

**IMPACT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP
EDUCATION ON ENTREPRENEURSHIP
INTENTION AMONG NIGERIAN STUDENTS**

*(A CASE STUDY OF KWARA STATE POLYTECHNIC ILORIN
STUDENTS)*

BY

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CERTIFICATION

This project work has been examined and approved as meeting the requirements of Department of Business Administration and Management, Institute of Finance and Management Studies, Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin, Kwara State. In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Award of Higher National Diploma (HND) in Business Administration and Management

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In every society, whether developed, developing or underdeveloped, education has been considered as a viable tool for preservation of culture and means for achieving personal and national emancipation. Every society has a goal it pursues, the needs of a society or nation at one point or the other determines the type of education it adopts. It is in this light Okoli (2011) maintains that every society, whether civilized or primitive evolves means of satisfying its needs and transmitting its culture to younger ones. The primary goal of any nation is the economic empowerment of its citizens. Education must then be tailored according to these needs and not according to some international prescriptions.

Through entrepreneurship education, young people learn skills necessary to prepare them for involvement in entrepreneurial activities (Etonyeoku, 2010). Entrepreneurship education seeks to immerse people in real life experiences which encourage and empower them to take risks, manage the results and learn from the outcome (Kuratko, 2003). According to the State of Colorado Board of Educators, cited in Ayediso (2017), the objectives of entrepreneurship education should be: To provide meaningful education for the youth which could make them self-reliant and subsequently encourage them to drive profit and be self-sustaining; to equip graduates with the training and support necessary to help them establish careers in small and medium sized-business; and to provide graduates with training and skills to meet societal manpower needs.

Entrepreneurship programmes were also introduced in all the tertiary educational institutions across the country by Federal ministry of Education through the National University Commission NUC, National Board for Technical Education NBTE and The National Commission for Colleges of Education NCCE. The major objectives of these

courses are to give all graduating students the opportunity to acquire one or more skills which are capable of making them self- employed and economically independent (Dr. Muhammed, et, all 2021)

Job creation will be enhanced by quality entrepreneurship education which will invariably reduce unemployment, poverty and social vices in Nigeria (Maina, 2013). Entrepreneurship, therefore, is a gateway to employment in view of volatile economic realities (Teshome, 2014).

Entrepreneurship is an essential engine of growth in the economy. It requires the use of imperativeness towards the creation and use of new thoughts and ideas.

Nigeria's heavy dependence on oil has killed our local industries frustrated our agricultural sector and caused us economic recession; we cannot continue like this, we need to focus on entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial development.

1.2 STATEMENTS OF THE PROBLEM

Entrepreneurship Education as a practical oriented venture with life-long impact on individuals and the society as a whole needs to be adequately focused; taking into consideration the needed support structure for impact. There is need for repositioning of entrepreneurship education in Nigeria with respect to content and delivery components. The following are some of the functional challenges identified. Related to entrepreneurship education:

- i) Inadequate Course content, poor entrepreneurship curricular activities and lack of lecturers' competency been entrepreneur.
- ii) Lack of Lecturers competency: when we consider that most instructors have not been entrepreneurs, it seems obvious this is a major area of needs.

- iii) The lack of Lecturers competency as also been indicted as a challenge to the quality delivery for impact of EED in Nigeria

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In this research study, the following research questions were raised.

1. What is the relationships between entrepreneurship curricular, activities on student entrepreneurship intention?
2. To what extent does adequate entrepreneurship course content have an impact on the student entrepreneurship intention?
3. Does lecturer's competency enhances student entrepreneurship intention?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The general objective of the study is to make an evaluation of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention among students.

While the specific objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To examine the relationships between entrepreneurship curricular, activities on student entrepreneurship intention.
2. To determine whether adequate entrepreneurship course content have an impact on the student entrepreneurship intention.
3. To determine whether lecturer's competency enhances student entrepreneurship intention.

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

After a critical evaluation of the objectives, the following hypotheses were developed in null form.

Ho1: There is no relationship between entrepreneurship curricular activities on student entrepreneurship intention.

Ho2: adequate entrepreneurship course content has no effect on student entrepreneurship intention.

Hp3: Does lecturers' competency has no direct influence on student entrepreneurship intention.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This research will be of immense significance to students, prospective and practicing entrepreneurs, government, practicing managers of businesses and non-business organizations. The research work will also serve as a Background and catalyst to future researchers and scholars who may wish to venture into areas of promoting entrepreneurship education. The conclusion which this research may expose could lead to improvement, effectiveness and efficiency of entrepreneurship education. Confidence level on embarking on entrepreneurship education in Nigeria will improve; more graduate and the general public will agree to venture into business.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The research simply focuses on the effect of scope of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention among student. In order to maintain the focus of this research work, the study is limited to entrepreneurial intention among student in Nigeria.

By doing this, kwara state polytechnic will be used for the research study so as to ensure that the objective of the research are met. Ifms were chosen as a result of their ability to carry out research work.

Therefore, this research work deals with institution finance and management studies, Kwara State Polytechnic, this research work focuses on Kwara state polytechnic.

1.8 DEFINITION OF THE TERMS

a. **Entrepreneur:** this is either the originator of a new business venture or a manager who tries to improve an organizational unit by initiating productive changes. This is an individual who sees environmental change as an opportunity.

b. **Entrepreneurship Education:** Process of impacting knowledge on how to create something different with value by devoting time and effort, assuming the accompanying financial, psychic and social risk and receiving the rewards of monetary and personal satisfaction.

c. **Entrepreneurship intention:** intention is described as the motivational factors that influence someone behavior and they are indicator reflecting the extent of individuals willingness to take some decision or perform certain action.

d. **Entrepreneurship:** this is an essential engine of growth in the economy.

e. **Curriculum and courses of Entrepreneurship Education:** are a direct source of entrepreneurial motivation and knowledge.

f. **Small Business:** usually oriented, managed and controlled by one or two person. It has a differentiated organizational structure and a relatively small market share.

g. **Lecturer's competency:** is the quality of lecturer in the tertiary institutions.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter shall provide operational definition of entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship development and its objectives, theoretical framework and empirical reviews.

2.2 CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

2.2.1 CONCEPT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

2.2.1.1 ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The word entrepreneurship came into use since the 16th century. Entrepreneurship was coined from the French word "entrepredre" which initially means the organizer of musical or other entertainments (Gautam, & Singh, 2015). The word entrepreneurship was extended to economic aspects in the 18th century.

According to Seymour, (2006), the French economist Richard Cotillion is generally accredited as being the first to come up with the term in the context of what is known today as "entrepreneurship" in about 1730. The importance of entrepreneurship to society has been identified, discussed since the 15th Century (Schumpeter, 1912) and it remains topical till today (Kirchhoff et al.; 2013). There is no universally acceptable definition of entrepreneurship (Gedeon, 2010).

According to Gautam & Singh, (2015), an entrepreneur "refers to an individual who can turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation, and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects to achieve objectives". Entrepreneurship is a concept that is being widely studied (Kalyoncuoğlu, Aydınlan, Gökse, 2017).

Mokaya et al.; (2012) define entrepreneurship as "the individual motivation and willingness to take a risk, create and sustain a growth-oriented and profit-making enterprise." According to Teshome (2014); Odunaike and Amoda (2013), entrepreneurship is the art of setting up and running an enterprise profitably and sustainably. An entrepreneur

is a person that is never satisfied with the status quo but is ready and able to turn new ideas or invention into a successful innovation (Agbonlahor, 2016).

