Entrepreneurship Education in Nigerian Universities and Its Influence on Graduate Entrepreneurial Intention

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Abstract

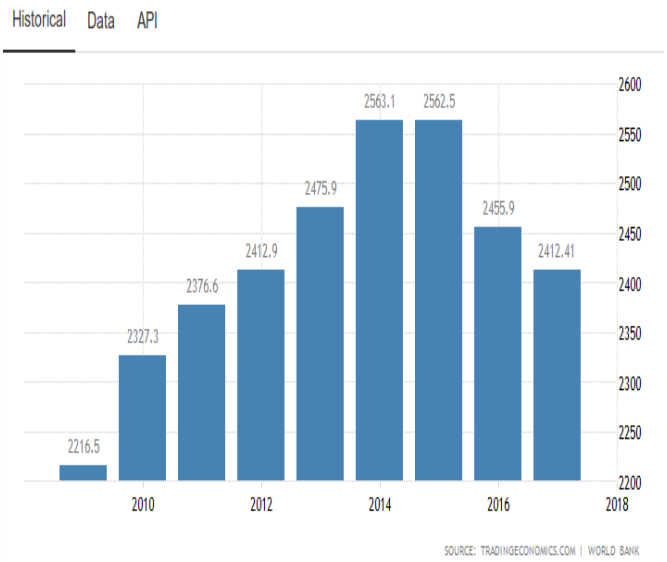
In 2006, the Nigerian Government decided to introduce a compulsory Entrepreneurship Module into the curriculum of all universities, the intention being to encourage economic activity while reducing unemployment, particularly amongst university graduates (Efi, 2014).
Thirteen years later we revisit six Nigerian universities to see how they have fared in their objectives and attempt to discern any weaknesses in their approach to entrepreneurial education. We use both qualitative and quantitative methods to tease out answers to our research questions such as the effect that such education is having on the intention of graduates to pursue entrepreneurial careers. We examine whether intention waxes or wanes as a result and the extent to which the attitudes of friends and family might influence this.
We also examine the methodologies employed by educators and question whether more innovative approaches might stimulate the interest of graduate students.
Most essentially we feel that compulsory entrepreneurship education fits well within developing countries and our observations may prove useful to policy makers and educators involved in formulating appropriate study modules.

Keywords - Nigerian, entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurial intention, graduates, innovative, methodologies

Nigeria: In Politico-Economic Context

Following the election of President Olusegun Obasanjo in 1999, Nigeria became a democratic federal republic ending 33 years of military rule. Whilst this election was perceived by observers to have been somewhat rigged in favour of Obasanjo - the former head of state, it nevertheless provided a platform for the subsequent election of Umaru Yar'Adua of the Peoples' Democratic Party (PDP) in 2007. The more recent election of Muhammadu Buhari of the All Progressive Congress in 2015 was viewed by observers as being ostensibly fair, but heralded a period of policy inactivity and economic mismanagement, whilst a sharp decline in the price of crude oil from 2014 to early 2016 propelled Nigeria into recession. This culminated in a declining economy and relatively high inflation of 11.28% (National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria, 2018).

Table 1: Nigeria GDP Expressed in Billions USD



This economic dereliction is unfortunately reflected in rising unemployment and during the second quarter of 2018 general unemployment was at 23.1% while youth unemployment has increased from 14.5% in 2014 to 36.5% (National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria, 2018).
With a population approaching 200 million and estimated to rise to 399 million by 2050, almost one in four sub-Saharan people reside in Nigeria, making it Africa's most highly populated country (www.wenr.org, 2019). Thus, the present level of youth and graduate unemployment is of serious concern, increasing at an alarming rate since mid-1980s. This is accompanied by considerable socio-economic complications, not only in terms of the poverty it creates but also its predication for criminal activities and the insurgence of Boko Haram (Adeyeye and Tugbobo, 2011). Moreover, the government have been facing criticism that the high rate of graduate unemployment has been caused by inadequate provision for job creation in the country's development plans.

In spite of the economic downturn, Nigerian policy makers have not been oblivious to the consensus that entrepreneurship is an essential component and key driver of economic growth, international competitiveness, and innovation (Wong, *et al.* 2005; Başçi and Alkan, 2015).
Consequently, in 2002 the Nigerian government directed that entrepreneurship education be inserted into the university education curriculum as a compulsory module for all undergraduates (NUC 2011) in an effort to address graduate unemployment issues (Aliu, 2008; Adejimola and Tayo-Olajubutu, 2009; Yahya, 2011) while also providing economic benefits from entrepreneurial activity. The primary objective of this directive is to produce enterprising individuals who will generate jobs instead of seeking them.

