

An Empirical Review of the Relationship between Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy, Self-Regulation and Individual Intention for Entrepreneurship in Nigeria

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Abstract

Previous findings relating to entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) and entrepreneurial self-regulation (ESR) effects on individual entrepreneurial intentions (IEI) remain inconsistent. While some studies established positive relationships among the variables, others find none of such connection. Regrettably, a contemporary study that determines such contradictions remains a missing link particularly in developing countries like Nigeria. This paper aims to determine the ESE, ESR and possible influence on entrepreneurial behaviour in the context of three selected universities in Nigeria. By data triangulating, a sample of 701 respondents comprising undergraduate and postgraduate students and lecturers of three selected universities in the Southwest, was used for this research. A response rate of 94% was achieved while in-depth interviews were conducted with nine (9) senior academic planning experts in the universities. Inferential statistics which include Pearson's correlation, t-tests and regression analyses of quantitative data at the 0.05 level of significance and advanced total content analysis (TCA) of qualitative data, were used to address the research objectives. The results indicate a positive relationship within the context of the institutional framework for entrepreneurship schools training programmes. It is therefore, concluded that a blend of regular academic activity with some strategic standalone learning practices could influence graduates' entrepreneurial intentions.

Keywords: Human behaviour, motivation, self-employment, university students

1.0 Introduction

Nowadays, entrepreneurship has recorded a significant growth in terms of adoption and implementation among many developed economies of the world (Krueger 2017, 35; Nabi et al. 2017, 227). The growing importance is perhaps due to the understanding of entrepreneurship development as a measure for dealing with global challenges such as how individual self-employment initiatives, intentions and behaviour are developed. A recently conducted study by Ozaralli and Rivenburgh (2016) attribute growing interests of government and researchers in entrepreneurship to increasing global competition, technology advancement and developing market economies. For example, Zhou and Xu (2012,83) explain the United States of America (USA) and China as countries where investments in entrepreneurship education are massive, particularly in the areas of the policy framework and programmes implementation. Similarly, Young (2012) describes entrepreneurship education as an initiative in the United Kingdom, which stimulates the proliferation of micro, small and medium-scale business enterprises, accounting for as much as 99.9% of available business enterprises with about 58.8% job creation and 48.8% private sector rates of turnover.

The concept of an entrepreneurial university about developing youth entrepreneurial culture from schools motivated this research in the context of higher education institutions in Nigeria. In the first place, entrepreneurship training is conceived as a way of imparting initiatives for self-employment among the students. Anyebe (2014,82) and Costello (2016,425) explain entrepreneurship as “capable of propelling entrepreneurship development, youth empowerment and economic growth of nations of the world.’ Akpan and Etor (2013,1181) also describe entrepreneurship as a programme design that offers capacity building training to influence human development. The implication is that entrepreneurship training activities empower youths to become self-employed and self-reliant, thereby reducing poverty. Domjan (2010) describes learning as a process, rather than a collection of factual or procedural knowledge. Progress in learning over time tends to follow a learning curve. It does not happen all at once, but builds upon and is shaped by previous knowledge. This understanding is further explained by Ajayi, Adeniyi and Adu (2008,2) as ‘learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be,’ as four pillars of quality training in the schools. These four critical paths to knowledge remain a gap in the education system of many developing nations worldwide.

For instance, current debates are inconclusive as to the quest for developing an entrepreneurial culture within the four corners of the classroom environment (Gibbs, Hannon and Robertson, 2013,3). Such model operated within classroom setting is further argued as complex and challenging. Henard and Roseveare (2012,12) describe the issues of multidisciplinary collaborations, institutional synergy, programme design and the integration of new technologies, as adding additional complexities to the issue of teaching task. Several other types of research among which are (Arasti, Flavarjani and Imanipour 2012; Mohammed, Baburo and Karage2014), who identify a sub-field area of teaching and learning framework as a gap in entrepreneurship research. In other words, the institutional framework that promotes entrepreneurship training in the new knowledge economy has remained a critical global issue in entrepreneurial research, thus a point of interest to this research. The issues of the institutional framework for entrepreneurship training and the significance on entrepreneurial desirability and behaviouris, therefore, perceived as significant in entrepreneurial research. This perception is acknowledged by Jackson, (2015,9) while establishing the fact that those institutions, which operate a more conducive institutional framework, could on the average deliver a better standard performance in entrepreneurship training.

It is against this backdrop that recent literature (Kuttim *et al.* 2014; Tsordia and Papadimituion 2015; Fayolle and Linan2014), suggest an investigation into teaching and learning strategies as a critical area of further research in entrepreneurship. Studies relating to entrepreneurial intention and behaviour development have grown considerably in entrepreneurial research (Schlaegel and Koenig, 2014,291; Iakovleva, Kolvereid and Stephan, 2011,354). The growth is influenced by the argument that human entrepreneurial behaviour is planned and driven by intention (Kruegar, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000,413), while the human entrepreneurial intention is perceived to precede the actual behaviour (Douglas, 2013,537). It is also important to underscore the fact that most of these researchers as enumerated above are conducted in the developed countries. With particular reference to Nigeria, even though many studies exist on entrepreneurship as a tool for national development, namely (Emechete and Awill 2010; Gerba 2010; Uduak and Aniefiok2011), the sub-field area of a teaching and learning framework remains a gap in the university education system.

In a related development, previous studies, namely (Shinner, Hsu and Powell 2014; Santoso2016; Drnovsek2010), discussed the entrepreneurial self-efficacy and the relationship with

entrepreneurial intentions. For example, Shinnar et al. (2014) in a study based in Australia describe entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) as the confidence of an individual in his or her ability to perform a given entrepreneurial task successfully. The empirical research further establishes a positive relationship between ESE, perceived entrepreneurial feasibility and desirability among youths. While studies by (Santoso 2016; Drnovsek 2010) identify positive effects of such relationships, other researchers (Von-Graevenitz 2010; Wu and Wu 2008) find none of such significance.

Specifically, Oosterbeek *et al.* (2010) in a study conducted in Netherland concluded that no significant relationship exists between entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) and perceived desirability for entrepreneurship among selected college students. A cursory look at these findings suggests a contradiction in the findings between whether or not entrepreneurial self-efficacy and self-regulation affect individual entrepreneurial intentions. The implication is that such contradictions in the findings of past studies make this research significant. The paper is determined to investigate the relationship between individual self-efficacy and self-regulation in the context of entrepreneurship training in the higher education system of developing nations like Nigeria. Recent knowledge by (Bayron, 2013,74), identifies the issue of whether ESE affects students' entrepreneurial intention as an empirical area of investigation, deemed for further research.

In this paper, it is noted that several years after the inclusion of entrepreneurship into the university education curriculum by the federal government of Nigeria, graduate high rates of unemployment remain high (Ekundayo and Babatunde, 2014,16; Maduka, 2015,91). The impact of entrepreneurship training appears low in the context of the desires for entrepreneurial practices among the educational group in Nigeria. With the high vulnerability of young Nigerian graduates to unemployment, there is need to investigate how this growing segment of the population could be more equipped for self-employment. Among the objectives of this investigation are to determine the influence of learning methods on the graduate entrepreneurial intentions and the interplay between entrepreneurial self-regulation, self-efficacy and intentions of individuals for entrepreneurial activities. The result from this research is positioned to dovetail into a framework for graduates' entrepreneurship knowledge and skills development.

2.0 Literature Review

The term entrepreneurship is conceptualised differently by different scholars. On the one hand, some schools of thought view entrepreneurship as a process of developing entrepreneurial mind-sets (Afolabi 2015; Imafidon 2014). It is a process of initiating business ventures, organising profitable business transactions and taking calculated risks based on previously acquired experience (Baba, 2013). This also includes acquiring prerequisite skills, competencies and experience to advance the world of business. This definition aligns with the perspectives in Adebisi (2015,84), which refers to entrepreneurship education (EE) as “acquiring business skills for employment to function effectively in the turbulent business environment, to improve the individual economic status and the nation at large”.

