HUMAN BEHAVIOR, ENTREPRENEURIAL NARRATIVES, AND ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION OF UNDERGRADUATE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN KENYA

BY

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DECLARATION

Declaration by the Candidate

I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for an award in any other institution. No part of this thesis may be reproduced without the prior or express permission of the author and/or Moi University.

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DEDICATION

To my most wonderful family: My wife Yvonne, my daughter Faith, my son Justin, and my twin brother Kipruto. Your undying affection and high expectations for me in completing this course are a testament to your enthusiasm and faith in me, I love you very much. To my mother Mrs. Hellen Barngetuny for your prayers. My elder brother Prof. David Kosgei for your encouragement and steadfast support. To my siblings, who always nudged me on to get the certificates that never got their way, I am truly humbled and promise that I will not relent in my efforts till I achieve what you always wanted me to. Finally, without the Almighty Divine help, I would not have succeeded, thus I recommit my effort to Him.

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ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurial intention has proved to be an imperative and ongoing construct in entrepreneurship theory and research. Despite training youths in institutions of higher learning with the aim of venturing into self- employment, a large number continue to seek paid employment, with many of them remaining unemployed with low entrepreneurial intentions. The entrepreneurial narratives are critical to understanding the process of entrepreneurship. The relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and the entrepreneurial narrative of established small firms are neglected. The broad objective was to investigate the mediating effect of entrepreneurial narratives on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intentions. Specific objectives were: To determine the effect of human behavior on knowledge, inspiration, and transportation. Determine the effect of knowledge, inspiration, and transportation on entrepreneurial intention. To establish the effect of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, investigate the mediating effect of knowledge on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention, to determine the mating effect of knowledge and inspiration on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention, to establish the mediating effect of knowledge and transportation on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention, to investigate the mediating effect of inspiration and transportation on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention, to determine the mediating effect of knowledge, inspiration and transportation on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. The study was guided by the Theory of planned behavior, Shapero's entrepreneurial event theory and the Role model theory. A positivism paradigm using explanatory research design was used. The population comprised 6032 undergraduate university students who were in their fourth year of study between January and May 2019 doing business related courses. Random sampling techniques were used. The study sample size was 400 respondents. Data was collected using questionnaires. Hayes model six was used to test hypothesis. The study findings indicated that human behavior has significant and positive effect on knowledge (β=0.85, p0.00<.05), inspiration (β=0.39, p0.00<.05), transportation (β=0.15, p 0.03 <.05). Knowledge from Narratives (β=0.139, p 0.013<.05), inspiration from Narratives (β=0.14, p 0.003<.05) and transportation from narratives (β=0.093, p 0.027<.05) were significantly associated with entrepreneurial intention. The relationship between human behaviors and intention was partially mediated by knowledge (β=0.119, BootLLCI=.003, BootULCI=.226), knowledge and inspiration (β=0.066, BootLLCI=.010, BootULCI=.128), knowledge and transportation (β=0.032, BootLLCI=.003, BootULCI=.073), inspiration and transport (β=0.011, BootLLCI=.01, BootULCI=.025), knowledge, inspiration and transport (β=0.012, BootLLCI=.002, BootULCI=.027). The Study concludes that human behavior and entrepreneurial narratives encourages entrepreneurial intentions among university students. Students who deduce knowledge, inspiration transportation from entrepreneurial narratives exhibit high entrepreneurial intention because of human behavior. The study therefore recommended that the level of attitude towards behavior and perceived behavioral control be increased to enhance entrepreneurial intention among the students. For instance, students could be convinced that having their own business is the other option for their career and that they can control the creation process of a new firm. Since knowledge partially mediates the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention, universities could ensure that there is specific knowledge about entrepreneurship learned from a storytelling to improve the participants' opportunity identification ability and their entrepreneurial intentions.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AB	**:**	Attitudes towards behavior
ANOVA	**:**	Analysis of Variance
BC	**:**	Behavioral control
DP	**:**	Desirability Perceptions
DV	**:**	Dependent Variable
EC	**:**	Entrepreneurial Culture
ED	**:**	Entrepreneurial Disposition
EE	**:**	Exposure to Entrepreneurship Education
EI	**:**	Entrepreneurial Intentions
EI	**:**	Entrepreneurial intention
EN	**:**	Entrepreneurial Narrative
EP	**:**	Entrepreneurial Perceptions
GEM	**:**	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
I	**:**	Inspiration
IV	**:**	Independent variable
JAB	**:**	Joint Admissions Board
JKUAT	**:**	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
K	**:**	Knowledge
KNBS	**:**	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
KU	**:**	Kenyatta University
KYEP	**:**	Kenya Youth Employment Project
MV	**:**	Mediating Variable
PEI	**:**	Predictors of Entrepreneurial intention
SCT	**:**	Social Cognitive Theory
SN	**:**	Subjective Norms
TPB	**:**	Theory of Planned Behavior
UoN	**:**	University of Nairobi

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Attitudes towards behavior- Attitudes refers to the degree of favorable or unfavorable evaluation or judgement that a person may have towards a behavior accordingly, this concept taps perceptions of what the subject finds personally desirable or undesirable about performing behavior (Ajzen, 1991)

Entrepreneurial intention – is one's proclivity for entrepreneurial activity, or in other words, the desire to become self-employed (Krueger *et al* 2000)

Entrepreneurial Narrative- Refers to human capacity to tell entrepreneurial stories

Inspiration- According to Gabriel (2000) story telling is an art of weaving of constructing the product of intimate knowledge. He says that "good stories may entertain, inspire and are not something that can be mass produced"

Knowledge- Storytelling is a form of knowing that captures in a special way the prosperity and the nuances of sense in human affairs, thus story, with its multiplicity of meanings is an appropriate form to express the knowledge resulting from action (Carter (1993)

Perceived behavioral control-This is the degree of perceived behavioral control which refers to perceived ease or difficulty of achieving the behavior and it is assumed to reproduce experience as well as predictable problems (Ajzen 1991)

Subjective Norms- Describes the perceived social challenge about accomplishing or failing to achieve a social goal (Ajzen 1991). This construct explores respondents' perceptions of crucial people's reactions

Transportation – According to Greek and Brook (2000) transportation is a means by which narrative can influence belief. They define transportation as" absorption into a story" and state that it involves imagery, affect and attentional focus.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter outlines the background to the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, study hypothesis, significance, and scope of the study.

1.1 Background to the Study

Research on entrepreneurial intentions is rapidly expanding globally (Miralles et al. 2012; Iakovleva *et al*., 2011; Lián & Chen 2009; Krueger 2009). It has recently been popular to study the elements that impact people's decision to seek an entrepreneurial career over a standard job (Sesen, 2013; Zellweger, Sieger & Halter, 2011; Schwarz, Wdowiak, Almer-Jarz & Breitnecker, 2009; Gerba, 2012). Study on entrepreneurial intention models is crucial to new endeavor development (Linan *et al.*, 2013).

Starting a new business is a personal decision, which is why entrepreneurial intentions are so important in the study of entrepreneurship (Zampetakis & Moustakis, 2006; Laviolette *et al.*, 2012). Entrepreneurial intentions are individual willingness to learn about entrepreneurial activity or become self-employed. (Basu & Virick, 2008; Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000). External factors influence attitudes, including personality traits, educational attainment, demographic, and environmental variables (Chen, 2007; Krueger, 2003; Segal, Borgia & Schoenfeld, 2005; Souitaris *et al.*, 2007). Other factors that influence entrepreneurial intention are entrepreneurial narratives in entrepreneurial education (Dakoumi & Abdelwahed, 2014), however, studies linking entrepreneurial narratives with entrepreneurial intention are so limited.

Over the previous two decades, entrepreneurial education has grown significantly in most developed countries (Kuratko, 2005; Matlay & Carey, 2006; Kevane & Wydick,

2001). During the period 1979–2001, the number of US entrepreneurship courses more than doubled (Katz, 2008 and Gwynne, 2008). The growth reflects widespread government trust in the benefits of entrepreneurship for a country's socioeconomic and political infrastructure (Matlay, 2008). Government officials understand the value of entrepreneurship as a driver of economic growth and provide incentives such as entrepreneurship education to encourage it (Zhou & Xu, 2012; O'Connor, 2013). "The major goal of entrepreneurship education at higher education level is to develop entrepreneurial capacities and attitudes," the European Commission (2008) states, urging greater integration of entrepreneurship into university curricula.

Entrepreneurial tales were investigated qualitatively to better understand entrepreneurial processes and practices (Rae, 2000). In other instances, tales were employed to shed light on the goals of entrepreneurs. The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) is a well-studied intention model (Ajzen, 1988, 1991). Several studies in entrepreneurship have shown TPB's usefulness in predicting entrepreneurial ambitions (Krueger et al., Autio et al., 2001; Engle *et al.,* 2010).

When it comes to the establishment of new businesses, narratives are critical. (Martens, Jennings, and Jennings, 2007). A positive evaluation of the venture's wealth-creating potential is more likely to result in resources flowing to the new firm. Narratives help to identify and legitimize the identity of a new venture. Under this role, they may operate as a link between present entrepreneurial resources and future resource acquisition.

Narrative is well known as a powerful tool for business managers who use it to connect with key stakeholders by fostering a sense of community, elicit emotional responses to engage and make their business a success (Chang, Yan & Eckman, 2014;

Navis & Glynn 2011; Hill & Levenhagen 1995; Foster-Fishman, P., Nowell, Deacon, Nievar & McCann, 2005). Overall, narratives have a major impact on new business survival and performance (Törmälä & Gyrd-Jones, 2017; Lounsbury & Glynn 2001; Brinckmann *et al.,* 2010; Martens *et al.,* 2007; Navis & Glynn 2011).

Since independence in 1963, the Kenyan government has initiated Commissions, Committees, and Taskforces (RoK, 1964; Sessional Paper No:10 of 1965; and RoK, 1981) to restructure the colonial education system and make it more suitable to the requirements of independent Kenyans. Some recent articles have emphasized the reform of higher education and training in Kenya (RoK, 2006).

Kenya had 7 public universities and 19 public university colleges in 2012, With overall enrolment increasing from 3,443 students in 1970 to 159,752 students (59,665 females and 100,087 males) in 2009/2010, the university has seen a significant increase in enrollment (JAB 2009/2010). Traditionally, Kenyan institutions prepared graduates for public service and business. As a result, Kenyan universities' roles were less focused on developing future entrepreneurs. With Kenya's economic and social conditions rapidly changing, it is becoming evident that entrepreneurship is the essential link to close the economic expansion gap.

A higher education's purpose is to train graduates for work and to set up new businesses hire other Kenyans and add to the growth. Research on entrepreneurial ambition and conduct using university students is supported (Khera & Benson, 1970; Krueger, Reilly & Carsrud, 2000). As a result, they are well positioned for this study. As a result, understanding the antecedents of entrepreneurial intents in Kenya is critical to developing effective solutions.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

An individual entrepreneurial intent is a critical tool in the establishment of new businesses (Thompson, 2009). Entrepreneurial intent is a crucial and continuous construct in entrepreneurship theory and study (Thompson, 2009; Carr & Sequeira, 2007; Vohora et al., 2004: Hmieleski & Corbett, 2006; Wilson et al., 2007; Zellweger et al., 2011). Despite vocational training institutions educating teenagers to become self-employed, many of them remain to pursue paid work, with many remaining jobless (Kilemi, 2012; Kinyanjui, 2017). According to comparable research, despite severe unemployment, barely 1% of Kenyan graduates will work in small-scale informal businesses (Maina, 2017).

Many small firms fail because they lack the entrepreneur's connection (Jennings & Beaver, 1997; Tan, Menkhoff, and Chay, 2007; Brinckmann et al., 2010; Davidsson, Achtenhagen and Naldi; 2010). Most entrepreneur research has focused on inspiring entrepreneurs toward development, ignoring the link between entrepreneurial goals and established small firm narrative (Mahto & McDowell, 2018; Massey et al., 2006; Clarke & Holt, 2010; Autere and Autio, 2000; Shane et al., 2003; Adeyami, 2006), Curseu and Vermeulen, 2008 and Fini et al., 2009). However, comprehending the entrepreneurship process in connection to business growth requires entrepreneurial narratives (Kruger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000). There are currently few studies on the determinants of Kenyan students' entrepreneurial inclinations (Fayolle & Linan, 2013).

Those studies disregard external elements such as entrepreneurial narratives (together with internal ones) that contribute to the creation of entrepreneurial goals (Vesalainen and Timo, 2000). Another omission is how entrepreneurial narratives affect entrepreneurs' intentions (Adeyami, 2006; Liao, Welsch, and Stoica, 2003). Due to the

limitations and conflicts of earlier research, a comprehensive investigation encompassing knowledge, inspiration, and transportation is necessary.

1.3 Research Objectives

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of the study was to investigate the mediating effect of knowledge, inspiration and transportation on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives were to.

1a) Determine the effect of human behavior on knowledge

1b) Investigate the effect of human behavior on inspiration

1c) Establish the effect of human behavior on transportation

2a) Determine the effect of knowledge on entrepreneurial intention

2b) Investigate the effect of inspiration on entrepreneurial intention

2c) Determine the effect of transportation on entrepreneurial intention

2c[1]) Establish the effect of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention

3a) Investigate the mediating effect of knowledge on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention

3b) Determine the mediating effect of knowledge and inspiration on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention

3c) Establish the mediating effect of knowledge and transportation on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention

3d) Investigate the mediating effect of inspiration and transportation on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention

3e) Determine the mediating effect of knowledge, inspiration and transportation on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention

1.3.3 Research Hypothesis

Ho1a: Human behavior has no significant effect on knowledge

Ho1b: Human behavior has no significant effect on inspiration

Ho1c: Human behavior has no significant effect on transportation

Ho2a: knowledge has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention

Ho2b: Inspiration has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention

Ho2c: Transportation has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention.

Ho2c^{1}: Human behavior has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention

Ho3a: Knowledge does not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention

Ho3$_{b}$: Knowledge and inspiration do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention

Ho3$_{c}$: Knowledge and transportation do not significantly mediate the relationship between Human behavior and entrepreneurial intention

Ho3$_{d}$: Inspiration and transportation do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention

Ho3$_{e}$: Knowledge, inspiration and transportation do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study makes significant contributions on various fonts. This study provides empirical support for human behavior, entrepreneurial narrative and entrepreneurial intentions. Entrepreneurship students and scholars benefit from this research as a

source of literature on entrepreneurial narratives and entrepreneurial intention. Scholars among the students gain knowledge and insight into the significance of entrepreneurial narratives/stories and entrepreneurial intentions. A deeper knowledge of the factors that influence an individual's decision to start a business may also improve policy for local economic and development programs.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The study targeted undergraduate students in Nyanza and Western Kenya, enrolled in their fourth year of study in 2018/2019 academic year between January and May 2019 as per the Kenya universities and colleges central placement services (KUCCPS) list. This group's interest stems from the fact that they are nearing graduation and will be carefully contemplating their job options.

They also represent a dynamic age group (mid-twenties) where entrepreneurship attitudes should be studied. Finally, students in this cohort are unlikely to have extensive past business experience, reducing the risk of hindsight or success bias. As a result, university students are ideal for this study.

1.6 Limitation of the Study

The study's first shortcoming is the use of only prone to bias surveys. Other methodologies should be used in future study on entrepreneurial inclinations (e.g., observation and interview). This information can then be triangulated to learn more about students' entrepreneurial goals.

The study also faced the limitation of research generalizability. The results of the study may not be generalized to all institutions of higher learning. Therefore, future research be conducted in different institutions of higher learning and more fully a comparative study between private and public universities is recommended. The study

was limited to the mediating role of entrepreneurial narratives on the relationship between human behaviour and entrepreneurial orientation. Further research may contribute to literature by considering the mediating role of personal traits on the link between entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurial intention.

The study was context based and only focused on Kenyan university students. This means that the findings cannot be generalized to other institution in Kenya and the rest of the world. The human behavior was limited to attitude towards behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavior yet other behavioral dimensions could have been considered.

Some respondents targeted were reluctant in giving information as regards to their entrepreneurial intention. This was addressed by assuring the respondents that the purpose of the study was for academic work. The findings were limited by self-reporting, as individuals tend to evaluate themselves favorably. This was addressed by cross check the information provided in the questionnaires.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter analyses the literature related to this study. The chapter begins by defining the concept of entrepreneurial intention, theories of entrepreneurial intention, entrepreneurial education, concept of entrepreneurial narrative, the link between independent variable and dependent variable, chapter summary and research gap and conceptual framework.

2.1 Concept of Entrepreneurial Intention

Intentions are central to cognitive theories of human behavior (Sommer, 2011; Boateng *et al.,* 2016; Al-Jubari *et al.,* 2019). Most socially relevant behaviors, such as health-related behaviors or the formation of new organizations, are voluntary, argue Fishbein *et al.,* (1980). Indeed, several researchers have found that intentions are the best predictor of such volitional behaviors, both theoretically and empirically (Bagozzi, Baumgartner & Yi, 1989; Ajzen, 1991; Sutton, 1998). Many scholars have defined intention. Moses & Izedonmi, (2010), Hindle *et al.,* (2009), Bird (1988 and Sánchez (2013) defines it as a mental state that directs one's attention (and thus experience and action) toward a specific object (goal) or path (means). According to Gollwitzer & Sheeran, (2006), an intention is a mental representation of both the desired outcome (or goal) and the action plan to achieve it. The role of objectives (or goals) in fostering and influencing intention is central to both definitions.

Altinay *et al.,* (2012); Khuong & An, (2016) define entrepreneurial intention as the desire to establish a new business, own a firm (Koe *et al.,* 2012; Crant, 1996; Nguyen, 2018), or be self-employed (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994). (Doughlas & Shepherd, 2002). Bird (1988) and Shane and Venkataraman (2000) agree that the main goals of

entrepreneurship are to start new businesses and to add value to existing ones. Entrepreneurial intentions influence existing organizations' actions.

Resilience, determination, and a drive to be self-sufficiency even if one has the ability, one must intend to become an entrepreneur (Ismail *et al.,* 2009). Adekiya & Ibrahim, (2016) maintains that intention is critical to new enterprise establishment, survival, and growth. Intentional action is driven by personal needs, values, desires, habits, and beliefs. Individuals in established firms actively seek out and exploit opportunities (Edelman & Yli–Renko, 2010; Ireland *et al.,* 2001; Park, 2005; Hess *et al.,* 2016; Sommer, 2010; Bosma & Levie, 2010). In this way, existing organizations embody and elaborate intentions that impact venture success.

Researchers can better understand the entrepreneurial process and predict behaviors by understanding the antecedents of entrepreneurial intent (Adam & Fayolle, 2016; Dell, 2008; Wmpgc & Gunatissa, 2014; Gabay-Mariani & Adam, 2020). Using longitudinal data on 297 business founders, Kolvereid and Isaksen (2006) discovered that self-employment intentions did predict later entry. Entrepreneurial action and external influence, according to Krueger (2007) (traits, demographics, skills, social, cultural and financial support). Then they explore for opportunities or decide on the type of business they want to establish. For entrepreneurs, this includes understanding their motivations and processes. Entrepreneurial intent predicts behavior. However, researchers disagree on how to define entrepreneurial intent. On one hand, current literature uses concepts like career orientation and nascent entrepreneurs to describe people's entrepreneurial intentions (Francis & Banning, 2001; Korunka *et al.,* 2003). However, researchers frequently use operational definitions to define individuals' entrepreneurial intentions, causing confusion. Entrepreneurial intention is a mental illustration of the action's individuals intends to take to either start new businesses or

add value to existing businesses (Fini *et al.*, 2009).

To be self-employed, an individual must have "entrepreneurial intention." Self-employment is seen as a deliberate choice (Krueger *et al.*, 2000). An individual's conscious awareness and commitment to launch a new business endeavor and plans to do so in the future are defined by Linan et al. (2013). Plans to work independently or start a business (Iakovleva and Kolvereid 2009). Intent to be self-employed involves motivation, awareness of an apparent entrepreneurial opportunity or requirement, and access to resources. (Fitzsimmons and Douglas 2005).

The Entrepreneurial Event Theory (EET) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) have been used to study entrepreneurial intentions (Shapero 1982). Rarely studied are the factors that inhibit or promote entrepreneurial activity (Brännback *et al.,* 2007). However, the TPB model does not account for barriers that may be manageable or unmanageable (Brännback *et al.,* 2007).

Although, lot of literature has been made available on the attitudes and entrepreneurial intention, there is still a substantial knowledge gap within a regional context and global perspective. All studies emphasize that thorough understanding of elements that impact the individual intention to go or not to go for an entrepreneurial venture is especially important for all stakeholders.

2.2 Concept of Entrepreneurial Narratives

The concept of narratives has been emerged and has been used increasingly often in the social sciences, over the last twenty years (Fallery & Marti, 2005). Accordingly, Stories occupy a key place in the social sciences because they represent a preferred means of giving meaning to a situation and to package information into an order. Moreover, (Thompson, *et al.*, 2020) claim that, stories can spark social change that

storytelling is tacitly recognized in various social science fields as a way of communication used to convey powerful vision of leadership and ideas. According to Johansson (2004), entrepreneurship research has benefited from the narrative studies. In fact, it has been proposed that the narrative approach can make a beneficial mediating involvement to the pursuit of entrepreneurship by introducing a better conceptual belief, epistemological and methodological reflection (Steyaert, & Bouwen, 2019).

Narratives are “thematic, sequenced accounts that convey meaning from implied author to implied reader.” While the terms “story” and “storytelling” are sometimes used interchangeably, I use “narrative” in accordance with prior papers in the broader research project this study is part of as well as other recent research (Rowell & Gustafsson 2015; Barry & Elmes 1994; Lunsbury & Glynn 2001; Garud *et al.,* 2014; Santos & Eisenhardt 2009; Martens et al. 2007; Martens *et al.* 2007; Navis & Glynn 2011): The term "narrative" refers to both a unit of analysis, individual narrative acts, and the overall narrative approach's theoretical lens.

Symbols are employed in symbolic management to convey meanings beyond their obvious functional use (Zott & Huy 2007) A city-center office, for example, can be perceived as both a convenience for employees and a symbol of corporate prominence (Zott & Huy 2007). Symbolic management and narrative research are forms of social constructionism (Kennedy 2008; Munir 2005). Many see narrative as a tool for symbolic management or sense making (Granqvist *et al.,* 2012; Navis & Glynn 2011; Navis & Glynn 2011).

Much research revealed that positive narratives enable entrepreneurs get financing (Aldrich & Fiol 1994; Rowell & Gustafsson 2015; Martens et al. 2007; Navis &

Glynn 2011; Santos & Eisenhardt 2009). Obtaining resources is said to be the "greatest challenge faced by entrepreneurs" (Brush *et al.,* 2001). Investors and entrepreneurs are unaware of the importance of business possibilities and the entrepreneur's ability to utilise them (Martens *et al.*, 2007). Obtaining capital is also vital to a venture's success (Brush *et al.*, 2001; Cooper et al. 1994; Parker & van Praag 2006; Zimmerman &Zeitz 2002). Thus, new venture financial allocation success has been utilized to assess narrative effect (Baum *et al.,* 2000; Cooper et al. 1994; Martens *et al.*, 2007; Zott & Huy 2007).