A person who perceives a business opportunity through risks analysis and takes advantage of the situation to make a profit is an entrepreneur. (Agbonlahor, 2016).

Entrepreneurship plays a critical role in boosting economic growth and development (Ho, Uy, Kang, Chan, 2018). Entrepreneurship is becoming increasingly vital in modern economies since it is the main weapon of fighting unemployment and the creation of wealth (Khalifa & Dhiaf, 2016).

According to Solomon (2007) and Henry et al. (2005) there is a level of uncertainty in the field of entrepreneurship to determine whether entrepreneurs are born or made. There is a growing acknowledgment that elements of entrepreneurship can be taught and learned. A person who renders the service of entrepreneurship is called an entrepreneur (Sofoluwe & Kayode, 2012). Entrepreneurship is the best antidote to unemployment, underemployment, and poverty among the youths, especially in instances where educated youths cannot get jobs (Brownhilder, 2014)

Entrepreneurship in Nigeria started when people in villages and farming communities produced more products than they needed, as such; they had to exchange these surpluses with those who needed them within their immediate and neighboring communities. The exchange of goods for goods or services was based on trade by barter initially, until the commodity money was developed and used. Exchange encouraged specialization among producers of the commodities. They came to realize that they can concentrate on the areas of production they are best fitted. Consequent on the above is the culture of entrepreneurship in Nigeria (Nicks, 2008).

Studies found that economic growth rates are usually linked to the role of the duo of government of government and entrepreneurs which is complementary

Nwaokolo(2003) argued that like any other country, Nigeria government supports the development entrepreneurship .

Ogbari, Ajagbe and Adeturton (2015) argued further that the government provides security to protect lives and properties, maintaining law, order and freedom to carry out business activities. However the roles of government in developing entrepreneurial culture among citizens become essential after the Nigeria civil war. Otaki (2003) posit that since the middle of 1980 there has been an increased commitment of government to entrepreneurship development after the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in 1986. Added to the establishment of the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) National Open Apprenticeship Scheme (NOAS) and Small and Medium Enterprises Development Association of Nigeria (SMEDAN).

Entrepreneurship according to (Akanwa and Agu, 2005) is the service rendered by entrepreneur. At inception it was estimated that by 2014 over 340,000 graduates would have received the requisite training provided by the course to be entrepreneurs. It was expected that this graduates will form private investment initiators as jobs creators.

2.2.2 CONCEPT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

Entrepreneurship education was introduced into the educational system in early 2000s, particularly in Tertiary Education Curriculum as a compulsory course. The centre for Entrepreneurship Education Development (EED) was established with the aim of teaching and helping undergraduate students develop entrepreneurial mindset; especially in technologies. In addition, the centre enables graduates to be self-employed, create job opportunities for other and to generate wealth.

Ojiefu (2012), reported that rising graduate unemployment and low entrepreneurial drive among school leavers in Nigeria; led to the need to reposition higher institutions as centre's for building self sustaining graduates that will be captains of industries.

Unachukw (2009) asserts that, through education the citizen is fully equipped to contribute meaningfully to social economic development of his nation. While according to

Bloom et al (2005) indicated that in a knowledge economy education provides the means to help individual in developing self-worth.

Mauchi et al (2011) reported that the objective of EE Entrepreneurship Education is to provide individuals with ability to recognize commercial opportunities, knowledge, skills and attitudes to act on them.

Oduwaiye (2009) reported that entrepreneurship education focuses on assisting trainee students on how to develop positive attitudes, innovation and skill for self-reliance rather than depending on the government for employment.

Lee and Wong (2005) assert that entrepreneurship is a catalyst for economic development and job creation in any society.

European Commission (2011) sees entrepreneurship education as a process by which learners are equipped with a wide set of competencies that can bring about greater individual, social and economic benefits since the ability gained can be applied to any aspects of people's life.

Entrepreneurship involves the ability to transform ideas into profitable action. It also has to do with planning and executing project for the purpose of achieving pre predetermined objectives.

2.2.3 ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATIONS

Education is the key to national development (Maina, 2013) Education is an important tool for sustainability (Maina, 2013). Generally, education is confirmed to have a positive effect on entrepreneurship (Kuttim et al.; 2014).

According to Mwasalwiba (2010), entrepreneurship education was started by Shigeru Fijii in 1938 at Kobe University in Japan. Myles Mace started the first course in entrepreneurship in USA at Harvard Business school in 1947 (Alberti et al.; 2004). Entrepreneurship education has grown rapidly in tertiary institutions around the world (Fretschener and Weber, 2013). The growing number of tertiary institutions offering Entrepreneurship education is an attestation that entrepreneurship can be taught (Hafiz &

Sa'ad, 2015). There is no consensus definition of entrepreneurship education (*Valerio, Parton, Robb, 2014*).

In this study, entrepreneurship education is used in a narrow sense of referring to students intentions of starting their own business. Entrepreneurship education can be used in a broad sense also.

According to (Fretschener and Weber, 2013). The main objective of entrepreneurship education in tertiary institutions is to empower graduates irrespective their course of study with skills that will provide them the opportunity to engage in income yielding business, whether they are able or not able to secure paid employment whether in public or private sector.

Entrepreneurship Education turns a graduate from being a job seeker to job creator (Bassey and Archibong, 2005).

Entrepreneurial Education was introduced into the undergraduate curriculum of Nigerian Universities in 2006 (Agbonlahor, 2016).

The main purpose of introducing to tertiary institutions is to produce graduates with entrepreneurial skills needed in the private sector can also start their businesses and consequently employs others.

Entrepreneurship education is based on the premise that entrepreneurship can be learned, can develop student entrepreneurial intentionally (Pittaway and Cope, 2007) and finally lead to business start-up (Nabi, Holden, and Walmsley, 2010). Though not all studies agree that entrepreneurship education affects entrepreneurial intention. (Oosterbreek, Van Praag & Ijsselstain, 2010). Scholars have seriously debated whether entrepreneurship can be taught and learned (Gorman et al.; 1997; Arons son, 2004; Gendron, 2004).

It is vital for higher institutions to make available quality education for likely entrepreneurs to prepare them for future businesses that they can start. All over the world,

entrepreneurs exist in all professions: Medicine, architecture, law, research, education, engineering et al. and they are available in different shapes, colours, size and background (Hisrich, Peters & Shepherd, 2005; Baron, 1998).

According to Küttim (2014), participation in entrepreneurship education is likely to strengthen entrepreneurial intentions. Also, more favourable attitude towards entrepreneurship is likely to increase intentions of starting a business.

Furthermore, right after studies students in other fields than business and economics are likely to be more interested in starting their own business. Entrepreneurship education has the mandate to equip the youth with functional knowledge and skill to build up their character, attitude, and vision. Entrepreneurship education consists of all activities with the objective of fostering entrepreneurial mindsets, attitudes, and skills covering a range of areas such as idea generation, startup, growth and innovation (Fayolle, 2009).