Isaacs, Visser, Friedrich and Brijlal (2007) also define entrepreneurship as a “process of conceptualising, organising, launching and nurturing a business opportunity through innovation into potentially high growth venture in a complex, unstable environment”. From the definitions above, the entrepreneurship concept is viewed from four key perspectives: the process, the value creation, services to meet new demands and the outcomes. This description is partially consistent

with Alberti, Sciascia and Poli (2004) who earlier describe EE as a structural conveyance of competencies including the skills, concepts and mental awareness for business start-up, maintenance and sustenance. The implication is that a positive correlation exists between entrepreneurship and intentions for business start-up. Entrepreneurship according to Nworu (2016,40), is not only about creating mindsets for self-employment but a way of providing relevant skills for employability.

Debates are abound on whether entrepreneurship is teachable or if it can only be acquired through natural behaviour. There are robust arguments in the literature in support of entrepreneurship as being teachable and learnable. The first of such argument was traceable to Drucker (1985) who explains the teaching of entrepreneurship from the perspective of innovations. Moreover, Drucker's study further asserts that everyone can learn to be an entrepreneur and can behave entrepreneurially. Similarly, Gorman, Hanlon, and King (1997), in their meta-analysis of entrepreneurship studies, asserts that entrepreneurship is teachable and learnable. Recent knowledge in the literature, for instance, Ali and Muhammad (2012), confirm a very strong significant relationship between the appropriate mix of learning strategies and entrepreneurial skills required by students. Entrepreneurship can be taught, and students can be equipped with skills right from the school (Chen et al.2015, 560). The concern in this research is linked to the findings of Arasti et al. (2012) which narrate that effective management of teachable skills in EE is substantially influenced by the framework available for teaching and learning. The framework according to Chen et al. (2015) includes negotiation skills, leadership, technological innovation and creative thinking.

Other schools of thought acknowledged social factors, genetic and family background, as capable of influencing entrepreneurial attitude (Kleeman2011, 1). The development of entrepreneurial culture according to Kleeman (2011) also includes natural-born entrepreneurs, socially prepared entrepreneurs and educationally prepared entrepreneurs. This research does not exclude other literature which explains the aspects of entrepreneurship that are teachable and non-teachable (Arasti et al.2012; Isaac et al. 2007). It is further asserted that the learning of entrepreneurship is both an art and science. While the science relates to the aspects that are teachable and involved the acquisition of functional skills for business start-up, the art components deal with creativity, which is not expressly teachable. As such, the focus of entrepreneurial contents and training lie in scientific approaches in most higher education institutions (HEIs). Lee and Wong (2007) established that EE is better ignited through the artistic, creative and perceptual framework.

This article considers the significance of entrepreneurial self-efficacy which according to Drnovsek, Wincent and Cardon (2010) is relevant in assessing the level of confidence and belief learners have about the immediate internal environment (strengths and weaknesses) and external environment (opportunities and threats). The paper also takes cognisance of the argument credited to (Barakat, Boddington and Vyakarnam, 2014, 458-459), that people with a high sense of self-efficacy are more likely to be motivated by higher entrepreneurial intentions, ability to identify potential opportunities, decision to harness the opportunities and drive to assemble resources for new venture creation. It is noted that such efforts that attempt to combine controlled and internal locus, which is stable at a time, is considered as significant towards developing desired future entrepreneurs. For instance, the belief about "self" is considered as the most effective attribution (Menzies, 2011, 50). The study further reveals that Self-worth Theory propounded by Covington in 1984, argues that individuals will avoid those actions that could reduce their self-worth. Consequently, Self-efficacy Theory that is propounded by Bandura in 1982 explains as for how individuals measure their ability to achieve a pre-determined goal. The judgment about one's

competencies is also noted to be positively related to individual motivation, ego and task involvement.

2.1 Entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) approach

The exploratory investigation conducted by Shinnar et al. (2014,561) describes ESE from the perspective of Bandura's (1986) social learning theory, as a belief in individual ability to perform a specific given task. People with a high sense of self-efficacy are motivated to have a higher intention to establish their own businesses (Drnovsek et al.2010). Also, they also can identify potential opportunities, make proper business decisions to harness the opportunities and drive to assemble resources for ventures creation. This assertion, therefore, implies that if students are made to learn through a greater sense of self-efficacy, they might rather be confident to set-up their own businesses. In this paper, the ESE approach is identified as a crucial emerging construct to EE, its influence on business start-up and growth. Rideout and Gray (2013) explain the significance of understanding of ESE as the development of psychometric measurement in EE as thus:

“...we need a larger pool of methodologically adequate EE research. In this regard, well-designed case studies would also be useful to help identify important mediators. We need more quantitative research that simultaneously examines the role of promising mediators like entrepreneurial self-efficacy, cognitive skills and knowledge, values and attitudes, social networks, and other contextual variables on policy-relevant outcomes,...There is also need for the development of psychometrically sound measures to supports these efforts.” Rideout and Gray (2013,348)

The understanding of ESE as a promising mediator in entrepreneurship research is supported by Hamidi *et al.* (2008, 307), who opines that individual employment status choice either to work in the circular sector or be self-employed is significantly related to an individual perceived behavioural control through self-efficacy. The implication according to Hamidi et al. study is that the participation of students in enterprise activities has potential to increase subsequent entrepreneurial behaviour. Santoso (2016, 131) also shares the same sentiment when concurring that entrepreneurial self-efficacy stimulates future entrepreneurial behaviour. Moreover, ESE has also been identified as having a significant relationship with becoming an entrepreneur (Krueger 2000; Wang, Wong and Lu 2002). The approach according to Drnovsek et al. (2010) exposes the level of confidence of learners to the immediate internal environment (strengths and weaknesses) and the external environment (opportunities and threats). In the same vein, recent knowledge (Bayron 2013) also argues that issues relating to personality and environmental factors incorporated in ESE are strong predictors of entrepreneurial intentions (EI) and entrepreneurial actions (EA).

Shinnar et al. (2014, 562) divided ESE into four critical parts including enactive mastery, vicarious experience, subjective norms and psychological state. The first part according to the author is related to individual learner's ability to develop entrepreneurial confidence when certain repetitive tasks are performed, such as writing business proposals and conducting market feasibility studies. Vicarious experience is said to be achievable when students are exposed to mentors or business angels as arole model, such as inviting successful entrepreneurs as guest speakers to motivate the students. Subjective norms relate to the influence social group such as peer group discussions of training activities or relating with the instructors. This is in tandem with the Ajzen's Planned Behaviour Theory which stated that a “perceived desirability is equal to the attitude of certain behaviour and subjective norms” (Rachmawan,Lizar, and Mangundjaya, 2015, 420). The

understanding is that an individual could be influenced by closer access to certain environmental and social valuations such as parents and/or close friends. It is inferred that other social cognitive factors: family mentoring and self- activities could be the links to universities' quest for graduates with entrepreneurial leadership qualities (Ajzen2011; Linan and Chen2006).

Researchers have remained inconclusive on ESE as there are divergent findings of the extent of the impact on students' entrepreneurial intentions. While some studies established positive impacts, other researchers found none of such significance. For instance, Von Graevenitz (2010, 91), found no significant influence of ESE at a German university EE programme designed to stimulate students' entrepreneurial intentions. Fayolle (2007) also found no significant impact of the compulsory entrepreneurial designed programme and student's entrepreneurial mindsets. Wu and Wu (2008) also established no significant effect of ESE on Chinese college students to venture into entrepreneurial activities. Recent studies, however, establish that entrepreneurial self-efficacy established the positive impact of ESE key variables like on entrepreneurial intentions. Piperopoulos and Dimov (2016) found that ESE has significant inspiration on the intentions of potential entrepreneurs. As earlier stated, both Santoso (2016,131) and Drnovsek et al. (2010) shared same positive opinions that entrepreneurial self-efficacy stimulates future entrepreneurial behaviour. The authors established a strong impact of ESE influence on entrepreneurial intentions of the students.