As per Kaufman (2003), storytelling is one of the earliest uses ways to get people to communicate to one another. It is important for all countries, businesses, and cultures to tell stories, Denning (2005) says. It can be thought of as the first way people communicate with each other, too. Numerous theorists think of storytelling as the same thing as and from the point of view of narrative inquiry (Denning, 2005; Simmons, 2001; Shankar et al, 2001; Heo, 2004). Shankar et al. (2001) claim that narratives are stories that help us make sense of our lives. According to Simmons (2002), a storey is "basically a narrative account of an event or events, true or fictional." He tells a storey instead of giving an example, using emotional and sensory details. The sum of its parts, according to Chestek (2010), is greater than the whole.

Denning (2005) agrees with Simmons. He does not make a difference between story and narrative, like Simmons does. He says that both refer to "a narrative of events that are linked in some way." Heo (2004) thinks that storytelling is the same thing as and is the same from the point of view of narrative inquiry, whether it is written down or spoken. He is 100% sure that narrative is a way to know and understand that can capture all of humanity's richness and variety of meaning. There are many different types of stories, and each one can help us tell our storey. They can show us who we

are as people, how we feel, and why we need to do something in a certain way. Furthermore, he says that narratives include information, ideas, theories, and dreams that come from someone's point of view and in the context of their life. It is based on storey principles and forms that people believe and think.

In the words of Gliner, Goldman and Hubert (1983), narrative training effects how people present data. The power of storytelling in management and enterprise studies is expanding (Hamilton, 2006). Prior studies highlighted how narratives and emotions help students understand entrepreneurship (Godsey & Sebora, 2009; Roundy, 2014). Networking is defined as the concept that exchanging tales helps business (Bisht, 2013). Similar recent findings examine and shares personal business experiences (Karmali, 2012; Wadhwani & Chen, 2011).

These videos were previously used to examine Bill Gates and Richard Branson's entrepreneurial identities (Boje & Smith, 2010). From the standpoint of personality psychology, self-defining narratives give people's perspectives (McAdams & Pals, 2006). Positive narratives build cross-cultural resilience, which is essential for entrepreneurship (Junaid, Durrani, Mehboob ur, & Shaheen, 2014). Entrepreneurs' narrative articulation of public, social, and moral problems often use Kant's concept of maturity (Clarke & Holt, 2010). Narratives can help students learn entrepreneurship management and add to theory (Friedman & Prusak, 2008; Gabriel & Connell, 2010). Their emergent and connected processes enable the development of business prospects (Denise & Watson, 2007). Entrepreneurs should use the storytelling technique, academics say (O'Connor, 2002).

A career counselling framework and a technique of practice are used by Zikic and Franklin (2010) to uncover and value lives in stories. Hood and Young (1993) claim

that tales can teach most aspects of entrepreneurship (Boje & Smith, 2010; Denise & Watson, 2007; Down & Warren, 2008; Johansson, 2004; Linstead & Hytti, 2005; Matlay & Harmeling, 2011; Rae, 2005). Narrative is treasured and productive in fostering the building of entrepreneurial identities in EE (Donnellon, Ollila, & Middleton, 2014).

Zikic and Franklin (2010) use a holistic narrative approach, a career counselling framework, and a way to uncover and value lives in tales. They argue that most aspects of entrepreneurship may be acquired through stories (Boje & Smith, 2010; Denise & Watson, 2007; Down & Warren, 2008; Johansson, 2004; Linstead & Hytti, 2005; Matlay & Harmeling, 2011; Rae, 2005). Narrative appears to help EE entrepreneurs develop their identities (Donnellon, Ollila, & Middleton, 2014).

Vannini (2012) defines stories as narratives that tell of personal and collective memories or features of human biographies. They can be shared vocally, in writing, or in other ways. "Storytelling" is the act of sharing stories with people or researchers. So, theoretically, storytelling is a way for people to make sense of their own life. As a result, stories and storytelling are seen as a means of communication used to run and interpret both communal and individual occurrences.

Traditions like teacher-student relationships might include entrepreneurial role models. Role models can be offered through informal storytelling using multimedia with high value and influence (Kuratko, 2005). Individual perceptions are influenced by stories, narratives, and storey telling. Bruner (1986) contends that people generate reality in two ways: propositional and storytelling. People, places, motivations, and actions are included in narrative judgement rather than cause-and-effect analysis. These factors give context to narratives, which in turn affect people's views (Stewart,

1997). We are touched by stories, according to Coles (1989) and stories also make us more tolerant thus, entrepreneurial narratives may be a successful EE educational technique. The narrative method has been studied in the context of entrepreneurship and inspiration (Johansson, 2004; Hamilton, 2006). (Pless, 2007; Essers, 2009; Clarke and Holt, 2010; Flottemesch, 2013; Haley and Boje, 2014).

According to Kaminski (2003), stories may teach leadership. Watson (2001) also recommended utilizing tales to train managers, combining research and personal experiences. People have been educated about health and safety via narrative (Smith, 2005). Unlike Friedman and Prusak (2008), Gabriel and Connell (2010) emphasize narratives' educational potential as a viable channel for management learning.

Storytelling is being used in strategic management to help implement change and educate employees (Swap *et al.*, 2001; Sumner, 2005). In other pedagogical domains, such as management learning and corporate strategy. With a focus on entrepreneurial education in schools, students gain confidence and self-efficacy in their abilities, which in turn helps them become more successful in their careers. Encouraging students to follow entrepreneurship as a profession path is therefore a smart idea (Godsey and Sebora, 2009).

Self-efficacy is defined as “a belief that we can do something specific” and refers to an individual's assessment of their abilities to execute the target behavior (Khuong & An, 2016). Furthermore, role models serve as living confirmation of appealing and attainable goals, assisting individuals in defining their self-concept and developing self-efficacy to pursue an entrepreneurial career (Akerlof and Kranton, 2000; De Clercq and Arenius, 2006). As a result, entrepreneurial role models can raise entrepreneurial aspirations (Arenius and De Clercq, 2005; Koellinger *et al.*, 2007).

Despite recent calls for entrepreneurship academics to define entrepreneurship as a life storey, few have done so, including Robertson and Collins (2003), McAdams and Pals (2006), Engstrom (2012), and Flottemesch (2013). (2013). Narrative theory is frequently used to investigate and comprehend new ideas. Web-based storytelling is increasingly being used to accommodate a variety of learning styles (McAdams and Pals, 2006). Hood and Young (1993) argue that by interviewing successful entrepreneurs and managers, EE courses should reflect practitioners' attitudes and experiences.

2.3 Concept of Human Behavior

Humans are sociable and adaptive creatures, and the behavior pattern varies when others are present. A computer can now interpret human behavior and offer up a new field for human behavior reasoning. A bird pecks a disc, a woman says "hello," a student raises his hand, etc. The Oxford Dictionary of Psychology (Colman, 2006), King (2008), and Levitis, Lidicker, and Freunda (2008) all have similar definitions (2009). It has long been assumed that understanding and measuring cognitive variables is the best way to predict behavior. The concept of attitude occupies a central position in the study of behavior research (Krosnick, Judd & Wittenbrink, 2005).

According to Kuratko, Ireland, Covin, and Hornsby (2005), entrepreneurial behavior can be described as an agent of social change that promotes innovation within an established organization. However, Bird, Schjoedt, and Baum (2012) emphasize the importance of focusing more attention on research that addresses detailed and noticeable human behavior in the creation or emergence of an enterprise and firm. Entrepreneurship research has progressed to the point where individual or team behavior should be considered important, and the study of entrepreneurial behavior is

important to entrepreneurship and firm creation. Entrepreneurial behavior is then defined by Shane and Venkataraman (2000) as the "discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities." As a result, more research should be conducted to determine the primary reason for the use of the terms discovery, evaluation, or exploitation (Kuratko et al., 2005) in reference to a going concern (enterprise) that has begun operations. Focusing on entrepreneurial conduct enables for recognition of entrepreneurship as both a solo action and a collaborative action including other actors (Karatas-zkan and Murphy, 2006).

Cope and Watts (2000) claim that critical learning experiences and experiential learning enhance entrepreneurial behavior. Important events are rarely solitary and are influenced by their surroundings. Mentors help young entrepreneurs reflect on their activities when they are in the early stages of the entrepreneurial process.

2.3.1 Attitudes towards behavior

Ajzen (1991, pp 188) defines attitude as "the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question." The association between attitude and entrepreneurial intent has been found to be substantial (Fini et al., 2009; Kautonen *et al.,* 2009; Moriano *et al.,* 2011). According to Do Paço *et al.,* (2011), attitude is the most important component in explaining entrepreneurial intention.

“Attitudes are what we feel about a concept (object of the attitude), which may be a person, a brand, an ideology, or any other entity about which we can attach feeling,” write Fini *et al.,* (2010). Attitude is the tendency to respond positively to elements in the environment (Efendi, and Makhfudli, 2009). Entrepreneurship is the study of these objects (Cruz *et al.,* 2015). The Theory of Planned Behavior states that three factors

influence how a person intends to behave, one of which is attitude. They describe attitude as the capacity to effectively respond to business risks.

Affective attitudes toward change, money, and business were all good predictors of entrepreneurial desire, according to Schwarz *et al.,* (2009). VanGelderen *et al.* (2008) discovered that financial security, prosperity, freedom from work, and autonomy predict entrepreneurial ambition. Personal attitude toward entrepreneurship, according to Schlaegel and Koenig (2014), is an important predictor of EI. Personal attitude, on the other hand, refers to a person's mindset toward a specific issue, such as venture creation (DINC & Budic, 2016). Personal attitude also refers to a person's positive or negative evaluation, and this psychological trait is present in all humans in the context of critical evaluation and appraisal (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Many researchers have previously worked on the psychology of students and demonstrated that this personal attitude influences them towards EI (Paco *et al.*, 2011; Maes *et al.,* 2014, Moriano *et al.*, 2012; Purusottama, 2019). And the more it understands, the more determined it is to engage in specific behavior (DINC & Budic, 2016). However, following a brief discussion in the previous section, the authors have chosen some important indicators of personal attitude that influence students or individuals' attitudes toward EI. These are Douglas and Shepherd's proven components or indicators of autonomy, risk, workload, and income (2002).

The first of two TRA components is attitude toward the behavior (ATT). As described by Ajzen (1991), this construct is an individual's appraisal of a given activity. Behavioral notions dominate this construct (Armitage & Conner, 2001). People connect these notions to concrete actions. The perception of these consequences as favorable or negative shapes an individual's actions (Lee *et al.,* 2016). Intentional conduct is explained by attitude (Arpaci & Baloglu, 2016; Flores & Ekstedt, 2016;

Herath *et al.,* 2014; Jafarkarimi, Saadatdoost, Sim, & Hee, 2016; Moody & Siponen, 2013; Safa et al., 2016). (Parsons, McCormac, Butavicius, *et al.,* 2014).

In TPB, attitude influences intention (Ajzen, 1991). Other theories focusing on this construct, such as TAM (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012) and TRA (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012), also support this position (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; F& A, 1975). According to Lebek (2014), eight out of ten IT studies using TPB found significant connections between attitude and intention, six of which were at the p 0.01 level. However, two of Lebek's research failed to demonstrate the correlation's importance. An attitude was found to be the strongest predictor of intention in eight non-IT research (Ajzen & Klobas, 2013; Ajzen & Sheikh, 2013; Castanier, Deroche, & Woodman, 2013; Dawson, Mullan, & Sainsbury, 2014; Efrat & Shoham, 2013; Greaves et al., 2013; Tipton, 2014; Zemore & Ajzen, 2014). The least significant predictor of intention in five additional experiments was attitude (Chan & Bishop, 2013; M. F. Chen & Tung, 2014; de Leeuw et al., 2015; Donald, Cooper, & Conchie, 2014; Mullan *et al.,* 2015).

2.3.2 Subjective Norm

A social factor called subjective norm, which refers to “perceived social pressure to perform or not perform the behavior,” is another antecedent of intention (Ajzen, 1991, pp 188). The influence of subjective norm on entrepreneurship studies shows that focusing on a society's feelings about entrepreneurship rather than the general cultural norm is a better indicator of entrepreneurial activity (Engle et al., 2010; Stenholm et al., 2013, Spencer & Gomez, 2004). Also, societal pressures can act as a catalyst or deterrent to the emergence of entrepreneurship. Positive attitudes towards family businesses project perceived desirability and feasibility of starting their own business (Guerrero et al., 2008; Dabic *et al.,* 2012; Ayob *et al.,* 2013). Extreme circumstances

or frequent changes predicted a positive impact on individuals' autonomy and attitude toward self-employment (Douglas *et al.,* 2021).

The direct experience of a business venture or starting a new business may also influence attitudes and perceptions about entrepreneurship and career (Henderson & Robertson, 2000; Peterman & Kennedy, 2003). A system of valuation and support for students' entrepreneurial intentions is created by subjective norms of entrepreneurship in the close social and close environments (Bagheri, Akmaliah, & Pihie, 2011). Consistent with this, the indirect relationship between subjective norms and entrepreneurial intentions highlights the importance of individuals in evaluating and weighting the values of entrepreneurship in their immediate social and personal environments (Bagheri, Akmaliah, & Pihie, 2011).

Subjective norms are based on respondents' perceptions of what important people in their lives think about performing a particular behaviors (Utami, 2017; Carr & Sequeira, 2007; Park & Smith, 2007). Family expectations about the desirability of becoming a lawyer, doctor, or entrepreneur are examples of such norms (Mwatsika, 2015; Goltz *et al.,* 2015; Amine & Staub, 2009). The strength of the motivation to conform to these normative beliefs is weighed. An individual is more likely to engage in a behavior if others who are important to them approve of it (Smith et al., 2008 and Smith & McSweeney, 2007). Conversely, a subjective norm prevents the person from performing the behaviors (Hamilton et al., 2017).

Previous study on perceived norm and entrepreneurial intent yielded conflicting results, Moriano et al. (2011) affirm this. Furthermore, van Gelderen *et al.,* (2008) found that students with entrepreneur friends and family members had positive social norms towards entrepreneurship. They observed a favorable association between

social norm and entrepreneurial intent in their investigations as well. However, according to do Paço *et al.,* (2011), societal norms have historically had minimal influence on predicting entrepreneurial intent. Social norms, say Shook and Bratianu (2010), are not linked to entrepreneurial intent. Both Fini et al. (2009) and Sommer and Haug (2010) found that social norms have no impact on entrepreneurial intent (2011).

The subjective norm is an individual's point of view affected by others. Substantive norms, according to Wedayanti and Giantari (2016), are individuals' views on what is important to do or not do. Personal beliefs about how and what to think about important people drive people to act on them (Maulana, 2009). It veers away from the inner element, which is the human conscience (Sumaryono, 2012). Previous research has shown a link between subjective norms and entrepreneurial intent. The subjective norm is the belief that to be an entrepreneur, one must follow the advice of others (Cruz *et al.*, 2015).

Subjective norm denotes to the degree to which specific people or entities accept or reject the performance of a specific activity (DINC & Budic, 2016). It is one of the components of TPB, and there was a discussion about the importance of subjective norms behind the EI building in the theoretical framework section. Subjective norms are often computed by asking participants how much they believe their closest friends, family, or colleagues will help them in their entrepreneurial endeavors' activities (Lián & Chen, 2009; Ajzen, 2001).

In addition, Drennan *et al.,* (2005) discovered that parental business experience is an influential predictor of an individual's subjective norm. Although many studies did not find such a strong influence (DINC & Budic, 2016), some did find a strong influence

of subjective norms on EI in various conditions (Bhuyan & Pathak, 2019). According to De Pillis and Reardon (2007) research, different individuals' EI can be influenced by their own cultural differences. Because these individual experiences are, by definition, subjective, this aspect is referred to as a subjective norm (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

One of the two TRA constructs is subjective norm (SN), which represents social pressure to perform or not perform a specific behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Yazdanmehr & Wang, 2015). The individual's dominant normative beliefs shape this construct (Armitage & Conner, 2001). In this scenario, the person is bothered about how important people or groups view a specific action (Yoon & Kim, 2013). An organization's knowledge sharing process (Dang-Pham *et al.,* 2017; Flores *et al.,* 2014), together with its data security policies and controls (Dang-Pham *et al.,* 2014). (Allam et al., 2014; Soomro *et al.,* 2016).

Personal beliefs about what others think about something will have an impact on whether they do it. (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Yazdanmehr & Wang, 2015). Subjective norm has been found to be a weak (Dinev & Hu, 2007; Jafarkarimi *et al.,* 2016), strong (Hu *et al.,* 2012; Yazdanmehr & Wang, 2015) Information security compliance can be predicted and motivated using this tool.

This pattern was seen in non-IT TPB studies. Two studies found subjective norm to be the strongest predictor of intention (Greaves *et al.,* 2013; Prapavessis, Gaston, & DeJesus, 2015). Ten studies rank it second most important (de Leeuw *et al.,* 2015; Donald *et al.,* 2014; Greaves et al., 2013; Mullan *et al.,* 2015; Tipton, 2014). Three found subjective norm to be unreliable (Dawson *et al.,* 2014; Donald *et al.,* 2014; Efrat & Shoham, 2013).

One study says the construct is irrelevant (Zemore & Ajzen, 2014). The role of subjective norm in predicting intended behaviors is also debated. In a meta-analysis of 161 studies using TPB, Armitage and Conner (2001) concluded that the construct was relevant if multiple measures were used but called for more empirical evidence. Contrary to Randall and Gibson (1991), Dinev and Hu (2007) found subjective norm to be a weak predictor of TPB. Subjective norm is the most influential construct, according to Cox (2012). In six of the eight TPB studies, subjective norm influenced intention statistically, according to Lebek (2014).

Other studies that did not use TPB found subjective norm to be a significant (Tsai *et al.*, 2016) or weak predictor of intention (Arpaci & Baloglu, 2016; Cheng *et al.*, 2013). This construct's application is also disputed. Rather than using subjective norms as a predictor, Siponen *et al.*, (2014) used normative beliefs as a predictor directly (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen, Randall, and Gibson (1991) hypothesized that the relevance of each independent variable in TPB would change based on the subject, environment, and sample population.

2.3.3 Perceived Behavioral Control

Perceived behavioral control refers to an individual's ability to perform a behavior. This is based on the person's knowledge, experience, and assessment of potential obstacles. More control over behaviors means more intention to perform it (Samuel & Ernest, 2013). "Perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviors," says Ajzen (1991, p. 188). Many researchers, including Shook and Bratianu (2010), Moriano *et al.*, (2011), Schwarz *et al.*, (2009), and van Gelderen *et al.*, The best predictor of entrepreneurial intention, according to Sommer and Haug (2011), is perceived behavioral control. The perceived ease or difficulty of performing a behavior (Ajzen, 2005). Perceived behavioral control, on the other hand, varies with situations and

behaviors. Perceived behavioral control is the ability of an individual to perform entrepreneurial behavior (Leroy, Maes, Meuleman, Sels, & Debrulle, 2014). Separating internal and control beliefs carries a contrasting sense in influencing the person's intention. In other words, internal control beliefs are linked to personal capabilities, such as having the confidence to start your own business, while external control beliefs are linked to situational control.

Students who believed they could perform the tasks associated with entrepreneurship were more likely to start a business, according to Shook and Bratianu (2008). Moriano *et al.,* (2011) and Fini *et al.,* (2011) found that perceived behavioral control influenced entrepreneurial intention (2009). According to Ajzen (1988), behavioral control is defined as "this factor refreshes to the perceived ease or difficulty performing the behavior and it assumes to reflect past experience as well as anticipates impediment and obstacles," it assumes a reflection of prior experience and anticipating of challenges. According to Cruzet al, self-efficacy is the belief that an activity is easy or difficult to accomplish (2015).

The simplicity or with which a person perceives the process of beginning and owning a business. The theory of planned behavior includes PBC. The accomplishment motivation hypothesis developed by Atkinson (1964) includes components of perceived behavioral control. It refers to the anticipated possibility of successfully accomplishing a certain task. The theory of planned behavior introduces PBC, unlike Ajzen's (1991) previous theory of reasoned action. PBC, along with behavioral intention, may be a good predictor of an individual's success in a specific field. Bandura and his colleagues have done most of the research on perceived behavioral control (Adams, & Beyer, 1977; Bandura, Adams, Hardy, & Howells, 1980). Self-efficacy beliefs impact task choices, effort, and emotional wellbeing (Bandura, 1981).

As per Cruz et al, (2015) self-efficacy is the belief that an activity is easy or difficult to accomplish. Entrepreneurship is regarded to be hampered by one of the difficult things to do. Starting and running a business might be perceived as easy or difficult by an individual (DINC & Budic, 2016). Many researchers have discovered a link between PBC and EI (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Kraft *et al.,* 2005). PBC is a significant factor in the theory of planned behavior, according to the discussion in the previous part of the conceptual model. Furthermore, the theory of planned behavior suggests that, when combined with behavioral intent, PBC may be a strong predictor of an individual's success in each area (Ajzen, 1991). Based on previous research, some indicators were chosen to conduct research on the level of influence of PBC. Individuals' self-efficacy and entrepreneurial alertness, according to Kristiansen and Indarti (2004), can influence their PBC toward EI; however, Armitage and Conner (2001) discovered that creativity and perseverance also influence that. As a result, the contextualized approach of this study supports the premise that PBC and entrepreneurial behavior are related.

TPB and TRA are distinguished by PCB (Ajzen, 1991). According to Lebek (2014), 92 percent of PBC-intention correlations were p0.05 significant. But many research find this construct weak or insignificant (Ajzen & Klobas, 2013; Ajzen & Sheikh, 2013; Castanier et al., 2013; Greaves et al., 2013; Prapavessis et al., 2015; Greaves *et al.,* 2013). The individual's salient control beliefs affect this construct (Ajzen, 2002).

Ajzen (1991) connected it to self-efficacy and locus of control. The belief that one can control external occurrences (Ajzen, 2002). Unlike locus of control, perceived behavior control considers both the actor's belief that they can control their behavior and the ease or difficulty of exercising that control (Ajzen, 2002). Self-efficacy is the belief in one's ability to attain a goal (Ajzen, 1991).

Previous research has used both locus of control and self-efficacy to define perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 2002). (Cox, 2012; Ifinedo, 2014). People will engage in an activity if they believe they have the options and capabilities to do so (Ajzen, 2002). This construct has been shown to (Ajzen, 1991).

