudes of students towards entrepreneurship behaviour. The items used in the Florin study meets the needs of our study principally because it was designed for students. Unlike other similar studies like (Crant, 2000; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001) that only identified and used the proactive disposition construct within the context of an organization, career success and job performance.

4.3.1.2. Risk-Taking:

Risk-taking is one of the behaviours that is consistently associated with entrepreneurs (Casillas & Moreno, 2010). Its importance in the overall entrepreneurial process has been widely pointed out and acknowledged by many authors such as Lumpkin & Dess, (1996); Bolton and Lane (2012); and Moruku (2013). Among several other attitudinal propensities of entrepreneurs, many writers have continued to avow risk-taking as being central or primary in the entrepreneurial journey (Brockhaus, 1980).

The operational definition of risk in this study sees risk-taking as having the ability to perceive and also act upon surrounding opportunities that are not visible to others or not being acted upon by others (Bell, 2019). This definition corroborates with the perception of the entrepreneurs interviewed at the qualitative phase of this study, who perceived risk as the willingness of an individual to make decisions or take steps with a view to making sense of surrounding opportunities, regardless of the uncertainties or the price involved on the course of such an action on the journey.

The instrument that is being operationalised to measure risk propensity is drawn mainly from the work of Bolton and Lane (2012) on Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation (IEO). Amongst other instruments, the items that make up the dimensions are found to be appropriate as they have been tested and validated. More significant, is the original focus of their study on students, which equally dovetails the direction of this very study. The instrument adopts only three items in the measurement of risk propensity, as those items indicated much high Cronbach when tested for reliability analysis in Langkamp Bolton & Lane's study. Though they had five items for measuring risk propensity- the three items were considered appropriate and in consonance with standard practice from Churchill (1979), which suggests dropping the items with the lowest items-to-total correlation.

These items cover the concept of risk, whilst some of the items relate particularly to risk aversion, that is, they do not directly concern with risk in the sense that they indicate an unwillingness to step outside accepted or normal behaviour, which can signify an element of risk aversion. Conversely, some of the items measure a positive attitude to risk-taking.

These scales and the items in the questionnaire have been widely and extensively used in many studies and by researchers of risk-taking propensity. Unlike other measurement scales that target respondents who are already in business or within a corporate organisation working for a company (Carland et al., 1995), the focus of this is students.

4.3.1.3. Self-efficacy

Entrepreneurial self-efficacy is also a distinct characteristic of entrepreneurs, which is critical to the entrepreneurial process. Given the uncertainty, complexity and the attendant challenges and difficulties that characterise a typical business environment, like the chosen context (Nigeria) of this research; self-efficacy becomes a critical factor in the whole entrepreneurial dynamic. In the face of business and technological difficulties, it is suggested that self-efficacy may be more important than the business idea or the opportunity itself (Markman and Baron 2003).

Whilst the concept is viewed as an absence of intimidation when faced with difficult situations (Timmons, 1978) or the self-motivation needed to endure apparent difficulties, it is also concerned with the extent to which an individual believes in their ability to perform particular tasks; in other words, it is task-specific. Chen et al. (1998) argues that self- efficacy in some ways can be affected by 'external' influences. Self-efficacy is task-specific and primarily concerned with the behaviour and performance of a person. Self-efficacy has been linked to initiating and persisting at behaviour under uncertainty, to setting goals, to career choice (Bandura, 1995) and to opportunity recognition and risk-taking (Krueger and Dickson, 1994). In their study on self-efficacy as a distinguishing factor between entrepreneurs and managers, Chen et al., (1998) found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and an internal locus of control. Similarly, the work of Drnovsek et al. (2010) as indeed other studies like Shane *et al.* (2003, p. 267) supports the argument that an entrepreneur who is high in self-efficacy is likely to wield more effort for a greater length of time, persist through setbacks, and develop better plans and strategies for the *task.* In addition, the self-efficacy construct has also been closely linked to important entrepreneurial outcomes such as start-up intentions (Krueger *et al.*, 2000) and new venture growth, as well as the personal success of entrepreneurs (Markman *et al.*, 2002).

Generally, the determination needed to keep working on a project or a set goal with the unwavering confidence of reaching set objectives; despite the difficult, critical and dangerous circumstances that surround one's reality depicts self-efficacy. This attitudinal construct is concerned with the ability to accomplish set goals and overcome all the odds, as suggested by Tajeddini and Mueller (2009).

While other studies like (Markman, Balkin, & Baron, 2002; and Erikson, 2002) measure self-efficacy with a focus on those who have started their businesses and/or those who have not, meaning that the scale for the measurement was tailored towards that audience. This study adopts the tested and validated construct used by Florin & Rossiter (2007), not only because the reliability of the scales used in each construct is tested and established, but also because it is aimed at business school students and the wordings of the scales tally with the audience. The only moderation to the items and the wording is changing it to a first-person singular as against the third person, which the students may not personalise and connect well with the items if not moderated.

4.3.1.4. Achievement Motivation

Researchers have found that entrepreneurs are more achievement-oriented than the general population (Hornaday, 1982). Shane (2007) states that the need for achievement includes goal setting, planning and information gathering and that it requires a determination to sustain goal-directed activity over a long period. Although money is not the sole driver for entrepreneurial behaviour, it is a by-product of successful entrepreneurial behaviour (or should be), and it is a measurable and visible entity, which is why we often equate it with success – and individuals with a high need for achievement have a strong need for success (Koh, 1996).

However, as McClelland & Winter (1969), and others argue, achievement motivation is defined much more through status aspiration, dominance, competitiveness, determination and, in the case of students, through the achievement of high grades, success in their studies, etc. Whilst other reviewed studies on achievement motivation (Hornaday, 1982; Shane 2007) looked at entrepreneurs, managers of large firms and the general population as the unit for analysis, Florin's studies provide common ground with our studies, in other words, the principal unit of analysis is students in both studies. Therefore, this study utilises the already tested and reliably valid items used in their (Florin et al., 2007) studies.

4.3.1.5. Networking

Networking is increasingly recognised as an essential construct or an aspect of social capital; not only in a relationship-oriented culture alone but also even in a rule-oriented culture or setting. The literature, however, shows a growing recognition and appreciation of the importance and role of networking in the entrepreneurial process and outcomes. Entrepreneurial activities are embedded in network relationships that direct resource flows to entrepreneurs who are somehow better connected. In other words, the more the connection, the more the likelihood of resources available for the furtherance of the entrepreneurial activities (Hoang and Antoncic, 2003; Aldrich and Zimmer, 1986). For example, networking could result in outcomes like venture creation, alliance formation, and access to resources (finance, information, advice, mentoring etc.) and the creation of mediums for more entrepreneurial activities (Anderson and Jack, 2002).

Lans et al. (2015) are of the opinion that social networks and network development are crucial for entrepreneurial success in the twenty-first century. Despite their growing significance and wider appreciation, alongside the fact that they have been applied in a variety of contexts, however, the nature, role and application of networking in an entrepreneurial context have not been extensively explored as evidenced in the work of Anderson & Jack (2002). Nevertheless, growing research has shown that networks and interactions with significant others are principal to entrepreneurial activities and subsequent success (Aldrich and Zimmer, 1986; Filion, 1990; Dodd and Patra, 2002).

Networking, especially in the entrepreneurial world or setting, is largely impacted upon or influenced by one's social competence which encapsulates people's ability to interact successfully with each other within a certain position and context (Warnes et al., 2005)

Generally, the five variables that did result from this scale development process are variables that correlate well with the outcome of the previous phase of this study which was centred on unearthing the attitudes required for entrepreneurial venturing in the context of an emerging economy-specifically Nigeria. The items were adopted from the work of Lans et al. (2015) which measures social competence and social capital in the context of the early entrepreneurial process. This work is particularly interesting and significant to our study as it investigates how and to what extent social competence influences social capital among students with latent entrepreneurial ambitions. Social capital, in their context, is what we referred to as a social network in our study. It gives a robust grounding to our instrument development as the items adopted from their studies have been measured and tested, with validity and reliability established. However, most importantly, the instrument was administered on university students offering entrepreneurship-which gives a common grown with our investigation.

4.3.2. Entrepreneurial Intention Measurement

Despite the centrality of the intention construct in entrepreneurship research, there is yet to be a uniform approach to defining and measuring individual entrepreneurial intent (Shook, Priem, & McGee, 2003). In measuring for intention, we used the items and scales, which were tested and validated in the work of Linan et al. (2009). The article by Linan & Chen (2009) is published in a highly respected peer-reviewed journal of Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice; the authors developed a scale for testing entrepreneurial intentions by utilising the theory of planned behaviour (TPB).

The intention towards a target behaviour has been theoretically grounded to be dependent on a set of underlying attitudes (Ajzen, 1991). Multiple studies have demonstrated and established a correlation regarding the effect of attitude on intention and behaviour. This has been thoroughly and widely researched, supported and evidenced in literature within the social-psychology domain (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Krueger, 1993; Krueger & Brazeal, 1994). The intention of individuals to set up new businesses has proven to be a fundamental, enduring, and frequently used construct in research on entrepreneurship (Bird, 1988; Carr & Sequeira, 2007; Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000; Webster, 1977).

This study identifies and measures attitudes about entrepreneurial activity that may foster students' intentions to behave in entrepreneurial ways. The theory is grounded on the concept that individuals are somewhat rational in their choices, and their intentions may lead or may not lead to a certain behaviour. Three conceptual determinants of intentions are being advocated by the theory. First, the 'attitude towards behaviour' shows the extent to which a person has a satisfactory or adverse evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question. Secondly, the 'subjective norm' means the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour. Thirdly, the 'perceived behavioural control' refers to the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour, and it is assumed to reflect past experiences as well as expected obstacles (Ajzen, 1991, 2005).

Even though this line of research is gaining impetus, but generally, the relationship between entrepreneurship education programmes and students' entrepreneurial intentions using the planned behaviour theory has not been so widely studied, (Izquierdo & Buelens, 2008; Lüthje & Franke, 2003; Kolvereid & Moens, 1997, Souitaris et al., 2007, Fayolle et al., 2006)

The scales and items in the questionnaire developed by in Linan et al. (2009) are deemed to be applicable and relevant for our research as it also has a cross-cultural application, hence its adoption for the context of this study.

4.3.3. Questionnaire Design

Questionnaire design is an essential aspect of the conduct of any survey research exercise. A good questionnaire is one that accomplishes the objective of the research study. The main objective of the research questionnaire is to gather data that would answer the research question addressed by the study.

The questionnaire (see appendix 5.4.4) has been designed to measure the research variables (independent and dependent) as well as measuring the relationships between these variables.

4.3.3.1.1. Design and Layout

Designing or operationalising a questionnaire instrument for data collection in research can be a daunting task. While there is a lot that we know about best practices with regard to questionnaire design, Krosnick (2018) is of the opinion that there is also a lot that we do not know about designing or operationalising a questionnaire. Researching the essential elements of questionnaire design and development, studies like Rattray (2007) suggested that questionnaire design and development ought to be supported by a logical, systematic and structured approach, which would further demonstrate reliability and validity of the developed or operationalised instrument and its measurements. Similarly, it is crucial because failure in developing or operationalising the questionnaire sufficiently may lead to difficulty in interpreting results, and consequently impact negatively upon the research findings.

While there is a wide range of scales and response styles that may be utilized when developing a questionnaire; each of which produces a very different type or level of data which will also influence the option that a researcher will choose for analysis? Hence, it is vital to be clear which scale and response format to use when developing a new measure or operationalizing a question for a survey. This research uses the Likert scale format; it is the most used format in research. The scales use fixed choice response options and are designed to measure attitudes or opinions (Rattray 2007).

The instrument developed for this study consists of four sections, with each of the sections addressing one particular area of interest in the investigation. The first section includes items on a student's demography such as age, gender, university, discipline etc. The second session is the entrepreneurship background of the students. These questions are used to ask the students whether they have started or ever considered starting up their own business, or if their family members had their own business. These questions were dichotomous in nature, with yes/no alternatives. The section is primarily important as it helps with understanding the potential effect of some of the control variables on the research outcomes or result, even though that is not the focus of the study, but it is considered relevant for a clear understanding of the dynamics of the research participants.

The third section is the attitude section which contains the operationalised questions and constructs that seek to measure the impact of the entrepreneurship education obtained on the developments of those variables (attitudes) obtained from our qualitative research. The items in each variable were adopted and operationalised from similar studies that have tested and used them in their research investigations. The items were randomly listed to prevent respondents from detecting a pattern in the questions. These questions used a Likert scale of one to five (1–5), with five being ‘strongly agree’ and one being ‘strongly disagree’.

The fourth section is the Entrepreneurial Intention and Impact Section which asks both the control and experimental groups (First year and final years students) to consider if their entrepreneurial education experience has impacted on their intention to set up their own business, and how likely they were to set up a business, either shortly after graduation (within two years) or in the future.

4.3.3.2. Procedural Remedies

This research recognised the propensity of common method bias influencing the validity and reliability of the items in any given study, as acknowledged, and evidenced in studies like Mackenzie et al., 2012. Therefore, the questionnaire design and the layout has incorporated relevant remedies in the design.

Item ambiguity is a common method bias that could decrease the ability of a respondent to generate an accurate response as opined by Mackenzie et al. (2012). In this questionnaire design, clear and concise language and words are utilized, avoiding complicated sentence structures.

The order in which items in a questionnaire design are presented is also perceived with a propensity for a common method bias (Chang et al., 2010). As a procedural remedy, the order of items contained in the questionnaire for the study is being mixed, avoiding a uniform or serial pattern. At the same time, the design ensures a psychological separation between the questions making up the independent and dependent variables.