Achieving entrepreneurial orientation through self-efficacy and self-regulation seems to be crucial components of entrepreneurial education and training. Bayron (2013) noted that self-practices could allow students to deal with uncertain, complex, and often stressful situations. As such Bayron's study opines that investigations into the interaction that exists between learning strategies and EE as well as the relationship between EE and students' entrepreneurial action, requires future research. Leaving one's comfort zone and working under pressure is presumed to be relevant to designing a learning framework for potential entrepreneurs. The approaches also take into account the interests and the needs of different groups within the learning range from the gifted, student with learning difficulties to the disabled (Judi and Lyn, 2005,47). The understanding of sources of entrepreneurial training provides the framework of how learning takes place in the context of entrepreneurship education as presented in figure 1.

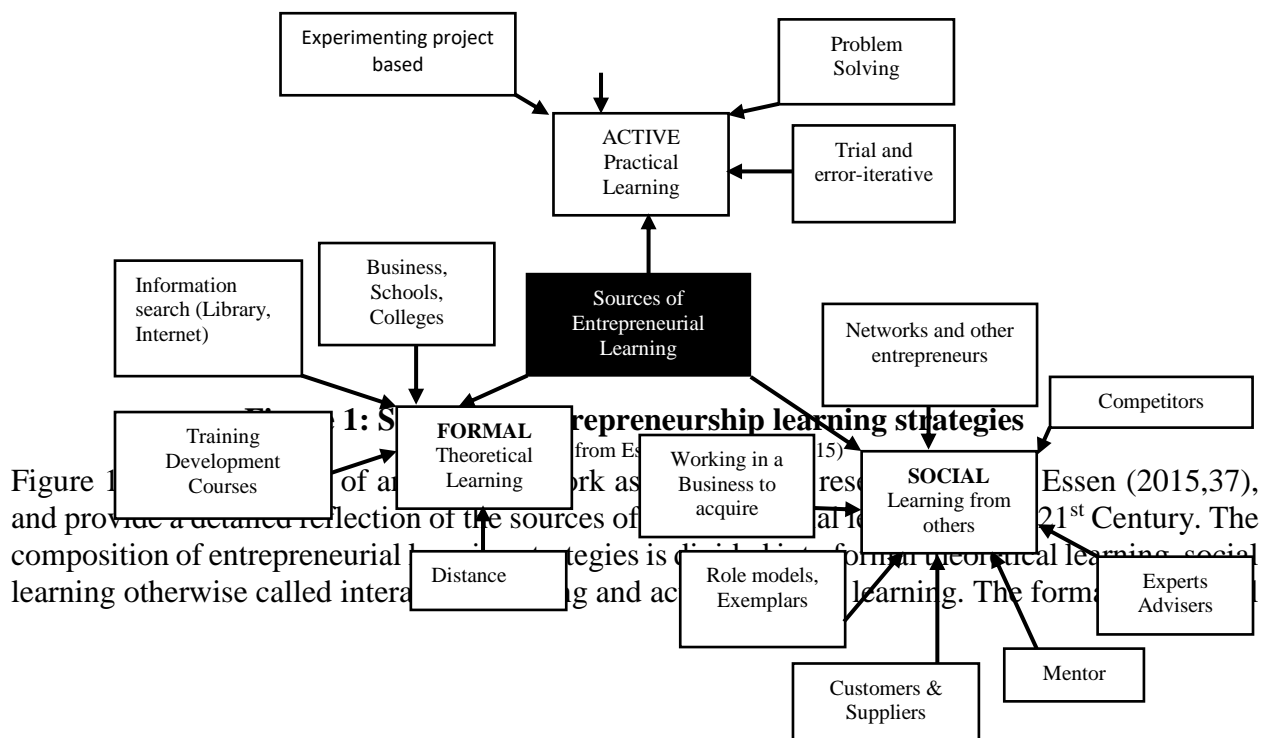


Figure 1: Sources of Entrepreneurial Learning and Entrepreneurship learning strategies. The diagram illustrates the sources of entrepreneurial learning and the strategies used to acquire knowledge. The central focus is 'Sources of Entrepreneurial Learning', which branches into 'FORMAL Theoretical Learning' and 'SOCIAL Learning from others'. 'FORMAL Theoretical Learning' is supported by 'Information search (Library, Internet)', 'Business, Schools, Colleges', and 'Training Development Courses'. 'SOCIAL Learning from others' is supported by 'Working in a Business to acquire', 'Role models, Exemplars', 'Customers & Suppliers', 'Mentor', and 'Experts Advisers'. 'SOCIAL Learning from others' also leads to 'ACTIVE Practical Learning', which is supported by 'Experimenting project based', 'Problem Solving', and 'Trial and error-iterative'. 'SOCIAL Learning from others' also leads to 'Entrepreneurship learning strategies', which includes 'Networks and other entrepreneurs', 'Competitors', and 'Distance'.

learning relates to information search in the documented materials in the schools' libraries, training centers and business schools. The compositions of social learning include the use of role-models or celebrities, mentorship expert advice, networking and working in business outfits. Essen's report further narrates the sources of practical learning activities to include learning from experiments/project-based activities, discovery or incidental sources, problem-solving and trial and error activities.

These sources of learning are contained in a similar study conducted in some selected Iranian universities by Esmi et al. (2015), which identifies the blend of arrays of methods as a strategy for entrepreneurship training. These multiple sources in a blended learning environment are also similar to a study by Isaacs et al.(2007) which maintains that allowing learners to pass through these learning sources could provide higher chances for individuals to know their personal strengths and weaknesses. It is maintained that the levels of progression are capable of facilitating improved understanding by engaging students in authentic economic and action-based activities.

The European Commission (in Volkmann et al. 2009) emphasised the need to pay attention to the personality of the young learners as key when determining how to teach entrepreneurship. According to the EU report, good practices in conducting the teaching and learning entrepreneurship consist the methods that foster creativity, initiative, self-efficacy, risk-taking and extra-curricular activities such as practice firms and student companies. Focus on skill acquisition should go beyond general knowledge to the specific need for business start-up, social or commercial entrepreneurship.

2.2 Entrepreneurial self-regulation (ESR) approach

This approach has also been found relevant to the learning of entrepreneurship. All persons self-regulate the selection of ends and means within a framework of moral ideals and norms (Carver and Scheier1998; Trevino, Weaver, and Reynolds2006). The implication is that self-regulation implies the modulation of thought, emotion, behaviour, or attention via the deliberate or automated use of specific mechanisms, supportive skills, which could help graduates become self-employed through trial methods.

A more flexible and self-regulated learning path will make entrepreneurship more suitable to learners (Clergeau and Schieb-Bienfait2007; Lans et al. 2010). By this, graduates are given a chance to know their personal strengths and weaknesses. This construct is capable of facilitating better understanding by engaging students in authentic economic and action-based activities like temporary buying and selling within the course setting.

This position is also supported by Bryant (2009), who argued that the entrepreneurial self-regulation approach is relevant to the learning of entrepreneurship. The individual person is believed to be self-regulated within a framework of moral ideals and norms. According to the previous author, self-regulation implies the modulation of thought, emotion, behaviour, or attention via the deliberate or automated use of specific mechanisms and supportive skills. A more flexible and self-regulated learning path could make entrepreneurship more suitable to learners. According to these authors, the self-regulation supposedly motivates a sense of responsibility to perform a certain task. It is submitted that if students are made to learn through a greater sense of self-regulation, they might rather be confident to setup their own businesses.