Despite the launch of this and other initiatives, policy makers still find it difficult to effectively resolve or reduce graduate unemployment (ILO, 2011). Some of the attempts of government include the launch of the National Directorate of Employment (NDE), National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN) among others.
This revelation suggests a line of enquiry regarding the effectiveness of Nigeria's entrepreneurship education programmes in encouraging graduate students to explore potential business opportunities. Might any lack of enthusiasm be due to the quality of teaching or could it be directed at the methodologies employed in teaching the subject?
It also questions whether students who undergo such programmes have an intention to pursue entrepreneurial activities and whether this is strengthened or weakened in the transition from under-graduate to graduate. In the final analysis are the entrepreneurship education programmes in Nigerian universities sufficiently stimulating to induce graduates to pursue entrepreneurial opportunities?
Ultimately we ideally need to examine present implementation strategies and propose methodologies and mechanisms whereby present practices may be improved to the betterment of entrepreneurship programmes and their graduates.

Entrepreneurial Intention

In considering entrepreneurial intentions and attitudes we should perhaps ponder the reason people choose entrepreneurial paths and the extent to which the choice is voluntary (Dawson and Henley, 2012). Different factors are reasoned to be responsible for the choice of entrepreneurial path, some of which are believed to be learnable and associated with the perception of the individual. Hence, galvanizing these variables becomes essential to the promotion of entrepreneurship (Law and Breznik, 2017).

In the same vein, entrepreneurial attitudes both at individual and societal levels are thought to explain how entrepreneurial intentions are formed. Equally, entrepreneurial decisions are influenced and conditioned by personal or family characteristics, as well as social-cultural attitudes towards entrepreneurship (Bosma and Schutjens, 2011). The presence of entrepreneurial attitude in a society can be indicative of a broad cohort of active entrepreneurs. In this sense an entrepreneurial community could feature people with positive attitudes towards entrepreneurial activities despite lacking institutional support or other infrastructures that start-ups typically depend on.

Entrepreneurial attitudes, occur at both micro and macro levels and the macro level entrepreneurial attitude exerts influence on the micro (individual) level attitude. Arguably, entrepreneurial attitude at the macro level could be the specific cultural attitude component that reflects persistent beliefs, norms and values of a group of people (Bosma and Schutjens, 2011) and thus suggests that culture is possibly indispensable in the development of positive attitude towards entrepreneurial intention.

A study in Macedonia and Slovenia among business school students indicated that many of the student that had entrepreneurs in their families planned to either establish businesses in the future or were already running their businesses (Diegoli *et al*., 2014). This suggests that having an entrepreneur family member could nurture positive attitudes towards entrepreneurship. Similarly, it is thought that the more positive a person's attitude towards risk-taking, the more the tendency towards self-employment (*op. cit*). Given the importance of attitude to intention formation, there is a perceived need to examine the level of entrepreneurial attitudes stimulated in Nigerian graduates to determine the elements in the curriculum that require improvement, or need to be incorporated in order to enhance the development of graduates' entrepreneurial attitudes.

To measure the elements that influence intention, Gird and Bagraim (2008) proposed four additional elements to the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) in order to deduce its theoretical adequacy. This study subsequently demonstrated that of the four factors – situational, demographic, personality traits and prior experience, only prior experience of entrepreneurship made a significant contribution to the predictive ability of TPB.
The insignificant outcomes from the other three factors might not necessarily be assumed to have no predictive ability but rather as having limited predictive ability or low explanatory capacities (Liñán, *et al*., 2002; Krueger, *et al.,* 2000; Reynolds, *et al*., 1997; Robinson, *et al.,* 1991) which in some instances could very well be context related. Thus, when similar factors affect entrepreneurship in different countries, these factors are not likely to be equivalent across all, and regional variations might result in diverse research outcomes.

The entrepreneurial attitude of individuals is said to be encapsulated by a combination of the perception of start-up opportunities, fear of failure and the knowledge and skills required for setting up businesses (Bosma and Schutjens, 2011). The values of people differ and their capabilities, preferences and ability to see opportunities are thought to influence their decisions to engage in entrepreneurial activities (Bosma and Schutjens, 2011). In this sense, the

way an individual feels towards a behaviour largely affects the disposition to the behaviour.
Despite the role of entrepreneurship in economic growth and the fact that positive attitude drives entrepreneurship, attitudes towards entrepreneurship are generally accepted to significantly vary across different nations (Bosma and Schutjens, 2011). Consequently, the ability to positively influence such a disposition would appear important to entrepreneurship which tends to depend on a societal acceptance or otherwise of entrepreneurship. In view of the differences in attitude towards entrepreneurship in diverse countries, it is important to contextualize this in developing countries such as Nigeria where there are limited studies, knowledge and understanding of this perspective.