2.4 Theoretical Framework

The theory of planned behavior (TPB) and Shapero and Sokol's model of entrepreneurial event (SEE) are the two dominant formal, theory-driven models of intentions (Nabi & Holden, 2008; Nabi, Holden, & Walmsley, 2010; Nabi & Lián, 2011; Miralles *et al.,* 2012). The empirical tests of these two entrepreneurial intention models revealed compatibility and utility (Krueger et al., 2000; Miralles et al., 2012; Nabi *et al.,* 2010). According to Nabi *et al.,* (2010), both the Theory of planned behavior and Shapero and Sokol's model of entrepreneurial event models can help individuals change their attitudes. These models can help determine what factors influence an individual's desire to be an entrepreneur.

Kolvereid, Iakovleva, and Kickup (2007) concluded that combining the TPB and SEE models can accurately predict self-employment intentions. Researchers found two dimensions of overlap between the two entrepreneurial intention models: perceived desirability and perceived viability (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994; Linan, Urbano & Guerrero, 2011). "People's judgments of their abilities to organize and execute courses of action required to achieve designated types of performances," says Bandura (1986). Self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intentions have previously been linked (Naktiyok, Karabey & Gulluce, 2010; Prabhu, McGuire, Drost & Kwong, 2012; Sanchez, 2013; Akmaliah, Pihie & Bagheri, 2013; Sesen, 2013). The SEE and TPB models' antecedents of entrepreneurial intent are discussed below.

2.4.1 Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event Theory

The Shapero entrepreneurial event model predicts entrepreneurial intentions based on perceived desirability, feasibility, and action propensity (Krueger *et al.,* 2000). In this model, people are more likely to start a business if they are drawn to the idea, believe they can do it, and are self-motivated. The entrepreneurial event is created by the interaction of situational, cultural, and social variables. Shapero and Sokol (1982) claimed that entrepreneurship begins with displacement. Placement of perceived facilitators or inhibitors, or removal or avoidance of perceived inhibiting factors. Displacement events can be viewed as either triggers or barriers to action, say Krueger *et al.,* (2000). While Krueger *et al.,* (2000) found the Shapero entrepreneurial event model is three antecedents of entrepreneurial intention predictive, Miralles *et al.,* (2012) found no such predictiveness.

A cultural and social interaction can lead to a firm creation by influencing individual perceptions, according to Shapero and Sokol (Shapero and Sokol, 1982). The model is an intention model, which is unique to entrepreneurship (Krueger *et al.,* 2000). In this sense, the model views entrepreneurship as a viable option arising from an external change (Miralles *et al.,* 2012). In this model, entrepreneurial intentions are determined by three factors: desirability, action propensity, and feasibility.

To consider how entrepreneurial intentions shape 'entrepreneurial events.' Shapero and Sokol (1982) studied how life path changes affect people's perceptions of desirability and feasibility when starting new businesses. Changes in life circumstances (displacement) cause a shift in entrepreneurial intention and behavior. Divorce, job loss) or positive (relocation) (financial support, good business partner). To become self-employed and establish a new business, one must first assess its appropriateness and viability.

In Shapero's model, a person decides to act based on perceived desirability and feasibility. This model states that human behavior is inert until an event causes displacement (Nabi *et al.*, 2006). The 'push' and 'pull' theories of displacement are described by Gilad and Levine (1986). Loss of employment drives an individual into self-employment.

Financial aid, for example, pushes people towards self-employment. Sad to say, the actual study on this precise push and pull forces is scarce (Krueger *et al.,* 2000). What is a trigger event? Is it possible for a student to experience one throughout their entrepreneurial studies?.

Shapero and Sokol (1982) claim that a person's personal opinions, values, and sentiments are influenced by their social settings (family, peer groups, educational and professional influences). In other words, desire precedes intention. Acting or not acting based on perceived desirability of entrepreneurship (Mitchell *et al.,* 2002). Entrepreneurial education fosters determination.

It refers to an individual's perception of available resources such as capital, knowledge, financial support, and partners (Shapero and Sokol, 1982). As a metric for perceived feasibility, Shapero-Krueger employs entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Krueger *et al.,* 2000). Moreover, entrepreneurial knowledge influences self-belief (perceived feasibility), according to McMullen and Shepherd (2006). Perceptions, feasibility, and desirability must all interact, say Shapero and Sokol (1982). A person may consider it undesirable if they believe it is impossible. Self-employment goals may not materialize if one lacks conviction in one's capacity to self-employed or acquire sufficient resources. Participation in entrepreneurship education may increase students' perceptions of feasibility, but it does not guarantee self-employment goals.

2.4.2 The Theory of Planned Behavior

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) builds on Ajzen and Fishbein's 1980 theory of reasoned action (Ajzen, 2005). Ajzen and Cote (2008) claim that the TPB is the most widely used framework for predicting human behavior. When the behavior is voluntary, intentions are good predictors of behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). Entrepreneurship is a planned behavior, not a spontaneous decision. The TPB says the most important immediate determinant of action is intent (Ajzen, 2005). To the contrary, the TPB claims that a person's intention to start a business can be predicted with high accuracy based on their attitude toward it (Ajzen, 2005, 2012). Because the theory considers both individual and social factors, it allows researchers to predict entrepreneurial intent (Autio *et al.,* 2001; Lan *et al.,* 2020; Davids, 2017). Individuals evaluating a to-be-executed behavior according to its ease of execution (PBC) and attitude toward entrepreneurship (personal belief in certain behaviors or actions, such as entrepreneurial spirit) are included in TPB (starting business ventures) (Su *et al.,* 2021; Puvaneswari, 2015). These variables directly predict entrepreneurial intent. According to Ajzen (1991), PBC is the core of TPB; whereas subjective norms involve analyzing reasons that cause an entrepreneur's intention to change based on their external environment. When these variables are met, an entrepreneur's desire to start a business grows stronger (Morris et al., 2006). Because entrepreneurs' attitudes toward entrepreneurship change over time, so does their entrepreneurial intent (Chen *et al.,* 1998; Douglas & Shepherd, 2002). Thus, higher education can effect change through training or experience, increasing students' self-efficacy, perceived effectiveness, and feasibility of entrepreneurship (Van Dinther et al., 2011; Shinnar *et al.,* 2014.

Personal attitude, according to Ajzen (1991), is an individual's appraisal of a given behavior. This rating ranges from favorable to unfavorable. According to Ajzen (1991), the intention increases with personal attitude. The theory defines personal attitude toward starting-up as an individual's positive or negative personal valuation of being an entrepreneur (Liñán *et al.,* 2011; Al-Shammari & Waleed, 2018; Kautonen *et al.,* 2011). This assessment includes the attractiveness or lack thereof, and the benefits and drawbacks of being an entrepreneur (Linan & Chen, 2009). To perform the given behavior, Ajzen (1991) theorizes that the individual is influenced or pressured by family, friends, peers, and society. Ajzen (1991) states that greater influence or pressure increases gravitation or avoidance. For example, an individual may perceive social pressure to engage in entrepreneurial behaviors (Linan & Chen, 2009), as well as whether reference people approve or disapprove of the decision to become an entrepreneur (Ajzen, 2001). The Theory of Planned Behavior, which addresses non-volitional behavior, overcame these limitations (Shrestha *et al.,* 2012; Yeh *et al.,* 2021). Attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control influence an entrepreneur's intention to start a new business. Intention determines behavior. Affecting attitude, subjective norm, or perceived behavioral control is assumed to influence intentions (Rezai et al., 2016; Ruhle *et al.,* 2010).

It is a person's attitude toward the behavior that determines whether they approve of it. Perceived behavioral control is the ability to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 2005; Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Subjective norms are perceived social pressures to do or not do something. Behavioral, normative, and control beliefs all influence entrepreneurial intention antecedents (Ajzen, 2012, 2005; Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Individuals' actions are also influenced by their expectations of others and their motivation to meet those expectations (Ajzen, 2005, 2012).

Numerous research has verified the TPB since its introduction. These include research on beginning a business (Krueger *et al.,* 2000; Lián& Chen, 2006, 2009; Nishimura & Tristán, 2011; Garca-Rodrguez, Gil-Soto, Ruiz-Rosa & Sene, 2013; Lián *et al.*, 2013). (Douglas, 2013) Shepherd et Wiklund According to Lián and Chen (2006, 2009) and Lián, Rodrguez-Cohard, and Rueda-Cantuche (2011). These findings align with Krueger *et al.,* (2000), Oruoch *et al.* (2006), Li *et al.,* (2006), Nishimura *et al.,* (2013).

Other research has found complete support for the TPB in terms of the three antecedents of entrepreneurial intent (for example, Souitaris *et al.*, 2007; Gird & Bagraim, 2008; Basu & Virick, 2008; Engle, Dimitriadi, Gavidia, Schlaegel, Delanoe, Alvarado, He, Buame & Wolff, 2010; Mueller, 2011; Iakovleva *et al.*, 2011; Angriawan, Conners, Furdek & Ruth, 2012; Otuya, Kibas, Gichira & Martin, 2013). The TPB is regarded as a useful framework for both designing and evaluating interventions (Ajzen, 2011:2012).

The TPB's three conceptually distinct determinants of intentions are discussed below: Entrepreneurs' expectations of an opportunity's value determine its value. Perceptions of the consequences of a behavior shape attitudes, according to Ajzen (2005). Costs and benefits are behavioral consequences (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). Beliefs about the outcomes of entrepreneurship influence the desire to start one. Personal gains from an entrepreneurial career spur entrepreneurial intention (Volery *et al.*, 2013).

Choo and Wong (2006) claim that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards influence entrepreneurial intent. Prior research shows that key beliefs about autonomy, authority, economic opportunity, and self-actualization influence entrepreneurship attitudes (Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006). (Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006; Fretschner, 2013)

Entrepreneurial intentions are linked to feelings of independence, income, and ownership (Douglas & Fitzsimmons, 2013). In contrast, Saeed, Yousafzai, Yani-De-Soriano, and Muffatto (2013) looked at how self-realization, role, and recognition affect entrepreneurial inclinations. Vanevenhoven and Liguori (2013) link money, autonomy, personal fulfilment, and family security to entrepreneurial goals and self-efficacy.

This means that when these entrepreneurial outcomes are achieved, people are more likely to want to start a business and believe they can do so. Personal approval and positive value from others are also associated with positive views of entrepreneurial behavior (Lián *et al.*, 2013).

The expectation theory states that entrepreneurial outcomes influence entrepreneurial desire (Renko, Kroeck & Bullough, 2012; Edelman, Brush, Manolova & Greene, 2010). People choose entrepreneurship because it provides greater psychic utility than working for others (Douglas & Fitzsimmons, 2006; Steffens, Fitzsimmons, & Douglas, 2007). (Segal *et al.*, 2005). Observing the outcomes of other entrepreneurs' actions can provide insight into the potential benefits and drawbacks of entrepreneurship. This can impact one's entrepreneurial attitude and intentions (Uygun & Kasimoglu, 2013; Muofhe & du Toit, 2011; Lapista *et al.*, 2012; Zhang, Duysters & Cloodt, 2013; Marques, Ferreira, Gomes & Rodrigues, 2012).

To conduct a behavior, people assess their ability to manage it. Control beliefs about factors that can help, or hinder behavior performance determine it (Ajzen & Cote, 2008). This list includes external and internal factors that influence the perceived difficulty of performance (Ajzen, 2005, 2011, 2012).

People believe they can be entrepreneurs if others in society approve and value it (Lián *et al.,* 2013). Positive social and immediate environment appraisals of entrepreneurial behavior increase perceived entrepreneurial skills, which influences perceived behavioral control. Positive peer feedback also improves perceived behavioral control by increasing information about the business environment (associations, support systems, and access to preferential financing). Entrepreneurial self-efficacy is boosted by specific sector experience, according to Uygun and Kasimoglu (2013). Similarly, Douglas *et al.,* (2013) and Gird *et al.,* Having entrepreneurial narratives also boosts self-efficacy and helps develop entrepreneurial intentions (Uygun & Kasimoglu, 2013; Dohse & Walter, 2012; Barnir, Watson & Hutchins, 2011). According to Ramos-Rodrguez *et al.,* (2010) people who believe they can start their own firm are more likely to see good business possibilities.

According to research, institutions that support entrepreneurs (financing, information, training, mentoring, or technical assistance) should be easily available. Expansion or facilitation of opportunities for networking with entrepreneurs is also required. These actions can improve one's perceived entrepreneurial ability. Subjective norms are generated by beliefs that others approve or disapprove of a behavior (Ajzen, 2005). Many other people can help you understand yourself better. People will sense social pressure to undertake a behavior if they believe their referents agree. People are more inclined to start a business if they know other entrepreneurs, says Ajzen (Lapista, Breugst, Heblich & Patzelt, 2012). Engle *et al.,* (2010), Mueller (2011), Iakovleva *et al.,* (2011), Angriawan et al. (2012), and Otuya *et al.,* (2012) all support the influence of subjective norms on the intention to start a business (2013). According to the findings, people are more likely to start a business if they believe others close to them would approve and they see others doing so. The more people believe others will

approve of them when they do something, the more likely they are to do it Oruoch (2006), Lián *et al.,* (2011), Garcia-Rodrguez *et al.,* (2013), Lián *et al.,* (Oruoch, 2006; Lián *et al.,* 2011; Garcia-Rodrguez *et al.,* 2013).

2.4.3 Role model theory

This study was founded on the role model theory. The entrepreneurial role model, as defined by Gibson (2004), is “a cognitive construction based on the attributes of people in social roles that an individual perceives to be similar to him or herself to some extent and desires to increase perceived similarity by emulating those attributes.” The term "role model" refers to the psychological relationship between one's own cognitive talents and behavior patterns and those of others. Learning new abilities is easier when role models and their stories share similar personalities, activities, and ambitions. (Nauta & Kokaly, 2001).

Role identification occurs when one's characteristics resemble those of another attractive individual (Kagan, 1958; Bell 1970). It can also cause a person's interests to alter (Witt & Wilson, 1991). Kagan (1958) and Rahman and Day (2014) describe an empathic person who communicates themselves through entrepreneurial stories. Thus, a role model can help aspiring entrepreneurs develop traits and skills in formal or informal settings.

Other role model or narrative theories relate to role recognition and social learning (Bandura, 1977; Gibson, 2004). Narratives can inspire and motivate people (Krumboltz et al., 1976). A person chooses a role model based on their reputation and charisma as an entrepreneur. Until date, there have been two basic routes between career choice and role model narratives (Quimby & DeSantis, 2006). A professional choice is influenced by the support provided by narratives (Lent, Brown, & Hackett,

1994). But research shows that role models have a strong impact on one's entrepreneurial intent and activities (BarNir *et al.,* 2011; Van Auken *et al.,* 2006).

Numerous studies show that successful entrepreneurs influence people's attitudes toward entrepreneurship and perceived behavior control (BarNir et al., 2011; Boyd & Vozikis, 1994; Krueger, 1993; Nauta & Kokaly, 2001; Scherer, Brodzinski, & Wiebe, 1991). Views and entrepreneurial narratives are linked. Overall, research shows the importance of entrepreneurial role models in fostering entrepreneurial interest (Wilson, Marlino, & Kickul, 2004). However, no research has been done on the impact of multimedia entrepreneurial narratives. Particularly, multimedia holds promise as a teaching tool. Compared to traditional methods, digital videos appear promising (Rogers & Coughlan, 2013). Mayer's Multimedia Learning Theory (2001, 2005) and Cognitive Load Theory guided our research (Paas, Renkl, & Sweller, 2003; Paas & Sweller, 2014; Sweller, 1988, 1999; Valcke, 2002).

Mayer (2001, 2005) proposes that visual and auditory information are managed separately. For more information on this, see Dual Coding Theory (Clark *et. al.,* 1991; Paivio *et. al.,* 1973) and Dual Coding Theory (Clark *et. al.,* 1991). (Rieber, 1994). Second, each channel's capacity is finite. This is in line with the Cognitive Load Theory, which emphasizes memory and attention limitations. This limitation relates to a student's attention to the learning content. A cognitive representation is also proposed, along with previously learned representations. Finally, this aligns with Mayer's (2001, 2005) theory of active learning, in which mental representations of knowledge are constructed and added to prior knowledge.

Many authors have identified the desire to start a business as a step in the process (Kolvereid, 1996; Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000; Tegtmeier, 2006). Many people

use intention as an indirect antecedent of behaviour (Ajzen, 1991, 2011). Regardless of age, gender, experience, education, or entrepreneurial ambition, one study found a link between intention and behavior (Kautonen, Gelderen, & Fink, 2013). It analyses the impact of innovative educational approaches on entrepreneurial intention using multimedia-based entrepreneurial narratives.

2.5 Empirical Reviews

To promote entrepreneurship, one must first motivate others to do so and then equip them with the required skills (Béchard & Grégoire 2005; Pittaway & Cope 2007; Solomon *et al.,* 2002). As a result, both government and student demand for entrepreneurial education has increased globally. The central premise is that entrepreneurship can be taught.

Teachers, parents, mentors, and entrepreneurial narratives all play a role in shaping the lives of future entrepreneurs (Dickson *et al.,* 2008; Klandt 2004; Kolvereid 1996). Developing an entrepreneurial culture requires young people to think creatively and critically. Its benefits are little demonstrated, despite enormous institutional investment.

There have been a slew of research looking into how entrepreneurship education influences intentions, attitudes, and perceptions (Ahmed *et al.,* 2020; Fayolle, 2005; Detienne & Chandler, 2004; Hulsink & Rauch, 2010; Galloway & Brown, 2002; Bell *et al.,* 2015; Lanero *et al.,* 2011; Hindle & Cutting, 2002; Volery & Mueller, 2006; Entrialgo & Iglesias, 2016).

Numerous studies suggest that entrepreneurship education improves entrepreneurial behavior and intentions (Hansemark, 1998; Liao & Gartner, 2008; Wilson *et al.,* 2007; Shah *et al.,* 2020; Nowiński *et al.,* 2019). Critics claim such studies cannot

accurately assess attitudes toward entrepreneurship and the economy. Galloway *et al.,* (2005) argue for a closer look at what affects students, why, and how. Leitch & Harrison (1999) argue for a closer look at what influences students, why, and how. According to Peterman and Kennedy, some entrepreneurial gains may be exaggerated (2003).

Rajib *et al.,* (2017) studied the motivations of young science and technology graduates to start businesses in developing countries, particularly India. They employed Ajzen's modified planned behavior theory. They introduced three new constructs to describe the antecedent-entrepreneurial intent link (perceived career option, entrepreneurial knowledge, and entrepreneurial personality traits). They discovered that subjective norms influence intention formation positively but weakly.

Arshad *et al.,* (2016) employed SEM to examine the impact of entrepreneurship self-sufficiency and social norm on entrepreneurial aspiration. Female entrepreneurial inclinations are influenced more by perceived societal expectations than self-efficacy. Women's entrepreneurial goals were predicted by self-efficacy and engagement with influential entrepreneurial role models, according to Austin and Nauta (2016). Entrepreneurs must have self-confidence and a solid support network. 105 women's entrepreneurial objectives were linked to the intensity of interactions with their most important role model. Self-efficacy is linked to both role-model exposure and entrepreneurial ambitions.

Kautonen *et al.,* (2015) assessed the utility and durability of planned behaviors theory using longitudinal data from Austria and Finland (n = 969) (TPB). The study revealed two research flaws: the small sample sizes used in most previous studies and the lack of studies investigating how entrepreneurial intentions translate into actions. The

study discussed future research directions as well as conceptual and methodological issues.

Mei *et al.,* (2015) investigated the impact of planned behaviors and personal variables on low among Chinese tourism students. 109 tourism students were polled to determine the key factors influencing their entrepreneurial intent. Based on personal variables, multi-group analysis shows differences in personal attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. The findings highlight the importance of segmenting factors influencing entrepreneurial intent. Kautonen *et al.,* (2013) used TBP to predict entrepreneurial behaviors. This article examined the TBP's ability to predict company start-up intentions and behavior using two waves of Finnish survey data Findland (2006 and 2009). Entrepreneurial purpose and subsequent behavior are predicted by attitude, perceived behavioral control, and subjective norms.

According to Koçolu and Hassan, TPB predicts EI among Turkish and Pakistani university students (2012). TPB component correlations were as intense and comparable across Pakistani and Turkish cultures, except for the social norms and intentions relationship. Also, SN effects EI via PA and PBC, but not directly on intention.

Lo *et al.,* (2012) compared the entrepreneurship goals of male and female engineering students. The planned behavior theory underpins this study (TPB). Three Hong Kong universities sent 411 engineering students, 303 men and 108 women. As a result, TPB was found to be appropriate for both male and female students' entrepreneurial intentions. Male and female students demonstrated different entrepreneurial attitudes, societal norms, and intentions. They looked at entrepreneurial intent across 12 nations. A key approach for measuring entrepreneurial intent in the nations analyzed

was TBP. The study indicated that societal norms influenced entrepreneurship intent (EI).

Lián and Chen (2009) tested the psychometric properties of an EIQ based on Ajzen's planned behavior theory. Next, 519 persons from Spain and Taiwan are tested. They overcame past research restrictions using EIQ and structural equations Cultural motivation was emphasized. The study found that the EIQ's properties were satisfactory and that the model was well supported. The study derived perspectives on how cultural values influence how people perceive entrepreneurship.

Gelderen *et al.*, (2008) tested business students' entrepreneurial intent. The planned behavior theory says attitudes, perceived behavioral control, and subjective standards determine intentions. Financial security and entrepreneurial alertness were found to be the most critical characteristics determining entrepreneurial ambitions.

Shook and Bratianu (2008) studied Romanian students' entrepreneurial intentions using planned behavior theory (TPB). 324 Romanian students were assessed using regression analysis. But some of their findings backed up the theory. Entrepreneurial intent was associated to self-efficacy and enthusiasm to start a business. Regardless, they discovered that helpful referents made students less likely to establish a firm.

Kolverid and Isaksen (2006) emphasized building a new business from scratch. It is based on the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behavior. The hypotheses were tested using data from 297 Norwegian business founders. According to the research findings, differing perspectives on self-employment influenced attitudes, which influenced intents to become self-employed, which influenced actual self-employment. Using the TPB model, an American study identified strong factors on attitude, subjective norm, perceived feasibility, and entrepreneurship intent.

University research on entrepreneurial education and intentions may be optimal. To start a new innovative enterprise requires new technology, research, and information or knowledge networks (Bull &Winter, 1991; Pennings, 1982). Educators can influence entrepreneurship by setting the rules of information and knowledge transfer (Aldrich & Wiedermayer, 1993). These norms shape opinions, which shape job choices.

Peterman and Kennedy (2003) found that EE engagement increased secondary school students' perceived desire and feasibility of entrepreneurship. Chen, Su, and Wu (2012) found that ambitious entrepreneurs that obtained EE tended to take more risks. Wurthmann (2014) found a connection between perceived entrepreneurial desire and feasibility (Byabashaija & Katono, 2011; Kuehn, 2008). Researchers found that regulatory reliability, complexity, and policy support improved perceived growth feasibility. Douglas and Fitzsimmons (2013) identified negative connections in the context of entrepreneurial ambitions, indicating a new sort of entrepreneur.