4.3.3.3. Validity Testing for Quantitative Inquiry.

Validity testing in relation to questionnaire design is the degree to which a questionnaire measures what it claims it will measure. In ensuring the validity of the data collection instrument, the research uses the face-to-face approach as one of the methods for testing the validity of the data. Some UK university lecturers, specifically the University of Worcester and the Nigerian University (Nasarawa State University) are being engaged in the process of checking the questions asked in the questionnaire. This is to ensure that the questions are clear, unambiguous, and relevant to the research questions and objective, which tallies with what Saunders et al. (2009) referred to as 'content validity', and also put into testable components.

Equally, in developing the questionnaire to measure the attitude of students, the 'construct validity' type is being implored, in other words, some questions that have been used and tested in other contexts are being included in the process, to establish a linkage or concurrence.

4.3.3.4. Reliability Test for Quantitative Inquiry.

Reliability, concerning questionnaire design, is the extent to which a questionnaire is consistent and accurate, in other words, the possibility of generating the same results when the same measures are administered by different researchers to a different participant group. There are several measures of reliability. Test-retest measures are concerned with the stability of the questionnaire over time. For example, the case of the reliability could be how stable would an interviewee's response to the questionnaire be if it were to be completed again after a given period? Equally, an alternate form measures are concerned with the equivalence of two comparable versions of a questionnaire, for example, how consistent a participant's response to one version of the questionnaire would be to an alternative version of the questionnaire.

Though the aforementioned methods are relevant and applicable to in other studies, Bryman (2008) is of the view that, most researchers favour the Cronbach's Alpha method for establishing reliability. The method estimates the internal consistency of the data collection instrument which is the questionnaire in this instance. Cronbach's Alpha calculates the variance or the variation of all responses to the scale items deemed to be illustrative of a given construct, measuring whether the items are identical and whether they correlate well together. While the ideal Cronbach alpha value of a scale should be 0.7 or above as contained in several studies (Kline, 1999; Bujang, et al., 2018; Pallant, 2005), however, a lower Cronbach alpha value of 0.6 in relation to estimating reliability within the sphere of social science is thought to an adequate benchmark ((Vaske, et al., 2017;DeVellis, 1991), particularly when is utilised in developing scales for a research questionnaire (Subedi, 2016; Cohen, 1988).

Cronbach's (1994) alpha and coefficient test would be used in testing for the reliability of the instrument being used. Nunnaly (1978) is of the view that where Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.5, then it is sufficient, but up to 0.7 is a more reliable value.

PART THREE

4.4. QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Following on from the previous section which focused on instrument operationalizat ion and questionnaire development from the outcome of the qualitative research in chapter four; this chapter presents the results of the quantitative study carried out a mongst students in the Nigerian Higher education institutions. The focus of the third part meets two of the objectives of this study, which is (a) Assessing the entrepreneu rial attitudes that are developedby students through the Nigerian Higher education a nd (b) determining which of the entrepreneurial attitudes can predict an increase in t he entrepreneurial intention of the students?

This section has six parts, which included- the pilot exercise conducted, response Rate and demographics of the respondents and also an initial screening of the data for subsequent analysis. Included also is an exploratory factor analysis alongside the test for reliability and validity. Whilst the reliability and the validity tests determine how well the questionnaire items measure what they are designed and set out to measure alongside the consistency and repeatability of the test; the exploratory factor analysis, on the other hand, identifies the underlying dimension of the measured variables. The other parts validate the research propositions and objectives of the study, with a conclusion that summarises all the findings

4.4.1. Pilot Survey Exercise

Piloting is the process of carrying out a data collection exercise with the sole aim of ascertaining whether there is any aspect of the questionnaire that needs reviewing before the actual administration of the questionnaire to the research population (Yin, 2012).

Hague (1993) is of the view that it is vital to check the wordings of the questions in the instruments, to be sure that it does make sense. Not only that, but he is also equally resolute on the idea that the instructions in the questionnaire must be clear to the respondent.

The outcome of the pilot exercise is essential, as it could potentially make a significant contribution to the entire data collection process, especially where adjustments in the instrument are required as a result of feedback from the pilot exercise. In other words, it allows the researcher to obtain preliminary evidence or a formative view of the instrument prior to the actual study (Thabane et al., 2010).

For the pilot exercise, eight questionnaires were administered to students in two universities- in Nigeria and the UK respectively, to ensure that the questions were clear and would address the research aim and the objectives of the study. In each university, two students were drawn randomly from the first year and the other two from the final year of their study, as it is the ultimate intention of the research to obtain data from first year and final year students in the actual survey. The pilot sample would have been conducted with just students in the UK. However, because the context of the study and the ultimate respondents to the actual questionnaire are students in Nigerian Universities, it was thought appropriate to include Nigeria in the pilot study. Including university students in the UK in the pilot study allowed room for more feedback on the questionnaire, especially from a different context other than the actual research context (Nigeria). The procedure enhanced the construct validity of the questionnaires as opined by Saunders (Saunders et al., 2012).

The questionnaire for this study purposely asked participants to identify or explain any unclear question(s) or ambiguity inherent in the questionnaire during the process; a three-line space was provided on the pilot questionnaire for additional comments from the participants. Besides this, a brief interview with the participants was carried out to prop them further in order to gain more insight as to the potential issues and areas that may need reviewing for the actual survey going forward.

Most of the respondents spotted typographical errors in the pilot document, which they indicated, and these were corrected in the main questionnaire. Most of them acknowledged that the questionnaire is simple and easy to understand as captured in some of the comments of the respondents, as shown below.

"Given this questionnaire, I feel that this is clear and easy to read for any person who can read English. Simple questions, which ask for a simple answer."

"Having done this questionnaire, I would say it is a straightforward and simple questionnaire which is not difficult to do" however, some of the options in the demographic section are not applicable to me, you may want to add others on it."

There was the need to add another option to some of the questions in the demographic section, as it was identified that the questionnaire might be completed by a respondent whose demographic attribute is outside the options provided. Hence, the option "Others" was added to some of the questions following the feedback from the pilot exercise. For example, the section on demography had these options added (Program of study, Program level and Ethnic background), which were not in the initial questionnaire.

Though there was unanimity in the feedback from most of the respondents regarding the clarity and simplicity of the questions, nevertheless, it was also identified that some of the questions needed some degree of specificity; therefore, some of the questions identified were rephrased to ensure that the question is as specific as possible.

4.4.2. Response Rate and Initial data screening

The primary data used for this quantitative study was a student survey using a questionnaire with 36 items as the instrument for the data collection. After the pilot exercise, the instrument was modified to reflect all the observations (principally relating to typographical errors, unclear questions, similar questions and seemingly lengthy questions) made by the participants who took part in the pilot exercise as well as the defects observed by the supervisory team while reviewing the contents of the pilot questionnaire.

A total of 526 responses were received from the administered questionnaires, out of which, 504 were completed, as shown in Table 6.5. The questionnaires were manually entered into SPSS software for proper data coding, streamlining and the computation of the statistical results

4.4.2.1. Missing Values Analysis

The overall summary of missing values indicates that missing values were found in all variables used in the study, with only about 58% of the cases having complete data (see Figure 4.1). Further assessment to determine the percentage of missing values is shown in Table 4.5. The table shows that only the program of study and items on the self-efficacy construct have missing values of more than 5%. A further exploratory analysis was employed to assess Little's Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) for the constructs of the study. All but networking and motivation indicated a non-significant MCAR, but since the total missing values of the constructs was less than 3%, the estimation maximization procedure was used to replace the missing values (this procedure was not employed for the categorical variables of the study).

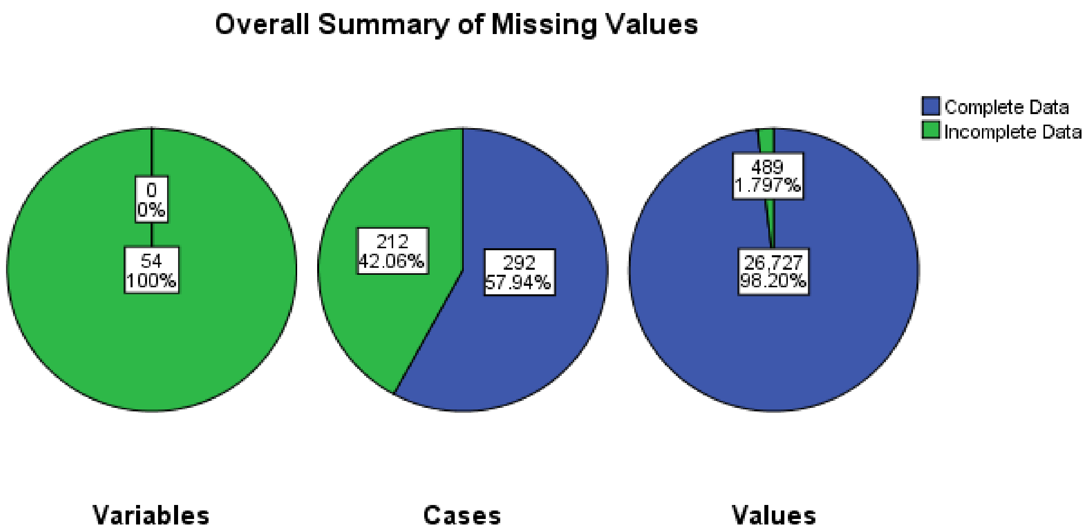


Figure 4. 1. Overall Summary of Missing Values

Table 4.5. Summary of Missing Variables Percentage

	Missing				
	N	Percent	Valid N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Program of Study	53	10.5%	451		
slef5	27	5.4%	477	2.51	1.403
ntwk3	17	3.4%	487	3.98	.815
prct8	17	3.4%	487	4.03	.886
rsk4	16	3.2%	488	3.70	.934
Anyone in Family Run Own Business	14	2.8%	490		
Ethnic Background	14	2.8%	490		
prct6	13	2.6%	491	4.08	.828
slef4	12	2.4%	492	3.26	1.264
slef8	11	2.2%	493	3.00	1.352
rsk5	11	2.2%	493	3.79	.956
Gender	11	2.2%	493		
ei4	10	2.0%	494	4.41	.798
acmt4	10	2.0%	494	4.22	.820
ntwk4	10	2.0%	494	4.06	.790
Entrepreneurship Experience Prior to Education Programme	10	2.0%	494		
Parents Own Occupation	10	2.0%	494		
Considered Running Own Business	10	2.0%	494		
ei6	9	1.8%	495	4.49	.739
ei5	9	1.8%	495	4.39	.786
ei3	9	1.8%	495	4.34	.809
acmt3	9	1.8%	495	4.25	.903
rsk6	9	1.8%	495	3.94	.943
Marital Status	9	1.8%	495		
ei1	8	1.6%	496	4.13	.973

Slef=Self Efficacy; rsk=Risk; ntwk=Networking; prct=Proactive; acmt=Achievement Motivation; ei= Entrepreneurial intention

a. Maximum number of variables shown: 25

b. Minimum percentage of missing values for the variable to be included: .0%

4.4.3. Demographics of the Respondents

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	16-25 years	352	69.8	70.8	70.8
	26-35 years	116	23.0	23.3	94.2
	36-45 years	23	4.6	4.6	98.8
	46-55 years	4	.8	.8	99.6
	56 years above	2	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	497	98.6	100.0	
Missing	System	7	1.4		
Total		504	100.0		

Table 4.5: Age Distribution

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	231	45.8	46.9	46.9
	Male	262	52.0	53.1	100.0
	Total	493	97.8	100.0	
Missing	System	11	2.2		
Total		504	100.0		

Table 4.6: Gender Distribution

Program of Study

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Entrepreneurship Degree	126	25.0	27.9	27.9
	Business and Management Related Degree	153	30.4	33.9	61.9
	Science Degree	46	9.1	10.2	72.1
	Others	126	25.0	27.9	100.0
	Total	451	89.5	100.0	
Missing	System	53	10.5		
Total		504	100.0		

Table 4.7: Distribution of Program of Study

Sample Universities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	University of Jos	167	33.1	33.3	33.3
	Nasarawa State University	148	29.4	29.5	62.7
	Benue State University	187	37.1	37.3	100.0
	Total	502	99.6	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.4		
Total		504	100.0		

Table 4.8: University Distribution

4.4.4. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Preliminary tests were undertaken to ensure that the data is appropriate and suitable for the analysis. These tests entail checking for common-method bias (CMB), normal distribution of data, multi-collinearity, reliability, and validity of the data. The extraction method used was principal component analysis (cut off value of 0.40) while Varimax was the method of choice for rotation. The PCA result revealed the presence of eight factors with eigenvalues above one, but the result of the Parallel Analysis (See Table 4.9) indicated the retention of seven factors eliminating one; hence this initial Principal Component Analysis (PCA) had seven components (Horn 1965). The proactiveness items loaded on two factors: factor one and factor seven. Factor 1 had the following items: proactive1, proactive2, proactive3, proactive5, and proactive7 while factor 7 had proactive4, proactive6, proactive8, proactive9. Because the items on Factor 7 did not capture the proactiveness construct clearly as defined in this study; they seem to be explaining a different construct, hence the decision to drop them in the subsequent CFA as shown in Table 4.9 below.

Component Number	Actual Eigenvalue from PCA	Criterion Value from Parallel Analysis	Decision
1	8.25	1.5989	Accept
2	3.688	1.5337	Accept
3	3.082	1.4868	Accept
4	2.555	1.4422	Accept
5	1.715	1.4018	Accept
6	1.423	1.3677	Accept
7	1.413	1.3338	Accept
8	1.048	1.3034	Reject

Table 4.9: Comparison of Eigenvalues from PCA and Criterion Values from Parallel Analysis

All the items from the entrepreneurial intention and motivation construct loaded on Factor 2 and Factor 3 with only one item on the achievement motivation construct (acmt2) cross-loading on Factor 1. Factor 4 had items on the self-efficacy construct: slef1, slef2, slef4, slef5, slef7, and slef8 while slef3 and slef6 loaded on Factor 8. Because the extraction criteria suggested the retention of seven factors, slef3 and slef6 and ultimately Factor 8 were deleted from the final CFA. Factor 5 had items on risk propensity with rsk2 loading on the Proactiveness construct, which was also eliminated in the final CFA. Finally, Factor 6 had networking items. All the items ntwk1 - ntwk6 loaded on this factor, with only ntwk5 cross-loading on Factor 1. The implementation resulted in the elimination of 8 items resulting in 34 items used in the subsequent CFA, as shown in table 4.11.