It is thought that positive entrepreneurial attitudes are crucial for a strong market economy is essential for job creation and economic restoration (Jackson and Rodkey, 1994; Hisrich and Peters, 1998; Jones, *et al*., 2017). Indeed, Jackson and Rodkey (1994) went on to say that entrepreneurial activities are characterised by "the willingness to take risks and accept the possibility of failure, the perceived difficulty of starting new firms, the importance and respect accorded to new and small firms and their owners, and the socialization children are likely to receive from their parents".
Zhang *et al.* (2017) who investigated the entrepreneurial intention of university students, found that subjective norm (i.e., the perceived social pressure to perform or not perform a behaviour) was positively related to entrepreneurial intention, whereas personal attitude had no significant impact. This observation suggests the importance of the subjective norm dimension as a determinant of the likelihood that an individual will become an entrepreneur (Misoska *et al*. 2016). Moreover, it signifies a positive relationship between subjective norm and entrepreneurial intention.

With regards to the failure of personal attitude to generate a positive impact on entrepreneurial intention, Zhang *et al.* (2017) posit that it may indicate a lack of entrepreneurial experience by the students. A low or insignificant attitude score is thought to be less likely to generate intention towards a behaviour and less likely to lead to action.
Lastly, it is important not to consider necessity and associated poverty as a driving factor, although it is difficult to delineate the extent to which people are either pulled or pushed towards entrepreneurship. Nevertheless, studying emerging economies, particularly those recovering from economic crises, could offer the mechanisms by which entrepreneurship can be used to make such economies more resilient (Dawson and Henley 2012; Williams and Volery 2014). Having this understanding in relation to Nigeria is important, not only to determine what drives entrepreneurship, but also to comprehend the mechanism for increasing entrepreneurship and correspondingly reducing graduate unemployment.

The Nigerian Study

Our Nigerian survey questionnaire targeted an initial population of 588 graduates and 588 undergraduates, of which 69.6% and 68.4% of responses (i.e., 409 and 402) were deemed to be usable. The recipients were drawn from a sample of first year university students and fresh university graduates from the same 6 universities. In addition to the survey questionnaires, interviews were conducted with the respective tutors regarding their programme implementation strategies.

Table 2: Graduate Respondents Demographic Characteristics (n=409)

Var	Category	Freq	%
Gender	Female	240	58.7
	Male	169	41.3
Age Group	25 and below	277	67.7
	26-30	100	24.4
	31-35	15	3.7
	36-40	12	2.9
	41 and above	5	1.2
Marital Status	Married	87	21.3
	Single	322	78.7
Course of Study	Arts and SS	123	30.1
	Business, Ed., Man. Science	100	24.4
	Sciences, IT, Engineering	186	45.5
University	01	61	14.9
	02	86	21.0
	03	85	20.8
	04	87	21.3
	05	44	10.8
	06	46	11.2
Have at least one entrepreneur parent	Yes	226	55.3
	No	183	44.7
Geo-Political Zone	NorthCentral	164	40.1
	North East	10	2.4
	North West	24	5.9
	South East	66	16.1
	South South	39	9.5
	South West	106	25.9

From our literature review we subsequently identified that personal attitude, subjective norm, cultural values and entrepreneurial intention are major components in the prediction of entrepreneurial activity among Nigerian university graduates. These therefore suggested a principal focus for our enquiry along with cataloguing the implementation strategies that are lacking or inadequate and those needing inclusion or improvement. This accentuated the importance of determining the qualities of those who should teach on the programme given the level of practicality and diverse methodologies required.

Personal Attitude (PA)
Five (5) items were used to measure attitude towards entrepreneurship.

- Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages to me (BEA)
- A career as an entrepreneur is totally attractive to me (CETA)
- If I had the opportunity and resources, I would love to start a business (ORB)
- Being an entrepreneur would give me great satisfaction (BEGS)
- Amongst various career options, I would rather be an entrepreneur (AOE)

The statement "amongst various career options, I would rather be an entrepreneur" (PA5) has the lowest mean score of 3.95". Table 3 shows that all items were well rated, which is an indication that overall, the participants have positive attitudes towards entrepreneurship. The lowest rating of 3.95 is more than half of the highest rating that may be deducted from a 7 point Likert scale.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of Measured items

Questionnaire Item	Mean Statistic	Standard Deviation	Rank
Personal Attitude			
PA1 (BEA)	5.74	1.635	3
PA2 (CETA)	5.54	1.670	4
PA3 (ORB)	6.04	1.348	1
PA4 (BEGS)	5.82	1.373	2
PA5 (AOE)	3.95	2.048	5
Subjective Norm			
SN1 (FRA)	5.14	1.693	3
SN2 (FAA)	5.50	1.604	1
SN3 (COA)	5.26	1.631	2
Cultural Values			
CV1 (CNE)	4.53	2.097	3
CV2 (ECW)	5.28	1.658	1
CV3 (PCEW)	5.18	1.732	2
CV4 (EHV)	3.81	2.146	4
Entrepreneurial Intentions			
EI1 (DAE)	5.20	1.775	5
EI2 (MEE)	5.77	1.374	2
EI3 (STSB)	4.85	1.948	6
EI4 (DBV)	5.83	1.464	1
EI5 (PGE)	5.35	1.612	4
EI6 (ISB)	5.37	1.794	3

Nevertheless, the PA5 rating suggests that if the respondents have alternatives to being entrepreneurs and paid jobs are readily available, they would rather be in paid employment than engage in entrepreneurial activities. The intention to engage might therefore result from a lack of paid-employment options which some authors have termed the 'push factor. Rising unemployment and the absence of alternatives might therefore be a factor in the intention towards self-employment as Dawson and Henley, (2012) have observed.

Subjective Norm (SN)

The perception of respondents in terms of whether the significant others in their lives would want them to engage entrepreneurial activities were measured using the following items.

1. My friends would approve of my decision to start a business (FRA)
2. My immediate family would approve of my decision to start a business (FAA)
3. My colleagues would approve of my decision to start a business (COA)

The mean rating ranged between 5.14 (±1.693) and 5.50 (±1.604) indicating that respondents rated all items in this construct highly. It further suggests that the perceptions of respondents' friends, families and close acquaintances seem impactful on their entrepreneurial decisions. In the Nigerian context, this is perhaps noteworthy as prospective entrepreneurs usually rely almost solely on their significant others to obtain resources for starting business which makes the role of subjective norm important to new venture creation.

Cultural Values (CV)

The respondents' perceptions of the value that the Nigerian culture places on entrepreneurship was measured using four items.

I. The culture in my country is highly favourable to entrepreneurship (CNE)
II. Entrepreneurship is considered worthwhile in my country despite its risks (ECW)
III. Most people consider it acceptable to be an entrepreneur in my country (PCEW)
IV. The role of the entrepreneur is undervalued in my country (EHV)

As presented in table 3, the mean rating of the construct items was between 3.81 and 5.28 and indicates that CV4 is rated relatively low. In view of this rating, it is posited that this might be due to a misconception that entrepreneurial businesses are mostly trade and crafts, where such businesses are primarily set up by illiterates or, at best, secondary school graduates. University graduates may therefore consider such jobs demeaning.

Interestingly, trades and crafts are included in the course content of the GST entrepreneurship programme which is promoted at university entrepreneurship centres.

Entrepreneurial Intentions (EI)

Six (6) items were used to measure the extent of the entrepreneurial intentions of the graduates.

[1] I am ready to do anything legal and morally acceptable to be an entrepreneur (DAE)
[2] I will make every effort to start and run my own business (MEE)
[3] I have seriously thought about starting my own business (STSB)
[4] I am determined to create a business venture in the future (DBV)
[5] My professional goal is to be an entrepreneur (PGE)
[6] I have got the firm intention of starting a business someday (ISB)

The mean and the standard deviations are presented in Table 2. In this construct, EI4 (shaded blue) was rated highest with 5.28 mean statistic and EI3 was rated lowest (4.85). This result could indicate that although the graduates are

determined to create business ventures in the future, they have neither given it serious thought nor accepted being an entrepreneur as their professional goal. These scenarios considered together might suggest that the programme has not had the desired influence on the graduates.

It is therefore palpable that the results from these constructs be considered in the light of existing teaching methods to determine how they might be influenced by educational programmes to thus formulate the research questions.

Research Question 1

What is the nature of the relationship between entrepreneurship education and graduates' entrepreneurial intentions?