This growing trend in entrepreneurship programs in Kenya is primarily driven by government policies and programs aimed at promoting entrepreneurship. These initiatives promote self-employment as a viable career option (Low & MacMillan, 1988; Souitaris et al., 2007). Recognizing the growing importance of entrepreneurship in economic development, many tertiary institutions have established entrepreneurship education programs. Universities and colleges have developed entrepreneurial disciplines and courses to train students for both corporate work and self-employment.

People who have taken entrepreneurship courses are better at identifying and capitalizing on entrepreneurial opportunities, according to research. Formal education

may also help entrepreneurs gain explicit knowledge (Martin *et al.*, 2013). Entrepreneurship education training or specialized courses integrated with entrepreneurship course is expected to provide individuals with the knowledge and skills needed to start their own business (De Clercq & Arenius, 2006). However, the literature is divided on the impact of these programs on individuals' entrepreneurial intentions (Matlay, 2006; Harris *et al.*, 2008).

The study's hypothesis is that students who took entrepreneurship education courses as part of their specialty were more likely to become entrepreneurs. A general theoretical substance in entrepreneurship education is assumed, therefore limiting the study's exposure.

2.6 Human Behavior and Entrepreneurial Intention

It is assumed that entrepreneurship is a purposeful rather than innate behavior (Garavan & Barra, 1994). Because starting a business is a deliberate act, entrepreneurial intent is a strong predictor of planned behavior (Malebana, 2014; Kautonen *et al.*, 2015; Aloulou, 2016). Entrepreneurial intention models have tried to identify antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions (Srivastava & Misra, 2017; Lepoutre, van den Berghe, Tilleuil, & Crijns, 2011; Ozaralli & Rivenburgh, 2016; Tausch & Becker, 2013).

The TPB claims that attitudes, subjective norm, and PBC are proximal antecedents of behavioral intention. A person's attitude and subjective norm are more favorable if they have a strong intention to perform the behavior in question. The final expectation is that people will act in accordance with their intentions (Ajzen, 2006). According to both theoretical and empirical evidence, attitudes, PBC, and entrepreneurial intention (e.g., Thompson, 2009) are multidimensional constructs.

The function of gender in the establishment of entrepreneurial intentions has been studied extensively in the entrepreneurship literature. Despite increased women's involvement in the enterprise sector, there are twice as many male entrepreneurs (Majumdar & Varadarajan, 2013; DeMartino & Barbato, 2003; Anna, Chandler, Jansen & Mero, 2000). Men are considered as having qualities like independence, aggression, autonomy, and courage that are important for entrepreneurship (Gupta & Bhawe, 2007; Moss, Neubaum & Meyskens, 2015).

Men have more positive views toward entrepreneurship, higher subjective norm, PBC, and intention, and are more likely to be successful than women (Karimi, Biemans, Lans, Chizari, Mulder & Mahdei, 2013; Haus, Steinmetz, Isidor, & Kabst, 2013: Nowiński, Haddoud, Lančarič, Egerová, & Czeglédi, 2019; Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014; Shinnar *et al.,* 2012; Shirokova et al., 2016; Sitaridis & Kitsios, 2019; Verheul, Thurik, Grilo, & van der Zwan, 2012; Zampetakis *et al.,* 2017).

BC is the TPB's most contentious construct, partly due to inconsistent empirical findings about its influence on intention, and partly due to conceptual and operational disagreements (Yap, Othman, & Wee, 2013). Ajzen (1991) introduced the PBC concept as another antecedent factor that can predict intention (Ajzen, 1991, p. 183). Bandura (1977, 1982) defines self-efficacy as an individual's belief in their ability to deal with future challenges. Several researchers have replaced PBC with self-efficacy in their studies due to their conceptual similarity (Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006; Krueger *et al.,* 2000; Lián, Urbano, & Guerrero, 2011; Moriano, Gorgievski, Laguna, Stephan, & Zarafshani, 2012; van Gelderen *et al.,* 2008).

Nevertheless, other researchers (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Kraft *et al.,* 2005) have observed and documented that PBC has two components: self-efficacy and perceived

controllability. Self-efficacy is the sense of how easy or difficult a specific behavior is, as well as confidence in one's ability to accomplish it. The belief that one's actions are completely under one's control. Felt controllability is measured by perceived control over perceived difficulty (Ajzen, 2002; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Courneya, Conner, & Rhodes, 2006; Kraft *et al.,* 2005; Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014).

Moriano *et al.,* (2011) previously demonstrated that while many studies explained entrepreneurial intentions, Ajzen's TPB was the most effective model (1991). Ajzen's (1991) theoretical study continues to remain the most cited theory in research papers in the entrepreneurship area, according to Lián and Fayolle (2015).

The TPB (Ajzen, 1991) focused on two aspects of entrepreneurial intent: attitudes and self-efficacy. Identifying behavioral intentions relied on three components: behavioral attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. The first concerns the influence of beliefs on behavior.

The second refers to normative beliefs and the motivation to conform to them. Another one is the ability to perform a specific behavior (Moriano *et al.,* 2011).

Schlaegel and Koenig (2014) claim Ajzen's (1991) study were the most complex, revealing new factors influencing entrepreneurial intent. The authors conclude that Ajzen (1991) best supports and explains the TPB's entrepreneurial intention. Schlaegel and Koenig (2014) show that perceived convenience, proclivity to act, and viability influence the EEM (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). Perceived convenience is the level of attraction and interest in becoming an entrepreneur. Persons who are inclined to act are those who are inclined to adopt appropriate attitudes at the right time.

Lortie and Castogiovanni (2015) expanded on the TPB, stating that any planned behavior requires some level of intentionality. The motivational elements that impact the behavior are captured, as is the effort put forth by the person intending to perform. To start a business, an individual must have the desire to do so (Zapkau and Schwens 2014).

The TPB model is an important cognitive process model for evaluating entrepreneurial intent, say Engle *et al.,* The model explains the complexities of human behavior and its influences. That human behavior can be a source of intention. Ajzen (1991) contends that attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control directly influence intention. In other words, the three criteria directly affect a person's intent to act. The author goes on to say that TPB can be used to understand specific behaviors like buying, leisure, and drinking. Entrepreneurship, according to Krueger *et al.,* (2000), is planned behavior. Thus, using TPB to assess entrepreneurial intent is feasible. TPB is a powerful model for studying and understanding entrepreneurial intent (Moriano *et al.,* 2011; Shook and Bratianu, 2010; van Gelderen *et al.,* 2008). TPB has proven to be an effective tool in.

To better explain and predict entrepreneurial intention, it is critical to add relevant variables to the TPB model. Brazilian researcher Souza (2015) did the same in Scopus. Then he used Bib excel to look at data from 1999 to August 2015. "Entrepreneurial intent" appeared in 242 articles. The author used the free software Iramuteq to create a Dendrogram to show the lexical analysis results (Camargo & Justo, 2013). In articles about entrepreneurial intent, two classes of keywords were found: 2) classes 1 and 5 have the lowest percentage (29.9%) and are about the TPB and variables such as subjective norms, attitude, and behavior.

Souza (2015) of the University of Seville, Spain, examined the initial model provided and validated by Lián and Chen (2009). This study used bibliometrics and Zipf's Law (Zipf, 1949). The frequency of words found in researcher Francisco Lián's articles about entrepreneurial intent was shown. As a result of the similitude analysis, Souza (2015) reaffirmed previous findings about word relationships and connections. As a result, he finds: 2) Entrepreneur – influence, impact, gender, and other relationships. The links include motivations, effects, individuals, and undergraduates. Francisco Lián's publications had an impact.

For university students' entrepreneurial intentions, Lián (2008) recently tested a model. Personal attraction (attitude toward entrepreneurship) and perceived control over entrepreneurial tasks are important factors influencing university students' entrepreneurial intentions. Affective appeal, subjective standards, and perceived behavioral control influence entrepreneurial intent. Students' decisions are also valued and supported by their immediate social (community) and familial (friends and colleagues).

2.7 Entrepreneurial Narratives and Entrepreneurial Intention

Narratives have been explained by theories of role recognition and social learning (Gibson, 2004). Stories can influence others to pursue a specific career path, according to research (Bohlmann *et al.*, 2017). A career as an entrepreneur may be more feasible and desirable when exposed to successful entrepreneurial stories. Individuals can gain specific abilities, information, and behaviors by seeing role models. When used properly, narratives may develop the attributes and skills of potential entrepreneurs as well as inspire and motivate readers (Bae, Qian, Miao, & Fiet, 2014;). Innovative pedagogical designs like multimedia environments, this is

debatable. This is crucial for those (re)designing entrepreneurial courses to match the needs of today's entrepreneurial world (Kuratko, 2005).

In recent decades, EE has gained global and scholarly attention (Kuratko, 2005; Lorz, Mueller, & Volery, 2013). Environmentally sustainable development (ESD) is a goal of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Davidsson and Wiklund (2001) argue that studying entrepreneurial phenomena at multiple levels is critical to understanding EE and entrepreneurship. Kuratko's study aimed to persuade readers to write about entrepreneurship from a pedagogical perspective (Kuratko, 2005).

Multimedia can help improve pedagogy. In this way, web-based entrepreneurial narratives may be particularly powerful in changing readers' perceptions. As stated previously (Quimby & DeSantis, 2006), narratives can inspire their audience. The target audience was an international group of vocational school students. In this study, participants' entrepreneurial ambitions and perceived desirability and feasibility were assessed. The sample was mostly from Austria, Finland, and Greece. Treatment and control groups employed an instantaneous pretest–posttest strategy to estimate treatment effect.

Studies that use control groups and have a strong methodological focus are essential for EE development. The need for such research has been expressed in recent significant metanalyses (Bae *et al.,* 2014; Martin, McNally, & Kay, 2013). Second, it evaluated the impact of entrepreneurial tales on attitudes and intentions. Third, lack of study and consensus on EE's pedagogical substance (Lorz *et al.,* 2013). (Davidsson, 2006; Mwasalwiba, 2010; WilliamsMiddleton & Donnellon, 2014). For the fourth reason, previous research has emphasized the role of higher education in supporting

entrepreneurship (Crossouard, 2010; Greene & Saridakis, 2008; Hancock, 2011; Walsh, Hargreaves, HillemannDelaney, & Li, 2015). An independent quasi experiment determined the impact of EE initiatives in this study. For the research, the study used validated research items. However, multimedia narratives have a favorable impact on students' ambition to be entrepreneurs. The treatment group has more effects than the control group, but not statistically. The therapy group outperformed the control group. The treatment group was more entrepreneurially inclined than the control group. Thus, entrepreneurship stories aided students.

The results show the treatment's efficacy. Not all the stories may have this effect. By design, this study cannot test the impacts of different narrative systems independently. Other researchers have found similar results (BarNir *et al.,* 2011; Van Auken *et al.,* 2006), supporting the idea that role models strongly influence entrepreneurial intent. Watching entrepreneurial stories may be more efficient than conducting case studies in the short term. Case studies, on the other hand, may help students grasp the nuances of being an entrepreneur. These effects may last longer.

Entrepreneurial stories inspire people to follow their dreams and emulate successful entrepreneurs (Bouwen and Steyaert, 1997; Laviolette *et al.,* 2012). Curriculum storytelling fosters future-oriented imaginations and influences career choices, not just knowledge and skills. EEP is a proven method for fostering enterprising spirit (Peterman and Kennedy, 2003; Beugelsdijk *et al.,* 2004). In EEPs, case-based teaching is frequently used to teach entrepreneurial role models like Steve Jobs, Jack Ma, and Zuckerberg. Their stories are edited and rewritten into Harvard or Ivey Cases. Moreover, universities tried to bring the entrepreneurs into the classrooms to illustrate their stories.

There is a shortage of research on different types of role models and their effects. The favorable effect may not be sustained across EEP content and pedagogical types. Few research has examined the impact of sharing failure stories in the classroom, and scholars have diverse views. Persuasive stories, both successful and unsuccessful, have been shown to help (Minniti and Bygrave, 2001; Lockwood *et al.,* 2004).

Others argue that failure stories function better when preventing bad outcomes (Laviolette *et al.,* 2012). Lessons learned from failed ventures can help future entrepreneurs avoid costly mistakes (Oosterbeek *et al.,* 2010). Will hearing about other people's failures make them less willing to take risks? Definitive categorizations of role models and separate investigations are required to clarify these ambiguous questions (Piperopoulos and Dimov, 2015). Previous research classified entrepreneurial stories into four groups based on success and distance.

Role models are those who can inspire others to pursue specific career paths or goals (Basow and Howe, 1980). Young people all over the world have always looked up to heroes like Washington and Napoleon. Individuals may subconsciously develop their mentality, imitate their role models, and strive to become them (Biraglia and Kadile, 2017; Laviolette *et al.,* 2012). Role models have a significant impact on people's career choices, according to Krumboltz *et al.,* (1976). (Krueger *et al.,* 2000; Douglas and Shepherd, 2002). Shapero and Sokol (1982) hypothesized that family members, especially parents, would influence people's perceptions of entrepreneurial role models.

By sharing information and experiences, narrative can impact entrepreneurial decisions (Ajzen, 1991; Akerlof and Kranton, 2000). Certainly, EEPs use role model education as a valuable teaching tool (European Commission, 2003; Organization for

Economic Co-operation and Development, 2009). Successful role models are believed to have a positive impact on entrepreneurial intentions because they inspire individuals to imagine their own future achievements as successful role models (Chang, 2014). Educators believe role model stories will inspire audiences' enterprising spirit (Levine, 2008; Fayolle & Gailly, 2008; Streeter, Jaquette & Hovis, 2002).

Even though role model education is widely supported by educators and students and is covered in most university entrepreneurship curricula, some scholars hold opposing views and express mixed feelings, particularly about failure role models. In comparison to successful role models, conclusions for failure role models are much more contentious, with mixed results in the literature. On one hand, insufficient and unclear failure information may heighten aspiring entrepreneurs' dread of risk and diminish their excitement. Failure role models, on the other hand, are beneficial to entrepreneurs because they increase their sensitivity and help them avoid potential failure risks (Lockwood *et al.,* 2002; Minniti and Nardone, 2007).

Researchers have tried to reconcile different accounts of role model stories' influence. For example, they suggested that the impact of role models can differ based on the audience's aspirations. For the same reason, failure role models have stronger power on preventative audiences. Self-efficacy, according to Bandura (2010), motivates people to try new tasks. Bandura (1989) stated that role model teaching requires passion. Geneve *et al.,* (2008) used SCT literature to highlight how women can learn from role models to keep their DCI enthusiasm alive.

2.7.1 Knowledge and Entrepreneurial Intention

Carter (1993) claims that the storey is a mode of knowing that uniquely captures the prosperity and nuances of human affairs. Consequently, storey, with its many meanings, is a suitable form for expressing action-based knowledge. Stories are the best and most powerful way to know, according to scholars (Gabriel, 2000; Shank, 1998; Mitchell; Czarniawsk, 2005; Bandura, 2005; Gabriel, 2000; Shank, 1998; Mitchell; Czarniawsk, 2005; Bandura, 2005; Gabriel, 2000; Shank, 1998; Mitchell; Czarniawsk, 2005; Gabriel, 2000; Shank, 1998; Mitchell; Czarniawsk (2001). Shank (1998) says that knowledge is the appropriate application of experience and storytelling. I think he is saying we know about the planet as much as we Shank adds that knowing ancient concepts helps fresh thoughts. Context allows us to connect new knowledge to previous events in our memories, and tales provide that context. Gabriel (2000) describes storytelling as an art of weaving, of producing deep understanding. It is a sensitive process that can break down and fail to produce. Gabriel thinks stories and events are intertwined, that stories may become experiences, and that storytelling is an endless process. Menzies and Paradi (2002) studied 287 engineering students for 15 years (177 entrepreneurship students and 110 control group students). After 15 years, 48% of the entrepreneurship group students had launched their own enterprises, compared to 26% of non-entrepreneurial students. The longitudinal study by Henry et al. (2004) indicated that entrepreneurship education enhances the start-up rate. The authors found that after three years of entrepreneurship education, participants had a start-up rate of 35%, which was significantly greater than the control group (17 percent). According to Levie and Autio (2008), entrepreneurship education promotes entrepreneurship. The authors used GEM data spanning seven years to show that

entrepreneurship education boosts existing and potential entrepreneurial activities in 54 nations.

According to Fox and Pennington (2009), entrepreneurship education has a positive impact on economic development by fostering new business ventures that generate new jobs and revenue. According to their research, 35% of 142 students who completed an entrepreneurship course went on to start their own businesses, with the average business lasting 3.54 years. Half of those who did not start their own business had a strong desire to do so.

It is believed that encouraging and educating youth will boost their chances of becoming entrepreneurs (Turker and Selcuk, 2009). Formal entrepreneurship education, according to Roxas *et al.,* Also, teachers who understand entrepreneurship can increase students' chance to start a firm (Engle *et al.,* 2010). They claim that entrepreneurs might utilize their knowledge to persuade their own kids to join or start family enterprises. A good support structure, education, and managerial abilities can help them succeed, said Yusof *et al.,* (2007). Birdthistle (2008) states that students are taught entrepreneurship to prepare them for starting a business and working for themselves.

2.7.2 Inspiration and Entrepreneurial Intention

Gabriel (2000) defines storytelling as a weaving, creating art form born of deep knowledge. A decent storey cannot be mass-produced, he believes and, according to Simmons (2001), consumers do not want additional knowledge since they're already drowning in it. She claims faith, not evidence, moves mountains. She goes on to suggest that people need to be inspired by a great storey. They will resume where they left off because they believe. It has become their story, and they'll tell it to others as if

it were theirs. The Oxford English Dictionary defined inspiration as "the infusion of some idea or purpose into the mind and the awakening or creation of some feeling of impulse" (Simpson and Weiner, 1989). The psychology literature evolved a more complex understanding of the notion, as demonstrated by V. Souitaris *et al.*, (2007). Based on their research, Transcendence, evocation, and motivation are defined by Thrash and Elliot (2003). Transcendence directs one's attention to something bigger than one's ordinary interests. Inspiration is elicited and unintentional; it is not directly attributed. Because this aim has a positive connotation, inspiration is considered as a motivating condition. A person apprehends something normally beyond their abilities (transcendence) and is moved to convey or apply it owing to their own influence (evocation) (i.e., motivation). To connect phenomena with different surface content (religious, artistic, inter-personal), Thrash and Elliot (2004) claim the construct's use (transcendence, evocation, motivation).

According to Thrash and Elliot (2003), inspiration is when something transcends, evokes, and motivates. Transcendence is an inspiration that makes people think about things that are bigger or more important than what they usually think about. It lets them see new possibilities. Inspiration comes out of nowhere and is not intentional; it doesn't feel like one is directly responsible for getting inspired. Finally, inspiration comes from a desire to show or show off something that has just been discovered. Because this goal is seen as a good thing, inspiration is seen as a motivating state.

The individual apprehends something typically outside his or her capacities (transcendence) and can be driven to convey or implement something freshly perceived because generated by oneself (i.e., evocation) (motivation). As a result, according to Thrash and Elliot (2004), the construct's usefulness rests in its capacity to connect phenomena with disparate surface content (religious, artistic, inter-personal)

due to a consistent conceptual and psychological foundation (transcendence, evocation, motivation).

Life-altering inspirations can change people's lives (Thrash & Elliot, 2003). Inspiration is a complex term in psychology (Thrash, Moldovan, Oleynick, & Maruskin, 2014). The scientific basis for creative inspiration has been established and validated in psychology. (Thrash & Elliot, 2003, 2004).

This definition of inspiration aligns with and expands on Oleynick *et al.,* (2014).'s larger definition of inspiration as a motivating condition that drives people to pursue their dreams, which we feel is particularly relevant for entrepreneurship. The tripartite model of inspiration that underpins this term was first established by Thrash and Elliot (2003), who identified three fundamental features of the state of inspiration: evocation, transcendence, and approach motivation (Oleynick *et al.,* 2014). Inspiration is both prompted and unwilled; one does not feel solely responsible for getting inspired (Thrash & Elliot, 2004). Inspiration brings about a consciousness of something greater or more significant than one's typical worries, which is referred to as transcendence (Milyavskaya *et al.,* 2012). Finally, once people are inspired, they feel compelled to convey, realize, or express their new vision (Oleynick *et al.,* 2014).

Thrash, Moldovan, Fuller, and Dombrowski (2014) differentiate inspiration as an event, state, or trait. Inspiration can be a gradual process, or a spontaneous state prompted by external factors (e.g., people, ideas, events, works of art, etc.). Trait inspiration refers to individual variances in the frequency and intensity of feeling inspired. Although the model's basic components depict inspiration as an evoked event, it was realized that our logic may be extended to other perspectives on inspiration. According to study, inspiration is distinct from good affect. Positive

effect, for example, is consistent throughout the week, but inspiration tends to wane on weekends, especially Fridays. Weekends seem more conducive to enjoyment and leisure, whereas weekdays seem more conducive to work and calling (Thrash & Elliot, 2004).

It involves both emotional and cognitive processing, as well as the creation of a creative result. An innovative concept or a role model are examples of inspiration stimuli (e.g., a creative product or possible future self). Inspired people are self-reliant and have a strong sense of volitional control (Thrash & Elliot, 2004). Thrash and Elliot claim that people who are inspired are more open to new experiences, work mastery, and creativity (2003). Fear of failure and competitiveness have been shown to harm motivation.

Inspiration involves both cognitive and emotional processing, involving both the head and the emotions. Unlike managers, entrepreneurs are thought to be more creative. Experience-seeking distinguishes entrepreneurs from managers (Zhao & Seibert, 2006). An individual's propensity to identify opportunities is described by their openness to new experiences, according to Shane *et al.*, (2010). Moreover, aspiration has been identified as an important psychological notion for understanding entrepreneurial motivation (Johnson, 1990). Achievement motivation has been connected to entrepreneurship. Finally, entrepreneurs fear failure less than managers. These two traits have been linked to entrepreneurship.

According to Thrash and Elliot (2004), to generate the inspiring reaction, one must first appraise the evocative object (i.e., the inspirational stimulus). They argue that inspiration can help people understand things that are typically out of reach. While it is recognized the beneficial impacts of inspired entrepreneurs' internal assessments of

ideas on their motivating impulses to realize them, we also recognize that these evaluations are frequently flawed. As aforementioned, inspiration increases optimism and positive feelings (Thrash & Elliot, 2003). A vast body of research links these features to cognitive biases that may reduce evaluation accuracy (Baron, 2008, 2014).

A condition of absorption shows that an inspired entrepreneur's attention is pulled to a small number of stimuli when working on an idea. As a result, the entrepreneur's focus may shift to the present concept's features. Because of this high level of absorption, the entrepreneur may develop an "inner vision," making inspiration more difficult to control. In this instance, the entrepreneur's own concept is credited with originality, but any external data that contradicts or questions this notion is omitted from the evaluation (Camerer & Lovallo, 1999). Also, an entrepreneur fascinated with a good idea may not seek out stakeholders for second opinions, even if doing so might boost the assessment's legitimacy

Inspiration's unfavorable connections with competitiveness may increase the possibly detrimental impacts of inspiration on evaluation accuracy (Thrash & Elliot, 2003). Inspired people, according to Thrash and Elliot (2003), have less drive to surpass others. If motivated entrepreneurs fail to evaluate competition within the industry in which their idea is being considered, they may overestimate their chances of success. This overestimation may lead to an overestimation (e.g., Cain, Moore, & Haran, 2015; Hayward, Shepherd, & Griffin, 2006; Hyytinen, Lahtonen, & Pajarinen, 2014).