The items deleted were rsk2, prc4, prc6, prc8, prc9, ntwk1, slef3, and slef6. A few of the items were deleted because their loadings were below the recommended minimum of 0.40 while others had cross-loadings on other factors. Following the recommendation by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), the items that cross-loaded were removed to maintain a simple structure (Thurston, 1947), which explains why the eight items were removed. More so, it is a common practice for unsuitable items to be removed after conducting a PCA; particularly, items that do not correlate with any of the factors or items that correlate with other items over and above the accepted cut off value. (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006; Wang & Ahmed, 2004).

The suitability of the data for factor analysis was further assessed prior to the conduct of PCA. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.864, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance (χ_{561} = 6178.955, $p < 0.001$), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (see Table 4.10). This second phase involved only 34 items covering the dimensions of entrepreneurial attitude and the entrepreneurial intention construct (See Table 4.11 and 4.12).

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.864
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6178.955
	Df	561
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.10: KMO and Bartlett's Test

A prior criterion of 6 factors was implemented, which confirmed the existence of six factors. The six-component solution explained a total of 53.937% of the variance, with Factor 1 contributing 20.258%, Factor 2 contributing 9.950%, Factor 3 contributing 8.602%, Factor 4 contributing 6.716%, Factor 5 contributing 4.364% and Factor 6 contributing 4.047% (see Table 4.11).

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.888	20.258	20.258	6.888	20.258	20.258
2	3.383	9.950	30.207	3.383	9.950	30.207
3	2.925	8.602	38.810	2.925	8.602	38.810
4	2.283	6.716	45.526	2.283	6.716	45.526
5	1.484	4.364	49.890	1.484	4.364	49.890
6	1.376	4.047	53.937	1.376	4.047	53.937
7	.977	2.874	56.811			
8	.915	2.691	59.502			
9	.889	2.614	62.116			
10	.869	2.555	64.671			
11	.792	2.329	67.000			
12	.779	2.290	69.290			
13	.752	2.212	71.502			
14	.713	2.096	73.598			
15	.660	1.942	75.541			
16	.618	1.816	77.357			
17	.603	1.775	79.132			
18	.591	1.739	80.871			
19	.570	1.676	82.547			
20	.555	1.632	84.179			
21	.536	1.577	85.756			
22	.498	1.465	87.221			
23	.486	1.429	88.651			
24	.454	1.337	89.987			
25	.421	1.238	91.225			
26	.415	1.222	92.447			
27	.380	1.118	93.564			
28	.377	1.110	94.674			
29	.371	1.091	95.765			
30	.342	1.006	96.771			
31	.327	.961	97.732			
32	.295	.868	98.601			
33	.248	.729	99.330			
34	.228	.670	100.000			

Table 4.11: Total Variance Explained

To aid in the interpretation of these 6 factors, the Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization was performed as shown in Table 4.12 showing the items and factor loadings for the rotated factors, with loadings less than 0.40 omitted to improve clarity. The rotated solution revealed the presence of a relatively simple structure (Thurstone, 1947). Factor 1 indexed entrepreneurial intention, Factor 2 motivation, Factor 3 proactiveness, Factor 4 self-efficacy, Factor 5 risk-taking and lastly Factor 6 networking.

Table 4.12: Rotated Component Matrix

	Component						
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**Communality**
rsk1					.483		.321
rsk3					.718		.567
rsk4					.694		.517
rsk5					.562		.403
rsk6					.637		.489
prct1			.662				.577
prct2			.594				.490
prct3			.752				.657
prct5			.607				.468
prct7			.709				.596
ntwk2						.679	.541
ntwk3						.804	.697
ntwk4						.622	.495
ntwk5						.420	.521
ntwk6						.523	.373
slef1				.704			.517
slef2				.700			.525
slef4				.597			.420
slef5				.754			.585
slef7				.726			.537
slef8				.674			.512
acmt1		.671					.562
acmt2		.644					.572
acmt3		.666					.461
acmt4		.701					.586
acmt5		.714					.540
acmt6		.661					.520

acmt7		.536					.398
ei1	.612						.490
ei2	.738						.584
ei3	.814						.706
ei4	.815						.715
ei5	.835						.748
ei6	.782						.649
Eigenvalues	**6.88**	**3.383**	**2.925**	**2.283**	**1.484**	**1.376**	
% of Variance	**20.258**	**9.950**	**8.602**	**6.716**	**4.364**	**4.047**	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]

4.4.5. Reliability and Validity of the Data

Prior to the start of the data analysis, it was considered essential for reliability and validity tests to be carried out, to establish the internal consistency of the research instrument and its constructs and to ensure that the instruments measure exactly what they were designed to measure. The research result is described as valid when the procedure involved, and the instruments used are reliable. Reliability refers to the consistency or repeatability of scores on some measure of interest, as suggested by (Yockey, 2017). While there are different ways of establishing the reliability of items in a study, as suggested by Saunders et al. (2012) there are three standard tests carried out in establishing reliability, these are test-retest, internal consistency, and alternative form. The reliability test that is relevant to this study, however, is the single administration measure, which administers the scales once and then measures the consistency of the participants' responses across the items of the measure. This approach is preferred over the multiple administration measure, which requires administering the same measure twice (test-retest approach) in order to establish the reliability of the items. Not only is it time-consuming, but the outcome also may not necessarily guarantee the reliability of the items. Cronbach's alpha is the most common method for measuring internal consistency ("reliability"). It is most commonly used when you have numerous Likert questions in a survey/questionnaire that form a scale, and you wish to determine if the scale is reliable, which is the case with our study. Hence, this method is invaluable for the research.

Besides determining the reliability of the items in a survey, it is equally important to ascertain the validity of the items. A validity test simply examines how well survey items measure what they are designed to set out to measure, not something else. In the words of Kerlinger, 'the commonest definition of validity is epitomised by the question: Are we measuring what we think we are measuring?' (Kerlinger 1973:457). The validity test carried out in this study are- the face and content and construct validity tests, as they are the types that relate closely to this study.

The Face and Content validity tests for the logical link between the questionnaire items and the objective of the study. In this face and content validity, it was ensured that all the items and the questions covered the full range of the constructs that were being measured in the study.

Construct validity, on the other hand, is a more sophisticated technique for establishing the validity of a research instrument. It seeks to ascertain the contribution of each construct to the total variance observed in an occurrence; it is usually based upon a statistical procedure (Kumar, 2005). To ensure validity, a test for common method variance is performed using Harman's single-factor test, entering all items for the dependent and independent variables into an exploratory factor analysis. The use of this method in establishing validity in a study is widely documented in the literature (Lakovleva et al., 2011).

4.4.5.1. Harman's One-Factor Test

Common method variance may sometimes be a concern when self-reported questionnaires are used to collect data at the same time from the same participants (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Harman's single factor test is generally a technique used as a remedy (Tehseen et al., 2017; Chang et al., 2010). The test identifies common method variance in data. The result of Harman's one-factor test indicates that no single construct explained more than 50% of the variance extracted (see Table 4.13) indicating the absence of common method variance (CMV) in the data. Therefore, Common method bias is not a pervasive concern in this study.

Table 4.13: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.888	20.258	20.258	6.888	20.258	20.258
2	3.383	9.950	30.207			
3	2.925	8.602	38.810			
4	2.283	6.716	45.526			
5	1.484	4.364	49.890			
6	1.376	4.047	53.937			
7	.977	2.874	56.811			
8	.915	2.691	59.502			
9	.889	2.614	62.116			
10	.869	2.555	64.671			
11	.792	2.329	67.000			
12	.779	2.290	69.290			
13	.752	2.212	71.502			
14	.713	2.096	73.598			
15	.660	1.942	75.541			
16	.618	1.816	77.357			
17	.603	1.775	79.132			
18	.591	1.739	80.871			
19	.570	1.676	82.547			
20	.555	1.632	84.179			
21	.536	1.577	85.756			
22	.498	1.465	87.221			
23	.486	1.429	88.651			
24	.454	1.337	89.987			
25	.421	1.238	91.225			
26	.415	1.222	92.447			
27	.380	1.118	93.564			
28	.377	1.110	94.674			
29	.371	1.091	95.765			
30	.342	1.006	96.771			
31	.327	.961	97.732			
32	.295	.868	98.601			
33	.248	.729	99.330			
34	.228	.670	100.000			

4.4.5.2. Cronbach's Alpha Test

The table below (Table 4.14) shows the result of the reliability test that was carried out on the study variables, which comprises of 34 items. The results indicate a Cronbach alpha coefficient which ranged from 0.696 to 0.868, which was considerably higher than the acceptable reliability level of 0.60 as suggested by Nunnaly (1978) and most of the researchers within the field (e.g., Churchill, 1979; Magal et al., 1988; Eid, 2003 and Haron, 2002). Consequently, based on the coefficient alpha results, the research measures are satisfactory for conducting further data analysis through inferential statistics to test the research hypothesis

Table 4.14: Reliability Test Using Cronbach's Alpha

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items
Risk Taking	.696	5
Proactiveness	.812	5
Networking	.714	5
Self-Efficacy	.792	6
Motivation	.812	7
Overall Cronbach's Alpha	8.11	28
Entrepreneurial Intention	.868	6

4.4.6. Validation of Research Propositions

4.4.6.1. Research Objective 2

Determining which of the entrepreneurial attitudes are developed among students through the Nigerian HEI experience, was one of the objectives of the research which seeks to tackle the second question of this research. In accomplishing that, a total of seven (7) hypotheses were formulated to test the research proposition, see (Table 4.15). Thereafter, an independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the dimensions of entrepreneurial attitude scores for the year of study (that is first and final year level), to see whether there is any significant difference among the students. The result is contained in Table 4.16.

Table 4.15: Research Question and Hypothesis

RQ	Research Question	HYPOTHESIS
2	Which of the entrepreneurial attitudes are developed among students through the Nigerian HEI?	1. Attitude towards risk is higher among final year students than the first-year students. Hp1 2. Proactive attitude is higher amongst final year students than first-year students. Hp2 3. Self-efficacy is higher amongst final year students than first-year students. Hp3 4. Achievement motivation is higher among final year students than first-year students. Hp4 5. Attitude towards networking is higher among final year students than first-year students. Hp5 6. Final year students are more likely to have a high Entrepreneurial attitude than first-year students. Hp6 7. Final year students with prior entrepreneurship experience are more like to have a high Entrepreneurial attitude than the first-year students. Hp7

Group Statistics

	Program Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Risk Propensity	First Year Students	92	3.8616	.72822	.07592
	Final Year Students	406	3.7399	.62963	.03125
Proactiveness	First Year Students	92	4.2996	.56052	.05844
	Final Year Students	406	4.3244	.63562	.03155
Self-Efficacy	First Year Students	92	3.0432	.92784	.09673
	Final Year Students	406	2.9559	.91900	.04561
Motivation	First-Year Students	92	4.4815	.42720	.04454
	Final Year Students	406	4.3544	.54223	.02691
Networking	First-Year Students	92	4.0788	.55964	.05835
	Final Year Students	406	4.0383	.58748	.02916
Attitude towards Entrepreneurship	First Year Students	92	3.9529	.43384	.04523
	Final Year Students	406	3.8826	.38831	.01927

Table 4.16: Group Statistics

Hypothesis 1 stated that attitude towards risk is higher among final year students than first-year students. The results of the analysis revealed that there was no significant difference in scores for first-year (M = 3.86, SD = 0.73) and final year students [M = 3.74, SD = 0.63; $t(496) = 1.625$, p = 0.105] on their attitude towards risk failing to reject the hypothesis. The magnitude of the difference in the means was very small (η^2 = 0.01). The implication is that the final year students do not differ from first year students on the attitude they have towards risk. This is despite the number of years they have participated in an entrepreneurship programme at HEIs. In order words, students who participate in an entrepreneurship programme at a HEIs in Nigeria whether they are in their first or final year (throughout their stay in the programme) do no differ in terms of their risk attitude towards entrepreneurship. This finding speaks volume to the inefficiency that is inherent in the entrepreneurship education provision within the Nigerian context of higher education.

Hypothesis 2 stated that proactive attitude is higher amongst final year students than first-year students. The evidence provided by the results fails to support the rejection of the stated hypothesis given that there was no significant difference in scores for first-year (M = 4.30, SD = 0.56) and final year students [M = 4.32, SD = 0.64; $t(496) = -0.345$, p = 0.730]. Furthermore, the magnitude of the difference in the means was also very small ($\eta^2 = 0.00$).

Hypothesis 3 stated that self-efficacy is higher amongst final year students than first year students. The t-test revealed that there was no significant difference in scores for first year (M = 3.04, SD = 0.93) and final year students [M = 2.96, SD = 0.92; $t(496) = 0.821$, p = 0.412] on their self-efficacy. The calculated difference in their means was also very small ($\eta^2 = 0.003$). In essence, the self-efficacy of students is not developed despite participating in an entrepreneurship programme at a HEIs in Nigeria. In the same way that proactive attitude is not evidently developed amongst entrepreneurship students as shown in the results above, the same applied to self-efficacy.

For hypothesis 4, achievement motivation was proposed to be higher among final year students than first-year students. The t-test revealed that there was a significant difference in the mean scores on motivation for first-year (M = 4.48, SD = 0.43) and final year students [M = 4.3, SD = 0.54; $t(164.64) = 2.44$, p = 0.02]. Eta squared calculated indicated a very small magnitude of the difference between the means scores of the final and first-year students ($\eta^2 = 0.00012$); in other words, the difference is negligible. The result implied that whilst the other variables did not show any significant difference in the development of those entrepreneurial attitude, when tested for its impact on achievement motivation, the result shows a statistically significant difference between first- and first-year students. In other words, participation, and exposure to the entrepreneurship programme in Nigeria HEIs helps in horning the motivation of students towards developing their entrepreneurial intention.