Fayolle, 2007 and Thompson, 2004 believed that entrepreneurship could not be taught because it is more of personality and psychological traits because talent and temperament cannot be taught. The key to achieving a successful entrepreneurship education is to determine the most efficient way to handle the teachable skills and identify the best match between student needs and teaching techniques (Lee et al., 2007). Entrepreneurship education influences students' entrepreneurial intentions and behaviours (Fayolle & Gailly, 2004). Entrepreneurial education plays an important role in setting up one's businesses (Roxas, Cayoca-Panizales & Jesus, 2008; Clereq & Arenius, 2006).

2.2.4 Lecturer competence

Good lecturers can make a difference in their students' progress (Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005). Meta-analytic results show that lecturers are an important source of variance in students' development in schools (Hattie, 2009). As a consequence, recent research has set out to determine which specific aspects of lecturers' professional competence matter for student development. Teacher competence is conceptualized as a framework that

describes the specific personal qualities that lecturers need to meet the high demands of their profession. The concept covers cognitive as well as motivational variables (Baumert & Kunter, 2013). For example, good lecturers should have a profound knowledge of tasks and instructional strategies that foster students' conceptual understanding (i.e., pedagogical content knowledge; Sadler, Sonnert, Coyle, Cook-Smith, & Miller, 2013). They should also exhibit a certain degree of motivation to really be able to concentrate on the challenges of everyday classroom instruction (e.g., enthusiasm for teaching; Keller, Goetz, Becker, Morger, & Hensley, 2014).

Recent studies have fruitfully distinguished these aspects of teacher competence from characteristics that reflect the actual practice of teaching in the classroom (Rimm-Kaufman & Hamre, 2010; Zee & Koomen, 2016). The latter has also been referred to as teaching quality and has convincingly been described as having three basic dimensions: effective classroom management, supportive classroom climate, and the potential for cognitive activation (Klieme, Pauli, & Reusser, 2009; Pianta & Hamre, 2009). Teacher competence refers to the teacher's personal characteristics (e.g., knowledge and motivation). In contrast, teaching quality refers to lecturers' actual behavior and teacher-student interactions in the classroom (Rimm-Kaufman & Hamre, 2010). Thus, while teacher competence should be related to teaching quality, the two are not interchangeable.

The basic theoretical assumption of the present study is that teacher competence is positively related to teaching quality, which in turn has an effect on student outcomes (Kunter, Klusmann, Baumert, Richter, Voss, & Hachfeld, 2013). This basic idea forms the foundation of several recent studies on different aspects of professional competence such as lecturers' knowledge (Baumert et al., 2010; Förtsch, Werner, von Kotzebue, & Neuhaus, 2016; Keller, Neumann, & Fischer, 2016), professional beliefs (Kleickmann, Vehmeyer, & Möller, 2010; Kunter et al., 2013; Staub & Stern, 2002), enthusiasm for teaching (Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekun, & Sutton, 2009; Keller et al., 2014; Kunter et al., 2008), and self-efficacy (Guo, Connor, Yang, Roehrig, & Morrison, 2012; Zee & Koomen, 2016).

The thorough examination of teaching quality can illuminate the processes that underlie the relations between teacher competence and student development (Rimm-Kaufman & Hamre, 2010). More specifically, the effect of lecturers' personal characteristics on student outcomes might be mediated by lecturers' classroom behaviors and teacher-student interactions in the classroom (i.e., teaching quality). Teacher competence, on the other hand, may serve as an important lever that can be used to improve the quality of teaching and student outcomes, for instance, in professional development programs (Kleickmann, Tröbs, Jönsson, Vehmeijer, & Möller, 2016).

However, especially within the domain of elementary science education, not many studies have systematically examined the links between teacher competence, teaching quality, and student outcomes (Kleickmann, Vehmeijer, & Möller, 2010; Lange, Kleickmann, Tröbs, & Möller, 2012). In science education, the relation between teacher competence and instructional settings is complex: Reform attempts in many countries focus on inquiry-based learning (Furtak, Seidel, Iverson, & Briggs, 2012), which is considered crucial for fostering students' conceptual understanding of science phenomena. Among researchers, there is growing consensus that science learning should be regarded as an activity of sense-making that can be promoted through practices such as posing research questions, conducting experiments, and discussing the implications (Odden & Russ, 2019). The promotion of science literacy places high demands on science lecturers in general (Duschl & Bybee, 2014), and the implementation of inquiry-based learning in the classroom is particularly challenging (Krämer, Nessler & Schlüter, 2015). However, in Germany, as in many other countries, elementary school lecturers are generalists who often do not have an academic background in a science-related subject (Brobst, Markworth, Tasker, & Ohana, 2017). Elementary science lecturers are often hesitant to teach science which is probably due to their limited pedagogical content knowledge and low self-efficacy (Appleton, 2008; Johnston & Ahtee, 2006; Rice, 2005). Similar to elementary school lecturers, early childhood lecturers also report that they expect to fail in teaching science to young children (Greenfield et al., 2009), a fact that may be related to their lack of specific

university training or professional development with regard to science teaching (Hope et al., 2017). Overall, teaching science in a manner conducive to young students' learning seems to be a real challenge for elementary school lecturers (Appleton, 2008; Kleickmann et al., 2016). Accordingly, examining the antecedents of effective science teaching can offer valuable insights into how to promote educational quality and thus effective student learning. Within this domain, we sought to identify specific, measurable aspects of professional competence that are exhibited by successful lecturers. How are these aspects of teacher competence in elementary school related to student outcomes? Which aspects are related to high-quality classroom instruction? Does teaching quality serve as a mediator of the relation between teacher competence and student outcomes in elementary science education? It is still an open question whether or not the relationships reported in the literature will be comparable in the domain of elementary science education.

2.2.5 ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION CURRICULUM

According to *Sascha, Walter, & Dohse, (2009)*, Curriculum and courses of entrepreneurship education are a direct source of entrepreneurial motivation and knowledge.

The course content of entrepreneurial education is also essential.

Entrepreneurship education is consisting of different disciplines, which include management education, economics and technical studies (Davidsson, 2008).

There is three basis for which entrepreneurial education should increase entrepreneurial intentions. The first basis is that entrepreneurship education should lead to a generation of basic business ideas and to confirm that a given idea is new and valuable. This should culminate in the increase in number and innovativeness of opportunities (Shepherd and Detienne, 2005).

The second basis is that courses based on entrepreneurship education should provide knowledge of how to bring business ideas better and quicker to the market (Zhaw et al. 2005; Davidsson and Homig, 2003) students can even share their experiences with fellow students (Caputo and Dolinsky, 1998). Third, the number of courses shows the extent to which the department considers self-employment as a legitimate career alternative (Kolvereid, 1996b)

2.2.6 ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTION

Entrepreneurial intention can be defined as “the search for information that can be used to help fulfill the goal of venture creation” (Katz & Gartner, 1998; Choo & Wong, 2006).

Entrepreneurial education programs have a positive effect on the entrepreneurial intentions (Fayolle; Gailly & Lassas – Clerc, 2006; Oosterbeek et al.; 2010).

The entrepreneurial intention is a desire to carry out productive activities by effectively, directing people to utilize and implement relevant concepts of new ventures (Krueger et al.; 2000).

Various researches have revealed that entrepreneurship education programs contribute to the development of entrepreneurial intentions (Izquierdo & BuRlens, 2008, Luthje & Franke, 2003; Peterman and Kennedy, 2003; Kolvereid & Moens 1997, Souitaris et al.; 2007; Fayolle et al.; 2006).