Inspiration is a pleasant and satisfying experience in and of itself. Entrepreneurs are motivated by a desire to communicate the fundamental features of the target stimuli. As previously stated, inspiration increases well-being and positive affect, which is why “inspiration to” is a peak experience that people enjoy the most (Maslow, 1943;

Schindehutte, Morris, & Allen, 2006; Thrash, Elliot, *et al.*, 2010). Inspired entrepreneurs have more psychological resources, which can lead to self-transformation. As a result, an entrepreneur's inspiration may be triggered by an "identity opportunity" (e.g., Ashforth, Schinoff, & Rogers, 2016) that enhances their self-perception.

The motivating drive and self-actualization of an inspired entrepreneur are transferable to co-founders and stakeholders who engage with the entrepreneur daily. To develop his or her competence, a coworker may identify with an inspired entrepreneur (Ashforth *et al.*, 2016). Others are inspired by the entrepreneur's skill, work proficiency, and self-esteem. Others, like motivated entrepreneurs, are more likely to be activated by opportunities for self-promotion than prevention (Crowe & Higgins, 1997).

Inspiration also motivates people to act on their ideas. As a result, creative inspiration can be utilized directly (Oleynick, Thrash, LeFew, Moldovan, & Kieffaber, 2014). Inspiring a creative concept and turning it into creative goods and services (Oleynick et al., 2014). Thrash, Maruskin, and colleagues (2010) studied writing processes and discovered that ideas arrive before inspiration. In this study, we define inspiration as a distinct motivating mood associated to the manifestation of ideas, relying on current research by Thrash and Elliot (2003).

The importance of earlier exposure to entrepreneurial narratives for decisions to start or develop entrepreneurial careers has been increasingly apparent in recent years. According to Bosma, Hessels, Schutjens, van Praag, and Verheul (2012), In fact, one-third of current entrepreneurs would not have launched their business without a role model. This study demonstrates that entrepreneurial stories may influence the

development of entrepreneurial ambitions.

Entrepreneurial narratives and their influence on entrepreneurial ambitions have been studied since the 1980s (e.g., Scherer, Adams, Carley, & Wiebe, 1989). Their theoretical roots are connected to Bandura's (1977) social learning theory asserts that one way people learn is by witnessing others' actions. As a result, early study on entrepreneurial narratives and entrepreneurial ambitions concentrated on parental entrepreneurial narratives, with non-family entrepreneurial narratives being examined more recently (Bosma *et al.*, 2012). With entrepreneurial stories that university students may meet in many settings, such as at home, at university, or via other interactions with successful businesses. Recent research has found that only a good experience with entrepreneurial tales correlates to entrepreneurial goals and activities (Mungai & Velamuri, 2011; Zapkau, Schwens, Steinmetz, & Kabst, 2015). Discovering the processes through which inspirational entrepreneurial narratives enhance entrepreneurial intents can aid in enhancing the efficacy of leveraging entrepreneurial narratives to increase entrepreneurial activity. Because the prevalence of entrepreneurial narratives in public discourse is currently minimal, this notion has major implications for both entrepreneurs and policymakers (Gibcus, De Kok, Snijders, Smit, & van der Linden, 2012). (Radu & Redien-Collot, 2008).

2.7.3 Transportation and Entrepreneurial Intention

Taking in a storey involves images, affect, and purposeful attention. Green and Brock (2000) claim that storey can impact beliefs via transportation. They claim that mobility can assist create a more realistic storey. As a result, transportation is likely to evoke significant emotions in the storey characters, influencing their beliefs more strongly. They claim transit is convergent whereas elaboration is divergent. An elaborator may utilize his or her own ideas, prior knowledge, or other thoughts and

experiences to investigate the message (e.g., then narrative). Rapid travel distances the individual from diagrams, current and past experiences.

Most of the research on narrative use in traditional ventures has focused on how narratives can influence audiences through cognitive mechanisms like sense making (Sonenshein, 2010), learning (Garud, Dunbar, & Bartel, 2011), legitimacy (Humphreys & Brown, 2002), and categorization (Humphreys & Brown, 2002). (Martens, Jennings, & Jennings, 2007). However, the outcomes of this study show that narratives may have a distinct function. Evidence shows that social entrepreneurs frequently use tales to elicit emotional responses from their stakeholders.

Indeed, social ventures appear to vary from typical businesses in the compelling, emotionally charged tales that its founders and management can talk about the social issues they solve and the beneficiaries who benefit from the social value they produce (Lounsbury & Glynn, 2001; Elkington & Hartigan, 2008). The possibility that social entrepreneurs use narratives to elicit emotional responses from stakeholders is intriguing because, even though one of the defining features of the narrative form is its ability to elicit an emotional response in audiences (Miall, 1988; Hogan, 2003), the vast management literature examining narratives has largely ignored emotion.

Several academics have highlighted the persuasive impact of emotions in entrepreneurial situations, with a particular focus on the significance of passion. Cardon, Zietsma, Saparito, Matherne & Davis, (2005), Mitteness, Sudek, and Cardon (2012), Galbraith, DeNoble, Ehrlich, and Horowitz (2013), Vecchio, (2003) and Mason, Botelho, and Zygmunt (2017), Pathak, (2020), claim that expressing specific emotions by entrepreneurs leads to greater commercial success. Emotions have an important role in funders' decisions and entrepreneurial success, according to new

research. For example, Davis, Hmieleski, Webb, and Coombs (2017) find that an entrepreneur's enthusiasm boosts perceived product originality, which is a requirement for receiving financial assistance.

Harmonious passion, according to Fisher, Merlot, and Johnson (2018) and Stroe, Siren, Shepherd, and Wincent (2019) agrees that a prolonged entrepreneurial commitment leads to entrepreneurial success. Harmonious passion, according to Stroe, Sir en, Shepherd, and Wincent (2019), prevents fear of failure. Socioemotional factors influence entrepreneurial behavior, according to Llanos-Contreras and Alonso-dos-Santos (2018). Funders are impacted by the deployment of emotional narratives, according to Wuillaume, Jacquemin, and Janssen (2019), but Yoon, May, Kang, and Solomon (2019) defend the beneficial, moderating effect of entrepreneurs' emotional self-management. Even so, there is disagreement among investors on how important emotional aspects are when evaluating an entrepreneurial pitch. Clark (2008), Chen et al. (2009), and Pollack, Rutherford, and Nagy (2012) revealed that professional investors' final judgments are based on rational criteria in their classic studies of decision-making. Recently, Kemper, Kwee, and Roosenboom (2017) claimed that while passion and preparedness may have some impact on securing funding, investors are influenced by the pitch content.

The role of cognitions and emotions on entrepreneurship has just recently been studied. However, theoretical and empirical study has been fragmented and limited (Grégoire *et al.,* 2015; Brundin *et al.,* 2008; Armstrong *et al.,* 2012; Cardon *et al.,* 2009; Corbett, 2007; Corbett and Hmieleski, 2007; Grichnik *et al.,* 2010). Others (e.g., Hunter et al., 2007; Baron, 1998; Baron and Ward, 2004; Lee & Allen, 2002; Mitchell *et al.,* 2007) emphasize the importance of cognition in the workplace. As a cognitive process, entrepreneurship has been defined by scholars as a set of cognitive

biases (e.g., Shane and Venkaraman, 2000; Shane, 2003). (Baron, 1998; Sarasvathy *et al.,* 1998).

Those that seek out new opportunities, for example, are more likely than others to assume that things will work out (Baron, 1998, 2004; Simon and Houghton, 2003; Hmieleski and Baron, 2009). The planning fallacy, the illusion of control, the belief in the law of small numbers, reasoning by analogy risk propensity (Corbett, 2007; Keh *et al.,* 2002; Simon and Houghton, 2002).

Consequently, non-rational decision-making induced by heuristics may be an effective and efficient decision-making guide in situations of environmental ambiguity and complexity (Mitchell *et al.,* 2007; Busenitz and Barney, 1997). Also, people's cognitive biases are consistent across time, circumstance, and context (Schulman *et al.,* 1993). Emotion is defined as an emotional reaction to a situation (Côté, 2005). Emotions are strong but fleeting (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Levenson, 1994). When emotion is explored, the assumptions of reason and consistency of preference are also challenged.

In the recent decade, economists have increasingly focused on the role of emotion and its worth. (Elster, 1996, 1998; Frank, 1988; Loewenstein, 1996, 2000). However, it is remarkable that the importance of emotions in the entrepreneurial process has just lately been acknowledged (Goss 2005a, 2005b, 2008; Cardon *et al.,* 2005; Foo, forthcoming; Foo *et al.,* 2009). For the first time, Baron's (2008) novel theoretical contribution uses current general psychology research results on emotions and cognitions to explain the role of positive emotions in the entrepreneurial process. A huge body of research shows that emotions have a profound impact on cognition (e.g., Forgas, 2000; Isen, 2002).

Furthermore, there are two main arguments for why emotions may be more relevant in an entrepreneurial environment than in a typical organizational one. To begin with, the situations in which entrepreneurs operate are frequently unpredictable and unclear. Emotion can shape some behaviors or decisions in uncertain and unexpected situations (e.g., Forgas and George, 2001; Hsu *et al.*, 2005). Emotion has been shown to influence various aspects of entrepreneurship, such as decision-making and judgement (Ireland *et al.*, 2003). (Baron, 2008). Thus, economic models that incorporate emotion and allow for rationality constraints are more useful in the entrepreneurial setting.

Emotions and cognition interact in a reciprocal manner, so that, as numerous writers have proposed, feelings form ideas and thought shapes feelings (e.g., Isen and Baron, 1991). To show this, Lazarus (1991) concluded that cognitions trigger emotions. Zajonc (1985), on the other hand, claimed that emotions are instinctual reflexes and hence serve as antecedents. According to contemporary appraisal theories, cognitions (opinion, belief, and judgement) play a crucial role in emotional development (e.g., Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 2001; Barsade and Gibson, 2007).

As a result, affective experiences such as joy, surprise, wrath, fear, and hope are classified as emotions. Emotions often develop in this line of logic when an occurrence (stimulus) is assessed as important to one's concerns or interests (Côté, 2005). When one's interests are fostered, positive emotions follow. Negative emotions are triggered when one's interests are unsatisfied (Bosman et al. 2005). Emotions are powerful, yet they only linger for a short time (e.g., Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Levenson, 1994). What emotion is felt is determined by the pattern of evaluations. A variety of reactions are triggered because of the emergence of emotions, including action inclinations, alterations in facial, bodily, and physiological expressions

(Zimbardo and Gerrig, 2003).

Côte (2005) used the fear of being laid off as an illustration of how complex patterns of change emerge when emotional experience is generated. To demonstrate the chronology of the emotional process, we will use the following scenario, which is like that given by Côté (2005) but is more closely connected to the entrepreneurial environment. The possibility of problems in obtaining additional money emerged because of a worldwide financial crisis that had led to a financial bind. This perceived danger by the entrepreneur may have aroused a feeling of dread, motivating the entrepreneur to work even harder (action tendency) to push the marketability of the new possibility (cognitive tendency). He confided with friends about his concerns about his start-financial up's position (subjective internal experiences). Raising of the brows (facial and physical expressions) would certainly occur, as would a rise in blood pressure and heart rate (physiological alteration). Importantly, once fear (or any other emotion) has been triggered, it is possible that it will affect unrelated occurrences (Schwarz and Clore, 2003). As a result, even when the emotion is unrelated to the things, people, or events being assessed, aspects of cognition like decision-making (Forgas, 2000; Gangemi and Mancini, 2007; Foo, forthcoming).

2.8 Summary of Literature and Research Gaps

The conceptual and empirical reviews demonstrated the impact of various elements of entrepreneurial tales (inspiration, knowledge and transportation), on an individual's willingness to act entrepreneurially. Despite this, the context of the reviewed literature was general on undergraduate university students and did not explicitly refer to other sectors in Kenya. The Table 2.1 gives a summary of various studies gaps identified. Attitude towards behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control were used to measure entrepreneurial intention.

Table 2.1: Summary of Empirical Review and Research gaps

Author; Year	Research Topic	Variables Studied	Research Findings	Research Gaps	Focus on of current Study
Adekiya, & Ibrahim, (2016)	Entrepreneurship intention among students. The antecedent role of culture and entrepreneurship training and development.	perceived appropriateness, perceived effectiveness and entrepreneurial training, with perceived consistence and Entrepreneurship intention	perceived appropriateness, perceived effectiveness and entrepreneurial training, with the exception of perceived consistence has a positive and significant effect on entrepreneurial intention	The study focused on students of one higher institution	The study focused on undergraduate Finalist students in higher institutions in Kenya
Dakoumi, & Abdel (2014).	Is entrepreneurship for you? Effects of storytelling on entrepreneurial intention.	attitude toward the behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavior control and entrepreneurial intention	the finding of the study confirms that attitude toward the behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavior control are an important predictor and determinant of entrepreneurial intention	personal characteristics of the sample seems to have a significant Influence on the results.	The study focused on undergraduate Finalist students doing business related course
Anwar, & Abdullah, (2021)	Inspiring future entrepreneurs: The effect of experiential learning on the entrepreneurial intention at higher education.	effects of entrepreneurship education, self-efficacy on social entrepreneurial intentions and their antecedents	Learning have a clear beneficial relationship with entrepreneurial intention	self-efficacy strongly predicts entrepreneurial intention,	This study focuses on human behavior, entrepreneurial narrative and intention

Jena, (2020).	Measuring the impact of business management Student's attitude towards entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention:	examine the cognitive, affective, and behavioral components of students' attitude towards entrepreneurship education	The results showed a significant positive impact of attitude towards entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention	Research Should design studies that cover time in longer perspectives.	This study focuses on human behavior, entrepreneurial narrative and intention
Hsu *et al.*, 2019	"I know I can, but I don't fit": Perceived fit, self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial intention.	perceived person-entrepreneurship fit, Entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention.	When a strong perception of fit with entrepreneurship is achieved, Entrepreneurial intention is strongly predicted by entrepreneurial self-efficacy.	Entrepreneurship is filled with uncertainty, it is unclear how much objective fit or actual fit can be transferred to perceived fi	This study focuses on human behavior, entrepreneurial narrative and intention
Douglas, *et al.*, 2021	Multi-motivational general model of entrepreneurial intention.	individuals' entrepreneurial intention is highly fragmented (across types), which restricts the transfer and assimilation of new information and obstructs the development of a theory to explain entrepreneurial heterogeneity	that there are three core outcomes of entrepreneurial behavior namely profit, social impact, and innovation which apply (in greater or lesser measure) to profit seeking, social-impact seeking, other entrepreneur types.	Examining new ventures within a holistic model of entrepreneurial heterogeneity would allow them to be evaluated in a Common framework and facilitate more effective allocation of the limited private and public funding for entrepreneurial new ventures.	This study focuses on human behavior, entrepreneurial narrative and intention

Source; Researcher 2021

2.9 Conceptual Framework

The literature review led to the development of a conceptual model based on the theory of planned behavior. The impact of various elements of entrepreneurial tales (inspiration, knowledge and transportation), on an individual's willingness to act entrepreneurially. The conceptual framework was built around the assumptions to visualize the linkages studied in this study. Based on the literature, the theory of planned behavior depicts a model of the antecedents of entrepreneurial purpose. This study claims that the antecedence of entrepreneurial stories can affect knowledge, inspiration, and transportation.

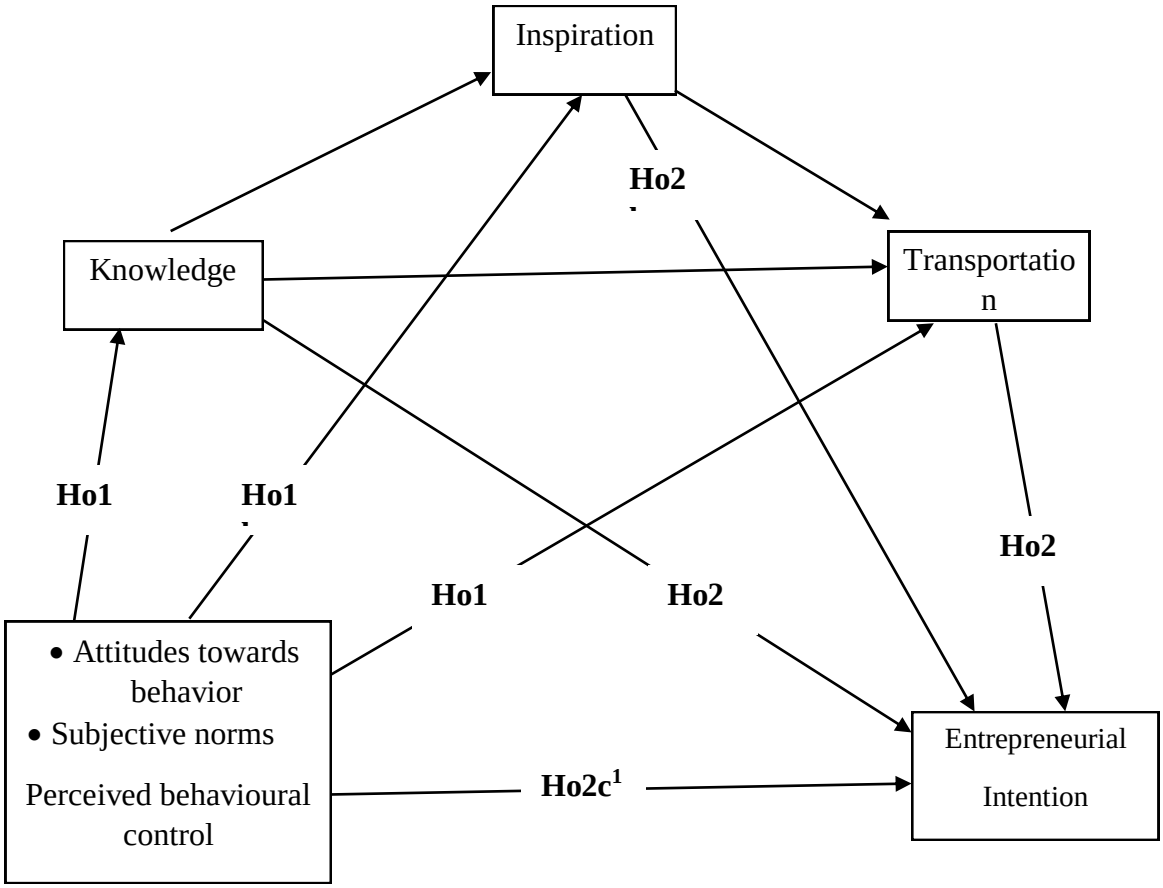

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework

Source: Researcher, 2019

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This research design, the study region and demographics of the target population, the sampling design and sample size, the validity and dependability of research instruments, the data collection processes, and the data processing technique are covered in this chapter.

3.1 Research Philosophy

This section reviews the philosophical frameworks of positivism and phenomenology that influence social science research. The positivist paradigm emphasizes theory, hypotheses, and data. Management research and social sciences are dominated by positivism (Ridenour & Newman, 2008; Veal, 2005). Quantitative research collects and analyses numbers (Veal, 2005). Consequently, the researcher interprets acquired information (Bryman, 2001).

The social sciences use phenomenology research (Ridenour & Newman 2008). The purpose of phenomenology study is to uncover issues' meanings (Veal, 2005). Preconceived ideas concerning theory, hypothesis, and quantification are avoided. It does not pre-plan conceptual frameworks or hypotheses. They claim that these factors cause bias by focusing on specific areas rather than the whole picture. Rather than theory testing, qualitative approaches are utilized in exploratory theory construction (Ridenour & Newman 2008).

Collis & Hussey (2003) distinguish two major philosophical schools: positivism (quantitative) and phenomenology (qualitative). A quantitative paradigm is concerned with observable, quantifiable, and proven phenomena (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

Quantitative analysis was used to establish causal links between Human Behavior, Entrepreneurial Narratives, and Intentions to Become Entrepreneurs. This study examined a theoretical explanation based on planned behavior and entrepreneurial aspirations. This study used proven equipment to assess phenomena and statistical processes to analyses data. So, this study used a quantitative or positivist approach. Collis & Hussey (2009) state that positivism uses theories to explain phenomena by establishing causal links between variables. Also, positivism assumes that social phenomena can be quantified.

3.2 Research Design

This study used explanatory research and according to Cooper and Schindler (2008) explanatory research asks why. The research develops causal theories to address why questions. Variable X influences phenomena Y (entrepreneurial intent) (Human Behavior). This design was chosen because it closely aligns with the study's objectives and is useful in assessing the study's hypotheses Orodho's (2003) explanatory research design examines cause-and-effect relationships. The study's design was appropriate because it intended to show a cause-effect relationship. The study used cross-sectional because it employs theories and hypotheses to explain a phenomenon (Cooper & Schindler, 2011).

The design is also ideal for the study because it allows for surveying in natural settings and using probability sampling. This improves statistical inferences to larger populations and generalizations of findings to real-life circumstances, therefore boosting the study's external validity (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Data are more dependable with a probability sample. The architecture also allows for the use of questionnaires and inferential statistics to establish meaningful associations (Hair et al., 2007).

3.3 Target Population

According to the university registries, the target group consisted of 6032 fourth year undergraduate students studying business related courses in Nyanza and Western Kenya. The fourth years are nearing graduation and are supposed to be carefully contemplating their post-graduate job options. They are also a dynamic age group (mid-twenties) where entrepreneurial attitudes should be studied. Finally, students in this cohort are unlikely to have past business experience, which could lead to hindsight or success bias in their responses. Thus, university students are ideal for this study.

Table 3.1: Target Population

UNIVERSITY	No. of students
Maseno University	2060
Rongo University	522
Kisii University	1200
Jaramogi Oginga Odinga university	756
Masinde Muliro University	840
Kibabii University	654
Total	6032

Source: *(University Registries 2018/2019)*

3.4 Description of the Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

The Taro Yamane (1973) sample size formula was used to pick 400 students from the target population of 6032 students as shown below:

$$n = {}^{N}/_{1 + N_{e^2}}$$

Where:

n = Sample size

N = Population size

e = the error of Sampling

This study allowed the error of sampling on 0.05. Thus, sample size was as follows:

$$400 = {}^{6032}/_{1 + 6032_{(0.05)^2}}$$

The study employed proportionate, stratified, and simple random sampling to choose respondents. The sample size was dispersed according to the Neyman allocation algorithm (1934). To maximize survey precision given a certain sample size. So, for stratum h, the ideal sample size is:

$$n_h = \left(\frac{N_h}{N}\right) n$$

Were,

nH - The sample size for stratum h,

n - Total sample size,

NH -The population size for stratum h,

N - The total population

Hence, distribution was as follows.