2.3 The concept of individual entrepreneurshipintention

The theory related to intention belongs to social cognitive theory, the domain which was proposed and developed by Bandura (1986). The fundamental principle of social cognitive theory according to Ratten and Ratten (2007) is that individuals can influence their own actions. Barone et al. (2012) and Davis (2006) explain social cognitive theory as a framework for understanding, predicting and changing the human behaviour. In the social cognitive context, intention models is a significant area of attention when considering how human behaviour can be predicted. Conner and Armitage (1998) earlier refer intentions to a person's motivation to make an effort to act upon a conscious plan or decisions. The implication is that forming entrepreneurial intention involves a person's conscious motivation to display a conscious effort towards behaving or performing the behaviour establishing a business venture.

Thompson (2009) further describes individual entrepreneurial intention as "self-acknowledged conviction by a person that they intend to set up a new business venture and consciously plan to do so at some point in the future". As stated by Thompson in his finding, entrepreneurial intention goes beyond a mere yes or no question; rather it is much more ranging from very low, average, zero, to a very high level of intention embark on business formation exercises. Such understanding aligns with the general principle as propounded by Ajzen that the stronger the individual intention is, the higher the probability the behaviour which could be displayed (Ajzen 1991). This mindset is also explained in Fayolle et al. (2006) while referring entrepreneurial intentions to a function as mediator or catalyst for actions. Thompson (2009, 670) summarises individual entrepreneurial intention thus as follows:

"Entrepreneurial intent is substantially more than merely a proxy for entrepreneurship - it is a legitimate and useful construct in its own right that can be used as not just a dependent, but as an independent and a control variable".

In a related development, the related studies conducted by (Armitage and Conner 2001; Gelderen et al. 2008) affirm individual intentions as a strong predictor of actual behaviour in applied settings. Many authors argue that the decision to become an entrepreneur and set up a business involves careful planning and a thinking process which is highly intentional (Autio et al. 2001). In entrepreneurial research, EI is linked to a good instance of planned, intentional behaviour and thus applicable to intention framework (Fayolle 2006). When considering tertiary level training in entrepreneurship HEIs, the issue of individual intention is assumed to be the best predictor of planned behaviour. The typical example as provided by Souitaris et al. (2007) is specifically related to a situation when such behaviour is "rare, hard to observe, or involves unpredictable time lags". As result of acceptability of EI, similar researchers often use this as a yardstick for measuring the significance of EET.

From the understanding as discussed in the paper, it could be difficult, if not impracticable to wait a long year to determine how many numbers of students eventually established real business after graduation. Taking individual entrepreneurial intention as variable to measure the impact in EE provides the benefit of determining the immediate influence of entrepreneurship education and training (EET) framework. The longer the delay in conducting post-measurement effects of an entrepreneurship programme, the greater likelihood the measurement bias arising from contextual and time effects might be. The implication according to Hytti and O'Gorman (2004) is that it might prove more difficult if not impossible to isolate the role of a single factor like an entrepreneurship programme in the business creation process. Consequently, in this paper, the concept of individual

entrepreneurial intention is adopted as it is a highly validated concept and capable of determining the influence graduate mindset for entrepreneurship.

Wilson (2008) referred to entrepreneurship as any training activities design to create awareness and skills for business creation to advance a career. The objective is to provide learners with relevant training exercises that give insight to identifying wealth creating opportunities and mindsets to undertake such ventures (Sherman et al. 2008). These skills among other things include initiating action, intuitive decision making and networking, identifying opportunities, creative problem solving, innovative and strategic thinking and personal effectiveness. Volkmann et al. (2009) also refer to EE as a lifelong programme for developing skills, attitudes and behaviours in individuals. The idea plays a very crucial role in training graduates with entrepreneurial acumen. The objectives of such a programme include developing drive, ability to identify and exploit entrepreneurial opportunities among the learners. This is achievable by imparting relevant skills in the students for initiating and managing businesses.

Daniela, Rainer, Norbert and Birgit(2016,173) explained entrepreneurial intention in the context of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), which provides that entrepreneurship intention is a function of three cognitive factors that include attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms and behaviour control. Daniela's report further stresses the fact that the intention of an individual precedes the actual behaviour. It is proposed that the stronger the intention, the more likely the actual behaviour that would be performed. Also considered is the intentional change theory according to Slavich and Zimbardo (2012) with the assumption that individual behaviours shaped through five discoveries. These include:

- Establishing an idea-self and individual vision of what to become in the future;
- Determining a the real-self including an honest assessment of individual strength and weaknesses;
- Designing learning plan including the personal standard to attain in life to close the gap that exists between the idea and real self;
- Engage in those activities that allow individuals to practice or experiment perceived new behaviour; and
- Maintaining a close relationship with people who can be of assistance to move through all the steps towards achieving personal goals.

The traits that depict mindsets towards venturing to entrepreneurial activities are outlined in the report of the country's Quality Assurance Agency (2012). These qualities according to the report of the agency include personality and social identity, personal confidence and resilience and personal ambition and goals. Others include self-discipline and personal organisation, understanding of one's motivation, the ability to go beyond perceived limitations and achieve goals, tolerance for uncertainty, ambiguity, risk, failure; and personal values like ethical, social and environmental awareness. A comparative study among some Sub-Saharan African countries as contains in figure 2 expatiate some of these qualities in relations to entrepreneurial practices.

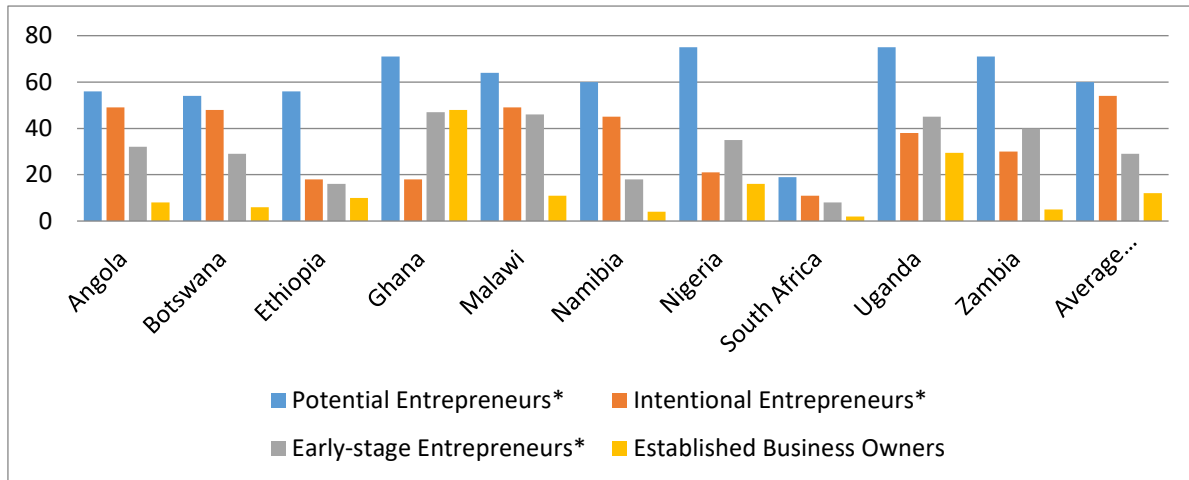


Figure 3.4: Entrepreneurial practices in Sub-Saharan African country

Source: Herrington and Kelley (2012), Global Entrepreneurship Monitor

The report in figure 2, obtained from African Entrepreneurship Sub-Saharan Regional research, shows that Nigeria, among other countries in Africa such as Angola, Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Uganda and Zambia, possess high potential for would-be entrepreneurs but generally the intentions among the citizens are weak (Herrington and Kelley 2012). For instance, intentional entrepreneurs in countries like Angola is about 63%, Botswana 63%, Malawi 63%, Namibia 61% Uganda 50%, Zambia 30%, while in Nigeria and South Africa intentional entrepreneurs only account for 19% and 13% respectively. The implication is that Nigeria is among the least countries with lowest youth entrepreneurship participation in Sub-Saharan Africa. This scenario is not devoid of the educational group within the country especially the university graduates (Uduak and Aniefiok, 2011).