2.2.7 Entrepreneurship course content

Brackenbury (1987) reviews final exam grades in educational psychology classes taught by the same instructor over 3, 8, and 16 week lengths. No significant differences are found in average exam grades. Caskey (1994) compares students taking algebra and accounting classes in both the condensed and traditional semester format. She finds no significant difference in course grades or overall class average. Age, ability and other possible

confounding factors are not controlled for in the study. Messina (1996) using descriptive analysis finds that end of course grades for students who take weekend courses at a community college are similar to those taken during a traditional semester. Spurling (2001) looks at the percent of students passing English, mathematics, and English-as-a-Second-Language in both a condensed summer and traditional semester format. He finds that students in the condensed format have significantly higher pass rates than students in the traditional format but does not control for student differences in ability, age, etc.

Rayburn and Rayburn (1999) control for gender, past achievement (GPA, ACT), and major (business, non-business) while evaluating the effect of condensed semester format (8-week) on student performance in management accounting classes. Student performance is measured both by scores on short multiple choice questions and on exam problems. Using ANOVA they find that class length is not a significant factor in multiple choice question scores but is significant in explaining higher exam problem scores in the traditional semester length.

Ewer, et al. (2002) look at student performance in two introductory accounting courses taught by the same professor in two semester formats (16-week and 4-week). They control for student ability by categorizing students by high and low ACT scores and GPA before taking the courses. They use three measures of student performance; mean scores on course tests, the final exam and course GPA. A t-test for differences in means is used to test for significance. Their results show that students with high ACT scores or with high GPA's do perform significantly higher in the condensed semester format. They find no significant difference in performance between the condensed and traditional semester format for students with lower ACT scores or lower GPA's.

Boddy (1985), using regression analysis with paired classes taught by the same instructor, shows that class performance (exam scores) in a 5 and 8 week compressed semester format is significantly higher than the traditional 16 week semester format for Computer Science

classes. However, there is no significant difference in performance for History or School Law classes. He also finds that course load, major area of study, amount of paid employment, and length of time since previous study of a subject are not significantly related to achievement in the condensed or traditional semester length.

Students may perform better in the condensed format because there is less time between learning and testing to forget the material. However, are students able to retain material learned in the condensed format and use it in future classes as well as those who learn material in a traditional format. Seamons (2004) puts it quite succinctly, “Whether the formats differ in effectiveness at the conclusion of the course may be of little importance if the difference is short lived and disappears after a period of time.” Van Scyoc and Gleason (1993) compared courses in microeconomics taken in a traditional 16-week semester with a 3- week semester format. They find better performance on achievement test in the compressed format at the end of the course and find no difference in retention when measured several months after the course is over. Geltner and Logan (2000) finds that students perform better (GPA, success rate) in 6-week than 16-week classes and retain the material equally well in both formats. Success rates are measured as the percent of students getting a ‘C’ or better. Retention is measured by the difference in GPA earned by students in the second of two sequential courses where the first course in the sequence is taken in either the condensed or traditional semester format. They control for student achievement by separating students into two groups, those that earned above and below a 3.0 GPA in the traditional spring semester and then compare their GPA’s in condensed summer classes. Petrowsky (1996) evaluates student performance in traditional 15 week versus 2 week summer macroeconomic courses. He finds that on exams that measure basic recall student scores were higher in the compressed format. However, on the final exam that required more comprehension and analysis, students in the traditional semester format perform better.

Daniel (2000) contains a literature review for articles on time shortened courses across disciplines and finds that these courses yield comparable and often superior learning outcomes in comparison with traditional semester or quarter length courses

Curriculum refers to the course content of an educational program (Tanner & Tanner, 1980). According to Norasmah (2002), the success of an entrepreneurial program is to produce students with the skills and attitude of entrepreneurship and thus become successful entrepreneurs depending on the suitability of the course content offered by the program. Furthermore, the university should offer courses that meet the needs of business management as well as training derived from education and entrepreneurial training programs (Maranville, 1992). Reynaldo, Maria, and Asuncion, (2007) suggest that universities should evaluate, diversify and refine existing curriculum forms. The curriculum should suggest establishing a bilateral relationship with real entrepreneurs such as a pilot program where students are given the opportunity and real experience of running a business with a selected entrepreneur. In addition, the curriculum should include a visit to selected entrepreneurship companies, forums, networking with industry to train students, exposing entrepreneurship by providing university entrepreneurship magazines, entrepreneurship competitions, entrepreneurship exhibitions and university trade. Thus, universities are responsible for helping and exposing students or graduates in entrepreneurship more systematically and effectively. This is supported by a study conducted by Bird (2002) where it is a priority for universities to expose their students to entrepreneurship and to increase student self-innovation to be more creative, critical, motivated and capable in entrepreneurship. The various entrepreneurial activities in the curriculum throughout the university students' studies have provided great exposure to students about the real world of business and entrepreneurship. This is a bridge that connects students and entrepreneurship. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses

2.2.8 THE OBJECTIVES AND FOCUS OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

Osuala (2010) summarize the objectives of entrepreneurship education into the following:

1. Providing meaningful education for youth which could make them self reliant and subsequently encourage them to be self-dependent.
2. Providing graduates with training and support necessary to help them establish a career in small and medium size business.
3. Providing graduates with training skills that will make them meet man power needs of the society.
4. Providing graduates with enough training in risk management to make risk bearing possible and easy.
5. Stimulating industrial and economic growth of rural and less developed areas.
6. Providing graduates enough training that will make them creative and innovative in identifying business opportunities.
7. Providing small and medium sized companies with the opportunity to recruit qualified graduate who have received training and tutoring in the skill relevant for business management.

The focus of entrepreneurship education is to produce entrepreneurs. The entrepreneur is someone who ventures by taking risks into a business involving planning, organizing, coordinating, and controlling use of materials and money to make a profit by producing goods or rendering services (Singh and Sharmal 2011).

An entrepreneur is someone that is never satisfied with the status quo. Nafukho (1998) argues an entrepreneur is a human bulldozer, who can convert a stumbling block into a stepping stone. The author added that there is no mountain that is unmovable to an

entrepreneur. He is a creative and aggressive inventor who promotes the necessary relationships required for the new business to come into existence. Hayton (2002) defined entrepreneurship as a process of identifying opportunity related to needs satisfaction and converting it to a thing of value. It can be conceptualized to mean the process and activities undertaken by entrepreneurs directed at capturing value associated with business opportunities.

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In the study of factors that influence entrepreneurship growth and development, several theories have been developed from different authors. However, for this study emphasis will be laid on four of such theories, namely resource-based entrepreneurship theory, anthropological entrepreneurship theory, the neo-classic theory of entrepreneurship as well as Innovative

2.3.1 Resource-based theory

Theory of Entrepreneurship. According to Alvarez and Busenitz (2001), the Resource-based theory of entrepreneurship argues that access to resources by a would-be entrepreneur is an important factor that influence new venture development. The theory highlights the significance of financial, social and human resources towards enhancing the entrepreneurial ability to detect and act upon discovered opportunities. Financial, social and human capital represents three classes of theories under the resource based entrepreneurship theories (Davidson and Honing, 2003).