At variance with the motivation scale, there was no significant difference in scores for first-year (M = 4.48, SD = 0.43) and final year students [M = 4.3, SD = 0.54; $t(496) = 0.60$, p = 0.55] on networking scale. This finding fails to support the rejection of Hypothesis 5, which states that attitude towards networking is higher among final year students than first-year students. Furthermore, the magnitude of the difference in their mean score is also negligible ($\eta^2 = 0.0007$). In essence, participation in an entrepreneurship programme by students in HEIs in Nigeria does not help improve students' networking skills. Networking skills is adjudged to be very critically in enhancing social skills and in many instances critical to increasing the chances of business launching (Klyver & Arenius, 2020). The reality however from the result of this research indicates a failure or inadequacy of the current EEd in Nigerian HEIs in developing the networking capability of the students.

For the attitude towards entrepreneurship scale, there was also no significant difference in scores for first-year ($M = 3.95$, $SD = 0.43$) and final year students [$M = 3.88$, $SD = 0.37$, $t(496) = 1.534$, $p = 0.126$). The implication is that first and final year students do not rank differently on the attitude towards entrepreneurship as evidenced by the non-significant difference and the negligible magnitude of the difference in their mean scores ($\eta^2 = 0.005$) (Cohen, 1998). Therefore, the evidence fails to support the rejection of Hypothesis 6. The number of years spent in an entrepreneurship programme in a Nigerian HEIs contributes little or nothing to improving students' attitude towards entrepreneurship. This will have profound policy implications giving that students in their final year on an entrepreneurship program do not have a well-developed attitude towards entrepreneurship; that is, they do not differ from the students who are in their first year. Invariably, the entrepreneurship programme has not helped them towards having a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship.

The following formula is used to compute eta squared:

$$\eta^2 = t^2 / (N_1 + N_2 - 2)$$

Where:

η^2	=	eta squared
t	=	t-test for equality of means
N1	=	sample size for group1
N2	=	sample size for group2

- Cohen (1988) level: .01 (small effect), .06 (moderate effect) and .14 (large effect)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	**Sig.**	**t**	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error Difference**
Risk Propensity	Equal variances assumed	2.922	.088	1.625	496	.105	.12171	.07492
	Equal variances not assumed			1.482	123.645	.141	.12171	.08210
Proactiveness	Equal variances assumed	.119	.730	-.345	496	.730	-.02483	.07188
	Equal variances not assumed			-.374	148.917	.709	-.02483	.06641
Self-Efficacy	Equal variances assumed	.016	.899	.821	496	.412	.08727	.10630
	Equal variances not assumed			.816	134.463	.416	.08727	.10695
Motivation	Equal variances assumed	4.516	.034	2.104	496	.036*	.12704	.06039
	Equal variances not assumed			2.441	164.639	.016*	.12704	.05204
Networking	Equal variances assumed	.279	.597	.602	496	.547	.04051	.06726
	Equal variances not assumed			.621	140.156	.536	.04051	.06523
Attitude towards Entrepreneurship	Equal variances assumed	2.633	.105	1.534	496	.126	.07034	.04585
	Equal variances not assumed			1.431	126.103	.155	.07034	.04917

Table 4.17: Independent Samples Test $*p < 0.05$

Prior Entrepreneurship Experience

It was assumed that prior exposure to entrepreneurship or some level of entrepreneurship experience may or may not affect the entrepreneurial attitude of the students. This was captured in a Hypothesis. Hypothesis 7 stated that final year students with prior entrepreneurship experience are more likely to have a high entrepreneurial attitude than first-year students. The result of the t-test failed to support the acceptance of the hypothesis and is therefore rejected. The result showed that there was no significant difference in scores for first-year (M = 3.94, SD = 0.41) and final year students [M = 3.87, SD = 0.38, $t(357) = 1.454$, $p = 0.147$) on entrepreneurial attitude. The calculated eta squared was also negligible ($\eta^2 = 0.004$), see Table 4.18 & 4.19.

Similarly, for the students without prior entrepreneurial experience, the outcome does not show any significant difference in the scores of the first year (M = 4.07, SD = 0.48) and final year students [M = 3.92, SD = 0.41, $t(357) = 1.394$, $p = 0.166$), in terms of their entrepreneurial attitudes. The implication is that having prior exposure to entrepreneurship does not help form students' attitude towards entrepreneurship despite also participating in an entrepreneurship education programme.

Whilst the outcome of several studies liked (Ramayah, et al., 2012) have shown the existence of a significant difference between individuals who have prior entrepreneurial experience compared to those who do not have in terms of their entrepreneurial attitudes, behaviour, and intention. However, other studies like (Zapkau, et al., 2017) have evidenced a mixed and unclear outcome despite the substantial research regarding how and in which context prior entrepreneurial exposure impacts the entrepreneurial process. The result in this research which shows no statistically significant difference when controlled for prior exposure of the two groups is not completely unusual and surprising. The reality of entrepreneurship education experience within the Nigerian context as revealed in both the qualitative and quantitative research outcome is such that what is currently on the offer does allows for and effective and experiential type of entrepreneurial education, hence the indifference in the two groups

Prior Entrepreneurial Experience		Program Level	N	Mean		
.	Attitude towards Entrepreneurship	First Year Students	2	3.3971	.63572	.44952
		Final Year Students	7	3.9294	.28042	.10599
Prior Entrepreneurial Experience	Attitude towards Entrepreneurship	First Year Students	73	3.9401	.41059	.04806
		Final Year Students	286	3.8662	.38131	.02255
No Prior Entrepreneurial Experience	Attitude towards Entrepreneurship	First-Year Students	17	4.0736	.48144	.11677
		Final Year Students	113	3.9212	.41076	.03864

Table 4.18: Group Statistics (Prior Entrepreneurship Experience)

			Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
Prior Entrepreneurial Experience			F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Prior Entrepreneurial Experience	Attitude towards Entrepreneurship	Equal variances assumed	1.225	.269	1.454	357	.147	.07385	.05080
		Equal variances not assumed			1.391	105.89	.167	.07385	.05308
No Prior Entrepreneurial Experience	Attitude towards Entrepreneurship	Equal variances assumed	.555	.457	1.394	128	.166	.15244	.10932
		Equal variances not assumed			1.239	19.66	.230	.15244	.12299

Table 4.19: Independent Samples Test (Prior Entrepreneurial Experience)

4.4.6.2. Research Question 3

The third objective of the study is centered on providing the answer to the research question- Which entrepreneurial attitudes can predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of students? As shown in table 4.20 five predictions were proposed as a guide for answering the question. Multiple regression was utilised in analysing the data after a correlation analysis was conducted.

RQ	Research Question	PREDICTION
3	Which of the entrepreneurial attitudes can predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of the students?	1. Increased attitude towards risk can predict an increase in entrepreneurial intention. 2. Increased proactive attitude can predict an increase in entrepreneurial intention. 3. Increased attitude towards risk can predict an increase in entrepreneurial intention. 4. Increase achievement motivation attitude can predict an increase in entrepreneurial intention. 5. Increased in networking attitude can predict an increase in entrepreneurial intention of the students.

Table 4.20: Research Question and Predictions

4.4.6.3. Correlation Analysis:

Correlation analysis is often used to determine the possible association between variables. This study also seeks to test whether there is a link between the entrepreneurial attitude variables and entrepreneurial intention. The table below (4.21 and 4.22) clearly illustrates the correlation between entrepreneurial attitude dimensions and entrepreneurial intention. Only self-efficacy (see Table 6.18) did not correlate significantly with entrepreneurial intention ($r = .015$, $p=.730$) with the other dimensions showing significant correlation. Entrepreneurial intention correlates significantly with risk propensity ($r = .253$, $p<.001$), proactiveness ($r = .248$, $p<.001$), networking ($r = .265$, $p<.001$) and motivation ($r = .271$, $p<.001$).

Table 4.21: Correlations (Entrepreneurial attitude)

		RiskP	Proact	NetWk	SelEf	Motiv	Entrln
Risk Propensity	Pearson Correlation	1	.485**	.391**	.033	.185**	.253**
(RiskP)	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.466	.000	.000
	N	504	504	504	504	504	504
Proactiveness	Pearson Correlation	.485**	1	.478**	-.017	.429**	.248**
(Proact)	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.709	.000	.000
	N	504	504	504	504	504	504

Networking (NetWk)	Pearson Correlation	.391**	.478**	1	.117**	.327**	.265**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.008	.000	.000
	N	504	504	504	504	504	504
Self-Efficacy (SelEf)	Pearson Correlation	.033	-.017	.117**	1	-.100*	.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.466	.709	.008		.024	.730
	N	504	504	504	504	504	504
Motivation (Motiv)	Pearson Correlation	.185**	.429**	.327**	-.100*	1	.271**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.024		.000
	N	504	504	504	504	504	504
Entrepreneurial Intention (Entrln)	Pearson Correlation	.253**	.248**	.265**	.015	.271**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.730	.000	
	N	504	504	504	504	504	504

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

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

Table 4.22: Correlations (Intention)

		Entrepreneurial Intention
Risk Propensity	Pearson Correlation	.253**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	504
Proactiveness	Pearson Correlation	.248**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	504
Networking	Pearson Correlation	.265**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	504
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.730
	N	504

Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.271**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	504

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

4.4.6.4. Multiple Regression Analysis

While correlation measures the degree to which two variables are related, regression, on the other hand, describes the relationship between two variables. The specific kind of regression used in this analysis is the multiple hierarchical regression (MHR) which allows for the analysis to obtain an outcome while controlling for multiple independent variables. The analysis here sets to establish whether the entrepreneurial attitude variables can predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention while controlling for potential variables like the level and program of study, Age, Prior Entrepreneurial Experience, Gender, Ethnic Background and Marital Status.

Prior to the implementation of the regression analysis, the test of assumptions was done. The dataset did show that the assumptions of linearity, normality etc. were violated as indicated by the inspection of the histogram, Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual and Scatterplot (see Fig 8.1, 8.2 & 8.3). This is confirmed by the calculation of Tolerance and VIF values. The tolerance values were 0.639, 0.535, 0.692, 0.875 and 0.752 and VIF values were 1.566, 1.869, 1.444, 1.143 and 1.330 for risk propensity, proactiveness, networking, self-efficacy and motivation respectively all within acceptable thresholds confirming that the dataset poses no multicollinearity problem (see Table 4.23). Multicollinearity is generally the occurrence of high intercorrelations among independent variables in a multiple regression model in an attempt to determine how well each independent variable can be used most effectively in predicting or understanding a phenomenon- if not treated appropriately, it can be problematic and might lead to misleading or erroneous results and conclusions (Weaving et al., 2019; Kock & Lynn, 2012).

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.476	.211		21.177	.000	4.060	4.891		
	Age	.128	.057	.127	2.255	.025	.016	.240	.720	1.390
	Gender	.094	.065	.072	1.455	.146	-.033	.222	.940	1.064
	Program Level	.035	.088	.021	.401	.689	-.138	.208	.848	1.179
	Prior Entrepreneurial Experience	-.168	.070	-.115	-2.381	.018	-.306	-.029	.987	1.013
	Marital Status	-.097	.087	-.062	-1.109	.268	-.268	.075	.729	1.371
	Ethnic Background	.017	.022	.043	.782	.435	-.026	.061	.746	1.340
	Program of Study	-.126	.030	-.224	-4.237	.000	-.185	-.068	.817	1.225
2	(Constant)	2.342	.381		6.143	.000	1.592	3.091		
	Age	.097	.054	.096	1.803	.072	-.009	.203	.714	1.401
	Gender	.072	.062	.054	1.146	.252	-.051	.194	.902	1.109
	Program Level	.104	.084	.062	1.247	.213	-.060	.269	.833	1.200

Prior Entrepreneurial Experience	-.175	.067	-.120	-2.627	.009	-.307	-.044	.980	1.021
Marital Status	-.064	.083	-.041	-.775	.439	-.227	.099	.718	1.394
Ethnic Background	.001	.021	.003	.060	.952	-.040	.043	.724	1.382
Program of Study	-.136	.029	-.242	-4.677	.000	-.193	-.079	.763	1.311
Risk Propensity	.122	.058	.118	2.095	.037	.008	.237	.639	1.566
Proactiveness	.043	.066	.040	.650	.516	-.087	.173	.535	1.869
Networking	.161	.063	.140	2.574	.010	.038	.285	.692	1.444
Self-Efficacy	-.031	.035	-.042	-.881	.379	-.099	.038	.875	1.143
Motivation	.212	.067	.164	3.151	.002	.080	.344	.752	1.330

Table 4.23: Coefficients[a] Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Intention

Two regression models were used to test the hypothesis in table 6.21. Model 1 contained the control variables proposed for the study while Model 2 included both the control variables and the predictor variables. The Model 1 is significant at $F(7, 406) = 4.562$, $p < 0.001$ explaining 7.3% of the variation in entrepreneurial intention while for Model 2 which included the predictors is also significant at $F(12, 401) = 7.551$, $p < 0.001$ explaining 18.4% of the variation in entrepreneurial intention (see Table 6.20 and Table 6.21 respectively). Specifically, the result indicates that risk propensity ($\beta = 0.122$, $p < .05$), networking ($\beta = 0.161$, $p < .05$) and motivation ($\beta = 0.212$, $p < .01$) are all significant predictors of entrepreneurial intention while proactiveness ($\beta = 0.043$, $p = .516$) and self-efficacy ($\beta = -0.031$, $p = .379$) fail to predict entrepreneurial intention see (Table 4.24).