For instance, Rae et al. (2012) explain that the graduates' average rates of engagement in entrepreneurship in Europe are between 16 - 23%. The study further explains that the average is as low as less than 5% in most developing countries in Africa including Nigeria. The literature confirms that the intentions of students in HEIs in Nigeria remain how to secure remunerative employment after graduation (Ekundayo and Durowaiye, 2014; Mohammed et al. 2014). The analysis as presented in the study conducted by Musa and Adewale (2015) indicates that university graduates with a willingness for self-employment is as low as 6% in Nigeria. The low level of graduates' engagement in entrepreneurial activities according to (Fayolle and Linan 2014; Kuttim et al. 2014), is perhaps due to the scarcity of empirical studies that determine the significance of sub-field of T&L methods in the context of entrepreneurial intentions. The Global Entrepreneurial Monitor established that the level of post-secondary education participation is directly proportional to the level of entrepreneurial activities in any country (Nieuwenhuizen and Kanoon, 2002).

Consequent upon this development, concerted efforts have been made at bridging the dichotomy between the expected outcome and actual performances of education systems, particularly in the context of entrepreneurship education (EE). Among these efforts possibly informed "Entrepreneurs of Africa" as the choice of the theme of the 18th Annual African Renaissance Conference, held in South Africa in 2016. At the conference, different education institutions and stakeholders on entrepreneurship across African countries participated. The issue of what should be the acceptable framework for teaching and learning entrepreneurship and how the framework

could be integrated into the schools' programme, dominated the conference proceedings (Ibuya Newsmagazine2016). At the end of the conference, one major resolution was the quest for developing an innovative framework for entrepreneurship, across higher education institutions in Africa. Such framework according to the conference resolution should be developed within an individual country's educational system, cultural practices, political inclination, socio-economic endowment and physical environmental characteristics.

This paper considers how individuals could develop entrepreneurial traits and intention to become entrepreneurs. Earlier, Ibeh and Ugboaja, (2008) noted that everyone might be innately endowed with entrepreneurial traits which can be manifested by an individual's motives, skills and actions. The extent to which entrepreneurial motives and actions manifest depends on cultural, institutional, business, social and environmental influences (Storey and Salaman 2005). Entrepreneurial disposition could happen by chance when people are carrying out multi-faceted activities perceived to have institutional support in a complex system, (George, Jain and Maltarich 2005). For instance, in an investigation by Musa and Adewale (2015), when asked where and how respondents draw their entrepreneurial inspirations, results further indicate that as much as 96% student participants were encouraged by their parents. Similarly, about 72% respondents were attracted by friends and other social groups. Similarly, about 87% of the respondents drew their inspiration from the lecturers and academic tutors while about 40% were attracted by the success story of the entrepreneurs in history.

Earlier scholars like Fiac-Mmeremiku (2010); Peterman and Kennedy (2003) support the view that individuals can be systematically taught or trained to develop a mindset for entrepreneurship. According to them, training can shift intentionality and perceptions about entrepreneurial behaviour. Irtwange (2008) also shows that training stimulates a person's interest in entrepreneurship and enhances such a person's ability to act entrepreneurially. The approaches to learning entrepreneurship could stimulate students into developing self-awareness through which acquiring specific skills are achievable.

The literature on the characteristics of entrepreneurship reveals that psychological attributes such as behavioural, psychological and sociological could influence entrepreneurial practices (Hamidi et al. 2008; Okhomina2010). Similar findings further explain that psychological attributes are used to predict a person's entrepreneurial propensity, tendencies and mindset for entrepreneurship. The behavioural attributes relate to the manifestation of entrepreneurial skills in individuals' life. It is noted that individual entrepreneurs with certain psychological traits have the potential to exhibit a certain entrepreneurial orientation (Okhomina,2010). Hence, entrepreneurship characteristics including the need for achievement, ability to take the risk, tolerance for ambiguity and locus of control are assumed as correlates of desiring behaviour or intentions of an individual for entrepreneurship. Okhomina's findings further identify sociological attributes, on the other hand, as dealing with environmental issues influencing individual mindset for entrepreneurship. As such, personal attributes such as value orientation, creativity, innovativeness, risk-taking ability, self-esteem and readiness for change also motivates readiness for entrepreneurial ventures.

On the other hand, a manifestation of entrepreneurial behaviour is linked to those characteristics like self-confidence and creativity, task result orientation, leadership, innovative approach to problem-solving; risk-taking; originality and future orientation (Heinonen and Poikkijoki2006). In the same vein, Glassman (2003) describes other additional attributes like the mix of power and motivation for achievement, the ability to work strategically, networking skills, personal drive and

team spirit as also required for manifestation as entrepreneurs. These additional attributes sum up to an aggregate of ideas required to form a formidable entrepreneurially minded team. All these studies are preludes to an understanding of how entrepreneurial entities, particular individuals, can develop entrepreneurial attitudes.

3.0 Research Methods

The research strategy applied in this paper is the mixed method approach, using both quantitative and qualitative sources of data collection. The use of quantitative data is relevant when investigations involve big inquiries involving public and private organisations (Kothari 2004, p.100). These sources are in line with the methods used in the field of management sciences (Bubou and Okrigwe 2011; Cooper and Schinder 2003). This is because the actions and reactions of respondent form part of the data upon which the researcher draws out conclusions (Creswell, 2009, p.174). The choice of mixed methods is premised on the need to take advantage of the differences between quantitative and qualitative methods. The research explores the perception and experience of the university students and lecturers respectively. The study also explores the professional opinion of academic planning experts in the context of entrepreneurship curriculum content development, adoption and implementation in some selected universities in Southwest, Nigeria.

The participants are drawn from three universities, comprising federal, state and private universities. These categories of study participants (students, lecturers and academic planning professionals), satisfy the population groups relevant for determining a learning framework (Adunola 2011; Ganyanpful 2013). Additionally, the participants were students at the final year level of their studies and some at the postgraduate levels, who have completed all their modules in entrepreneurship. These groups of respondents are considered as likely more matured and able to make an informed judgment when compared with students in the lower classes. The inclusion of student population as a simple in this nature of the empirical study is also justified by Mueller 2004 (cited in Ozaralli and Rivenburgh, 2016), as potential future entrepreneurs and those with no intention to engage in entrepreneurship. Studying students' population, therefore, could facilitate easy understanding of the studied phenomenon before they occur.

Similarly, the lecturers' population comprised the academic staff responsible for teaching and research in the universities. The members of university academic planning are responsible for regulating the academic curriculum, planning and implementation in the universities. Data collection in this paper involves the use of a questionnaire to obtain the quantitative data from the students and the lecturers while semi-structured interview questions were used to elicit interview questions from the group comprising curriculum planning professionals in the selected universities. Members of academic staff in the three universities were also included in the investigation. This approach is justified on the premise that the lecturers who implement the curriculum, teach entrepreneurship modules and assess student performance and are critical factors in determining appropriate learning model (Adunola, 2011).

In a related development, a similar empirical study conducted in University of Putra, Malaysia by (Akinboye and Pihie, 2014), which determines EE in relations to graduate entrepreneurial intentions, purposively engaged the captive population of students as respondents. Similarly, a study by Arasti et al. (2012, 6) on three Tehrani universities, purposively sampled the expert opinions of the lecturers to determine the influence of EE. In the same vein, Esmi et al. (2015) also considered the expert opinion of the curriculum planners to validate an integrated framework for

EE in the context of Iranian universities. This paper, therefore, aligns with preceding submissions by considering students and lecturers perspectives as well as expert opinions of the selected members of Academic Planning and Curriculum Development Committee (APCDC) of the three universities.