2.3.2 Anthropological entrepreneurship theory

According to Anietie (2012) the anthropological entrepreneurship theory says that for someone to successfully initiate a venture the social and cultural contexts should be examined or considered. This means that cultural heritage of the society influence the way such people carry out their business.

2.3.3 The Neo-Classic Theory of Entrepreneurship: This is one of the famous theories of entrepreneurship advanced by Marshal in 1948; the theory stipulates that there is no exploitation on the business platform. The theory is of the view that the effort an entrepreneur put in a particular business will determine the profit margin that will be returned on the business. On the other hand the theory also views the level of knowledge as well as the business information acquired by an entrepreneur as an important factor that will determine the level of profit and success accrue to an entrepreneur, in the course of carrying out business activities.

2.3.4 Innovative Theory of Entrepreneurship

Innovative Theory of Entrepreneurship Schumpeter (1991) notes that creativity as well as innovation is the key factor in any entrepreneur effectiveness and efficiency. However, Schumpeter viewed innovation along with knowledge as the main catalysts of successful entrepreneurship. He believed that creativity is necessary if an entrepreneur is determining break even in a stiff competitive market.

2.3.5 Theory of Planned Behavior

One of the most widely researched intention models is the Theory of planned behavior (TPB). TBP originated by Ajzen (1991). The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) was derived from the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). The theory states that behavioral intentions are formed by one's attitude toward that behavior and one's subjective norms (e.g., influence by parents, role models, peers). The theory of planned behavior hinged on 3 factors: the person's attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm (the influence of other people, and perceived behavioral control (personal assessment of whether one can do it or not).

Ajzen (2005) stated under the theory of planned behavior that the intention was affected by an individual's behavior. The theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) predicts an individual's intention to engage in behavior at a specific time and place. Behavioral

intention represents a person's motivation to plan or decide to perform certain behavior consciously. Attitude toward a behavior is the degree to which a person has positive or negative feelings of the behavior of interest. Subjective norm relates to a person's perception of the social environment surrounding the behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998). Perceived behavioral control refers to the individual's perception of the extent to which performance behavior difficult or is easy (Ajzen, 1991).

Perceived behavior increases when individuals perceive they have more resources and confidence (Lee & Kozar, 2005). The relationship between students entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurship education using the theory of planned behavior is gaining the interest of academics and professionals (Izquierdo and Buelens, 2008; Fayolle et al.; 2010; Sovitaris et al.; 2007). With the exception of Von Graevenitz et al.; 2010; Oosterbeek et al.; 2010).

2.3.6 Theory of Human behaviors

Human behaviors theory has been attempted to be explained from different aspects- psychological, sociological and economical etc. Also entrepreneurship has been subject to different research approaches including historically economic (Schumpeter 1912/1926), social science (Chandler, 1962) and management studies (Birch, 1979), “trait” approach (Chell et al, 1991), a process approach (Gartner et al, 2004) and a cognitive approach (Rauch and Frese, 2007).

In entrepreneurship studies, there has been a shift in the interest from studying the characteristics of existing entrepreneurs in ex-post situations to studying factors leading to a decision to found a company to be able to better explain the entrepreneurial behavior. Researchers have proposed and elaborated on several intention models. For example, model combining personal contextual factors and self-efficacy (Vozikis, 1994) model of the entrepreneurial event (Krueger, 1993), view that entrepreneurial intention can be influenced by conviction that is related to personal variables. Understanding that attitudes towards entrepreneurial acts mediate the relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy

and intentions towards new venture creation (judge et al, 1998). The approaches have received more attention by subsequent research. Ajzen’s TPB and Shapero’s model of entrepreneurial event (Karali, 2013). The TPB is based on the idea that human beings are rather rational in their choices and individual’s intention may lead or may not lead certain behavior. There are three conceptual determinants of intentions according to the theory (figure 1).

First, the attitude towards behavior shows the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question. Secondly, the subjective norm means the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior. Thirdly, the perceived behavioral control refers to perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior and it is assumed to reflect past experiences as well as expected obstacles. (Ajzen, 1991, 2005).

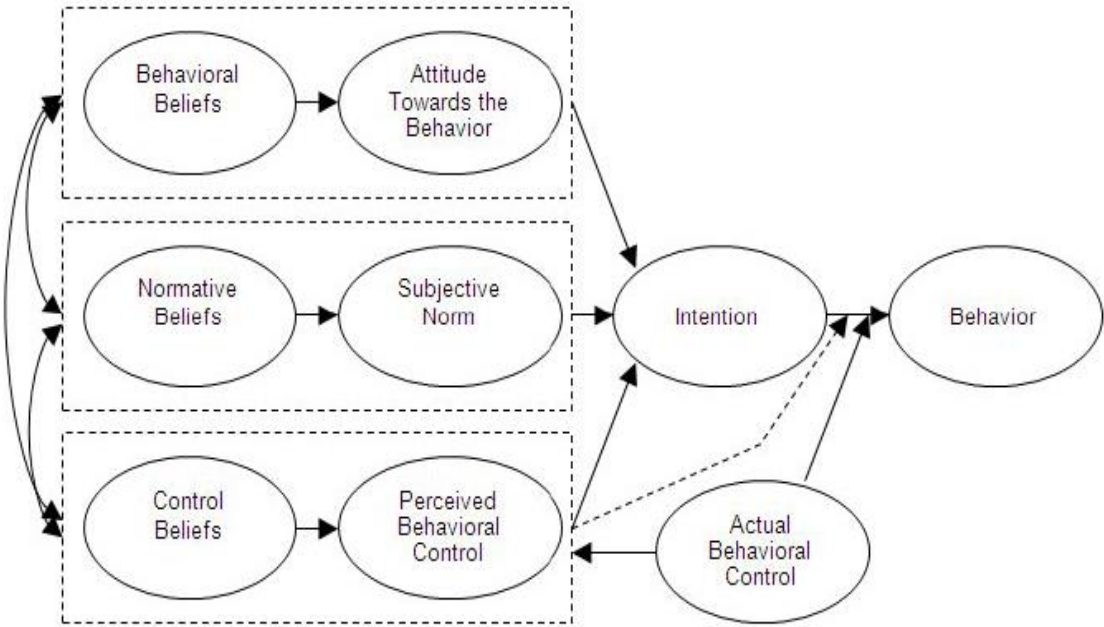


Fig. 1. Theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 2005)

The TPB can be used to study and predict different kinds of human intentions to behave in a certain way including e.g health-related behavior. Like dieting, physical

exercise, social behavior, ethical choices. The theory has been applied in entrepreneurial settings to study e.g comparing Ajzen's and Shapero intentions models (Krueger et al, 2002).

Relationship between entrepreneurship education program and students entrepreneurial intentions using TPB has not been so widely studied, although this line of research is gaining momentum (Fayolle et el, 2006). There are studies that have confirmed the positive effect of entrepreneurship education and its effectiveness on entrepreneurial intention among students but there are also studies that have reported a reverse outcome. In the context of entrepreneurship education research the TPB has been complemented to include entrepreneurial intentions that are influence by the attitude towards entrepreneurship, the subjective norms and the perceived behavioral control.

2.4 EMPIRICAL REVIEW

The argument on the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention has been in the front burner for decades. This has geared up many researchers and scholars on the subject to conduct researches that could beam light on the issue. It is in this spirit that this study attempts to review the past research studies.