Our first hypothesis tested the direct relationship between entrepreneurship education and graduates' entrepreneurial intentions.

Whilst it is apparent that there is a statistically significant relationship between the use of traditional teaching methods and increased entrepreneurial intentions, at $\beta = 0.146$ and a significance level of $p = 0.023$ the effect is weak and points to an over-reliance on conventional approaches which have been found to be less effective in encouraging entrepreneurial attitudes (Bennet, 2006; Fiet, 2000; Kirby, 2004; Mwasalwiba, 2010, Neck and Green, 2011).

This corroborates the notion that traditional teaching methods tend to disregard the uncertainties, ambiguities and realities that surround entrepreneurial processes leaving participants in a state of indifference (Higgins et al., 2013). It also suggests that learners are merely passive recipients and therefore such approaches do not result in a positive impact on participants attitude towards entrepreneurship (European Commission, 2011), thus not adequately catering for knowledge acquisition in areas such as idea generation, opportunity recognition or resource gathering (Souitaris et al., 2007).

Our second hypothesis postulated that innovative teaching methods have both direct and indirect relationships with the entrepreneurial intentions of graduates. Contrary to expectations, the results showed that there is no direct or indirect relationship between the variables. This can be explained by the fact that innovative methods were rarely applied, and although Fiet (2001) reasoned that entrepreneurship students require theory in the classroom to enable them to know what to do to be successful, Mwasalwiba (2010) and Mousa (2014) observed that pedagogies in the entrepreneurship classroom are changing from the conventional lecture approach to modern methods that are focussed on experiential learning. Thus the absence of innovative teaching methods makes learners miss out on experience-based knowledge that influences entrepreneurial action (Fayolle and Toutain, 2013). This implies that the teaching methods employed in the study context are inconsistent with pedagogies in enterprise education which are learner-based experiential and action learning techniques prescribed by Jones and Iredale (2010).

We subsequently hypothesised that innovative teaching methods have both direct and indirect relationships with the entrepreneurial intentions of graduates, but innovative methods were rarely applied.

Research Question 2

To what extent does culture influence graduates' entrepreneurial intentions?

Next, we endeavoured to ascertain the influence of culture on graduates' entrepreneurial intentions.

It was hypothesised that cultural values have a statistically significant direct positive relationship with graduates' entrepreneurial intention but, contrary to expectations, this was not supported ($B = 0.074$ and $p = 0.241$). The result is consistent with Pruett, *et al*., (2009) who found that cultural values have modest impact on intentions, yet the indirect influences of personal attitude and subjective norm are significant, showing that the cultural values of a society can encourage or constrain entrepreneurial behaviour (Zahra, *et al*., 1999).

Thus we found strong support for the notion that the relationship between cultural values and entrepreneurial intention is strongly mediated by attitude ($\beta = 0.236$ and $p = 0.001$). The result is consistent with Liñán and Chen, (2009) who observed that culture is essential in explaining entrepreneurial intentions. Similarly, the result confirms the studies by Francisco *et al* (2013) and Krueger (2007) who separately concluded that culture is a fundamental source of deeply anchored beliefs that nurture entrepreneurship and is consequently essential for the development of entrepreneurial intentions.

Research Question 3

To what extent does personal attitude influence the entrepreneurial intentions of Nigerian graduates?

Our findings indicate that personal attitude directly predicts entrepreneurial intention and confirms that it is a major factor ($\beta = 0.601$, $p = 0.001$). However, although at $p = 0.001$ the significance is strong, the result of a squared multiple correlation shows that personal attitude contributes only 18% (i.e., $\beta = 0.180$) of the variance in attitude to entrepreneurial intentions. This result is low in comparison to von Graevinitz *et al*. (2010) who wrote that attitudes across a variety of target behaviours explain over 50% of the variance in intentions. Similarly, we found that the expected change in attitude after completing the entrepreneurship programme did not take place and therefore does not confirm the finding of Mwasalwiba (2010) that academics are shifting their focus from new venture creation to "an attitude-changing perspective of entrepreneurship education". Thus, the low level of attitude might reasonably have implications for present practices and probably results from the primary use of traditional modes of instruction.

Research Question 4

What influence does subjective norm have on the entrepreneurial intentions of graduates?