By triangulating data collection techniques, questionnaires were administered to a sample of 701 respondents comprising undergraduate and postgraduate students and lecturers of three selected universities in Southwest, Nigeria using stratified and systematic sampling techniques. A response rate of 93.66% was achieved. In-depth interviews were also conducted with nine (9) senior academic planning experts in the three selected universities. Advanced total content analysis (TCA) of the qualitative data and descriptive as well as inferential statistical analysis including Pearson's correlation, t-tests and regression analyses of the quantitative data at the 0.05 level of significance, were used to address the research objectives using the Statistical Programme for Social Science (SPSS, version 23).

At the bivariate level of the analysis involving inferential statistics, Pearson correlation coefficient was used to examine the relationship between two variables while analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate the difference in means as appropriate. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) explain Pearson correlation coefficient as a statistical tool useful to measure the direction, strength and significance of bivariate relationships among research variables in a given study. The multivariate analysis of the data employed multiple linear regression to depict the effect of each independent variable on the dependent variables (entrepreneurial intentions and practices) when interacting with other variables. This interaction enables independent consideration of variables that consistently influence the graduates' entrepreneurial intentions and practice in the study area. Also, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted using the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) approach to extract latent factors that are most relevant to entrepreneurial intentions and practice among graduates in Nigerian universities. The paper ensured that all assumptions of each statistical test were satisfied, and all analyses were carried out at 0.05 level of significance.

The qualitative data in this research work is coded and analysed using thematic content analysis (TCA) techniques. Boyatzis (1998) explains the use of TCA as encoding the interview responses into relevant themes and merge the information that is relevant to each theme. This technique examines words or phrases in the data collected for a study. Descriptive statistics are used to describe the demographic attributes of the selected sample.

4.0 Results And Discussion Of Findings

Analyses under this section relating to research objective in this paper which depicts the interplay between entrepreneurial self-regulation, self-efficacy and learners' practices. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) and entrepreneurship self-regulation (ESR) effects reveal the propensity of the locus of control and the significant influence on entrepreneurial intention. Substantial of the data analyses establish the extent of the relationship ESE and ESR as a student-centered learning strategy. Such self-practice activities are perceived to have a positive influence on graduates' entrepreneurial behaviour as a complementary mediating strategy as presented as follows:

Table 1: Entrepreneurial self-efficacy, self-regulation and practice

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	Total		
	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	N=665	Mean	SD
Self-practice and self-efficacy could enhance creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance.	14 (2.1)	11 (1.7)	8 (1.2)	92 (14.1)	358 (54.9)	169 (25.4)	652	4.957	0.972
Student self-practice provide practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge.	6 (0.9)	8 (1.2)	16 (2.5)	65 (10.0)	356 (54.7)	200 (30.7)	651	5.085	0.870
Self-efficacy will inculcate in students the confidence to perform specific tasks to their own ability.	7 (1.1)	8 (1.2)	17 (2.6)	69 (10.6)	354 (54.5)	195 (30.0)	650	5.062	0.890
Self-regulation prepares students for opportunity recognition and innovation to establish their own business.	7 (1.1)	10 (1.5)	11 (1.7)	96 (14.8)	336 (51.8)	189 (29.1)	649	5.020	0.905

Under table 1, the result shows the significances of self-regulation, efficacy and self-practice factors on entrepreneurial intention and practice of graduates in the selected Nigerian universities. The result indicated that 94.4% of the respondents agreed that self-practice and self-efficacy could enhance creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance; the responses produced a mean and standard deviation of 4.96 and 0.97 respectively. Also, about 95% believed that student self-practice provides practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge; their responses resulted in an average rating of 5.09 (SD=0.87). Furthermore, 94.6% of the participants were of the opinion that self-efficacy will inculcate in students the confidence to perform specific tasks to their own ability (mean=5.06, SD=0.89). An even larger proportion (95.7%) agreed that self-regulation prepares students for opportunity recognition and innovation to establish their own business (mean=5.02, SD=0.91). This result indicated that a majority of the respondents agreed that the listed self-regulation, efficacy and practice would improve graduates' entrepreneurial intention and practice in the study area.

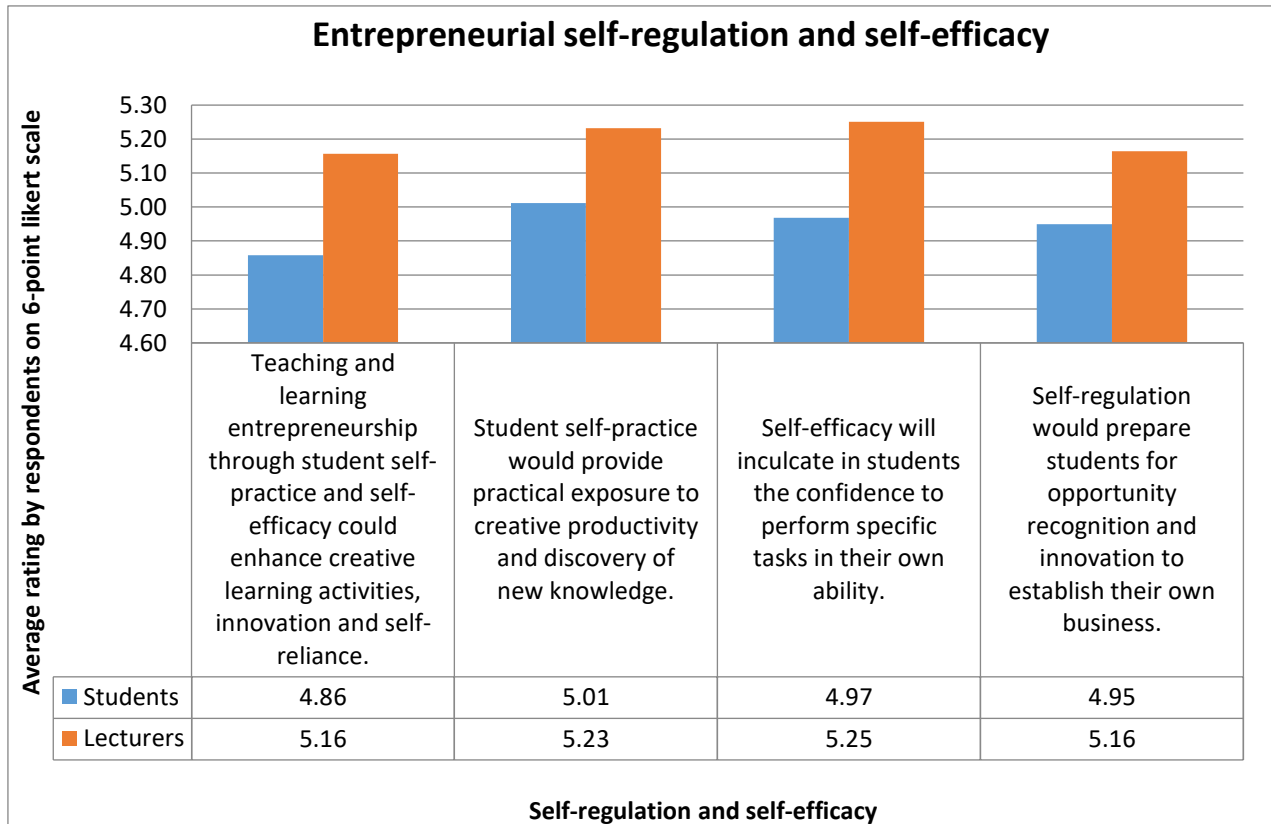


Figure 3: Entrepreneurial self-efficacy and self-regulation

In figure 3, the result shows that relevance of teaching and learning entrepreneurship through self-regulation, self-efficacy and practice to entrepreneurial intention were rated high by both students and lecturers used for the research. However, lecturers' rating of each item was higher compared to those of the students. The understanding as earlier stated under the literature review provides that a more flexible and self-regulated learning path could make entrepreneurship more suitable to learners (Clergeau and Schieb-Bienfait 2007; Lans et al. 2010). By this, graduates are given a chance to know their personal strengths and weaknesses. This construct is capable of facilitating better understanding by engaging students in authentic economic and action-based activities like temporary buying and selling within the course setting.