Considering a study conducted by Idogbo and A. Inabor (2011), the study investigated the extent to which the entrepreneur education introduced in tertiary institutions in Nigeria has impacted in students, the entrepreneurial skills and intentions need to set up a new business. The result of the analysis conducted shows that there is a positive correlation between variables. It also found that students who received instructions in entrepreneurship education showed a greater desire to set up small scale business after graduation.

Salihu (2016), studies on effect of entrepreneurship education in graduates business start up in north central Nigeria. A sampling technique of Yaro Yamane sampling formula was adopted. Descriptive survey research design was employed. Sample sizes of 202 graduates were selected and questionnaires were administered. Questionnaire was

structured to include general entrepreneurship education and business start-up test in gathering information. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistic¹ and logistic regression to test hypotheses. The major finding of the study revealed that entrepreneurial careers have a significant impact on graduate's business start-up. The study also revealed that entrepreneurial culture has impacted on graduate significantly.

In another study conducted by Olatunji, Adunola, Musibau, David and Abimbola (2016), the study investigates the impact of youth entrepreneurship in nation building. 40 upcoming entrepreneurial firms were selected randomly from a cross section of a population of firms located across Yaba local government area of Lagos state. The responses to questionnaire were completed with personal interviews. Responses were analyzed with the use of percentage and are presented on pie and bar chart. Contrary to generally believed notion or assumption, this research found out that access to finance or capital is not the greatest problem facing young entrepreneur in Nigeria. According to finding the greatest problem confronting young entrepreneur in Nigeria is managerial capacity.

In a longitudinal study that forced on the impact of entrepreneurial education and societal subjective norms on entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions to start a business of university students in Uganda by by Abashaija, Katono and Isabalija (2010) using sample that composed of college students pursuing business orientated courses. The results show small but significant changes in attitudes and a significant mediating role of attitudes-perceived feasibility and perceived desirability but non-significant role of perceived feasibility on relationship between societal subjective norms and entrepreneurial intention. Contrary to expectation of the researchers the study did not find evidence to support a moderating influence of employment expectation on the relationship between the attitude variables and entrepreneurial intentions.

Ng Chiaw Gee (2018) the students' satisfaction level is an important indication to determine how successful of the education institution to provide services to the market. This research article investigated the impact of lecturers' competencies on students' satisfaction at one of the private tertiary institution in Malaysia. A quantitative research method was used to collect the data from the tertiary students. Data collected from the different academic programmes were analysed by using Pearson Correlation Analysis and Multiple Regression Analysis. The author have identified ten lecturers' competencies to be tested with the students' satisfaction. The results revealed that there is a positive correlation between these two variables.

Another empirical study conducted by Izedonmi and Chinonye (2010) in Nigeria set out to examine the effect of entrepreneurship education on the student's entrepreneurial intentions. The study makes use of survey research. The study makes it clear that entrepreneurial characteristics of youth are diverse and their exposure to entrepreneurship education for a period of four years is capable of provoking the intention of becoming an entrepreneur. This is also an indication that they have been equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills required for a new venture start-up. It is also deductive that entrepreneurship education is a useful program that will enable the respondents either to help the future employers or manage their own business successfully.

Aladejebi (2018) conducts a research on effect of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intentions of students among four tertiary institutions in Nigeria: a University, Polytechnic, College of education and a satellite campus of a University. Data was gathered from 381 students from the four institutions. SPSS was used to analyze the data gathered. Findings from the study reveal that the behavioral component of the students' attitude toward entrepreneurship education was positive. Many of the students enjoyed entrepreneurship education. Practical examples of entrepreneurship should be included

more in classroom teaching. Many of the students show the intention of starting their own business when they graduate.

Allexander Muzenda (2013) the objective of this research was to analyze the effect of lecturers' competences on Students' academic performance among higher education and training students. A sample of 115 students was selected and used for the study using simple random sampling procedure. A structured questionnaire was used to gather data on students' level of agreement on the extent to which distinct variables measuring lecturers' determine their academic performance. The data collected using the survey instrument was processed and analysed using SPSS statistical package. The scale reliability Cronbach's alpha of 0.822 and the sampling adequacy Keiser-Meyer-Olkin of 0.769; with a total declared variance of 66.519 percent were obtained from the analysis. Four hypotheses were tested using Stepwise regression approach. Results indicate that subject knowledge, teaching skills, lecturer attendance and lecturer attitude have significant positive influence on students' academic performance.

Elvira, Darin, Anissa (2017) Conduct a research on Lecturers' Professional Competency and Students' Academic Performance in Indonesia Higher Education cognitive abilities. One of the important factors which can contribute in improving cognitive abilities is lecturer professional competencies. Lecturer should have a wide and deep knowledge regarding the courses they teach. They also should possess practical experience so their lesson more attractive. This study examined the relation between lecturers' professional competency of lecturer has an impact on students' academic performance in higher education. The findings show that the professional competency does not have a significantly relation with students' academic performance. The detail discussion provided with new insights of various factors which might relate to the performance.

Furthermore, an empirical finding by Mudashin, Rozilah and David (2014) in their study is the impact of entrepreneurship education as remarkable as the demand revealed that entrepreneurship education program (EED) had a positive impact on students' entrepreneurial intents, value creation and strong ambition to act in the future as entrepreneurs. Despite this remarkable impact, the critical issue is the fidelity of the impacted value on the students over a time lag after graduation. The research focused on the academic effect while future can focus on real life effects; by ascertaining the student's actual transfer of educational value to the real behavior.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter centers on the various methods used in carrying out the research work. This includes research design, population of the study, sample size and sampling techniques, method of data collection, research instrument, validity and reliability of instrument and method of data analysis.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

To obtain reliable data for analysis, descriptive research design was adopted coupled with survey approach.

Research design is the general plan or structure of the investigation in order to obtain answer to the research questions. The research design includes a description of the research design, a description of the research method used for collection that was analyzed to the completion of this project work. It also states the instrument employed. During the period of data collection and the instrument employed. During the period of data collection we employed random sampling techniques. This is because every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected or included for the sample and again, the method is proved to be less sampling error.

3.3 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The total populations that will be used for the research work are the final year HND 2 student of Institute of Finance and Management Studies (IFMS) Kwara State Polytechnic Ilorin. The total number is six hundred and eighty-five students in IFMS in Kwara State Polytechnic Ilorin. A total of 685 students are the population size of this research.

Table 3.1 population of the study

DEPARTMENT	TOTAL	Percentage
Banking and finance	120	17
Business administration and management	123	18
Public administration	120	18
Marketing	120	17
Procurement and supply chain management	80	12
Accountancy	122	18
Total	685	100

3.4 SAMPLING SIZE

The study is conducted on a random sampling of six hundred and eight five (685) studies in the institute of finance and management studies (IFMS) Kwara State Polytechnic.Ilorin, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) statistical formula is used to determine sample size for the study

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	246
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	26	140	103	340	181	1000	276	4500	351
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	181	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	180	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	190	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	200	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	210	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	373
65	56	220	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	230	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	240	144	550	225	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	250	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	260	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	270	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	256	2600	335	100000	384
Note: "N" is Population Size "S" is Sample Size.									

Source: krejcie & Morgan 1970

n=248 sample size approximately

since the population was six hundred and eight five ,

Therefore, the population adjusted to 700 and 248 was chosen as sample size from the table above.