The hypothesis that subjective norm has a direct influence on entrepreneurial intentions was tested and our findings ($\beta = .257$ and $p = 0.001$) suggest that subjective norm plays a significant role, providing strong support for the hypothesis. This has implications for the literature insofar as previous studies by Liñán and Chen, (2009) and Chen, *et al*. (1998) that used non-aggregated measures to test subjective norm have found the construct to be insignificant. However, the measures we employed in this study encompass the opinions

of "reference people" (significant others such as friends, family and colleagues) whose perceptions, biases and attitudes about engaging in entrepreneurial activities are reflected.

This finding is particularly significant for developing countries, especially Africa in which the "reference people" often play important roles in raising resources for entrepreneurial ventures. This arguably contrasts with advanced economies where there are diverse formal sources and institutions from which potential entrepreneurs can access funds for start-ups. It could therefore imply that education for entrepreneurship in developing countries may require a substantially different approach than that in the West. Thus, entrepreneur education programmes that are designed in line with Western models might not necessarily in developing countries, because the main sources of finance for start-up businesses in Nigeria are bootstrapping (starting a business with little to no assets) and loans or help from family and friends. This is exacerbated by the cautious attitude of Nigerian commercial banks towards funding start-up projects which are regarded as high risk and the interest rates are correspondingly high. Therefore, the conditions set to access loans are practically impossible to meet by small business owners and potential entrepreneurs (Adisa, Abdulraheem and Mordi, 2014) and has all but eliminated access to affordable loans. This in turn has made family and friends the primary, and often only, source of funds for new ventures.

Thus, a policy shift away from importing and implementing Western models which is common with African governments might be desirable. Designing programmes that are customised to specific country environments or modifying the imported models to suit the importing region may be needed. Curriculum developers should perhaps, at the design stage, more actively consider the cultural and business environments in which their entrepreneurship programmes are implemented.

Entrepreneurial Intentions of Graduates vs Undergraduates

The demographic variables measured in our study consisted of 7 items namely: Gender, marital status, age in years, faculty or school, location of university, state of origin and parent entrepreneurial experience (see table 2). Nigeria is divided into 6 geo-political zones and research suggests that the South-east geo-political zone and indeed the Igbos of Nigeria are the most entrepreneurial groups in Africa. In contrast, the South-west is considered the most educated. (Orugun and Nafiu, 2014; MG Modern Ghana, 2013; Olutayo, 1999). Thus, it was felt necessary to group samples based on zones to ensure representativeness.

Combined Descriptive Statistical Analysis

In revisiting table 2 and comparing the demographic characteristics of graduates with those of undergraduates using univariate analysis comprising of frequency and percentages approaches, the following percentages are obtained:

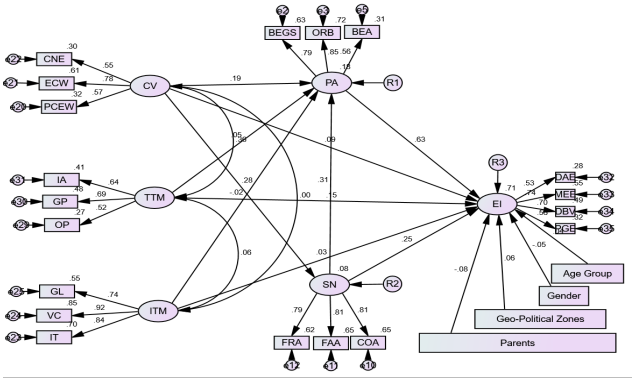
Age group reveals that 91.8% undergraduates are 25 years and below, 7.2% are between 26 and 30 years. Just 0.5% of each are between 31 and 35 years and between 36 and 40 years. Conversely, 67.7% of graduates are 25 years and below; 24.4% are between 26 and 30 years, 2.9% are between 31 and 35years, 2.9% are between 36 and 40 years while 1.2% are aged 41 and above. Undergraduates comprised 51% females and 49% males, aged between 18 and 40 years. Of this group, 9.2% are married and 90.5% are single. 26.7% are in the arts and social sciences, 26.25% in Business and education and 46.9% in the Sciences. (see table 2).

Moreover, 38.6% of the undergraduates are from North central, 4% from North east, 8.5% from North west, and 14.9% from South east, South-south has 11.7% of the sample and South west has 22.4%. With regards to the graduates, 40.1% are from the North central zone, 2.4% from the North east, 5.9 from the North west, 16.1 from the South east, 9.5% from the South-south and 25.9 from the South west.

From this and other source data we endeavoured to test the hypothesis that: *the entrepreneurial intentions of the graduates will be higher than that of the undergraduates.* Thus we will deduce whether there is a difference in the entrepreneurial intentions of graduates and undergraduates.