	Model 1	**Model 2**
Age	.128*	.097
Gender	.094	.072
Program Level	.035	.104
Prior Entrepreneurial Experience	-.168*	-.175*
Marital Status	-.097	-.064
Ethnic Background	.017	.001
Program of Study	-.126**	-.136**
Risk Propensity		.122*
Proactiveness		.043
Networking		.161*
Self-Efficacy		-.031
Motivation		.212**
R^2	.073	.184
Adjusted R^2	.057	.160
ΔR^2	.073	.111
F	4.562**	7.551**

Table 4.24: Result of Regression Analysis: DV – Entrepreneurial Intention

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01

Table 4.25: Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.270[a]	.073	.057	.63826	.073	4.562	7	406	.000
2	.429[b]	.184	.160	.60241	.111	10.952	5	401	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Program of Study, Age, Prior Entrepreneurial Experience, Gender, Program Level, Ethnic Background, Marital Status

b. Predictors: (Constant), Program of Study, Age, Prior Entrepreneurial Experience, Gender, Program Level, Ethnic Background, Marital Status, Networking, Self-Efficacy, Motivation, Risk Propensity, Proactiveness

c. Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Intention

4.5. Chapter Summary

The result of the survey does not suggest any significant difference in the entrepreneurial attitude of the students when first and final year student are compared except for one of the attitudinal dimensions, achievement motivation which showed a variance in the score between the first and final year students. in other words, when differentiating whether students who participated in an EEP with the Nigerian HEIs will differ in terms of their attitude towards entrepreneurship, only in terms of motivation was a significant difference noted. This can also be seen in terms of the impact of motivation on entrepreneurial intention. Motivation as against networking and risk has the highest contribution to entrepreneurial intention within the Nigerian student context. Similarly, Networking has the highest contribution to explaining EI followed by risk taking.

The implication of the findings is that EEP in Nigeria contributes more to building the motivation of students towards entrepreneurship. The EEP also helps students in building networking skills (a necessary ingredient in building a strong entrepreneurial ecosystem). Unfortunately, students' attitude toward risk has the least contribution to EI. Perhaps, the cultural factors (extraneous factors) have more to do than an attitude toward risk

The outcome of the qualitative interview with the entrepreneurship education stakeholders seems to corroborate the results of the survey in the quantitative research phase. The general perception of the entrepreneurship education stakeholders is that the current entrepreneurship education in Nigerian HEIs is almost incapable of building and developing the entrepreneurial attitude of the students, due mainly to its very theoretical nature with less focus on the experiential aspect. In other words, the current EEd is more of training 'about' entrepreneurship as opposed to training 'for' entrepreneurship.

There is no clear-cut indication from the outcome of this research to suggest that the current entrepreneurship education in Nigerian HEI impacts highly on the development of the entrepreneurial attitudes of students. Even though, the results also reveal that there is a significant increase in the entrepreneurial intention of the students as a result of an increase in some of their entrepreneurial attitudes, for example, achievement motivation, risk propensity, and networking. However, proactiveness and self-efficacy did not predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of the students.

CHAPTER 5:

DISCUSSION AND RESEARCH IMPLICATION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents an in-depth discussion of the key findings of the study and discusses the attendant implications of these findings. It draws on the findings of the qualitative study in chapter four and that of the quantitative study in chapter six as well as relating these findings to the literature addressing previous works within the field. The chapter provides beyond a cursory understanding of the impact of entrepreneurship education experience on the development of entrepreneurial attitude and intention of students in Nigerian higher education institutions; it also seeks to highlight the implications of the findings and to discuss the findings in relation to the previous literature. This research was carried out using a mixed-method approach with a sequential data collection procedure. The integration of the research design was in such a way that, the outcome of the first stage of the study (Qualitative Research) allowed for the operationalization of the data collection instrument for the second phase of the study (Quantitative Research). The process was guided explicitly by the objectives of the study to draw conclusions from the data obtained.

Whilst the first phase used a qualitative method to explore enterprise and entrepreneurship education in Nigeria, with the central aim of understanding how stakeholders (entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators) in Nigeria perceive enterprise and entrepreneurship education in Nigeria, and what kind of entrepreneurial attitudes they think are required to be successful in the Nigerian context. The second phase, on the other hand, utilised a quantitative approach to assess which of the entrepreneurial attitudes are developed among students through the Nigerian HEI, and also to ascertain which one of them can predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of the students.

This chapter integrates the findings of the two stages of the research. It presents a discussion to determine the implications of the findings of the study on entrepreneurship education research, entrepreneurial venturing, and entrepreneurship education in Nigeria.

5.2. Integration and Discussion of Findings

5.2.1. Research Objective One

"Explore the entrepreneurial attitudes that are required of Nigerian entrepreneurs".

The nature of the business environment is a fundamental contributory factor to an enabling or disabling environment for entrepreneurial activities. The Nigerian business environment is a tough one for doing business. A plethora of academic studies have corroborated part of the findings of this research on the tough, stressful, risky and limiting nature of the Nigerian environment for entrepreneurial activities (Agboli etal., 2006; Abimbola et al., 2011 and Essie 2012). Hence, it is argued that operating and thriving in such an environment requires a certain kind of entrepreneurial attitude (Sobri et al., 2016).

The analysis of the qualitative research in chapter four which is the first phase of the study shows the emergence of five distinct entrepreneurial attitudes that are argued to be essential for entrepreneurial venturing and thriving within the Nigerian context. They included risk Propensity, self-efficacy, networking ability, proactiveness and achievement motivation. While other themes also emerged from the data analysis, the semantic explanation given to these constructs by the interviewees falls under one of these five categorisations (See Table 4.4). The question as to whether the EEd in Nigerian HEIs is sufficient in developing these entrepreneurial attitudes amongst students is still an ongoing debate. Findings from numerous related studies including this research have arrived at a conclusion; suggesting that the Entrepreneurship education in Nigerian HEI is predominantly theoretical in its approach- with more emphasis tailored around education about entrepreneurship, not for entrepreneurship, which limits the development of these attitudes amongst students (Nwambam et al., 2018; Yatu et al., 2018). Several studies (Sherman et al., 2008; Olokundun et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2019) on entrepreneurial careers and developing entrepreneurial graduates with the requisite attitude and intention for entrepreneurial adventure, have consistently argued that it can only be possible if the entrepreneurial education process is practical and experiential enough. The research findings equally reveal a high level of disbelievers amongst the participating entrepreneurship education stakeholders (Entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators) in the efficiency of entrepreneurship education in delivering its objective.

Developing the requisite entrepreneurial attitude amongst students through the current EEd is somewhat challenging or even almost impossible, as the traditional methods of teaching entrepreneurship, which is the practice in the Nigerian universities, is argued to be less effective in motivating considerations for an entrepreneurship career. Over the years, academics in the field of entrepreneurship education have demonstrated an increased awareness of the input of class-based and theoretical knowledge as a component of learning. However, the traditional lecture-based methods of teaching and learning alone will not be sufficient in developing the required entrepreneurial attitudes (Cooper et al., 2004). The best practice in entrepreneurship teaching, which stimulates students' attitude and intention to engage in entrepreneurial activities even as an undergraduate student, is the adoption of an experiential, practical approach (Sherman et al., 2008; Olokundun et al., 2018). In addition to the findings of this research in chapter four on the entrepreneurial attitudes that are required of Nigerian entrepreneurs, other studies have also pointed at some entrepreneurial attitudes that are essential for entrepreneurial venturing but are not context-specific- they are rather very general- for example (Zabelina et al., 2019).

Moving the field of entrepreneurship education forward and advancing the knowledge and understanding from the specific context being researched, it is necessary to design and implement a pedagogy in entrepreneurship education which provides a systematic approach to developing entrepreneurial attitudes and value (Caggiano et al., 2016). Findings from several studies have demonstrated the use of non-traditional teaching and learning approaches like the experiential type as playing a significant influence in developing the entrepreneurial interest of students (Olokun et al., 2018). Similarly, while there could be pros and cons to the experiential approach, several works like (De Castro et al., 2017) found the experiential teaching approach in entrepreneurship education as a viable tool in engaging and empowering the students with the requisite entrepreneurial attitudes.

The benefits of entrepreneurship as a catalyst for steering economic development through job creation, poverty reduction and promoting national security is mostly established and acknowledged in literature (Olalekan et al., 2019). Similarly, Entrepreneurship education plays a vital role in developing the entrepreneurial attitudes of individuals towards entrepreneurial behaviour and action. However, the effectiveness of the current entrepreneurship education on offer in the Nigerian higher education has been widely contested (Yusuf, 2019; Otache, 2019)-which leads to the second objective of the research that unearths the entrepreneurial attitudes that are more developed among students throughout the current Nigerian HEI.

5.2.2. Research Objective two

"Determine which of the entrepreneurial attitudes are more developed among students through the Nigerian HEI."

In determining which of the entrepreneurial attitudes are more developed amongst the students, the quantitative data analysis was designed in such a way that a test of difference could be carried out between the first year and final year entrepreneurship students. The entire hypotheses on each of the attitudinal constructs assume that having been exposed to the EEd programme, the attitudes of the final year students towards each of the five constructs will be significantly higher than that of the first-year students who are very nascent on the programme.

The five entrepreneurial attitudinal constructs that emerged from the findings of the qualitative research in chapter four were: risk propensity, proactiveness, self-efficacy, achievement motivation and networking. When operationalised into a questionnaire to ascertain which of the attitudes are more developed amongst students via entrepreneurship education in the Nigerian higher education institution; the result does not give a clear significant indication of the development of these attitudes. The test of difference (T-test) between the first and final year students on all the entrepreneurial attitudes does not show any significant difference; except for the attitude towards 'achievement motivation' whose t-test revealed a significant difference in the mean scores on motivation for first-year (M = 4.48, SD = 0.43) and final year students [M = 4.3, SD = 0.54, t(164.64) = 2.44, p = 0.02)- even though the Eta square which measures the proportion of variance in relationships, indicated a negligible difference just like the case of the other four attitudes.

Similarly, the outcome of the statistics on the grouped attitude scale towards entrepreneurship shows that there was no significant difference in scores for first-year (M = 3.95, SD = 0.43) and final year students [M = 3.88, SD = 0.37, t(496) = 1.534, p = 0.126) See (table 6.13a). The implication is that first and final year students do not rank differently on the attitude towards entrepreneurship as evidenced by the non-significant difference and the negligible magnitude of the difference in their mean scores ($\eta^2 = 0.005$). In other words, the entrepreneurship education in the HEI has not had much significant impact on the students

The research findings give very little evidence to suggest that there is a significant increased difference in the entrepreneurial attitudes between the first and final year students. This goes to suggest that the entrepreneurial education experience is not necessarily the major force of influence and impact on the entrepreneurial attitudes of the participating students. This is not uncommon and not particularly unexpected, especially given the nature of entrepreneurship education as uncovered in the findings of the first phase (qualitative research) of the study. The absence of a clear-cut significant difference between the entrepreneurial attitudes of the students in the first year and that of the final year students makes it incumbent that the provision of the current entrepreneurship education requires attention. The survey findings seem to re-echo the outcome of the interview with the entrepreneurship education stakeholders (entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators), which generally beams a dim light on the capability of Nigerian higher education in developing graduates with the required entrepreneurial attitudes and intention. Equally, several existing studies on the state of entrepreneurship education in Nigeria, point to similar conclusions that the management of entrepreneurship education in the Nigerian higher institutions is grossly deficient and ineffective" (Gabadeen et al., 2012).

In the same way that different studies on the nature of entrepreneurship education in higher education institutions in Nigeria, revealed its peripheral and theoretical nature and focus, it will benefit and yield better outcomes with a more practical and experientially exposed approach (Ayatse, 2013; Iro-Idoro et al., 2015). Similarly, the course content and the overall curriculum design which is currently more centred on telling students "About entrepreneurship" can be better designed and tailored to be focused more towards an approach that is "for entrepreneurship" (Ayatse, 2013; Fayolle et al., 2015) for example by experiential methods, including active participation and mentoring (Bell and Bell, 2016). These points also captured and re-echoed the qualitative study findings effectively in chapter four; for example, an entrepreneur expressed that:

"Entrepreneurship is a very practical phenomenon, and if it is not as practical enough as it should be, it will be just a mere talking and less of walking the talk. The current entrepreneurship education in the country (Nigeria) is definitely far from being very practical."

The more practical and experiential the pedagogy of the entrepreneurship education in Nigerian HEIs, the more the motivation for achievement amongst the students and also the more the exhibition of proactive behaviour coupled with an increased tendency for risk-taking, networking and self-efficacy.

Implication:

Whilst it is essential in this research to establish some level of understanding of the entrepreneurial attitudes that are more developed among students through the Nigerian HEI; it is equally an essential objective to ascertain which of the entrepreneurial attitudes can predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of the students.

5.2.3. Research Objective Three

"To ascertain which of the entrepreneurial attitudes can predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of the students."

The results of this study, as shown in chapter 6, indicate that exposure to the Nigerian entrepreneurship education does not necessarily mean that the intention of the students towards entrepreneurial behaviour will automatically increase. More specifically, the results suggest that there is no significant, predictable increase in the entrepreneurial intention of the students when comparing the first and the final year students. In order words, none of the entrepreneurial attitudes of the students predicted an increase in entrepreneurial intention. This means that the impact of entrepreneurial education is either very minimal or non-existent amongst the students. This tallies with the finding of studies on the development of the entrepreneurial intention of students in higher education such as Nabi et al., (2019); which suggests that the influence of Entrepreneurship education is variable, in some cases and can even lead to a decrease in entrepreneurial intentions.