Sekaran (2006) observed that the error of tolerance should between 95% and 99% confidence level and the margin of error of 0.05% and 0.01 respectively, the study used confidence level of 95% hence the margin of error of 0.05%. The study used a sample size of 234 board members.

Otokiti (2010) suggested that a sample size of 30 to 200 is sufficient when the distribution approaches normality.

3.5 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

The study adopted a stratified sampling approach to select the 248 students. based on academic Departments.

Representativeness was censured by apportioning the sample based on the population of the individual department. This was informed by the heterogeneity of the study population

3.6 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

The study adopted both primary and secondary data. Questionnaire was administered to the final year student in school to obtain primary data. While secondary data formed a sizeable portion of this research. The secondary data were mainly from books, journals, unpublished projects, lectures and lastly internet sources.

3.7 INSTRUMENT OF DATA COLLECTION

In order to obtain accurate and reliable information the following research instrument were used in this project. Questionnaire: the questionnaire was structured in line with variables of the study stated in the research questions and hypotheses. The questionnaire was directed into two parts Section A was designed to collect demographic information of the respondents. Section B deals with issues relating to the subject of inquiring. This was distributed to the respondents. Electronically using the whatapp of the respondents departments.

3.8 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Data collection from questionnaires were presented and analyzed by using descriptive statistic techniques, regression and correlation analysis.

Knowing how to largely design a research study and properly analyze the gathered data are two of the most critical knowledge tools a student can be acquire during his or her research. Statistical package for the social science used SPSS version 23 for the purpose of analyzing the data to determine percentage to describe the relation of the respondents for easy understanding and clear presentation as shown in chapter four of this project. Tabular Presentation was used to indicate the choice of respondent for illustration and better understanding.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter analyses and presents the descriptive statistics of dependent and independent variables. The presentation were organized according to research questions and null hypotheses formulated to guide the study.

4.2 DATA PRESENTATION ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

In carrying out this research a total of 685 copies of questionnaires were distributed to respondents and in all 248 copies of the questionnaire were filled, completed and returned, making a representation of 48.% while a total of 437 were not returned also making a representation of 52%. As a result, presentation analysis and interpretation of the study were based on 36 retuned copies of questionnaire of shown in the table below.

Table 4.1 Retune Rate of Questionnaire

Questionnaire	Frequency	Percentage
Returned	248	36.2%
Not returned	437	63.8%
Total	685	100%

Source: field survey, 2025

Table 4.1 shows that 685 copies of questionnaire were administered while 248 copies were daily completed and retuned. 6 copies of the questionnaire administered were not returned

Table 4.1 Demographic profile of respondent

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	200	80.6%
Male	48	19.4%
Total	248	100

Source: field survey, 2025

Age	Frequency	Percentage
Below 25yrs	49	19.8%
26-30yrs	122	49.2%
31-35%	38	15.3%
36-40yrs	23	9.3%
41 yrs & above	16	6.5%
Total	248	100%

Source: field survey, 2025

Marital status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	45	18.1%
Married	198	79.8%
Divorced	5	2.0%
Total	248	100%

Source: field survey, 2025

From table 4.1.1, the percentage of female to male in the sample respondents were 80.6% to 19.4%, showing that majority of the respondents were female. The result further indicates the age brackets of respondents which show 49.2% of the respondent are between age (26-30) years; 19.8% are between age group of below 25 years, 15.3% are between 31-35 years, 9.3% were in the group 36-40 years, while 6.5% are 41 years and above. This

result indicates that the respondents are majorly dominated by young adults and capable workforce.

Further summary analysis indicates that 18.1% of the respondents are singles, 78.8% are married and lastly 2.0% is divorced.

Table 4.3 there is no relationship between entrepreneurship curriculum on students activities among student

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Agreed	230	92.7%
Agreed	11	4.4%
Disagreed	5	2.0%
Strongly disagreed	2	1%
Total	248	100%

Source: field survey, 2025

Table 4.3 above shows responses of respondents on the question is there a relationship between risk thinking and entrepreneurial intention among students? Results shows that 4.4% of the respondents agreed, 92.7% strongly agreed, 2.0% disagreed 1% strongly disagreed. Majority of the respondents strongly agreed that there is a relationship between risk thinking and entrepreneurial intention among students.

Table 4.4 Self-Efficacy Have Effect on Entrepreneurial Intention Among Students

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agreed	211	85.1%
Agreed	7	2.8%
Disagreed	23	9.2%
Strongly disagreed	7	2.8%
Total	248	100%

Source: field survey, 2025

Table 4.4 shows a total 211 respondents representing 85.1% strongly agreed, 7 (2.8%) agreed, 23 (9.2%) of the respondents disagreed, 7 (2.8%) strongly disagreed to the effect of self –efficacy on entrepreneurial intention among students.

Table 4.5 accesses to funds do play a key role on Entrepreneurial Intention among Students

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agreed	212	85.4%
Agreed	21	8.5 %
Disagreed	10	5%
Strongly disagreed	5	2%
Total	248	100%

Source: field survey, 2025

The responses in table 4.5 shows respondents opinion on the contribution of access to funds as a key to entrepreneurial intention among student from the table above 21 (8.5%) of the respondent agreed, 212 (85.4%) strongly agreed 10 (5%), disagrees to the assertion 5 (2%) in their responses.

Table 4.6 poor business opportunities have a direct influence on Entrepreneurial Intention among Students

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agreed	202	81.4%
Agreed	12	4.8%
Disagreed	22	8.9%
Strongly disagreed	12	4.8%
Total	248	100%

Source: field survey, 2023

Table 4.6 above shows the percentage to the question above agreed 12(4.8%), 202(81.4%) strongly agreed, 12(4.8%) disagreed, 12(4.8%) strongly disagreed. Therefore majority of respondents that agree to the question are 202(81.4%).

Table 4.7 Skill acquisition affect on Entrepreneurial Intention among Students

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agreed	178	71.8%
Agreed	50	20.1%
Disagreed	10	4%
Strongly disagreed	10	4%
Total	248	100%

Source: field survey, 2025

Table 4.7 shows the opinion of respondents on the question above 50(20.1%) of the respondents agreed, 178 (71.8%) strongly agreed, 10(4%) disagreed, 10(4%) strongly disagreed in response. A larger percentage of the (71.8%) respondents are of the opinion that skill acquisition affect entrepreneurial intention among students.

Table 4.8 Gender influence Entrepreneurial Intention among Students

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agreed	125	50.4%
Agreed	101	40.7%
Disagreed	18	7.2%
Strongly disagreed	4	1.6%
Total	248	100%

Source: field survey, 2025

Table 4.8 show that 4(1.6%) of respondents strongly disagreed that the gender of student will influence their decision to become entrepreneurs in the future 101 (40.7%) agreed, 125 (50.4%) strongly agreed, 18 (7.2%) disagreed.

Table 4.9 prior exposure to entrepreneurship education at tender age affect Entrepreneurial Intention among Students

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agreed	178	71.8%
Agreed	42	16.9%
Disagreed	22	8.9%
Strongly disagreed	6	2.4%
Total	248	100%

Source: field survey, 2025

Table 4.9 shows 42 (16.9%) agreed to the question above 178(71.8%) strongly agreed, 22(8.9%) disagreed, 6(2.4%) strongly disagree, 178 (71.8%) strongly agreed that prior exposure to entrepreneurship education at tender age affect entrepreneurial intention among students.