The comparison between the two groups was accomplished using the multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA) framework in two-step structural equation modelling (SEM) as advocated by Anderson and Gerbing, 1988 and for interest is reproduced in figure 1.

Figure 1: Generated Structural Model from Final CFA



The combined group analysis showed that having entrepreneurial parents influences the entrepreneurial intentions of graduates and corroborates the findings of other authors (Thompson, Asarta, Zhang and LeMarie, 2013; Lindquist, Sol and Van Praag, 2012) who posit that having an entrepreneurial parent influences the choice of entrepreneurship as a career and is the single strongest predictor of entrepreneurship. However, there is no evidence of statistical significance in other variables such as gender, age group and geo-political zone.

In contrast, geo-political zone appears statistically significant in influencing entrepreneurial intentions among undergraduates. Perhaps the influence of their place of origin becomes less important after mixing with students

from other places and having left their homes for extended periods.

However, the observation that having at least one entrepreneurial parent is an important determinant of entrepreneurial intention might provide valuable feedback to educational sponsors, policy makers and educational providers by notionally identifying those who might benefit from entrepreneurial education programmes. Placing this in perspective, 48.5% of the undergraduate respondents have at least one entrepreneurial parent while 51.2% do not. In contrast, 55.3% graduates have at least one entrepreneurial parent while 44.7% do not.

Regarding marital status, 8.5% undergraduates are married and 91.5% are single. In contrast, 21.3% of graduates are married while 78.7% are single which might suggest a further confounding variable. However, in general the findings emphasise the need for sensitivity in deploying and implementing entrepreneurial programmes while also cautioning against the notion of "one size fits all".

The full table of the group squared multiple correlation results is shown in table 4.

Table 4: Entrepreneurial Intention Prediction in Multi-Group Analysis

Var	Model 1 Undergraduates			Model 2 Graduates	
	SMC (β)	%	Sig	SMC (β)	%
PA	0.469	47	0.001	0.179	18
SN	0.349	35	0.023	0.065	7
EI	0.665	67		0.730	73

Note: PA = Personal attitude; SN = Subjective norm; EI = Entrepreneurial intentions; TIM = Traditional and Innovative teaching methods

Model 1 is formulated from undergraduates' data and signifies that their attitude explains 47% of the variance of entrepreneurial intention. Subjective norm explains 35% of the variance and the overall model explains 67% of the variance of entrepreneurial intention.
Model 2 is the graduates' data, using the same variables as the undergraduates and shows that personal attitude explains 18% of the variance of entrepreneurial intention. Given the difference between the personal attitude variable of the two cohorts we might reasonably postulate that attitude reduces after exposure to entrepreneurial education, thus suggesting that it is somehow counter-productive due to attitude being an essential determinant of intention (insert TRA reference).
Subjective norm explains 7% of the variance of graduate entrepreneurial intention compared to a considerable 35% in undergraduates. Perhaps this confirms our earlier assertion that as students' experiences broaden, so are they less influenced by the normative perceptions of their local communities.
Nevertheless, the negative differential between the personal attitudes of graduates compared to undergraduates might intuitively point to an aspect of their educational experience that subsequently deters them from their intention to pursue entrepreneurial careers.

Our enquiry therefore moves on to aspects of students' education with particular emphasis on the methods employed in entrepreneurial education and the relevant experiences of the educators.

An Insight into the Entrepreneurial Education Process

We interviewed six educators drawn from six universities to provide a qualitative dimension to our study and endeavour to gain some insight into the entrepreneurial education process and the relevant experiences of the tutors. The first observation was that only two of the respondents, representing 33.3% of the educators, have entrepreneurial experience, which might have negative implications for the evolution of a mindset that learns from experience, is able to embrace a certain level of risk and can rebound after failure. This specialised type of education is perhaps better imparted by someone who is knowledgeable in the discipline, has business experience or is at least entrepreneurially minded. We also noted a degree of pessimism regarding the capacity of programme to impart an appropriate mindset which might ultimately reflect on the attitudes of the students. If this is the case it reasonably supports the contentions of Souitaris, Zerbinati and AI-Laham, (2007) that an insufficiently positive attitude is unlikely to prepare individuals for entrepreneurship.

The second finding that entrepreneurship departments have no ties with their local communities is inconsistent with Mousa (2014) and Arasti *et al* (2011). It is also inconsistent with Gartner and Vesper, 1994 and Kent, 1990 who observed that lectures by guest speakers is widespread in entrepreneurship modules. Of the twelve methods examined in the quantitative phase, the use of guest lecturers ranked tenth with a mean of 2.46 (see table 5) in a seven-point Likert scale.