The results of the two regression models used in testing one of the assumptions of the study in chapter six (6), showed a significant increase in the entrepreneurial intention between the first year and final year students, with 7.3% variation in the first model (see Table 6.19). The 2 model which included both the control variables and the predictor variables also shows a significant increase in the entrepreneurial intention, explaining an 18.4% variation between the first and final year students, even though 2 of the predictor variables (pro-activeness and self-efficacy) failed to predict entrepreneurial intention (See table 6.19 & 6.20).

With regards to predicting an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of the students, it would have been expected that the entrepreneurial intention of the final year students would be higher than that of the first-year students perhaps due to the impact of the entrepreneurship education. However, the percentage of the variation (18.4%) between the first and final year students is somewhat minimal, even though the overall result indicates some level of significant increase.

This is not wholly unusual, as a plethora of studies suggests that the effects of entrepreneurship education on the attitude and intention of students are all the more marked when previous entrepreneurial exposure has been weak or non-existent (Fayolle & Gailly, 2015), or when the program is designed in such a way that it is more practical and experiential to the learners (Mukesh et al., 2019). Hence, the fourth objective of this thesis centres around recommendations and suggestions on how entrepreneurship education in Nigeria can be made more effective in delivering a better outcome of developing the entrepreneurial attitudes and intention of students.

5.2.4. Research Objective Four

"How can entrepreneurship education in Nigeria be made more effective in developing the required entrepreneurial attitude of graduates for the Nigerian context."

The fourth objective of the study was to make recommendations for improving the effectiveness of entrepreneurship education in the Nigerian HEIs. Based on the findings of the research, the following recommendations are expounded.

For entrepreneurship education in Nigerian Universities to achieve an effective outcome of producing graduates with the required entrepreneurial attitude and with a high intention for entrepreneurial venturing, the following measures should be taken:

Revisiting and restructuring of the entrepreneurship curriculum with a view for effective adaptation to the Nigerian environment. Whilst a strong argument is being made for a curriculum and pedagogy that is highly experiential, it is also the considered position of this thesis, that prior exposure of university students to entrepreneurship education at a much earlier stage would better prepare them for a functional entrepreneurship university education. In other words, the introduction of entrepreneurship education at both primary and secondary schools would lay a solid foundation at a lower level before university education. This would make the entrepreneurial journey a comprehensive process, which lays the desired solid entrepreneurial foundation for the students at the university level.

The dominance of the theoretical approach to entrepreneurship education and curriculum design in Nigerian higher education can be overhauled with the initiative of setting up incubation centres where the theory is blended or integrated with practice (Ikebuaku & Dinbabo, 2018). The role of incubators in the entrepreneurial process and journey of entrepreneurs is well established in the literature (Peters et al., 2004; Costello, 2016). The work of Akhuemonkhan, et al., (2014) on technology incubation centres (TIC) indicates that there are about 37 TICs in Nigeria, which have a very weak socio-economic impact on job creation, wealth creation and industrial development in Nigeria. The entrepreneurial attitude and intention of students can easily be developed and stretched within entrepreneurial incubators when set-up and incorporated into the entrepreneurship program.

Continued professional development (CPD) of the lecturers handling the entrepreneurship education programmes in the universities is critical (Otache, 2019). It is evident from the outcome of the interviews in this research with Entrepreneurship education stakeholders (EES) and a plethora of other research findings that the training and retraining of personnel involved in the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship education in Nigeria are pivotal to achieving better outcomes (Fayomi et al., 2019; Otache, 2019). Most of the lecturers on the entrepreneurship programs in the Nigerian universities are not adequately prepared for the role, because they are either immersed into it by chance not a choice or as a result of an available opportunity.

Underfunding for university education has been one of the major issues that have dominated the Federal Government negotiations over the years with university unions (Nwekeaku, 2013). The stakeholders (entrepreneurship educators and entrepreneurs) involved in this research, especially the educators, are equally espoused to the idea of underfunding for the universities as part of the potential challenge inherent within the system. The argument has been that, because of the underfunding; the universities are unable to invest adequately in their human capacity development and funding for vital aspects of their operations running like provision of modern relevant and adequate facilities for entrepreneurship training. Adequate funding for the universities will go a long way In seeking to help stimulate and develop the entrepreneurial attitude and mindset of the students and potential entrepreneurs towards entrepreneurial venturing, the development and support of entrepreneurial activities ought to be a government priority, whether within or outside the educational setting (Akinbola et al., 2020). Private sector engagement in entrepreneurship education is critical in terms of providing some form of mentoring, advisory or support service to entrepreneurship students while still in higher education. The work of Akhuemonkhan et al. (2014) on the tools for fast-tracking entrepreneurship development in Nigeria, suggests that the current entrepreneurial ecosystem in Nigeria is largely a phenomenon where entrepreneurial activities have a fragile and weak socio-economic impact on job creation, wealth creation and industrial development. The government could develop policy incentives that can track and reward the contribution of entrepreneurs or the participating private sector stakeholders in the process of developing entrepreneurial graduates (Belitski et al., 2017; Amuda et al., 2019; Yatu et al., 2018).

5.3. Research Implication

Despite the abundant human and material resources, alongside government policies on promoting enterprise development and entrepreneurship education- the results from the study still suggest that Nigeria is a tough place to do business or to survive as an entrepreneur. The findings of this study, therefore, have several quite important implications for practice and future research. Hence, the implication of the study is sectioned into two parts, which is the implication on practice and the attendant implication for research.

5.3.1. The Implication for practice:

While the study documents a list of entrepreneurial competencies required for success in the Nigeria context, the study equally found that both the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators have no faith in the entrepreneurship education in the country. There is a broader consensus among the interview respondents with regards to the theoretical emphasis of the curriculum, as against a more practical and experiential approach in the teaching and learning of the subject. The study equally identified from the perception of the entrepreneurs and the educators that the entrepreneurship education does not have much collaboration with the outside world as it should, for example, one of the respondents in the qualitative study observed that:

"The universities alone cannot do it until they learn how to partner with a private organisation. The industry has practical side to contribute to the learning experience of the students. Each time graduates come to us; we are having to retrain them again. Unfortunately, these days the universities don't partner, all they do is they do their things."

Similarly, the work of Adesola (2019) on the new world of entrepreneurship opined for the use of role modelling in entrepreneurship education in higher education as part of the collaborative model for inspiring and developing the entrepreneurial attitudes and intention of students (Akinbola et al., 2020).

Leveraging on entrepreneurship education to develop entrepreneurs would require considerable changes in both the content and process of learning, as suggested by Kirby (2004). There is a need for a shift in the emphasis from EEd "about" entrepreneurship to EEd "for" entrepreneurship. This may require higher education institutions in Nigeria (as well as researchers) to begin to consider approaches or pedagogies that will not be limited to only skills development but those that will potentially influence and stimulate the attitude and mindset of students or their "entrepreneurial imagination" in the words of Chia (1996). Furthermore, the policy focused on entrepreneurship education and activities in higher education institutions should not just be limited to new venture creation or small business management (Igwe et al., 2020; Akhuemonkhan and Sofoluwe, 2013) but also on creativity and change.

Entrepreneurship education policies built around developing entrepreneurial attitude and intention should start right from pre-tertiary level of education, as it will potentially have a prolonged positive effect on the ultimate outcome of the entrepreneurial intervention. This view is espoused by several studies (Otache, 2019 and Chukwuemeka, 2011), for example, the longitudinal study of Otache (2019) on the effects of entrepreneurship education on students found out that 'achieving greater impact of EEd on students' EIs at the tertiary education level will require government intervention in incorporating EEd into the curricula at the primary and secondary education level, as it enables students' to develop some initial entrepreneurship knowledge and understanding which will then be developed further at the tertiary level. Equally, the findings of this research support the long-time call for an integrated approach in the future designing of entrepreneurship programs to include collaborative and experiential pedagogies (Matlay & Hussain, 2012; Matlay, 2011; Cooper et al., 2004; Hyams-Ssekasi & Caldwell, 2018) within the higher education institutions in developing countries like Nigeria.

5.3.2. The Implication for Research

The reviewed literature on the state of entrepreneurship education research in Nigeria shows that, although quite a number of the entrepreneurship education programmes offered by higher education institutions in Nigeria has grown considerably over the past decade, the actual contribution that such courses have on entrepreneurial activity remains unclear (Yatu et al.,2018; Sofoluwe et al., 2013). Furthermore, it appears that entrepreneurship educators are still uncertain about the objective, impact and effectiveness of entrepreneurship education within the

Nigerian context, which leaves an area that researchers can explore to fill the void (Adejimola and Olufunmilayo, 2009).

Whilst research especially within the context under review shows a transverse of studies on the impact of entrepreneurship education on different variables like attitude, skills, and intention to mention just a few- the question on whether the entrepreneurial intention of graduates leaving the HE materialises into outcomes relevant to entrepreneurial activity is still yet to receive significant research attention (Meng, et al., 2019). Majority of the stakeholders who participated in the research held the view that the the 'so called' entreprenerial attitude and intention developed by the students do not translate to meaningful entrepreneurial activity. Further research exploration on graduate destination especially those who have gone throught the entrepreneurship education route will further deppened undertanding and add to the body of knowledge on the impact of the Nigerian Entrepreneurshiop education program offer.

5.4. Chapter Summary

Despite the increasing pressure on students as well as the expectations of government and the HE policy on facilitating entrepreneurial activities towards fostering more self-employment, not many graduates are pursuing this alternative graduate career pathway. Similarly, the work of Igwe et al. (2020) on improving higher education standards through reengineering in West African universities, captured some of the frustrations that are inherent within the Nigerian Higher education policy context, which goes a long way in negatively impacting the outcome of entrepreneurship education. In addition to the funding inadequacies identified by many studies (Okuwa et al., 2017), other factors such as ineffective governance and leadership in the management of the HEIs, corruption (Ochulor, 2011), poor infrastructure, inadequate teaching facilities and skills mismatch amongst lecturers are some of the many factors affecting HE development in Nigerian and of course entrepreneurship education to be precise.

The concept of 'reengineering' in higher education is being introduced as the way forward or one of the ways in improving entrepreneurship education outcome in t Nigerian higher education (Nwajiuba et al., 2020; Obi et al., 2016). However, some other studies have strongly argued that the evolutionary approach could be a more viable way of developing students as "reasonable adventurers" with the requisite "enterprising mindset". Nabi (2008) concurs to the view that the evolutionary approach would help some students relate entrepreneurial learning to individual life experiences and allow them to realistically and gradually translate entrepreneurial intentions into entrepreneurial activity.

The complexity of the process that links entrepreneurship education, training, intention, and actual career choice to start up a business is undeniable. Despite its importance, it remains under-investigated. It is a fact that there is no universal approach to graduate enterprise/entrepreneurship education that works for students and graduates in all contexts. Different contexts require a different and well-tailored approach that suits individual needs and the peculiar realities within such contexts.

CHAPTER 6:

CONCLUSION AND RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

6.1. Conclusion:

This chapter provides the conclusion of the research and examines the limitations. Several areas for future research are also suggested in this chapter and finally, a discussion of the contribution that this study makes to the field of entrepreneurship education research and entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions.

The thesis examined the impact of entrepreneurship education on the entrepreneurial attitude and intention of university students towards entrepreneurship in an emerging economy, using Nigeria as the case in view. The research was carried out using a mixed-method approach with a sequential data collection procedure. The procedure followed a two phase-process as emphasised in the previous chapters, specifically the methodology chapter (Chapter 3).

The first phase was the qualitative phase which deployed a qualitative method of data collection to explore enterprise and entrepreneurship education in Nigeria. The central aim was to understand how enterprise and entrepreneurship education are perceived by entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators in Nigeria. Similarly, to identify what kind of entrepreneurial attitudes they think are required to be successful in Nigeria. The second phase utilised a quantitative approach to assess which of the entrepreneurial attitudes are developed among students through the Nigerian HEI, and also to ascertain which one of them can predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of the students.

This concluding chapter first summarises the thesis by briefly reviewing the research problem, the research approach and methods applied in the thesis. The chapter then presents and discusses the main and significant findings of the study. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitations of the thesis and presents areas for further research and the personal reflections of the researcher during the course of the research.

The literature review chapter outlines numerous factors that influence the development of students' choice to embark on entrepreneurship as a career. These factors can have varying levels of influence on the individual's entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions. For example, it can come from one's immediate social environment or individual personal factors or even education, all of which can have a significant or non-significant influence. Therefore, the statistical results in this study indicate that entrepreneurship education contributes minimally to developing the entrepreneurial attitudes of students, also when a comparison is made with first year and final year students, there is no significant difference between them in terms of their risk-taking behaviour, proactive tendency, self-efficacy and networking. However, on achievement motivation, the statistics show a significant difference in the achievement motivation even though the proportion of the variance is minimal and negligible, just like the other constructs.

In addition to the findings from this research mentioned above, the study equally indicates that effective entrepreneurship education in Nigerian Universities can have a significant impact on the development of entrepreneurial attitudes and the intentions of students and could also, in future, become an encouraging factor to the students for going into entrepreneurship. Based on the findings derived from this study, suggestions are being advanced to improve the effectiveness of the programmes within the Nigerian Higher Education institutions.

6.2. Restatement of Research Problem and Questions

There is an increasing acknowledgement and appreciation for entrepreneurship education as a phenomenon that aids the development of entrepreneurial attitude and intention of individuals towards entrepreneurial activities that could in turn lead to a boost in economic development. With regards to reducing unemployment and providing alternative career options from traditional or conventional employment, the Nigerian higher education institutions have not done as much as expected In building and developing the human capacity that is entrepreneurial (opportunity seeking and value creation) and distant from the traditional job-seeking labour market. In order words, the effectiveness of the current EEd in the Nigerian higher education is increasingly being questioned (Jacob & Ehijiele, 2019; Yatu et al., 2018; Amuda et al., 2019). The literature review shows that there is a dearth of research on the effectiveness of EEd in developing individuals with the requisite attitude and intention for such venturing. The argument is also prevalent on whether the EEd provision is abreast of what kind of entrepreneurial attitudes are required and how the EEd can meet the challenge of developing these amongst students.