Table 3. 2: Sample Size

UNIVERSITY	No. Of Students	Sample Size $n_h = \left(\frac{N_h}{N}\right) n$
Maseno University	2060	137
Rongo University	522	35
Kisii University	1200	80
Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University	756	50
Masinde Muliro University	840	56
Kibabii University	654	43
Total	6032	400

Source: Researcher, 2019

Systematic and simple random sampling was used to select the respondents.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

A questionnaire was used to obtain data because closed-ended questions are easier to administer and analyses. To ensure respondents' anonymity, self-administered surveys should be accompanied by a cover letter. Research assistants must define the responses clearly and meaningfully.

3.5.1 Nature of Data

It used primary and secondary data.

Kothari (2004) defines primary data as those received for the very first time and thus unique. A primary data set is one collected by the researcher in several field sites for comparative research. Dawson (2009) defines secondary research data as data collected from other researchers' investigations of a subject.

3.5.2 Sources of Data

Primary data was collected from the samples using a questionnaire. Additionally, published journals provided necessary literature in this research. Fourth-year students were surveyed for primary data.

3.6 Measurement of Variables

"Attitudes towards behavior" is the initial concept in planned behavior theory. Personal attitudes have been studied in many methods. Krueger et al. (2000) utilize a single-item measure to assess the appeal of entrepreneurship. "Is starting your own business an attractive idea to you (scale 0 to 7)?"(KruegerJr. *Et al.,* 2000: 422). Autio et al (civil service, corporate, entrepreneurial, and academic). Ajzen (2001) provides an aggregate measure to capture attitudes, which other studies have employed (Grundy & Welsch, 2001; Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006; Linan *et al.,* 2009). Therefore, the dissertation utilizes the 7-point Likert-type scale from (Linan, 2009: 612).

Subjective norms assess how the respondent thinks others would react if he or she became an entrepreneur. Objectionable social and cultural pressure is defined as subjective norms. In this regard, the opinions of friends, family, peers, networks, and mentors are vital.

Scales usually range from single-item, general scales asking, “Would family and friends want you to start your own business?”(scale: 0 to 7) (KruegerJr *et al.,* 2000: 422) naming social groups such as coworkers, friends, and family (Autio *et al.,* 2001).

Ajzen (1991) proposes approaching subjective norms by asking "what do reference people think?" (Linanet *et al.,* 2009:601). Armitage (2001) found the strongest correlation between subjective norms and entrepreneurial intentions. According to Linan (2009), family, friends, and coworkers Linan's introduction question for subjective norms (2009). Similarly, to Autio et al. (2000), a university social group was added to the samples

Perceived behavioral control assesses the respondent's perceived behavioral control.. Researchers have used single-item scales to quantity perceived behavioral control (Krueger Jr *et al.,* 2000) to an 18-item scale measuring self-efficacy (Kolvereid *et al.,* 2006). Self-efficacy is defined as "people’s belief about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 1994:71).

This thesis used Linan's (2009:612) 6-item scale, with five measuring general self-efficacy and one measuring controllability.

Entrepreneurial intentions can be measured in two ways (Warshaw & Davis, 1985): behaviorally ("I intend to perform behavior x"...) and self-predictively ("How likely is it that you will perform behavior x"). In terms of desirability, Arimtage et al (2001) (I

want to perform behavior x). Statistically, questions about behavior intention and self-prediction have high predictive power (Armitage *et al.,* 2001). (Shepperd, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988).

Entrepreneurial narratives were measured by asking the students of an entrepreneurial story they have ever heard or read. The students were asked to answer the questions who, what, why, where, when, and how from the entrepreneurial narrative. After hearing the storey, participants were asked to complete a questionnaire to assess the impact of storytelling perceptions on self-employment intentions.

3.7 Data Transformation (Index Construction)

Likert scale data were treated as intervals using a summated scale and analyzed using parametric methods (Boone & Boone, 2012 & Joshi & *et al.,* 2015). According to Creswell (2008), Likert data must have multiple categories within a scale, equal variance between each value on the scale, and be normal. Determining whether a parametric test can be performed on the summed scores of Likert scale data is also agreed upon by Pell (2005), cited in Murray (2013).

3.7.1 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher conducted a preliminary survey within universities to familiarize himself with the study area and to schedule appointments with identified students. The researcher handed out questionnaires to students on the appointment day and collected them the next day. The researcher helped the respondents grasp the questionnaire's questions.

3.8 Validity and Reliability of the Research Instrument

3.8.1 Validity of the Research Instrument

Variables were validated using confirmatory factor analysis. The correlation matrix was used as input for the maximum likelihood estimation technique in SPSS. Reliability and validity were examined.

The study used the latent which is based on the average variance extracted by Larker and Fornell (1981) to test convergent validity (AVE). Average variance extracted measures construct variance explained by convergent validity indicators (Linnan, 2008). A level of 0.5 is acceptable.

As a result, the observable variables are not highly connected with the latent constructs (Micheels and Gow, 2008). The study used the Bagozziet al (1991); Li et (1998). Two-factor confirmatory models on each subset of measurements were run, once with the correlation between the two constructs set to one and once with it free. The measurements model was compared to one that limited construct correlations to one. The conceptions were discriminately valid if the unconstrained chi-square values were lower.

3.8.2 Reliability of the Research instrument

Reliability is the probability of getting the same results after repeating the research with similar methods (Bryman & Bell, 2003). The study seeks answers about the undergraduate's attitudes, perceptions, and preferences, so only primary data can be collected.

A covering letter explaining the research purpose was attached to the questionnaire to increase respondent trust and response quality. There were parts outlining the

research's general orientation. It was used to analyze the research tool's internal consistency or homogeneity..

3.9 Data Analysis

3.9.1 Data screening

Initial factor analysis reduced non-valid and unreliable questionnaire items. Mean, standard deviation, reliability coefficients, and inter-correlations were calculated to explain subscale variability. The variables in the survey were clustered using PCA with varimax rotation. The number of retrieved factors was limited by a minimum Eigen value of one (1). Feigen values below one was discarded.

Then, using Varimax orthogonal rotation, we grouped variables with high loadings (correlations) for the same factor, so that each factor had its own cluster. Varimax rotation ensures that the factors produced are unrelated. Thompson (2004) describes it as a multivariate statistical procedure with three main applications. First, factor analysis condenses many variables (also referred to as factors). This allows for the formation and refinement of theory by establishing dimensions between measured variables and latent constructs. Third, it validates self-reporting scale construct validity.

3.9.2 Descriptive Statistics

For the demographic profile of target respondents, descriptive statistics were used to create tables and written descriptions that included mean and standard deviation. These demographic profiles consist of gender, age, etc.

3.9.3 Pearson Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation analysis was employed to determine whether there was a linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The purpose is to

determine the strength of the connection and to avoid multicollinearity. The correlation coefficients between the independent variables were determined using seven-item Likert scales to assess their relationship with one another. The correlation coefficients indicate how strongly the variables are related to one another. A p-value of less than 0.05 was regarded as statistically significant. All independent variables correlated significantly, but none of them correlated at 0.90 or higher. (Bryman *et al.*, 1997) suggest 0.80 instead of 0.90 as the threshold.

3.9.4 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

ANOVA was used to examine groups of cases to see whether there were any differences in mean across variables. ANOVA is a statistical method for comparing the means of two or more populations. It is assumed that the mean is a valid approximation of the center and that the test variable distribution is normal and similar in all groups when using the one-way ANOVA approach (Field, 2000).

The significance of differences between the mean ranks of the various groups was tested using nonparametric procedures such as the Scheffe's posterior F-test where these assumptions could not be clearly demonstrated (whether the values of a particular variable differ between two or more groups). Scheffe's posterior F is a non-parametric ANOVA used when groups are of different sizes (Field, 2000).

3.9.5 Multiple Regression Analyses

Finally, multiple regression analyses were conducted. It examines relationships between multiple independent variables and one dependent variable. This statistical method measures the direction and size of each independent variable's contribution to the dependent variable (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

3.9.6 Assumptions of Regression Model

Some econometric issues can skew regression results if not identified and corrected. Various econometric tests are done to diagnose and remedy faults. For simplicity and brevity, major econometric concerns were covered in general.

3.9.6.1 Multi co linearity

Multi co linearity occurs when two or more independent variables move in the same direction. OLS estimations cannot differentiate between variables. Because several additional independent variables in this study had a high level of association, Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) were examined after each standard OLS regression.

Least 10 multi collinearity.

3.9.6.2 Heteroskedasticity

Heteroskedasticity occurs when the regression residuals are heteroskedastic. That is, residual variance varies across observations. In this case, OLS estimators no longer produce minimal variance. The coefficient standard error gives inaccurate estimates. A lack of heteroskedasticity does not mean that the parameters are inefficient. The Breusch Pagan/Cook-Weisberg (1979) test was used to assess heteroskedasticity. The Lagrange multiplier test assumes residuals are normally distributed with K degrees of freedom. The null hypothesis says the disturbance terms' variance is homoscedastic. That is, the error terms' variance is constant.

3.9.6.3 Autocorrelation

According to linear regression, the error terms are not time-correlated (Brooks, 2010). However, correlated error terms cause autocorrelation or serial correlation, which biases the standard error. Consequently, the minimum variance OLS estimators are no longer standard. Subsequently, after each standard OLS regression in my analysis, I

need to check for serial correlation. An analysis of a 10-year time series may reveal autocorrelation. The graphical method is commonly used to assess autocorrelation. A formal statistical test is required to confirm the presence of autocorrelation. Durbin-Watson and Breusch-Godfrey tests are the most basic and widely used in time series analysis to detect autocorrelation. Autocorrelation is usually between 1.5 and 2.5.

3.9.6.4 Normality Test

The study performed the Jarque-Bera test for normality. Additionally, skewness and kurtosis were used as proposed by Jarque and Bera (1987) for the omnibus test. Improved Jarque-Bera tests have been discussed by many authors. The Jarque-Bera statistic has two degrees of freedom. The expected value of the statistic is two under normality.

3.9.7 Testing of Hypotheses

This study used Hayes' Process macro to analyse all hypotheses in SPSS (2013). Using mediation model 6 to analyse conditional indirect effects.

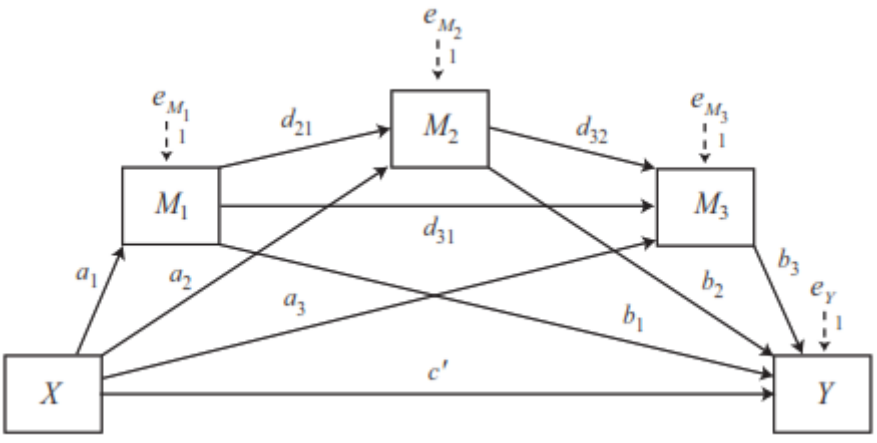

Figure 3. 1: Statistical diagram

Model 1: Indirect effect of X on Y through M_1(knowledge) only = a_1b_1

Model 2: Indirect effect of X on Y through M1 and M2 in serial=$a_1d_{21}b_2$

Model 3: Indirect effect of X on Y through M1 and M3 in serial=$a_1d_{31}b_3$

Model 4: Indirect effect of X on Y through M2 and M3 in serial=$a_1d_{32}b_3$

Model 5: Indirect effect of X on Y throughM1, M2 and M3 in serial=$a_1d_{21}d_{32}b_3$

Model 6: Direct effect of X on Y = c^1

3.10 Ethical Considerations

The researcher purely used the information collected for the purpose of this study and was not forward to any other party. The information from university students was treated with high degree of confidentially without disclosing the respondents' identity and was open minded as possible and opinions was expressed as they were given. The researcher did not modify anything and was very appreciative of all the literature that was contribute in any way to this research. Anonymity of individuals and organizations participating in this research was ensured. Any type of communication in relation to this research was done with honesty and transparency. Any type of misleading information, as well as representation of primary data findings in a biased way was avoided. Permission to carry out the research was soughed from the Moi University through the chair of postgraduate studies (Appendix I). Moreover, permission from the National Commission for Science, Technology, and Innovation (NACOSTI) to conduct research in Kenya's universities.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the rationale and reason for implementing statistical techniques and data analysis procedures. This chapter discusses the role of information, inspiration, and transportation in mediating the relationship between human behaviour and entrepreneurial intention. This chapter opens with a section describing the demographic characteristics of the participants. Following that, the presentation of data related to the study's research aims, factor analysis, regression analysis, and the conclusions regarding the mediation effect were discussed in further detail.

4.2 Data Screening and Cleaning

In most cases, the data screening and cleaning procedure entails inspecting the obtained data and correcting (or removing) any mistakes that might have a significant influence on the analytic results (Osborne, 2013). It frequently entails a review of missing values, the detection of significant mistakes, the handling of raw data for proper analysis, and the determination of normalcy and outliers (Tabach nick & Fidell, 2014).

4.2.1 Examination of missing data

The investigation began by identifying and correcting missing values in my dataset. It is typically recommended that researchers delete specific examples if more than 50% of the values are absent (Hair, 2010). These illustrations can have a big impact on the remainder of the observations (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). As a result of this suggestion, the study omitted three cases where more than 50% of the values were missing. After excluding these cases, the study treated those with fewer than 50%

missing values. Three approaches are frequently offered for dealing with such missing values (Pallant, 2011).

- Listwise exclusion is the process of eliminating a case from the analysis if any data are absent in that example.
- Pairwise exclusion: eliminating a case only when the data required for a given analysis is not available
- Replacing with mean: Calculating the mean value for the variables and then applying that mean value to the missing value

Because of the benefits of pairwise exclusion, the research chose it as one of these approaches. The option has less convergence issues; the factor loading estimates are reasonably free of bias; and the option is simple to apply using any statistical software (Hair, 2010).

4.2.2 Management of data for subsequent analysis

The third phase involves data handling in preparation for further analysis. The investigation began by transforming the data obtained for personal values. To do so, the researchers used the Schwartz SVS handbook, which was obtained directly from the scale's creator, Shalom Schwartz (personal communication, October 25, 2013). All the scores for each example were combined first, as advised by his manual. The scores were then divided by the total number of elements (a process known as MRAT) (Mean Rating for the individual). To determine respondents' overall score, the research used an "average score technique" (Osborne, 2013). Only the things answered by the respondents are aggregated and calculated in this method (e.g., If a scale has five items and one is missing, the syntax computes the average of the four items). As a result, by removing the missing replies, it offers a correct total score for

each construct. The syntax was "MEAN#.X (a, b,c...)," where X is the smallest number of elements with a valid score. Most items must be answered to use this approach (Osborne, 2013). In this study, 85 percent of completed replies were judged a suitable cut-off threshold for using the average score technique.

4.2.3 Assessment of outliers

The investigation tried to find any outliers that could jeopardise the analysis. Box plots were made for this (Field, 2013). The conservation variable had two extreme point outliers in box plots. They were removed from further analysis. None of the other observations deviated much from the rest.

4.2.4 Response rate

Response rate is the proportion of returned questionnaires. So far, 352 of 400 questionnaires have been returned. 12 respondents did not return the questionnaires citing a lack of time. This resulted in a response rate of 97.5% response rate for returned questionnaire, however after data cleaning and screening, 39 cases were removed, and 349 questionnaires were found usable for further analysis giving a response rate of 87.25%. According to Babbie (1990), a study needs at least 50% return rate. Given the nature of the research, a response rate of 91% is acceptable.

Table 4. 1: Response Rate of Questionnaires

Responses	No.	Percentages
Administered questionnaires	400	100%
Returned	388	97%
Unusable questionnaire	39	9.78%
Usable questionnaires	349	87.25%

Source: *Research Data (2020)*

4.2.5 Non-Response Bias

This arises when non-respondents are not representative of the sampled population (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). In statistical surveys, non-responders' responses differ from those who did (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). Non-response bias analysis' main purpose is to make non-respondents resemble late responders more than early respondents. The first and fourth quartiles of responses are compared for demographic and major concept differences. Then there is no non-response bias.

Armstrong & Overton (1977) proposed the extrapolation technique to evaluate non-response bias in 1977. The t-test was performed to assess the significance of the mean differences. Comparing early and late response means revealed non-response bias. The student test found no differences between early and late responses (p=.05) (t-test). Mandal and Korasiga (2016) observed no significant mean differences between early and late responders on critical criteria like business size and firm age.

4.3 Students Bio Data

The study considers the respondents' personal qualities to provide general information about them and to aid the researcher in comprehending the findings. Gender and age bracket are included as variables. The findings are as shown in table

The study focused on the gender of the students since it has implications for their entrepreneurial behaviours. For example, changing views towards entrepreneurship may enhance male entrepreneurial inclinations relative to females. Modifying subjective norms may also enhance female entrepreneurial inclinations more than males. Males are motivated by instrumental factors, while women are led by interpersonal and social aspects. According to the poll, there were more male students than female students. Males made up 52.7% of responders, while females made up

47.3%. Male and female students are almost equally distributed meaning there was no bias. The proportion of students would therefore offer sufficient insights of how their entrepreneurial behaviours would influence their intentions to start a business.

As far as age of respondents is concerned, 81.4% of the respondents are in the range of 18- 22 years, 11.2% of the respondents are in the range of 23 to 27 years, 6.0% are in the 28 to 30 years age range while 1.4% are over 30 years of age. A huge proportion (81.4%) of the students comprise those between the age of 18 to 22 years.

Table 4. 2: Students 'Bio Data

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	184	52.7
	Female	165	47.3
	Total	**349**	**100**
Age			
	18-22yrs	284	81.4
	23-27yrs	39	11.2
	28-30yrs	21	6.0
	over 30yrs	5	1.4
	Total	**349**	**100**

4.4 Student Characteristics against Human Behavior, Entrepreneurial Narratives and Entrepreneurial Intention

4.4.1 Gender versus Human Behavior, Entrepreneurial Narratives and Entrepreneurial Intention

The study sought to establish whether there is a significant difference between gender with human behavior, entrepreneurial narratives and entrepreneurial intention. The findings are as presented in table 4.3. Based on the findings in the table, there is no statistically significant difference between gender and entrepreneurial intention ($F = 0.502$, $\rho=0.479>0.05$). This means that irrespective of whether the students are male or female, it has no influence on entrepreneurial intention. Results are in contrast with

that of Muntean and Ozkazanc-Pan, (2015) who indicated that entrepreneurship as a professional choice now aligns better with male than female qualities, specifically attitudinal, behavioral, and motivational traits.

Furthermore, there is no statistically significant difference between gender and human behavior (F = 0.141, ρ=0.707>0.05). The results suggest that students' gender has no influence on whether the students perceive themselves as entrepreneurially competent. Moreover, students' gender had no statistically significant difference with knowledge (F = 0.409, ρ=0.523>0.05). Gender therefore has no significant difference with knowledge. As well, there is no statistically significant difference between students' gender and inspiration (F = 0.830, ρ=0.363>0.05). Consequently, student gender has no influence on inspiration. However, there is a statistically significant difference between gender and transportation (F = 5.002, ρ=0.026<0.05). This is especially the case with male students (mean = 5.430) compared to female students (mean = 5.133).

Table 4. 3: Gender versus Human Behavior, Entrepreneurial Narratives and Entrepreneurial Intention

		Descriptive			ANOVA	
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
	male	184	5.744	1.179	0.502	0.479
Entrepreneurial Intention	female	165	5.661	0.975		
	Total	349	5.705	1.083		
Human behavior	male	184	5.320	1.234	0.141	0.707
	female	165	5.362	0.816		
	Total	349	5.340	1.050		
Knowledge	male	184	5.800	1.292	0.409	0.523
	female	165	5.719	1.041		
	Total	349	5.761	1.175		
Inspiration	male	184	5.823	1.311	0.830	0.363
	female	165	5.702	1.159		
	Total	349	5.766	1.239		
Transportation	male	184	5.431	1.302	5.002	0.026
	female	165	5.133	1.159		

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.4.2 Age versus Human Behavior, Entrepreneurial Narratives and Entrepreneurial Intention

The study used ANOVA to ascertain whether there is statistical difference between age with human behavior, entrepreneurial narratives, and entrepreneurial intention. The results are highlighted in table 4.4. From the findings, it is evident that there is no statistically significant difference between the age of the students and entrepreneurial intention (F = 0.887, ρ=0.448>0.05). This means the age of the students has no significant difference on entrepreneurial intention.

However, there is no statistically significant difference between age and human behavior (F = 0.320, ρ=0.811>0.05). This means that the age of the students has no influence on human behavior. Also, there is no statistically significant difference between age of the students and knowledge (F = 0.633, ρ=0.594>0.05). Also, there is no statistically significant difference between age of students and inspiration (F = 0.234, ρ=0.0120.873>0.05). Finally, there is no statistically significant difference between the age of the students and transportation (F = 0.546, ρ=0.651>0.05).

Table 4. 4: Age versus Human Behavior, Entrepreneurial Narratives and Entrepreneurial Intention

		Descriptive			ANOVA	
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Entrepreneurial Intention					0.887	0.448
	18-22yrs	284	5.663	1.104		
	23-27yrs	39	5.854	1.002		
	28-30yrs	21	5.884	1.032		
	over 30yrs	5	6.171	0.467		
	Total	349	5.705	1.083		
Human behavior					0.320	0.811
	18-22yrs	284	5.315	1.061		
	23-27yrs	39	5.476	1.118		
	28-30yrs	21	5.378	0.815		
	over 30yrs	5	5.507	0.936		
	Total	349	5.340	1.050		
Knowledge					0.633	0.594
	18-22yrs	284	5.739	1.194		
	23-27yrs	39	5.795	1.131		
	28-30yrs	21	5.843	1.087		
	over 30yrs	5	6.440	0.780		
	Total	349	5.761	1.175		
Inspiration					0.234	0.873
	18-22yrs	284	5.764	1.249		
	23-27yrs	39	5.672	1.290		
	28-30yrs	21	5.952	1.131		
	over 30yrs	5	5.800	0.812		
	Total	349	5.766	1.239		
Transportation					0.546	0.651
	18-22yrs	284	5.261	1.263		
	23-27yrs	39	5.304	1.196		
	28-30yrs	21	5.578	1.204		
	over 30yrs	5	5.629	1.095		
	Total	349	5.290	1.248		

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.5 Factor Analysis

The researcher used principal component analysis to find patterns in data and compare them. It helped find groupings or clusters of variables by reducing the size of the data set while maintaining the original information. Following Kaiser (1960), the researcher kept all factors with Eigen values greater than 1.