Table 5: Means and Standard Deviation of the Teaching Methods

Method	Mean	Rank	SD
Lectures	6.24	1	1.183
Class Participation	5.89	2	1.212
Case Studies	2.86	9	1.695
Indiv. Assignments	5.42	3	1.487
Group Projects	5.41	4	1.504
Oral Presentations	4.99	5	1.770
Entrepren. Projects	4.61	7	1.951
Role Play	2.93	8	1.671
Business Plans	4.98	6	1.721
Guest Lectures	2.46	10	1.562
Company Visits	2.29	11	1.458
Internships	2.14	12	1.490

Local community ties pertain to the entrepreneurship unit having relationships with entrepreneurs in the local communities that might culminate in inviting them as guest lecturers, attending business plans competitions and facilitating students' internships in their businesses. As both quantitative and qualitative data reveal that the universities have little or no ties with their local communities, the invitation of guest lecturers is not a method commonly used in traditional classroom settings. Moreover, the educators might find it strange inviting entrepreneurs to the classroom given that such a method might not be commonplace in their own fields of specialisation.

The absence of guest lecturers in the entrepreneurship classroom denies learners the opportunity to learn about the experiences of local entrepreneurs and the possibility of networking with them or even having them as mentors. It also robs the learners of a means by which their attitudes might be positively influenced. It might also reflect the absence of one of the components of the entrepreneurial ecosystem which can create positive ripple effects and promote the opportunity for elements like mentoring, networking, and internships within local businesses. Moreover, guest lecturers simply sharing their experiences and having interactions with the learners could create a positive image of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship and consequently impact on their attitudes and motivation towards entrepreneurship (Diegoli *et al*., (2018).

This finding may help to explain the contraction in the personal attitude and entrepreneurial intention of the graduates after participation in the programme and perhaps have implication for policy reforms in the design, implementation and teaching of entrepreneurial modules. Thus, the discipline of entrepreneurship has the unique attribute of consisting of several components and even the absence of one factor can impact on the entire programme (Coleman and Robb, 2018). Moreover, most of the educators mentioned that the large classes make it impracticable for some crucial practices like students' needs assessments. One tutor stated that even if the needs were assessed, the size will also not permit the provision of the individual services or training needed by the students.

Moreover, all of the interviewed educators mentioned that their entrepreneurial programme does not have a special internship attached to it. Consequently, participants do not have the opportunity to experience "business thinking" at first hand. However, university-wide student industrial work experience which focuses on each student's core discipline has been in existence long before the introduction of entrepreneurship programmes. Regrettably, this has not been extended to include the entrepreneurship education programme and the teachers themselves do not see the need for an internship programme specifically designed for it when one exists for every other core discipline.

Partnering with the local community could play a vital role in supporting the entrepreneurship curriculum and its ultimate objectives. Involving the universities with local businesses might facilitate some of the best instructional techniques for budding entrepreneurs and provide effective role models and mentors for their continuing development. This has implication for both policy and practice in satisfying the Nigerian government's desire to stimulate economic growth and achieve a reduction in graduate unemployment.

Conclusions

In general, the findings point to the teaching of entrepreneurship in Nigeria being comparatively undeveloped in the seventeen years since its introduction. Our results also indicate that the programme seems to suffer from a degree of negligence regarding the conjoining of lecturers' experience and may not have been well thought out.

Before the compulsory variant of 2002 the universities that delivered the programme were guided by research findings and the needs of their community. However, universities have since switched in compliance with national standards. Although the respondents believed that the wider curriculum taught before the advent of the Nigeria Universities Commissions' (NUC) minimum standards was superior, it was nevertheless felt that the former approach lacked uniformity.

However, opportunities clearly exist for Nigerian universities to address the shortcomings revealed in this study in order to improve outcomes. Discovering the most effective means of imparting the teachable skills and identifying the best combination between the objective of the programme, students' needs, and the appropriate pedagogies suggests the road to an effective entrepreneurship education programme.

As the qualitative element of our study was limited to six educators we are mindful of placing too much reliance on phenomenological data. Nevertheless, it is evident from all interviewees that teaching methods are biased strongly towards traditional methodologies. We have identified the improvements which we believe more innovative approaches will bring and consequently advocate that there is a need to balance traditional teaching methods with the more innovative approaches listed in table 5, allied to focused needs analysis that identifies the individual services or training needed by the students.

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