Similarly, the widely acknowledged involvement of multiple stakeholders in the process of building and developing human capacity is largely under-researched (Bischoff et al., 2018). More specifically, as revealed in the literature review section in chapter two; there is a paucity of research contribution in the area of stakeholder involvement in shaping the EEd process within the Nigerian context. The gap in literature correlates with the findings from several studies, for example, Ikebuaku et al. (2018) and Agwu et al. (2017). Their research conclusions made a call for more studies in the area of entrepreneurship education process, which involves stakeholders contributing to shaping the EEd process from multifaceted angles (Gianiodis & Meek, 2019).

Based on the perceived gaps and limitations in the literature on entrepreneurship education, the study proposed the following research questions in anticipation that the answers will contribute to filling a gap in the state of knowledge in entrepreneurship education research within the context of Nigeria:

The first research question aimed at ascertaining the entrepreneurial attitudes that are perceived by Nigerian entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators (stakeholders) as being the most important for entrepreneurial venturing in Nigeria. The findings from the qualitative research (first phase) that collected data from the stakeholders in an interview revealed some emerging themes which are referred to in this research as the entrepreneurial attitudes. Several attitudes emerged from the interview; however, the initial categorization and semantic reconciliation and interpretations of the themes resulted in having five distinct entrepreneurial attitudes as the key essentials for entrepreneurial venturing and survival in Nigeria. They include- Attitude towards risk, proactiveness, Self-efficacy, Networking and Achievement motivation attitude.

The research recognized the place of entrepreneurship education as a crucial factor and player in developing the entrepreneurial attitudes of individuals. It was of particular interest for the researcher, to ascertain how well Nigerian higher education is doing in terms of developing these identified entrepreneurial attitudes among students.

The second research question explored “Which of the entrepreneurial attitudes are developed among students through the Nigerian HEI.’’ The findings of the quantitative research are presented in more detail in chapter 6 and 7. When testing each of the entrepreneurial attitudes amongst students in the first and final years, to establish if any difference exists between the two levels; the results revealed that the magnitude of changes in the students' entrepreneurial attitude as a result of entrepreneurship education is limited. The first and final year students do not rank differently in their attitude towards entrepreneurship as evidenced in the statistical non-significant difference and the negligible magnitude of the difference in their mean scores ($\eta^2 = 0.005$) (Cohen, 1998). Except for Achievement motivation attitude, whose t-test revealed a significant difference in the mean scores for first and final year students, even though the mean score, which is the difference is also negligible as in the case of the other variables (See Table 6.13).

This research maintains that the implication of this result is largely due to the ineffectiveness in the current entrepreneurship education provision in Nigerian higher education. This position was equally echoed in one of the findings of the first phase of the qualitative research; the entrepreneurship education stakeholders (Both the entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurship educators) expressed a high level of no confidence in what most if not all the higher education institutions in Nigeria are doing in the name of entrepreneurship education. This implies that the system requires an overall revamping.

Similarly, the research question on “Which of the entrepreneurial attitudes can predict an increase in the entrepreneurial intention of the students?”. The result of the regression analysis indicates that risk propensity ($\beta = 0.122$, $p < .05$), networking ($\beta = 0.161$, $p < .05$) and motivation ($\beta = 0.212$, $p < .01$) are all significant predictors of entrepreneurial intention while proactiveness ($\beta = 0.043$, $p = .516$) and self-efficacy ($\beta = -0.031$, $p = .379$) fail to predict entrepreneurial intention, see (Table 6.19). The thesis presents a detailed recommendation in chapter 7 on how best the system can be overhauled to deliver a more robust and result oriented entrepreneurship education that will develop the entrepreneurial attitudes of students and shape their intention towards entrepreneurial behaviour and activity.

6.3. Summary of the Thesis

The first chapter of the thesis presented the research problem, the objectives of the study, the justification of the study, and the scope and limitations of the study. The chapter concluded with an outline of the thesis. Chapter II reviewed the state of knowledge of Entrepreneurship education relevant to addressing the research problem. It began with conceptual clarifications. It was evident that there was a gap in the literature concerning studies with an integrated method of data collection and analysis; this study adopted the integrated methodology.

The entire methodological framework for the research was presented in chapter three. The first phase of the qualitative study was presented in chapter four and five. The qualitative data was analysed according to the various themes that emerged from the research, and this was to form the basis for the next phase of the study. Chapter five was the integration of the qualitative findings with the operationalization of the data collection instrument for the next phase (Quantitative method) of the study. The completed questionnaires were rigorously checked and rechecked for any errors and inconsistencies. Any problems found were investigated and rectified. The quantitative data was collected and was entered into SPSS and analysed using frequency distributions, cross-tabulations and ordinal logistic regression.

A summary of the findings of the study in Chapters 4 and 6 are presented below. The research questions are individually addressed. The significant and insightful findings that add to the entrepreneurship education literature are presented for each question. Chapter eight concludes with a summary of the thesis, including its methodological and empirical contributions to knowledge.

The chapter also acknowledges the specific contributions the study has made to the state of knowledge on entrepreneurship education. Finally, the section expounds on the wide range of limitations inherent in the study and the specific contributions of the research to the field alongside some pointers and suggestions for future research.

6.5. Limitations of the research

The researcher acknowledges the fact that several questions, procedures, and outcomes from this research are yet to be addressed; this requires a new perspective in entrepreneurship education research. This research would not be able to address all of the issues; therefore, this section presents certain limitations and from the perspective and experience of the researcher.

The context of the research is Nigeria which has a geographical delineation of six regions. However, the study was limited to the north-central part of Nigeria, which may not be the exact picture of the other five regions. Hence there will be a need for a similar study in the other regions, to establish a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon of entrepreneurship education across the length and breadth of the chosen context (Nigeria).

Entrepreneurship education issues, especially outcomes, are best investigated and captured over a period to enhance or guarantee more accuracy, validity, and reliability. Supporting this is Souitarisa et al. (2007), who assert that longitudinal studies are the only way to test the intention–action link in entrepreneurship research. However, this limitation is mitigated by using different universities and entrepreneurship centres in different universities to have a reliable grasp of the outcome of the program.

Furthermore, while there is an increased utilisation of telephone interview for data collected in different research studies (Saunders & Townsend, 2016; Saunders et al., 2019), however, the method (telephone interview) could be contended as being a constraint or weakness to the credibility of the research. This is because of the supposition that the technique could confine the sample of people being able to take part in the interview. Similarly, the assumption that telephone interview process could engender a risk of the interviewees not being fully engaged with the interview; perhaps due to the lack of face-to-face interaction, which could result in less credibility in collected data and less credible in the themes being elicited from the data. Future studies should seek to ensure such limitations are avoided.

This study unearths some gaps and the need for further research in the area of collaborative learning and its impact on the learning experience of entrepreneurial students, which is captured in the section on suggestion for future research.

6.6. Contributions of the study

6.6.1. Theoretical Contribution

This study makes several significant contributions to the field of entrepreneurship and more specifically, entrepreneurship education, which is relatively an emerging area of research, especially in the developing world. It is emerging because it is still poorly affected by the unclear way of dealing with concept, definition and contextual interpretations in a world that is rapidly changing, more specifically, this study makes a significant contextual contribution to the field of entrepreneurship education.

The research integrates a considerably large body of relevant entrepreneurship education literature, entrepreneurial venturing, education, attitude, and intention literature and combined different theories into a single integrative perspective.

This research is one of the very few studies that captures and combines the perception of stakeholders like entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators regarding the impact of entrepreneurship education on students' attitude and intention in Nigerian higher education. Previous studies have focused more on institutional and government-driven perspectives in the investigation of the impact of entrepreneurship education. This study overcomes that gap and limitation and contributes to the field by introducing the perspectives of real entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship educators in the debate and agenda of entrepreneurship education. The study suggests that the stakeholders play a significant role in ensuring that EEd delivers on its objectives (Bischoff et al., 2018).

6.6.2. Methodological Contribution

The research makes a methodological contribution to the field through employing a mixed-method approach in exploring the impact of entrepreneurship education on the entrepreneurial attitude and intention of students. This approach was chosen because it incorporates relevant data collected from three different vital stakeholders (entrepreneurs, entrepreneurship educators and students) in exploring the research objectives and questions of the study.

Most of the previous empirical studies on the impact of entrepreneurship education within the context of this research, employed either survey research strategy or interviews as the primary method of research design. This study, however, combines an in-depth literature review, quantitative survey research and qualitative research amongst three key stakeholders. By so doing, the research overcomes the limitations of previous studies, and provides a new perspective and makes a contribution to the impact of entrepreneurship education on the attitude and intention of university studies, especially within the context of the research.

6.7. Suggestion for Future Research

The study has several possible implications for future research, drawing from the conclusions arrived at and the attendant limitations within the research. The suggestion for future research will hinge on issues related to both the methodology employed in collecting and analysing the data and to the significant findings of the research as a whole. Based on the results of this study, the following directions for future research are being suggested:

Although It is evident that there is a growing trend toward conducting entrepreneurship education-related studies in less developed countries (LDC's), there is still a great need to conduct research studies to investigate the different aspects of entrepreneurship education in Nigeria, and indeed the rest of Africa as well as other developing countries since it is less represented in the literature.

Based on the sampling strategy, the data sample for the second phase of the study (quantitative study) was collected from three universities in the north-central part of Nigeria, of which the findings from the study could be, generalized to the students within these Universities and possibly across other universities within the selected zone. Because there are other universities spread across the other zones, it may be interesting to replicate this study in different universities in order to investigate if the findings of the research are consistent.

Ascertaining the impact of entrepreneurship education on the entrepreneurial attitude and intention of students is the focal point of the research. A longitudinal study that tracks the propensity of the students for entrepreneurial venturing after graduation would be an interesting piece of research to be conducted, as several studies suggest that many students after graduation are more like to opt for conventional employment where available, than the entrepreneurial venturing career option.

While this study focused on the impact of entrepreneurship education on students in higher education level, there is equally a growing interest in entrepreneurship education at the secondary school level (Otache, 2019). It would be a significant contribution to the body of knowledge to explore whether the impact of entrepreneurship education is felt the most at the secondary school level or at the level of higher education.

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8. LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 8.1 Entrepreneurial attitude Dimensions and Intention scales

NO.	ATTITUDES	ITEMS	REFERENCE (ADOPTED FROM)	ADOPTED IN OTHER STUDIES
1	Proactiveness	1. I am always looking for better ways to do things in school 2. I Excel at identifying opportunities 3. No matter what the odds are, if I believe in something, I will make it happen 4. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can 5. I love being the champion for my ideas, even against others opposition. 6. If I see something I don't like, I fix it. 7. Nothing is so exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality 8. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life. 9. I get a thrill out of doing new and unusual things at school	(Florin & Rossiter, 2007)	(Langkamp Bolton & Lane, 2012; & McGee, et al., 2009)

2	Risk Taking	1. I like to take bold action by venturing into the unknown 2. I am willing to invest a lot of time on a project or assignments that that might yield a high return 3. I tend to act boldly in situations where risk in involved	Bolton & Lane, 2012;	(Bolton, D.L 2012 & Al Mamun et'al 2017)
3	Self-efficacy	1. I feel inferior to most of the people I school with 2. I often feel badly about the quality of work I do in school 3. I never persist very long enough on a difficult assignment or task in school before giving up. 4. I often put on a show to impress the people I school with 5. I feel self-conscious when I am with very successful students 6. I feel uncomfortable when I'm unsure of what my school mates think of me. 7. I seem to spend a lot of time looking for someone who can tell me how to solve all my school problems. 8. I feel very self-conscious when making school presentations.	(Florin & Rossiter, 2007)	(Langkamp Bolton & Lane, 2012; McGee, J.E et al., 2009)

4	Networking	1. I can easily relate with other persons, even with those I still do not know. 2. I like to be in contact with other persons 3. I able to Build the right support system that could be beneficial for me in different areas 4. knowing resourceful persons could be of an advantage to one's business or ideas	(Lans, et al., 2015)	(Lans, et al., 2016)
5	Achievement motivation	1. To be successful I believe it is good to use one's time wisely 2. I feel proud when I look at the results, I have achieve in my school activities 3. I do every school task or assignment as thorough as possible 4. I believe it is important to analyse my own weaknesses 5. I make the conscious effort to get the most out of my available resources 6. I feel good when I have work hard to improve my assignments. 7. I believe that to be successful, i must spent time planning the future	(Florin & Rossiter, 2007)	(Drnovsek, et al., 2010)
ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION MEASUREMENT SCALES				
	Variables	**ITEMS**	**REFERENCE (ADOPTED FROM)**	**ADOPTED IN OTHER STUDIES**

	ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS	1. I am ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur 2. My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur 3. I will make every effort to start and run my own firm 4. I am determined to create a firm in the future 5. I have very seriously thought of starting a firm 6. I have the firm intention to start a firm someday	Linan et al., (2009)	(Buli & Yesuf, 2015; Bae, et al., 2014 and Liñán, et al., 2011)

Appendix 8.2 Operationalisation of the research constructs

Construct	No. of Items	Adapted/operationalised
Pro-activeness	Nine items	The nine items were adopted and operationalised from Florin & Rossiter, 2007).the only adjustment to some of the items is ensuring uniformity in the pronoun that was used. Instead of third person, they were all adjusted to first person
Risk Taking	Three items	Only three of the items out of 5 items from the work of Bolton and Lane, 2012; were adopted for our study. This is solely because only the three passed the reliability test in their experiment.
Self-efficacy	Eight items	The Eight items were adopted and operationalised from Florin & Rossiter, 2007). The only adjustment to some of the items is ensuring uniformity in the pronoun that was used. Instead of third person, they were all adjusted to first person
Networking	Four Items	Items adopted and operationalised from the work of Lans, et al., (2015). Adjustments were made to suit the student context of our research.
Achievement motivation	Seven items	Adopted from (Florin & Rossiter, 2007). Adjusted to suit our research context.
Entrepreneurial intention	Six items	Adopted from Linan et al., (2009)
Total items =	37 items	