That the Eigen value of 1 represents a large amount of variance explained by a factor was the requirement. The KMO sampling adequacy measure was used to assess sampling adequacy. As shown in the tables below, KMO exceeded.5. The KMO Index compares observed to partial correlation coefficients.

4.5.1 Factor Analysis for Human Behavior

The factor analysis method was used to examine human behavior. To summaries the findings, principal component analysis was employed for extraction, and varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization was utilized for rotation; the results are shown in Table 4.8. As seen in the table, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure value (.777) was higher than.5, indicating that it was acceptable. In addition, the Bartlett's Test revealed a substantial difference.

Table 4. 5: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.777
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1930.120
	Df	105.000
	Sig.	0.000

Source (Field data, 2020)

The EFA extracted 3 factors with an Eigen value of 4.497, 2.089 and 1.755 which is above the accepted value of 1 (Yong & Pearce, 2013) and cumulative extracted variance of 29.983%, 43.912% and 55.609% respectively. Thus, the items were appropriate to explain the variable.

Table 4. 6: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% Of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% Of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.497	29.983	29.983	3.015	20.103	20.103
2	2.089	13.928	43.912	2.884	19.228	39.33
3	1.755	11.698	55.609	2.442	16.279	55.609

4.5.2 Factor Loading for Human Behavior

Prior to conducting additional analysis on human behavior, factor analysis was utilized to guarantee that all constructs were valid and trustworthy. The study specified that all loadings less than 0.5 be suppressed in the output, resulting in blank spaces for a significant number of loadings. As seen in the table, all variables except your entrepreneurial narratives scored greater than 0.5. Having the opportunity and resources to start a business would provide me with great satisfaction; being an entrepreneur would be my preferred option among other options; starting and running a business will be easy for me; I am prepared to start a viable business; and I can control the monetary flow.

Table 4. 7: Factor Loading for Human Behavior

	Component		
	1	2	3
Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages to me	0.582		
A career as an entrepreneur is attractive for me	0.803		
If I had the opportunity and resources, I would like to start business	0.702		
Being an entrepreneur, would entail great satisfaction for me	0.798		
Among various options, I would rather be an entrepreneur	0.714		
To start a firm and keep it running will be easy for me		0.581	
I am prepared to start a viable firm		0.686	
I can control the creation process of a new firm		0.757	
I know the necessary practical details to start a firm.		0.781	
If I tried to start a firm, I would have a high probability of succeeding		0.771	
Your close family			0.561
Your close friends			0.845
Your close friends from university			0.774
Your peers /age mates			0.689
Your entrepreneurial narratives	Dropped		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.5.3 Factor Analysis for Entrepreneurial Narrative

The entrepreneurial narrative was factor analyzed. Table 4.11 summarizes the results of principal component analysis and varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization. Sampling adequacy was tested using the Kaiser- Meyer- Olkin (KMO) Measure of sampling adequacy. As shown in Table 4.11, KMO was greater than .5 (.867), and Bartlett's Test was significant, $\chi 2\ (136) = 3198.564$, p-value < .05.

Table 4. 8: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.867
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3198.564
	Df	136.000
	Sig.	0.000

Source (Field data, 2020)

The EFA extracted 3 factors with an Eigen value of 6.98, 1.793 and 1.482 which is above the accepted value of 1 (Yong & Pearce, 2013) and cumulative extracted variance of 41.058%, 51.602% and 60.32% respectively. Thus, the items were appropriate to explain the variable.

Table 4. 9: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% Of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% Of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.98	41.058	41.058	4.096	24.093	24.093
2	1.793	10.544	51.602	3.388	19.929	44.021
3	1.482	8.717	60.32	2.771	16.298	60.32

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.5.4 Factor loading for Entrepreneurial Narrative

Before moving on to factor analysis for entrepreneurial storey, researcher made sure that all the constructs were valid and trustworthy. The study required that all loadings below 0.5 be suppressed in the output, leaving numerous loadings blank. Notably, the entrepreneurial narratives/stories boost the comprehension of the actions required to establish a firm (i.e., what is required?) I am inspired to start my own business by the stories I have heard/read. I am motivated to explore an entrepreneurial idea by the stories I have heard/read. I was mentally involved in the entrepreneurial

narratives/stories while listening/reading, and after listening/reading entrepreneurial stories, I found it easy to put it out of my mind.

Table 4. 10: Factor loading for Entrepreneurial Narrative

	Component		
	1	2	3
The entrepreneurial narratives/stories increase my understanding of the actions someone must take to start a business (i.e., what needs to be done?)	0.512		
The narratives/stories I have heard/read inspires me to pursue an entrepreneurial career	0.772		
The narratives/stories I have heard/read energized me to pursue an entrepreneurial career	0.757		
I am inspired to create my own venture	0.732		
The narratives/ stories I have heard/ read motivates me to pursue an entrepreneurial idea	0.808		
The narratives/ stories I have heard/ read stirs me to pursue an entrepreneurial idea	0.783		
When I was listening/reading entrepreneurial narratives/stories, I could easily picture the entrepreneurial events in it taking place		0.665	
I could picture myself in the scene of the events described in the entrepreneurial narratives/stories		0.674	
I was mentally involved in the entrepreneurial narratives/stories while listening/reading		0.725	
After listening/reading entrepreneurial stories, I found it easy to put it out of my mind.		0.582	
The entrepreneurial narratives/stories affected me emotionally.		0.663	
I found myself thinking of ways the entrepreneurial stories/narratives could have turned out differently		0.709	
While listening/reading the narratives/stories, I had a vivid image of the entrepreneur		0.516	
The entrepreneurial narratives/stories increase my understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs (i.e., why do entrepreneurs act?)			0.642
The narratives/stories enhance my practical management skills to start a business (i.e., how do I start the venture?)			0.584
The narratives/stories enhance my ability to develop networks (i.e., who do I need to know?)			0.798
The narratives/stories enhance my ability to identify an opportunity (i.e., when do I need to act?)			0.719

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

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.6 Reliability

The term "reliability" refers to the extent to which instruments produce predictable outcomes or data following repeated testing (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). It determines whether the measure may produce the same results for diverse instances. Additionally, the study considers the idea that it is critical for the measurement device

to be dependable for it to measure consistently (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003; Saunders, 2007; Cooper and Schindler, 2011). When the genuine score is not estimated at all and only an error component exists, alpha equals zero. When all factors are equal and there is no error, alpha equals 1.0. If the values are too low, either an insufficient number of things were used, or the objects shared little in common (Nunnally, 1978). His proposal is that a value of at least.7 is acceptable, although Sekeran (2003) asserts that any number between.5 and.8 is acceptable for internal consistency. The alpha values for the questionnaire items are listed in Table 4.14.

The reliability tests shown in Table 4.13 indicate that entrepreneurial intention has the lowest coefficient (=.781). Nunnally (1978) proposes a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of.7 as the minimum reliability coefficient, while Davis (1964) suggests.5. While Sekeran (2003) asserts that any value between.5 and.8 is sufficient for internal consistency to be accepted. Entrepreneurial narratives had the greatest dependability coefficient (=.903), followed by inspiration (=.896), transportation (=.827), and human behavior (=.802). All variables produce values greater than.7. This served as validation of the data's trustworthiness and validity as a basis for deriving inferences from theoretical notions.

Table 4. 11: Reliability Analysis

	Reliability Statistics		
	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Intention	0.781	0.790	7
human behavior	0.802	0.808	14
Entrepreneurial Narrative	0.903	0.907	17
Knowledge	0.798	0.798	5
Inspiration	0.896	0.898	5
Transportation	0.827	0.832	7

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.7 Descriptive statistics

To identify the aggregate patterns of agreement, descriptive statistics (Means, Standard Deviation (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis) of the variables were computed for all observations. Results are provided for each variable. Furthermore, it is important to obtain these measures because they indicate whether variables are normally distributed or not.

4.7.1 Entrepreneurial Intention

The assumption that entrepreneurs seek to build a business (Thompson, 2009). It measures the entrepreneur's desire and effort to start a business (Fuller et al., 2018). It also acknowledges that individuals build new businesses or add value to existing ones. Intention to establish a business is associated with high entrepreneurial intent. The study felt it was vital to assess entrepreneurial intent among undergraduate students at public colleges.

The results are as presented in table 4.15. Evidence from the findings in the table indicated that the respondents were somewhat in agreement that they are determined to create a firm in the future (mean = 6.37, SD = 1.12), will make every effort to start and run their own business (mean = 6.25, SD = 1.30) and have seriously thought of starting a business (mean = 6.10, SD = 1.18). Entrepreneurial intention among the learners is evident since they intend on creating a firm in the future. Particularly, they have seriously though of starting a business in future.

Besides, they have got the intention to start a firm in the next 2 to 5 years (mean = 5.72, SD = 1.41) and are ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur (mean = 5.55, SD = 1.72). Other than that, their professional goal is becoming an entrepreneur (mean =

5.42, SD = 1.65). As well they have got the intention to start a firm in the next 2 years (mean = 4.67, SD = 1.80).

Overall, the results on entrepreneurial intention summed up to a mean of 5.70, standard deviation 1.08, skewness -1.26 and kurtosis 2.26. The implication from the results is that the students have the intention of starting a business in the future. In fact, their professional goal is becoming an entrepreneur. As such, they are willing to make every effort to start and run their own business. There is a possibility that the entrepreneurial intention could have been stimulated by properly planned education interventions within the university. Generally, students are more willing to consider becoming entrepreneurs if they have the knowledge about the various support mechanisms (Sieger *et al.,* 2011).

Table 4. 12: Entrepreneurial Intention

n=349	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
I am ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur	1	7	5.55	1.72	-1.02	-0.96
My professional goal is becoming an entrepreneur	1	7	5.45	1.65	-0.89	-0.12
I will make every effort to start and run my own business	1	7	6.25	1.30	-1.90	3.41
I am determined to create a firm in the future	1	7	6.37	1.12	-2.00	4.14
I have very seriously thought of starting a business	1	7	6.10	1.18	-1.52	2.91
I have got the intention to start a firm in the next 2 years	1	7	4.67	1.80	-0.35	-0.79
I have got the intention to start a firm in the next 2 to 5 years	1	7	5.72	1.41	-0.95	0.21
Entrepreneurial Intention	1.86	7	5.70	1.08	-1.26	2.26

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.7.2 Human behaviors

The development of entrepreneurship behavior is attained through learning by doing, involving experiential learning methodology, and the utilization of critical learning incidents from an individual perspective. It is in this regard that the study sought to

establish the human behaviors among undergraduate students in public universities. The findings on human behavior are broken down into attitude towards behaviors, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control. Table 4.16 illustrates the results.

The first predictor of human behaviors that the study focused on was attitude towards behavior. The more favorable one's attitude towards the behavior, the stronger one's purpose to perform it. For example, students who value entrepreneurship are more likely to become entrepreneurs after graduation. The findings on attitude towards behavior indicated that the respondents somewhat agreed that if they had the opportunity and resources, they would like to start business (mean = 5.93 SD = 1.490). In fact, being an entrepreneur to them implies more advantages than disadvantages (mean = 5.66, SD = 1.670). Also, being an entrepreneur would entail great satisfaction for them (mean = 5.77, SD = 1.518). Besides, a career as an entrepreneur is attractive for them (mean = 5.72, SD = 1.393). Consequently, among various options, they would rather be an entrepreneur (mean = 5.32, SD = 1.594). Overall, the findings on attitude towards behavior summed up to a mean of 5.769, standard deviation 1.1666, skewness -1.314 and kurtosis 1.869. The findings suggest that the targeted students have a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship. Consequently, if they had the resources, they would like to start a business. The reason for this they deem entrepreneurship as advantageous and of great satisfaction to them. This is in line with the research of Remeikiene, Startiene, & Dumciuviene (2013) which confirmed that the biggest factor of students' entrepreneurial intention in Lithuania was attitude towards entrepreneurship.

The second predictors of human behavior are subjective norms. It is defined as the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991). This construct examines individuals' impressions of what their loved ones think of

their actions. With respect to subjective norms, the study established that if the students would decide on creating a firm, their decision would be approved by their close family (mean = 5.66, SD = 1.670), close friends (mean = 5.28, SD = 1.539), close friends from university (mean = 5.27, SD = 1.574), and their models (mean = 6.07, SD = 1.345) and their peers (mean = 4.82, SD = 1.686). Overall, the findings on subjective summed up to a mean of 5.389, standard deviation 1.113, skewness -0.436 and kurtosis -0.436. The implication is that close family and friends greatly influence students' decision to start a business. Consistently, Peng & Kang (2012) showed a link between Chinese students' subjective norm and entrepreneurial intent.

Perceived behavioral control refers to an individual's perception of starting and running a business. Concerning perceived behavioral control, students believed that they would have a high probability of success if they attempted to begin (mean = 5.72, SD = 1.393). Also, they can control the creation process of a new firm (mean = 5.42, SD = 1.455) and are aware of the necessary practical details to start a firm (mean = 5.39, SD = 1.591). Other than that, they are prepared to start a viable firm (mean = 5.00, SD = 1.668). However, they are not sure if starting a firm and keeping it running will be easy for them (mean = 4.44, SD = 1.732). The items on perceived behavioral control summed up to a mean of 5.117, standard deviation 1.226, skewness -0.420 and kurtosis -0.641. Despite the students having knowledge on starting a firm and the confidence of succeeding in the business, it appears that there still gaps with respect to starting a firm and keeping it running.

Table 4. 13: Human behavior

n=349	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness	Kurtosis
Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages to me	1	7	5.93	1.490	-1.623	2.359
A career as an entrepreneur is attractive for me	1	7	5.68	1.443	-1.291	1.737
If I had the opportunity and resources, I would like to start business	1	7	6.39	1..283	-2.712	7.837
Being an entrepreneur, would entail great satisfaction for me	1	7	5.77	1.518	-1.381	1.453
Among various options, I would rather be an entrepreneur	1	7	5.32	1.594	-0.861	0.213
Attitudes towards Behavior (Composite)	**1.2**	**7**	**5.769**	**1.166**	**-1.314**	**1.869**
Your close family	1	7	5.66	1.670	-1.201	0.646
Your close friends	1	7	5.26	1.539	-0.855	0.307
Your close friends from university	1	7	5.27	1.574	-0.883	0.305
Your role models	1	7	6.07	1.345	-1.482	1.816
Your peers /age mates	1	7	4.82	1.686	-0.560	-0.365
Subjective Norms (Composite)	**2.2**	**7**	**5.389**	**1.113**	**-0.436**	**-0.476**
To start a firm and keep it running will be easy for me	1	7	4.44	1.732	-0.268	-0.829
I am prepared to start a viable firm	1	7	5.00	1.668	-0.622	-0.200
I can control the creation process of a new firm	1	7	5.42	1.455	-0.501	-0.609
I know the necessary practical details to start a firm.	1	7	5.39	1.591	-0.060	0.724
If I tried to start a firm, I would have a high probability of succeeding	1	7	5.72	1.393	-0.972	0.195
Perceived Behavioral Control (Composite)	**1.8**	**7**	**5.117**	**1.226**	**-0.420**	**-0.641**
Human behavior (Composite)	**1.33**	**7**	**5.340**	**1.050**	**-1.468**	**3.686**

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.7.3 Entrepreneurial Narratives

4.7.3.1 Knowledge

Knowledge is one of the dimensions of entrepreneurial narratives. Shank (1998) affirms that knowledge is made up of tales. The author also stated that our world knowledge is roughly equal to our experiences. A storyteller's understanding of entrepreneurship may improve participants' capacity to identify possibilities and hence their entrepreneurial intents.

This section of the analysis highlights the results on knowledge. Basing on the findings in table 4.17, the students somewhat agreed that the entrepreneurial

narratives increase their understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs (mean = 6.010, SD = 1.141). As well, they somewhat agreed that the narratives/stories enhance their ability to identify an opportunity (mean = 6.200, SD = 1.206). The findings imply that narratives could encourage students to choose a particular career path.

Furthermore, the students agreed that entrepreneurial narratives increase their understanding of the actions someone must take to start a business (mean = 5.930, SD = 1.304). Besides, the narratives enhance their ability to develop networks (mean = 5.850, SD = 1.203. In addition, the narratives enhance their practical management skills to start a business (mean = 5.780, SD = 1.223). Overall, the items on knowledge summed up to a mean of 5.761, standard deviation of 1.175, skewness -1.251 and kurtosis 1.825. Hence, it seems that exposure to successful entrepreneurial narratives will affect an individual's entrepreneurial intention. In short, narratives have the potential to inspire students and increase their motivation to engage in entrepreneurship.

Table 4. 14: Knowledge

n=349	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
The entrepreneurial narratives/stories increase my understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs (i.e., why do entrepreneurs act?)	1	7	6.010	1.141	-1.149	1.624
The entrepreneurial narratives/stories increase my understanding of the actions someone must take in order to start a business (i.e., what needs to be done?)	1	7	5.930	1.304	-1.565	3.252
The narratives/stories enhance my practical management skills to start a business (i.e., how do I start the venture?)	1	7	5.780	1.223	-0.950	0.689
The narratives/stories enhance my ability to develop networks (i.e., who do I need to know?)	1	7	5.850	1.203	-1.064	1.171
The narratives/stories enhance my ability to identify an opportunity (i.e., when do I need to act?)	1	7	6.200	1.206	-1.924	4.445
Knowledge (Composite)	**1.8**	**7**	**5.761**	**1.175**	**-1.251**	**1.825**

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.7.3.2 Inspiration

Gabriel (2000) claimed that storytelling is a craft based on intimate understanding. "Good stories delight, inspire, and cannot be mass-produced," he says. Inspiration is the desire to express or manifest something new. The findings on inspiration are illustrated in table 4.18. Basing on the findings in the table, the students somewhat agreed that they are inspired to create their own venture (mean = 6.190, SD = 1.317). Also, the narratives they have heard motivates them to pursue an entrepreneurial idea (mean = 6.00 SD = 1.308). Moreover, the narratives they have heard /read stirs them to pursue an entrepreneurial idea (mean = 5.900, SD = 1.330). Similarly, the narratives/stories they have heard/read inspires them to pursue an entrepreneurial career (mean = 5.790, SD = 1.540). Further, the narratives stories they have heard/read energized them to pursue an entrepreneurial career (mean = 5.620, SD =

1.322). Overall, the findings on inspiration summed up to a mean of 5.766, standard deviation 1.239, skewness -1.271 and kurtosis 1.776. The implication is that the narratives/stories the students have heard motivates them to pursue an entrepreneurial idea, inspires them to pursue an entrepreneurial career, energizes them to pursue an entrepreneurial career.

Table 4. 15: Inspiration

n=349	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
The narratives/stories I have heard/read inspires me to pursue an entrepreneurial career	1	7	5.790	1.540	-1.522	1.955
The narratives/stories I have heard/read energized me to pursue an entrepreneurial career	1	7	5.620	1.322	-0.894	0.519
I am inspired to create my own venture	1	7	6.000	1.317	-2.145	3.968
The narratives/ stories I have heard/ read motivates me to pursue an entrepreneurial idea	1	7	5.900	1.308	-1.471	2.106
The narratives/ stories I have heard/ read stirs me to pursue an entrepreneurial idea	1	7	5.820	1.330	-1.393	1.669
Inspiration (Composite)	**1.6**	**7**	**5.766**	**1.239**	**-1.271**	**1.776**

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.7.3.3 Transportation

Transportation is how narratives can influence beliefs (Green & Brock, 2000). Specifically, it is the “absorption into a story”. It involves imagery, affect and attentional focus. Basing on the findings in table 4.16, the students agreed that while listening/reading the narratives/stories, they had a vivid image of the entrepreneur (mean = 5.80, SD = 1.45). Also, they could picture themselves in the scene of the events described in the entrepreneurial narratives/stories (mean = 5.73, SD = 1.37). Besides, they are mentally involved in the entrepreneurial narratives/stories while listening/reading (mean = 5.57, SD = 1.49). Similarly, while listening /reading entrepreneurial narratives/stories, they could easily picture the entrepreneurial events

(mean = 5.50, SD = 1.52). In addition, the students found themselves thinking of ways the entrepreneurial stories/narratives could have turned out differently (mean = 5.19, SD = 1.61).

As well, after listening / reading entrepreneurial stories, they found it easy to put it out of their mind (mean = 4.85, SD = 2.08). Further, the entrepreneurial narratives/stories affected them emotionally (mean = 4.68, SD = 2.01). The items on transportation summed up to a mean of 5.290, standard deviation of 1.248, skewness -1.325 and kurtosis 1.004. Slightly negative (to the right) normal distribution indicates that most students agree with the items on transportation. The findings imply that students generally agreed with the transportation elements. In a nutshell, the learners could picture themselves' in the scene of the events described in the entrepreneurial narratives, had a vivid image of the entrepreneur, are mentally involved in the entrepreneurial narratives, could easily picture the entrepreneurial events and thought of how the entrepreneurial stories could have turned out differently. Finally, the stories affected the students emotionally.

Table 4. 16: Transportation

n=349	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness	Kurtosis
When I was listening/reading entrepreneurial narratives/stories, I could easily picture the entrepreneurial events in it taking place	1	7	5.50	1.52	-1.023	0.688
I could picture myself in the scene of the events described in the entrepreneurial narratives/stories	1	7	5.73	1.37	-1.098	1.182
I was mentally involved in the entrepreneurial narratives/stories while listening/reading	1	7	5.57	1.49	-1.031	0.722
After listening/reading entrepreneurial stories, I found it easy to put it out of my mind.	1	7	4.85	2.08	-0.649	-0.843
The entrepreneurial narratives/stories affected me emotionally.	1	7	4.68	2.01	-0.535	-0.898
I found myself thinking of ways the entrepreneurial stories/narratives could have turned out differently	1	7	5.19	1.61	-0.870	0.344
While listening/reading the narratives/stories, I had a vivid image of the entrepreneur	1	7	5.80	1.45	-1.282	1.025
Transportation (Composite)	**1.6**	**7**	**5.29**	**1.25**	**-0.700**	**0.438**

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.8 Data Transformation

Table 4.20 shows the results on data transformation. From the findings, inspiration had the highest mean (5.766) followed by knowledge (5.761), entrepreneurial intention (5.705), human behavior (5.340) and finally transportation (mean = 5.290). The variables' standard deviations were more than 1, indicating variation in answers. The skewness values are between 0 and -1, indicating a normal distribution that is slightly skewed negatively (to the right).

Table 4. 17: Data transformation

N=349	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Human behavior	1.33	7	5.340	1.050	-1.468	3.686
Knowledge	1.80	7	5.761	1.175	-1.251	1.825
Inspiration	1.60	7	5.766	1.239	-1.271	1.776
Transportation	1.57	7	5.290	1.248	-0.700	0.438
Entrepreneurial Intention	1.86	7	5.705	1.083	-1.262	2.257

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.9 Assumption of regression model

The data were checked for normality, linearity, heteroscedasticity, multicollinearity, and autocorrelation before undertaking inferential analyses. The tests of association and prediction were based on these results.