This position is also supported by Bryant (2009), who argues that entrepreneurial self-regulation approach is relevant to the learning of entrepreneurship. The individual person is believed to be self-regulated within a framework of moral ideals and norms.

Table 2: Relationship between entrepreneurial self-regulation, self-efficacy and intentions

SN		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Prefer government/private job to entrepreneurship						
2	Prefer government/private job before moving into entrepreneurship	.382**					
3	Prefer combining government/private job with entrepreneurship	.136**	.360**				
4	Self-practice and self-efficacy could enhance creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance.	.098*	.161**	.175**			
5	Student self-practice provide practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge.	.090*	.173**	.119**	.677**		

6	Self-efficacy will inculcate in students the confidence to perform specific tasks to their own ability.	.101*	.141**	.135**	.553**	.669**	
7	Self-regulation prepares students for opportunity recognition and innovation to establish their own business.	.116**	.091*	.114**	.482**	.522**	.576**

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

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

The results displayed in table 2, show that graduates' preference for employment with government or private company rather than going into entrepreneurship was significantly related to self-practice and self-efficacy for enhancing creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance ($r = 0.098$, $p < 0.05$). The student self-practice also provides practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge ($r = 0.090$, $p < 0.05$), self-efficacy for inculcating in students the confidence to perform specific tasks to their own ability ($r = 0.101$, $p < 0.05$) and self-regulation for preparing students for opportunity recognition and innovation to establish their own business ($r = 0.116$, $p < 0.01$).

Similarly, preference for employment with government or private company before moving into entrepreneurship was significantly related to self-practice and self-efficacy in enhancing creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance ($r = 0.161$, $p < 0.01$). Student self-practice provides practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge ($r = 0.173$, $p < 0.01$). Self-efficacy inculcating in students the confidence to perform specific tasks to their own ability ($r = 0.141$, $p < 0.01$) and self-regulation preparing students for opportunity recognition and innovation to establish their own business ($r = 0.091$, $p < 0.05$).

The result shows a similar relationship between preferred combining government/private job with entrepreneurship and self-practice and self-efficacy enhancing creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance ($r = 0.175$, $p < 0.01$). Student self-practice provides practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge ($r = 0.119$, $p < 0.01$) while self-efficacy inculcating in students the confidence to perform specific tasks to their own ability ($r = 0.135$, $p < 0.01$) and self-regulation preparing students for opportunity recognition and innovation to establish their own business ($r = 0.114$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 3: Effect of entrepreneurial self-regulation, self-efficacy on entrepreneurial intention

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% C. I.		Model diagnosis
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Prefer government/ private job to entrepreneurship								
(Constant)	3.112	.408		7.619	.000	2.310	3.914	R = 0.128
Ability of self-practice and self-efficacy to enhance creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance.	.061	.086	.039	.713	.476	-.108	.230	R squared = 0.016
Ability of student self-practices to provide practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge.	-.014	.108	-.008	-.128	.898	-.225	.198	Adjusted R ² = 0.010
Effectiveness of self-efficacy in inculcating in students the confidence to perform specific tasks to their own ability.	.068	.098	.039	.692	.489	-.124	.259	F=2.646

Efficiency of self-regulation in preparing students for opportunity recognition and innovation to establish their own business.	.134	.084	.080	1.598	.111	-.031	.299	p=0.033
Prefer government /private job first before moving into entrepreneurship								
(Constant)	3.36 3	.319		10.53 7	.000	2.736	3.990	R = 0.195
Ability of self-practice and self-efficacy to enhance creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance.	.103	.067	.083	1.541	.124	-.028	.235	R squared = 0.038
Ability of student self-practices to provide practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge.	.159	.084	.114	1.884	.060	-.007	.324	Adjusted R ² =0.032
Effectiveness of self-efficacy in inculcating in students the confidence to perform specific tasks totheir own ability.	.055	.076	.041	.724	.469	-.094	.205	F=6.315
Efficiency of self-regulation in preparing students for opportunity recognition and innovation to establish their own business.	- .040	.066	-.030	-.607	.544	-.169	.089	p<0.001
Prefer combining government /private job with entrepreneurship								
(Constant)	3.15 3	.329		9.573	.000	2.506	3.800	R = 0.187
Ability of self-practice and self-efficacy to enhance creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance.	.205	.069	.160	2.949	.003	.068	.341	R squared = 0.035
Ability of student self-practices to provide practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge.	- .057	.087	-.040	-.655	.513	-.227	.114	Adjusted R ² =0.029
Effectiveness of self-efficacy in inculcating in students the confidence to perform specific tasks totheir own ability.	.085	.079	.061	1.077	.282	-.070	.239	F=5.809
Efficiency of self-regulation in preparing students for opportunity recognition and innovation to establish their own business.	.035	.068	.025	.516	.606	-.098	.168	p<0.001

The results of multivariate analysis using multiple regression analysis in Table 3 depict the effect of self-regulation, self-efficacy and practice on the entrepreneurial intention of graduates in the study area. The R-squared values of 0.016, 0.038 and 0.035 in preference for government or private job other than entrepreneurship, preference for government or private job before going into entrepreneurship and preference for combining government or private job and entrepreneurship models respectively. This implies that the self-regulation, self-efficacy and self-practice variables account for only 1.6%, 3.8%, and 3.5% of the variations in each of graduates' entrepreneurial intentions respectively.

The F-statistic in all the models indicates the significance of the independent variables used (self-regulation, self-efficacy and self-practice variables) on the dependent variables (graduates' preference for government or private job other than entrepreneurship, preference for government or private job before going into entrepreneurship and preference for combining government or private job and entrepreneurship). From the result, the F-statistic diagnosing the fitness of the model shows that all the independent variables were statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) in the models.

Considering the significance of each of the independent variables used, the result shows that nearly all the independent variables had any significant effect on graduates' preference for government

or private job, other than entrepreneurship and preference for government or private job before going into entrepreneurship. The preference for combining government or private job and entrepreneurship except the opinion that self-practice and self-efficacy could enhance creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance ($t=2.949$, $p<0.01$). The unstandardized regression coefficients indicated, a unit increase in the perceived ability of self-practice and self-efficacy to enhance creative learning activities, innovation and self-reliance will increase graduates' intention to combine government or private job and entrepreneurship in the study area by 0.205, other factors remaining constant. The standardised coefficient implied an effect of 16.0% standard deviation increase in graduates' intention to combine government or private job with entrepreneurship, for a unit standard deviation increase in the variable.

The result further shows that the ability of student self-practices to provide practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge displayed evidence of strong effect though significantly ($t=1.884$, $p=0.60$) on the graduates' intention to seek government or a private job first before moving into entrepreneurship. Hence, the unstandardized regression coefficient indicated that a unit increases in the ability of student self-practices to provide practical exposure to creative productivity and discovery of new knowledge would yield increase in graduates' intention to seek government or a private job first before moving into entrepreneurship by 0.159, other factors held constant. The unstandardized regression coefficient suggested that for every standard deviation increase in the variable, graduate preference for government or private job first before moving into entrepreneurship will increase by 0.114 standard deviations.