Appendix 8.3. Justification of the operationalized items for the Themes

No.	VARIABLE	SOURCES ADOPTED FROM	JUSTIFICATION
1	Pro-activeness	Florin & Rossiter, 2007)	• The items in this construct have been tested, validated and used on students as seen in this study and as well as in many other studies. • Received considerable attention in entrepreneurial research as independent constructs • These constructs hold a consistent relationship with entrepreneurial activity and are applicable to a student population • The constructs are tested and validated for reliability • They are used on students and the wordings of the scales tallies with the audience in our research. • they enjoy wider used by other studies • Florin's studies provide common ground with our studies, in terms of the principle unit of analysis, which is students, as against other similar studies that use entrepreneurs, managers of large firms and the general population as the unit of analysis • Any references to business goals were changed to project goals or team goals and references to business objectives were generalised to project achievement objectives
2	Self-efficacy		
	Achievement motivation		

3			
4	Risk Taking	(Langkamp Bolton & Lane, 2012)	• Their definition of risk-taking captures the perception and definition of risk taking contrived from our qualitative study • The items have been tested for validity and reliability. • Bolton developed the instrument from other studies that have established validity and reliability in their instruments • Researchers have established that this construct can be used collectively with other constructs or separately, depending on the construct. • Individuals and specifically students are primarily the focus of the entrepreneurial propensity research, as it is the case with our study. • Not just any students but particularly university students were the research population that the instrument was used on, which is also the target population for this study.
5	Networking	(Lans, et al., 2015)	• The items have been used in similar studies • Each of the items are tested for reliability and validity and used in other studies. • the items were equally used on university students as it is the case with our study
ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION			

Entrepreneurial intention	Linan et al., (2009)	• The authors developed a validated scale for testing entrepreneurial intentions by utilising the theory of planned behaviour their work is published in the highly respected journal of Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice. • The items in the intention construct was deemed to be relevant for the research questions and adapted to the specific context of this study • Reliability and validity of the items are tested and established. • The instrument has been used in other studies also • It is used on student population, as it is the case with our present study. • Statistical analysis shows that behavioural intention-related questions have a high predictive power for behaviour

Appendix 8.4 Research Questionnaire Sample

Research Questionnaire

Entrepreneurial Attitude and Intention Questionnaire (EAIQ)

I am a Doctoral student with the University of Worcester Business school, United Kingdom. Currently, I am conducting a research project into the impact of entrepreneurship education on developing the entrepreneurial attitude of students. As part of this research project, I will be carrying out a quantitative survey (questionnaire) with 600 university students. The aim is to identify the entrepreneurial attitudes developed from entrepreneurship education experience.

I would be extremely grateful to hear your views; therefore, I am seeking your consent for participation. There is no obligation to take part, and if you do take part, you have the right to stop participating at any time, and your response will be discarded.
Please be assured that the data generated are purely for this research and will be treated with utmost anonymity and confidentiality. Kindly give a sincere response to all the questions. Thank you for your anticipated participation. If you have any question or clarification about the study, please contact l.nuhu@worc.ac.uk or r.bell@worc.ac.uk.

I have read and understood the above information and agree to participate
Yes/No

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHY

Age: □ 16-25 □ 26-35 □ 36-45 □46-55 □ 56 Years Above

Gender: □ Female □ Male

Ethnic background: □ Hausa/Fulani □ Yoruba □ Igbo □ Niger Delta □ Middle belt tribe. □ Others

Marital Status: □Single □ Married □ Divorced □ Widow

University: □University of Jos □ Nasarawa State University □ Benue State University □ Others
Program of Study: □ Entrepreneurship degree □ other Business and management related degree □ Science degree □ Others
Program Level: □ First year □ Second year □ Third year □ final year □ Others

SECTION B: PARTICIPANTS BACKGROUND

1. Have you ever started your own business? □Yes □ No
2. Have you ever considered running your own business? □Yes □ No
3. Does anyone in your family own or run their own business? □Yes □ No
4. Parents occupation: □ Business □ Civil Servants □ Farming □Others
5. Did you have experience in entrepreneurship before attending the educational course or programme □ I had no experience □ I had little experience □ I had some experience □ I had vast experience □ Hard to say

SECTION C: ATTITUDE TOWARDS ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements from 1 (Strong disagreement) to 5 (Strong agreement)

Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I like to take bold action by venturing into the unknown	1	2	3	4	5
No matter what the odds are, if I believe in something, I will make it happen	1	2	3	4	5
I never persist very long enough on a difficult assignment or task in school before giving up.	1	2	3	4	5
I love being the champion for my ideas, even against others opposition.	1	2	3	4	5
Knowing resourceful persons could be of an advantage to one's business or ideas	1	2	3	4	5
Nothing is so exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality	1	2	3	4	5
I get a thrill out of doing new and unusual things at school	1	2	3	4	5
I am always looking for better ways to do things in school	1	2	3	4	5
I excel at identifying opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
I am willing to invest a lot of time on a project or assignments that might yield a high return	1	2	3	4	5
I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life	1	2	3	4	5
I tend to act boldly in situations where risk in involved	1	2	3	4	5
I feel inferior to most of the people I school with	1	2	3	4	5
I feel good when I have work hard to improve my assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
If I see something I don’t like, I fix it.	1	2	3	4	5
I often put on a show to impress the people I school with	1	2	3	4	5
I feel self-conscious when I am with very successful students	1	2	3	4	5
I feel uncomfortable when I’m unsure of what my school mates think of me.	1	2	3	4	5
I can spot a good opportunity long before others can	1	2	3	4	5
I feel very self-conscious when making school presentations.	1	2	3	4	5
To be successful I believe it is good to use one’s time wisely	1	2	3	4	5
I feel proud when I look at the results, I have achieved in my school activities	1	2	3	4	5

I do every school task or assignment as thorough as possible	1	2	3	4	5
I believe it is important to analyse my own weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5
I make the conscious effort to get the most out of my available resources	1	2	3	4	5
I seem to spend a lot of time looking for someone who can tell me how to solve all my school problems.	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that to be successful, I must spend time planning the future	1	2	3	4	5
I can easily relate with other persons, even with those I still do not know	1	2	3	4	5
I like to be in contact with other persons	1	2	3	4	5
I am able to build the right support system that could be beneficial for me in different areas	1	2	3	4	5
I often feel badly about the quality of work I do in school	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION

Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements from 1 (total disagreement) to 5 (total agreement)

Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
I am ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur	1	2	3	4	5
My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur	1	2	3	4	5
I will make every effort to start and run my own firm	1	2	3	4	5
I am determined to create a firm in the future	1	2	3	4	5
I have very seriously thought of starting a firm	1	2	3	4	5
I have the firm intention to start a firm someday	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 8.5: Scatter Plots

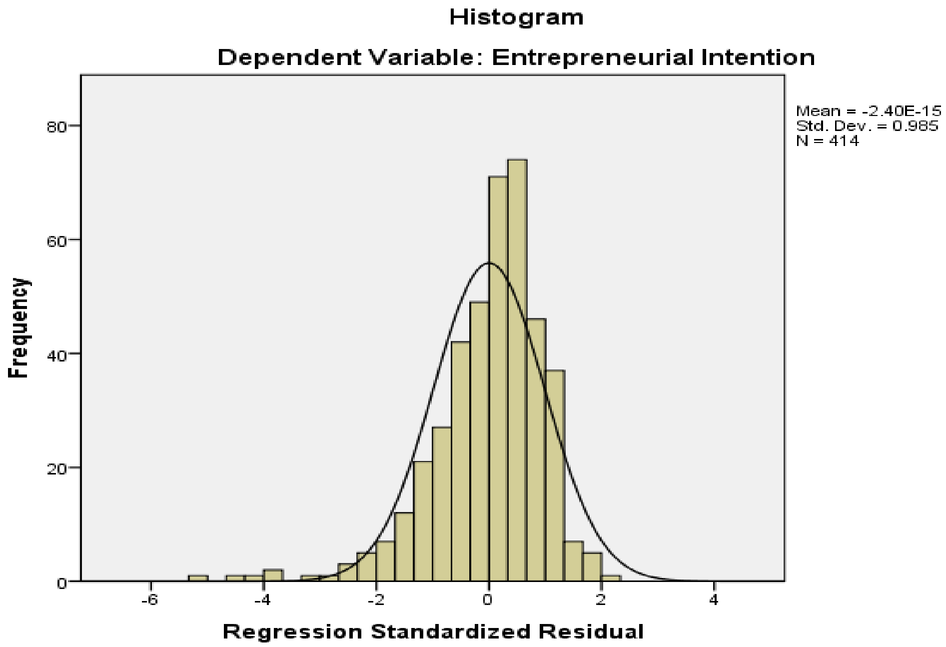

Fig 8:1. Histogram

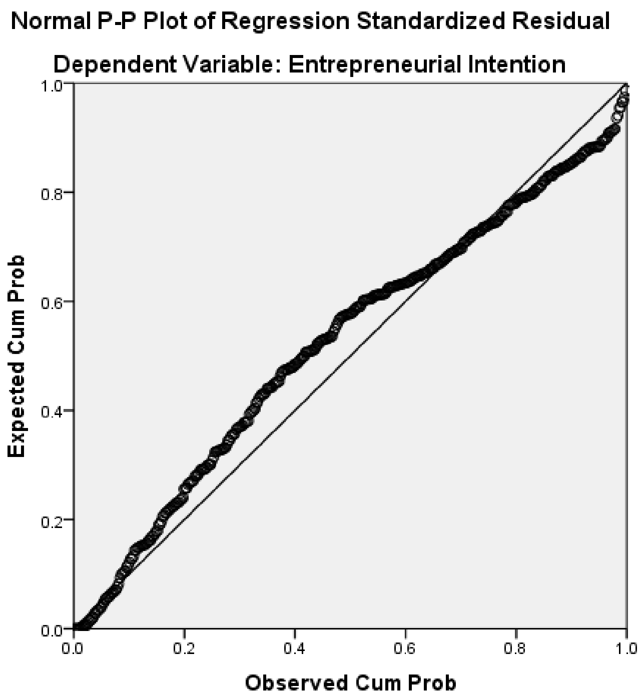

Fig 8:2. Normal P-P Plot

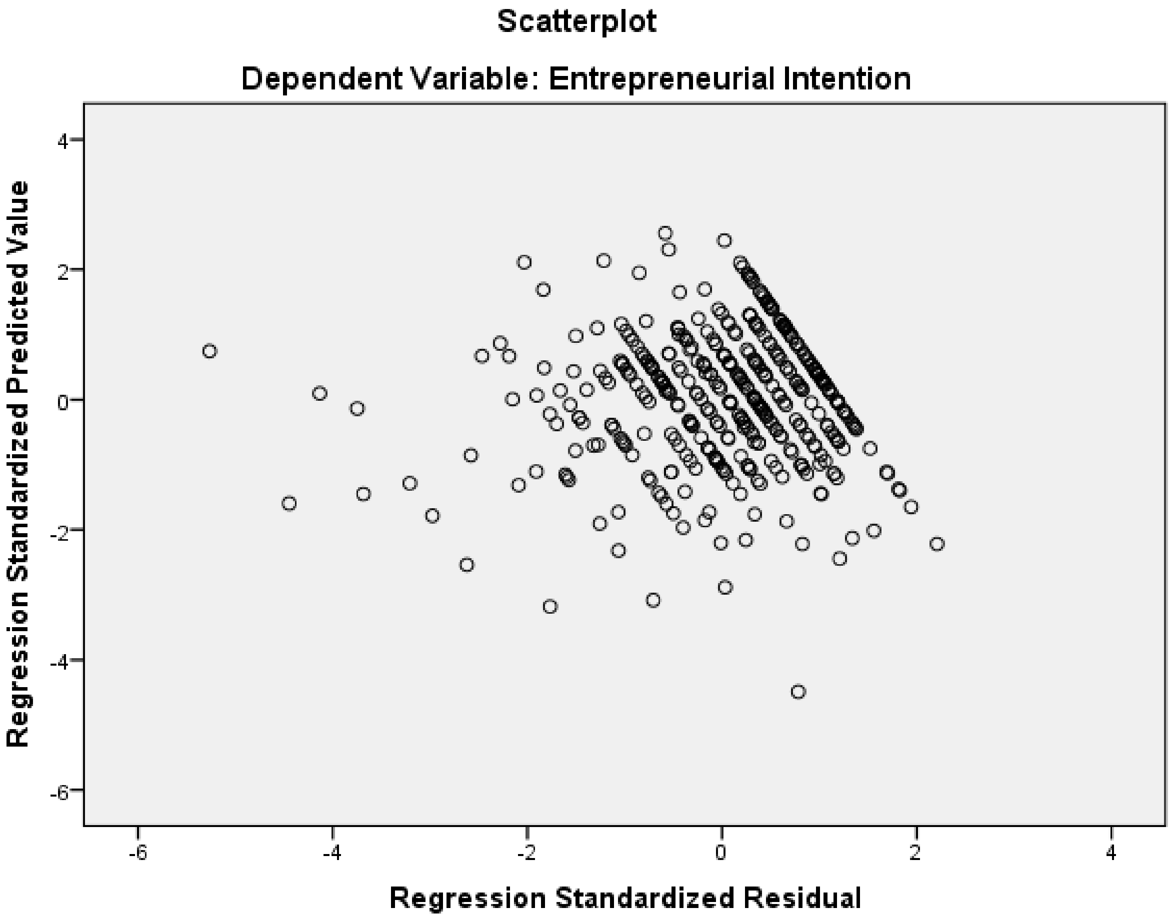

Fig 8:3. Scatterplot