Table 4.10 family business backgrounds affect Entrepreneurial Intention among Students

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agreed	235	94.7%
Agreed	5	2%
Disagreed	6	2.4%
Strongly disagreed	2	1%
Total	248	100%

Source: field survey, 2025

The 4.10 shows 5 (2%) agreed to the question, 235(94.7%) of respondents gave strongly agreed opinion, 6(2.4%) disagreed, 2 (1%) strongly disagree in their response. This indicates that generality of the respondent 235 (94.7%) agreed that family business background has influence on entrepreneurial intention among students.

TESTING OF HYPOTHESIS

Hypothesis one

Ho: there is no relationship between risk thinking and entrepreneurial intention among students.

H1: there is relationship between risk thinking and entrepreneurial intention among students.

Table 1: computation of chi-square (X²) of response frequencies between between entrepreneurship curriculum activities among students.

Response	Observed frequency (Fo)	Expected frequency (Fe)	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) ² Fe
Strongly Agree	230	62	168	455
Agree	11	62	-51	41.95
Disagree	5	62	-57	52.4
Strongly Disagree	2	62	-60	58.1
Total	248	248		607.45

Computed $\sum x^2 = 607.45$

Source: research Data, 2023

Also, to determine the decision rule, the degree of freedom is applied.

Df=(r-1) (c-1) where df= degree of freedom, r= number of rows, c= numbers of columns

Degree of freedom= $(r-1)(c-1) = 2((2-1)(5-1)) = 1 \times 4$

Df= 4

Significance level=5%

Critical value of χ^2 at df 4=9.49

Computed $\chi^2 = 607.47$

Decision rule:

Since the computed value $\chi^2 = 333.89$ is greater than the critical value of 9.49. The null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and the alternative accepted. Thus there is significance relation between risk thinking and entrepreneurial intention among students.

Hypothesis Two

H_0 : self- efficacy has no effect on entrepreneurial intention among students

H_1 : self efficacy have effect on entrepreneurial among students

Table 2: computation of chi-square (χ^2) of response frequencies between between adequate entrepreneurship course content among students.

Response	Observed frequency (Fo)	Expected frequency (Fe)	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) ² Fe
Strongly Agree	178	62	116	217.0
Agree	50	62	-12	2.3
Disagree	10	62	-52	43.6
Strongly Disagree	10	62	-52	43.6
Total	248	248		306.5

Computed $\sum \chi^2 = 306.5$

Source: research Data, 2025

Also, to determine the decision rule, the degree of freedom is applied.

$Df = (r-1)(c-1)$ where df = degree of freedom, r = number of rows, c = numbers of columns

Degree of freedom = $(r-1)(c-1) = 2((2-1)(5-1)) = 1 \times 4$

$Df = 4$

Significance level = 5%

Critical value of χ^2 at $df = 4 = 9.49$

Computed $\chi^2 = 306.5$

Decision rule:

Since the computed value $\chi^2 = 168.6$ is greater than the critical value of 9.49. The null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and the alternative accepted. Thus there is significance relation between self efficacy entrepreneurial intentions among students.

Hypothesis Three

H_0 : poor business opportunity has no direct influence on entrepreneurial intention among students

H_1 : poor business opportunity has no direct influence on entrepreneurial among students

Table 2: computation of chi-square (χ^2) of response frequencies between between lecturer competency on direct influence on student entrepreneurial intention among students.

Response	Observed frequency (Fo)	Expected frequency (Fe)	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) ² Fe
Strongly Agree	178	62	116	217.0
Agree	42	62	-20	6.4
Disagree	22	62	-40	25.8
Strongly Disagree	6	62	56	50.6
Total	248	248		299.8

Computed $\Sigma x^2 = 299.8$

Source: research Data, 2025

Also, to determine the decision rule, the degree of freedom is applied.

$DF = (r-1)(c-1)$ where df= degree of freedom, r= number of rows, c= numbers of columns

Degree of freedom = $(r-1)(c-1) = 2((2-1)(5-1)) = 1 \times 4$

$DF = 4$

Significance level = 5%

Critical value of x^2 at df 4 = 9.49

Computed $x^2 = 299.8$

Decision rule:

Since the computed value $x^2 = 572.13$ is greater than the critical value of 9.49. The null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and the alternative accepted. Thus there is significance relation between poor business opportunity has direct influence on entrepreneurial intentions among students.

4.4 DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

This study dealt with evaluation of entrepreneurship education and its effectiveness on entrepreneurial intentions among students. Entrepreneurship education effectiveness

has increased the entrepreneurial intention among student by indicating positive correlation between the variable in this study. Risk thinking with result of $R = 0.910$, $t\text{-value} = 15.230$, $\beta = 0.796$. Self-efficacy $R = 0.926$, $t\text{-value} = 10.022$ and $\beta = 0.926$ implies the level of entrepreneurial intention among students increase by 92.6% if self-efficacy increase by one. Access to funds results shows $R = 0.577$, $t\text{-value} = 10.23$, and $\beta = 0.926$ $p < 0.05$, skill acquisition shows that $R = 0.797$, $t\text{-value} = 5.7.9$ $\beta = 0.427$. This shows that these variables are important to the increase in level or entrepreneurial intention among students of tertiary institutions.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Over the years, the rate of unemployment in Nigeria has been on the high side. This is as a result of overdependence on white collar jobs. This research study was carried out to examine the impact of entrepreneurship education and its effectiveness on entrepreneurial intention among students.

In view of this research, two tertiary institutions were selected as case study. During the research, it was discovered from the responses obtained from the questionnaire distributed to students from the two institutions indicates that entrepreneurship education has impact on students intentions to become self-reliant in the nearest future. This study also discovered that how to finance business also has impact on entrepreneurial intentions among students. The findings also indicate a need for self-efficacy, risk-thinking, skill acquisition and favorable industrial trends.

The influence of gender and entrepreneurial intentions is rather weak. Having or having had self-employed parents has a relatively weak, but positive effect on entrepreneurial intentions, indicating the importance of family business background.

5.2 RECOMMENDATION

First of all, the entrepreneurship education should be at primary school level. This is for the purpose of exposing the students to entrepreneurship at a very young age. The basic of entrepreneurship should be introduced at gaining their interests in this field. Similar education should be continued in secondary level where the learning process will cover the basic steps to start and enter the entrepreneur's world the role of entrepreneurs in reality and so on.

Secondly, future research should study this issue with larger sample size of particular concern is the need to get larger sample sizes and to do comparisons. It is also important for future research not to stop accessing entrepreneurial intention but to go on to examine whether intentions lead to entrepreneurial entry and entrepreneurial success.

Lastly, teaching methods used in entrepreneurship education and students views on that would be an insightful means of developing the area further.

5.3 CONCLUSION

As a conclusion, developing entrepreneurial graduates is therefore essential for our future.

Universities and other higher institutions should be ideally placed to expose students to environment which foster entrepreneurial mindset and the effectiveness of entrepreneurial programs is important keys to produce more entrepreneurs in the future.

The objectives of entrepreneurship education should be wider than educating for founding one's own business. Understanding entrepreneurship does not only create potential for becoming an entrepreneur but for being an innovative employee to future employers of labour.

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