The perceptions of the academic planning professionals were explored regarding the significance of self-practices, self-efficacy and self-regulation in the context of developing entrepreneurial intention of university graduates. The findings as provided by the academic planning experts served as a contemporary study to similar other empirical studies in the past. When sought to know if self-efficacy, entrepreneurship orientation, self-regulation, networking, simulation and business games could form the framework for developing graduate entrepreneurs, all the participants were unanimous in their thoughts as follows:

“Entrepreneurship education requires exposure; it's a practical venture. Beyond what is learned in the school, fieldwork will create practical experience including sending graduates on internship will further stimulate the orientation. Inviting entrepreneurs would help to complement what we do in school. The school cannot do all it all alone, encouraging academic staff to take students out on field trips. Similarly, the idea of blended learning could be the framework allowing the student to interact with the international research institute within and outside the country. Definitely, conferences and seminars will make the students learn more and interact with those who have the skills. Mentoring self-practices and counseling services are very critical. These will go a long way to assist the students. The mentor will be there as a guide whenever the situations are not going on well”.

The respondents' opinions are synonymous to the understanding that the need for achievement is significantly related to the expectations of the individual to do something better than others or better than what was earlier achieved. The responses agree with the investigation carried out by Amari et al. (2014), which establishes the significance of individual factors like personal motivation, need for achievement, the quest for autonomy and individual passion for ideas as influential on graduates' entrepreneurial intentions. In the same vein, some of the academic planning experts opined that through self-practices and self-efficacy, individual learners have the potential to be attracted to the tasks that are considered highly challenging. The respondents also affirmed that when such difficult tasks are achieved, this could lead to self-actualisation and self-

esteem. The implication is that such self-practices can provide a direct link between individual efforts and the accomplishment of meaningful tasks. Hence, the respondents show that individuals with the high need for achievement have potential to record high learning outcomes in EE.

The results of both the quantitative and qualitative studies in this research showed that individual participation in enterprise activities is largely influenced by entrepreneurship self-efficacy, which subsequently heighten entrepreneurial behaviour and intentions. Such finding is in tandem with astudyby (Hamidi et al., 2008), which argues that individual employment status choice either to be self-employed or work for others is significantly motivated by individual perceived behavioural control. There are divergent findings whether or not ESE influences learners' intentions. Some of the previous studies established no significance influence (Fayolle2007; Von Graevenitz, 2010,9), while some others established positive impacts (Wu and Wu2008; Santoso, 2016).

4.1 Managerial Implications

The findings of this empirical paper are cumulated as having implications for entrepreneurship educators. The research creates understanding into entrepreneurship educators' roles in motivating entrepreneurial intention and behaviour through the likelihood of engaging blended learning oriented synergy as a learning framework. In addition to the development of knowledge and skills, entrepreneurship educators could also inculcate value orientation for entrepreneurship among university graduates. Such valuations could positively enhance entrepreneurial intention and subsequent behaviour. Among such valuation, as investigated in this paper are the use of case studies, celebrities, role play, field activities and stakeholder inclusion. The use of these groups is capable of portraying good images of successful entrepreneurs, which in turn could influence graduate perceptions and thinking for future entrepreneurship endeavours.

The findings of this paper also show that the task of imparting entrepreneurial skills requires aggregation of knowledge with other knowledge providers. The paper provides the university management with a framework, which attempts to strike a balance between entrepreneurship education and training in the context of entrepreneurship programmes in HEIs. Such framework integrates learning the principles and practices through complementary activities, cross-disciplinary exchange training, mentoring, self-regulation, industrial attachment, business networking, internship and business simulations. The research also provides understanding to how the model of learning influences individual entrepreneurial intentions.

The results of the investigations cumulated to the development of the measurable framework, which describes the relationship between delivery strategies, prior experience, self-efficacy and individual entrepreneurial behaviours proposed by Ajzen's Theory. The results do not only establish the significance of the surveyed variables on graduate entrepreneurial intentions but also provides reforms to policies on entrepreneurship schools' education programmes. The research outcomes further provide a leeway to a programme of action towards effective implementation of university EET in term of quality and quantity for preparing the functional foundation for an individual to succeed in future entrepreneurship.

4.3. Limitations and Implication ror Future Research

One feature that is common to all empirical research, is the issue of limitations to their studies. There is no exception to this research when considering the imports of this study. This research is limited in term of data collected from the study population of the students, lecturers and curriculum planning professionals from the three selected universities in Southwest, Nigeria. The content of

information limits the results of the research to the studied participants, which also limits the findings to the three universities, where the research was conducted. The implication is that the findings of this research must be considered within the context of the study. Similarly, other limitations that are associated with the empirical investigation is located within the case study research design. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p.293) note that time parameters, exaggerated bias, over-simplicity, issues of reliability, validity and generalisation are often among limitations associated with the use of case study research design. Descombe (2010, 60) also notes that such limitations of the case study research design either quantitative or qualitative can be a signpost of the local or temporal context in which the study is conducted, thereby undermining the application to the wider context.

Another limitation it is noted in the argument that it might be difficult to generalise the findings of this study due to other limitations including participating universities, cultural factors, the system of education and peculiarity of the environment such as the southwest region of Nigeria. This argument is closely linked to the understanding that data obtained from only the selected universities cannot be deemed to have represented the rest of the universities outside this study. Nonetheless, the data contributed by the participating universities in this research could not be considered insignificant. This is in consideration of the fact that information obtained in this research is deemed to have provided insights into the teaching and learning entrepreneurship in HEIs. This submission agrees with Larsson's (2009,30) argument that the issue of generalisation of research findings may after all not be necessary, because of results of similar case study researchers in the past are also meaningful without swiping generalisation. In view of other factors like environmental, institutional, social, infrastructural, religious, laws and government regulations including finance and funding effects on entrepreneurial practices in the new knowledge economy, a comparative study of similar nature could also be conducted in other developing economies of the world for more robust research in such a way that could give the designed framework a global outlook.

5.0 Conclusion

The outlook of effective EET revolves around arrays of teaching and learning strategies desired by entrepreneurial stakeholders in the university: students, lecturers and academic planning professionals. The research work explored different studies to explain pedagogical interventions relevant to knowledge acquisition, retention and transfer in entrepreneurship education. The development of EET does not only have a critical role to play in influencing individual entrepreneurial culture but also significant at creating the knowledge requires for business start-up, survival and growth. The paper also established the need for EET curriculum to include a strong practical orientation with a focus on real-life problems. The paper established the influence of quality entrepreneurship education as a key determinant of quality entrepreneurial learning outcomes. It is established that the system of education must be right to the students and the lecturers. The students' poor academic performances are strongly related to the application of teaching and learning methods that are ineffective to the learning objectives.

Through the findings of this research, the issue of whether or not entrepreneurial self-efficacy has a significant influence on individual entrepreneurial intention is considered in the context of this research. The essence is for the findings in this investigation to act as contemporary research to the earlier studies conducted mostly in the developed economies. The aim was for the research to either confirm or refute earlier discrepancies in the results of the past studies. Review of the earlier studies indicates that while some studies establish a positive relationship between ESE, ESR and

entrepreneurial desirability. From the findings of this investigation, it is evidence that a significant relationship exists between ESE, ESR and possible entrepreneurial intentions of an individual. Such findings agree with earlier studies which established a positive relationship. In the same vein, the findings of this research also refute other investigations, which did not find any significant relationship between ESE, ESR and entrepreneurial desirability of people.

Unlike the current teacher-centred practices, where lecturers dominate the class work and dictate solely what students should do, the findings of this research provide empirical understanding into the significance of ESE, ESR and self-practice in the context of EET. These findings obtained from objective one to four and validated by the respondents therefore cumulated into an integrated framework offered for EDP in the university system around developing nations, like Nigeria.

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