4.9.1 Test of Linearity

The findings in Table 4.21 indicate that the dependent variable (entrepreneurial intention) and the independent variables are linear. A p-value larger than.05 for linearity implies the absence of a linear connection. The data indicate a linear association exists between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention (F (1) = 608.239, p-value.05). Additionally, there is a linear link between entrepreneurial purpose and knowledge (F (1) = 401.424, p-value.05). Additionally, a linear link exists between mobility and entrepreneurial intent (F (1) = 266.359, p-value.05). This indicates that the independent factors can be utilized to predict entrepreneurial intention due to their considerable linear correlations. As a result, the linearity assumption is not violated. At the 0.05 level of significance, none of the deviations from linearity were significant.

Table 4. 18: Test of linearity

		ANOVA Table		Measures of Association			
		F	Sig.	R	R Squared	Eta	Eta Squared
Entrepreneurial Intention * human behavior	Between Groups	608.239	0.000	0.759	0.576	0.849	0.722
Entrepreneurial Intention * Knowledge	Between Groups	401.424	0.000	0.700	0.490	0.776	0.602
Entrepreneurial Intention * Inspiration	Between Groups	362.218	0.000	0.680	0.462	0.763	0.583
Entrepreneurial Intention * Transportation	Between Groups	266.359	0.000	0.608	0.369	0.749	0.561

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.9.2 Normality

Multiple linear regression requires that the residuals (errors between actual and predicted values) be normally distributed. A histogram or Q-Q plot can verify this. A goodness of fit test (either the Kolmogorov-Smirnov or Shapiro-Wilk test) can also be used to determine normality, albeit this test must be performed on the residuals themselves. The findings in Table 4.22 indicate that none of the variables violate the normalcy assumption, with a p-value greater than.05.

Table 4. 19: Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Unstandardized Residual	0.044	349	0.185	0.991	349	0.23
Standardized Residual	0.044	349	0.185	0.991	349	0.200*
Studentized Residual	0.044	349	0.189	0.991	349	0.126

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.9.3 Heteroscedasticity

Levene's test was used to determine heteroscedasticity. This test determines if the variances of the independent and dependent variables are equal. If the Levene's Test for Variance Equality is statistically significant (=.05), the variances between groups are unequal. It is a check to see if the dispersion of scores in the variables is roughly

equal. According to the Levene statistic, homoscedasticity is not a concern for any of the variables, with a p-value greater than.05. This simply indicates that there is a linear relationship, and that no non-linear data transformation or quadratic term is required to be fixed.

Table 4. 20: Heteroscedasticity

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
entrepreneurial Intention	2.774	4	344	0.127
Human behavior	0.928	4	344	0.448
Knowledge	0.710	4	344	0.585
Inspiration	1.916	4	344	0.107
Transportation	3.881	4	344	0.104

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.9.4 Multicollinearity

Multiple linear regression assumes non-multicollinear data. Multicollinearity develops when independent variables are overly linked. Multicollinearity can be verified in a variety of ways: Correlation matrix-when constructing a matrix of Pearson's bivariate correlation coefficients between all independent variables, the magnitude of the correlation coefficients should be smaller than.80 to eliminate multicollinearity; The multicollinearity variance inflation factor (VIF) of linear regression measures the variance inflation in regression estimates. Multicollinearity is indicated by VIF values above 10. Furthermore, tolerance levels below 1 indicate multiple co linearity. Table 4.24 shows that all independent variables had VIF values less than one. This indicates that there was no evidence of multicollinearity for any of the independent variables.

Table 4. 21: Multicollinearity

	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	**VIF**
Human behavior	0.368	2.719
Knowledge	0.296	3.380
Inspiration	0.353	2.831
Transportation	0.465	2.150

a Dependent Variable: entrepreneurial Intention

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.9.5 Autocorrelation

A critical assumption in regression is that the error terms are unrelated. This section describes a straightforward test for determining whether autocorrelation or serial correlation exists. Autocorrelation was determined using the Durbin-Watson test. The Durbin-Watson 1.569 value in Table 4.25 is between 1.5 and 2.5, indicating that there is little autocorrelation that affects the outcome of the regression. As a result, the assumption was satisfied.

Table 4. 22: Autocorrelation

Model	1
Std. Error of the Estimate	0.662
Durbin-Watson	1.569

a Predictors: (Constant), EN Transportation, human behavior, EN_Inspiration, EN_Knowledge

b Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Intention

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.10 Correlation Results

The Pearson Correlation coefficient measures the variables' correlations. Thus, the study examined the correlation coefficients to determine the nature of the links between the independent and dependent variables. Table 4.26 summarizes the outcomes of a correlation analysis of the independent components (human behavior,

knowledge, inspiration, and transportation) and the dependent factor (entrepreneurial purpose).

According to the findings in Table 4.26, there is a positive and significant association between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention, = 0.759, *p*-value < 0.01. Additionally, a positive and significant association between knowledge and entrepreneurial inclination was discovered, = 0.700 *p*-value < 0.01. Additionally, the findings indicated a positive and significant association between inspiration and entrepreneurial intention, = 0.680, *p*-value < 0.01. Finally, a positive and substantial association between transportation and entrepreneurial inclination was discovered, = 0.608, *p*-value < 0.01. Finally, the inter-factor connections were found to be significant and beneficial.

From the findings in Table 4.26, the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention was found to be positive and significant, ρ = 0.759, *p*-value < 0.01. Furthermore, the relationship between knowledge and entrepreneurial intention was found to be positive and significant, ρ = 0.700, *p*-value < 0.01. The findings also showed that the relationship between inspiration and entrepreneurial intention is positive and significant, ρ = 0.680, *p*-value < 0.01. Finally, the relationship between transportation and entrepreneurial intention was found to be positive and significant, ρ = 0.608, *p*-value < 0.01. Finally, the inter-factor relationships showed that there were significant and positive relationships.

Table 4. 23: Correlation results

	entrepreneurial Intention	Human behavior	Knowledge	Inspiration	Transportation
entrepreneurial Intention	1				
Human behavior	.759**	1			
Knowledge	.700**	.763**	1		
Inspiration	.680**	.718**	.759**	1	
EN Transportation	.608**	.623**	.694**	.668**	1

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

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.11 Control Effect

The regression results presented in Table 4.27 highlights the results on the control effect. From the table, gender had no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention (β= -0.028, ρ>0.05). The results suggest that irrespective of the gender, there is no significant influence on entrepreneurial intention. The t-value = -0.533 further confirms the insignificant effect of gender on entrepreneurial intention.

Furthermore, age showed an insignificant effect on entrepreneurial intention (β= 0.100, ρ>0.05). This is a clear indication that age has no influence on entrepreneurial intention. The t-value = 1.876 which indicates that indeed age has no influence on entrepreneurial intention as it is below 1.96. Finally, all the control variables explained 1.1% variation of entrepreneurial intention. Using the independent variables, the likelihood of predicting entrepreneurial motivation is 1.1 percent (R squared = 0.011). The F ratio was 1.917, with a p value of 0.149 > 0.05 (level of significance).

Table 4. 24: Control effect

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	5.500	0.243		22.658	0.000		
Gender	-0.062	0.116	-0.028	-0.533	0.594	1.000	1.000
Age	0.134	0.071	0.100	1.876	0.062	1.000	1.000
Model Summary							
R Square	0.011						
Adjusted R Square	0.005						
Std. Error of the Estimate	1.080						
ANOVAa							
F	1.917						
Sig.	0.149						

a Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Intention

Source (Field data, 2020

4.12 Effect of human behavior on entrepreneur intention

Its predictive potential was assessed using regression. The study's independent variables included attitudes towards behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. The study's dependent variable was entrepreneurial intent. This table shows the outcomes. Attitudes towards behavior had a positive and significant influence on entrepreneurial intention ($\beta 1 = 0.564$, p- value = 0.000 which is less than $\alpha = 0.05$).It can also be observed that the calculated t (13.357) is higher than the critical t (1.96). The implication is that an increase in attitude towards behavior would result in an increase in entrepreneurial intention (See table 4.27). Like the results, Ferreira et al. (2012) found that among Portuguese secondary students, personal attitude influenced entrepreneurial aptitude. Similarly, in Xi'an, China, entrepreneurial mentality is strongly linked to entrepreneurial purpose (Peng & Kang, 2012). According to p-value = 0.849 (which is more than 0.05), subjective norms had no significant influence on entrepreneurial inclination. This is also shown by the t-test value of 0.190, which is below the critical t. (1.96). Thus, subjective norms have little

impact on entrepreneurial intent. Similarly, Moriano et al. (2012) found that subjective norms are a minor predictor of students' entrepreneurial inclinations.

However, Krithika, & Venkatachalam (2014) revealed that subjective norm played a crucial impact in influencing entrepreneurial inclination among Bangalore business students.

In addition, the regression findings indicated that perceived behavioral control had coefficients of estimate which was significant basing on β_3= 0.256 (p-value = 0.000 which is less than α = 0.05) thus we conclude that perceived behavioral control has a significant influence on entrepreneurial intention. This suggests that there is up to 0.256-unit increase in entrepreneurial intention for each unit increase in perceived behavioral control. Finally, it can be observed that the calculated t (6.122) is higher than the critical t (1.96) implying that perceived behavioral control brings about entrepreneurial intention. Eventually, the model predicted that the sum of all variables explained approximately 50.5 percent of the variance in entrepreneurial ambition (R2 =.505, Adjusted R2 =.501). Additionally, the ANOVA model demonstrated that the combined prediction of all independent variables, as shown in Table 4.29 below, was statistically significant. (F = 117.475, ρ=.000).

Table 4. 25: Effect of human behavior on entrepreneur intention

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.486	0.269		5.518	0.000		
Attitudes towards	0.524	0.039	0.564	13.357	0.000	0.804	1.244
Subjective Norms	0.007	0.038	0.007	0.190	0.849	0.925	1.081
Perceived Behavioral	0.226	0.037	0.256	6.122	0.000	0.820	1.220
Model Summary b							
R	0.711						
R Square	0.505						
Adjusted R Square	0.501						
Std. Error of the Estimate	0.765						
ANOVAa							
F	117.475						
Sig.	0.000						

a Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Intention

4.13 Effect of entrepreneurial narratives on entrepreneur intention

Regression analysis was performed to test the effect of entrepreneurial narratives on entrepreneurial intentions. The findings are as presented in table 4.28. Basing on the findings in the table, knowledge had a positive and significant influence on entrepreneurial intention ($\beta_1 = 0.37$, p- value = 0.000 which is less than $\alpha = 0.05$). It can also be observed that the calculated t (6.12) is higher than the critical t (1.96). The implication is that an increase in knowledge would result in an increase in entrepreneurial intention. In addition, inspiration had coefficients of estimate which was significant basing on $\beta_2 = 0.30$(p-value = 0.000 which is less than $\alpha = 0.05$) thus we conclude that inspiration had a significant influence on entrepreneurial intention. This suggests that there is up to 0.30-unit increase in entrepreneurial intention for each unit increase in inspiration. Finally, it can be observed that the calculated t (5.15) is higher than the critical t (1.96) implying that inspiration brings about entrepreneurial intention.

Further, transportation had a positive and significant influence on entrepreneurial intention (β_3= 0.15, p- value = 0.000 which is less than α = 0.05). It can also be observed that the calculated t (2.92) is higher than the critical t (1.96). Consequently, an increase in transportation would result in an increase in entrepreneurial intention. Finally, basing on the model, the combined prediction of all the variables accounted for approximately 55 % of the total variation in entrepreneurial intention (R^2 = .55, Adjusted R^2 = .55). Furthermore, the ANOVA model showed that the joint prediction of all the independent variables as depicted in Table 4.28 below was statistically significant (F = 142.42, ρ=.000).

Table 4. 26: Effect of entrepreneurial narratives on entrepreneur intention

	Unstandardized Coefficients		**Standardized Coefficients**			**Collinearity Statistics**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**	**T**	**Sig.**	**Tolerance**	**VIF**
(Constant)	1.55	0.21		7.55	0.00		
Knowledge	0.34	0.06	0.37	6.12	0.00	0.36	2.78
Inspiration	0.26	0.05	0.30	5.15	0.00	0.39	2.60
Transportation	0.13	0.05	0.15	2.92	0.00	0.47	2.12
Model Summary							
R	0.74						
R Square	0.55						
Adjusted R Square	0.55						
ANOVA statistics							
F	142.42						
Sig.	0.00						

a Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Intention

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.14 Tests of Hypothesis

The study hypotheses were tested using Hayes Model 6. Hayes model 6 can be used direct effect and indirect effect of human behavior, entrepreneurial narratives and entrepreneurial intention of undergraduate university students in Kenya.

4.14.1 Effect of Human Behavior and Knowledge

The hypotheses Ho1a, Ho1b and Ho1c was tested using Hayes model 6. A linear regression analysis was run to test hypotheses Ho1a, Ho1b, Ho1c, Ho2a, Ho2b, Ho2c, Ho2c[1]. In table 4.30, the results from four different regressions are presented. Model 1 is where human behavior is regressed on knowledge, model 2 where human behavior is regressed on inspiration, model 3 where human behavior is regressed on transport. In model 1, the set of variables accounts for 58 percent of the variance. In model 2, the set of variables accounts for 62% of the variation. For model 3, the set of variables accounts for 53% of the variance.

***Ho1a**: Human behavior has no significant effect on knowledge*

Hypothesis HO1a stipulated that Human behavior has no significant effect on knowledge. The findings showed from Table 30 showed that human behavior is significantly associated with knowledge (β=0.85, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The implication was that human behavior significantly influences knowledge.

***Ho1b**: Human behavior has no significant effect on inspiration*

Hypothesis HO1a hypothesized that Human behavior has no significant effect on inspiration. The findings showed from Table 30 showed that human behavior is significantly associated with inspiration (β=0.39, $p < 0.05$). Hypothesis Ho1b is therefore rejected, and it is concluded that human behavior significantly influences inspiration

***Ho1c**: Human behavior has no significant effect on transportation*

Hypothesis HO1a hypothesized that Human behavior has no significant effect on transportation. The findings showed from Table 30 showed that human behavior is significantly associated with transport (β=0.15, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, Ho1c is rejected,

and it is concluded that human behavior significantly influences transport

Table 4.27: Effect of Human Behavior on Entrepreneurial Narratives

Model : 6, Y : Entrepre, X : humanbeh, M1 : EN_Know,M2 : EN_Inspi
Sample Size: 349

****

Model 1: OUTCOME VARIABLE: Knowledge
Model Summary

R	**R-sq**	**MSE**	**F**	**df1**	**df2**	**p**
0.76	0.58	0.58	484.05	1	347	0.00
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.20	0.21	5.70	0.00	0.79	1.62
Human behavior	0.85	0.04	22.00	0.00	0.78	0.93

Model 2: OUTCOME VARIABLE: Inspiration
Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
0.79	0.62	0.58	285.13	2	346	0.00
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	0.60	0.22	2.72	0.01	0.17	1.04
Human behavior	0.39	0.06	6.46	0.00	0.27	0.51
Knowledge	0.53	0.05	9.92	0.00	0.43	0.64

Model 3 OUTCOME VARIABLE: Transportation
Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
0.73	0.53	0.73	132.25	3	345	0.00
Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	0.49	0.25	1.95	0.05	0.00	0.98
Human behavior	0.15	0.07	2.12	0.03	0.01	0.29
Knowledge	0.40	0.07	5.83	0.00	0.26	0.53
Inspiration	0.29	0.06	4.88	0.00	0.18	0.41

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.14.2 Effect of Entrepreneurial Narrative and Entrepreneurial Intention

The study tested the effect entrepreneurial narratives on entrepreneurial intention in Ho2a, Ho2b, Ho2c and Ho2c. . The study regressed human behavior, knowledge; inspiration and transportation are regressed on entrepreneurial intention. From table total of 63% of the variance of entrepreneurial intention is explained by the human behavior, knowledge, inspiration and transportation

Ho2a: *knowledge has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention*

Hypothesis **Ho2b** postulated that knowledge has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention. The findings from table 31 showed that knowledge is significantly and positively affect associated with entrepreneurial intention (β=0.47, p <0.05). Thus, the based on this finding the study infer those entrepreneurial narratives gives knowledge that improves entrepreneurial intention

Ho2b: *Inspiration has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention*

Hypothesis Ho2b postulated that inspiration has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention. The findings from table 31 showed that inspiration is significantly and positively affect associated with entrepreneurial intention (β=0.14, p<0.05). Thus, the based on these findings the study infer that entrepreneurial narratives give inspiration that increases entrepreneurial intention

Ho2c: *Transportation has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention.*

Hypothesis Ho2c postulated that transportation has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention. The findings from Table 31 showed that transportation is significantly and positively affect associated with entrepreneurial intention (β=0.14, p<0.05). Thus, the based on these findings the study infer that entrepreneurial narratives give transportation that increases entrepreneurial intention

Ho2c[1]: Human behavior has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention

Hypothesis Ho2c'' postulated that human behavior has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention. The findings from Table 31 showed that human behavior is significantly and positively affect associated with entrepreneurial intention (β=0.09, p<0.05). Thus, the based on these findings the study infer that human behavior

(attitudes towards behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control) that increases entrepreneurial intention.

Table 4.28: Effect of Entrepreneurial Narratives on Entrepreneurial intention

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Entrepre

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
0.794	0.631	0.438	146.986	4	344	0.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.057	0.195	5.411	0.000	0.673	1.441
Entrepre	0.474	0.056	8.505	0.000	0.364	0.583
EN_Knowl	0.139	0.056	2.501	0.013	0.030	0.248
EN_Inspi	0.144	0.048	2.984	0.003	0.049	0.239
EN_Trans	0.093	0.042	2.225	0.027	0.011	0.175

Source (Field data, 2020)

4.14.3 Mediating Effect of Entrepreneurial Narratives on Human Behavior and Entrepreneurial Intention

According to published research (Baron & Kenny, 1986), mediation must satisfy four conditions: the independent and mediator variables must be significantly related; the independent and dependent variables must be significantly related; and the mediator and dependent variables must be significantly related.

H_{03a}: *Knowledge does not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention*

Hypothesis (H_{03a}) stated that Knowledge does not significantly mediates the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. Table 4.31 reports that the indirect effect (path ab) of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its influence on knowledge, is positive and significant (ab=0.309, p-value < 0.05, bootCI [0.184, 0.413] with a boot standard error of 0.059. Given the significance of the direct effect paths (c') ((p<0.05), the kind of mediation is complementary, implying that both the indirect and direct effect paths are positively

significant.

Ho3$_b$: *Knowledge and Inspiration do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention*

Hypothesis $H_{O3b;}$ stipulated that Inspiration do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. Findings from Table 4.31 reported that the indirect effect (ab) of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its influence on inspiration, is positive but insignificant. This is corroborated by the meditational statistics for the product of coefficients (ab): inspiration (ab=0.056, p-value > 0.05, bootCI [0.011, 0.101]) in addition, the indirect effect (path ab) of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its effect on knowledge and inspiration, is positive and significant, 0.066, p-value < 0.05, bootCI [0.010, 0.128] with a standard error of 0.030. This is a consequence of human behavior effect on knowledge and inspiration, which then influence entrepreneurial intention. Since both the mediational and direct effect channels (c') are significant ($p<0.05$), the type of mediation is complimentary. Hence, the study rejected the hypothesis. Thus, the study infers that knowledge inspiration from entrepreneurial narratives mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention.

Ho3$_c$: *Knowledge and transportation do not significantly mediate the relationship between Human behavior and entrepreneurial intention*

Hypothesis $H_{O3c;}$ stipulated that knowledge and inspiration do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. The findings from Table 4.31 the indirect effect (ab) of the human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its influence on transport, is positive but insignificant, ab=0.0140, p-value > 0.05, bootCI [-0.001, 0.038]. Specifically, the

mediational path is insignificant, the direct path is positive and significant, which means the mediation effect does not exist in this case. Also, the indirect effect (ab) of the human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its influence on knowledge and transport, is positive and significant, ab=0.032, p-value > 0.05, bootCI [0.003, 0.073]. The type of mediation is complementary i.e., both the indirect paths and direct paths are significantly positive. Hence the hypothesis is rejected.

Ho3$_d$: *Inspiration and transportation do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention*

Hypothesis $H_{O3d;}$ stipulated that knowledge and inspiration do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. Table 4.31 further illustrated that the indirect effect of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its influence on inspiration and transport is positive but insignificant, 0.011, p-value > 0.05, bootCI [0.001, 0.025] with a boot standard error of 0.006. This is a consequence of human behavior effect on knowledge and transportation, which then influence entrepreneurial intention. Since the direct effect paths (c') are significant ($p<0.05$), the type of mediation is complementary i.e., both the mediational paths and direct paths are positive and significant. Hence, the study rejected the hypothesis. Thus, the study infers that knowledge inspiration from entrepreneurial narratives mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention.

Ho3$_e$: *Knowledge, inspiration and transportation do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention*

Finally, the indirect effect (ab) of the human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its influence on knowledge, inspiration and transport, is positive but insignificant, ab=0.012, p-value > 0.05, bootCI [0.002, 0.027], with a boot standard

error of 0.007. This is a consequence of human behavior effect on knowledge, inspiration and transport which then influence entrepreneurial intention. In this case, both the mediational and direct impact routes (c') are positive and significant ($p<0.05$), indicating complementing mediation. Hence, the study rejected the hypothesis. Thus, the study infers that knowledge, inspiration and transport from entrepreneurial narratives mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention.

Table 4. 29: Mediating Effect of Entrepreneurial Narratives on Human Behavior and Entrepreneurial Intention

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	Se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
0.474	0.056	8.505	0.000	0.364	0.583

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TOTAL	0.309	0.059	0.184	0.413
Ind1	0.119	0.057	0.003	0.226
Ind2	0.056	0.023	0.011	0.101
Ind3	0.014	0.010	-0.001	0.038
Ind4	0.066	0.030	0.010	0.128
Ind5	0.032	0.018	0.003	0.073
Ind6	0.011	0.006	0.001	0.025
Ind7	0.012	0.007	0.002	0.027

Indirect effect key:
Ind1 humanbeh -> EN_Knowl -> Entrepre
Ind2 humanbeh -> EN_Inspi -> Entrepre
Ind3 humanbeh -> EN_Trans -> Entrepre
Ind4 humanbeh -> EN_Knowl -> EN_Inspi -> Entrepre
Ind5 humanbeh -> EN_Knowl -> EN_Trans -> Entrepre
Ind6 humanbeh -> EN_Inspi -> EN_Trans -> Entrepre
Ind7 humanbeh -> EN_Knowl -> EN_Inspi -> EN_Trans -> Entrepre
Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95.0000

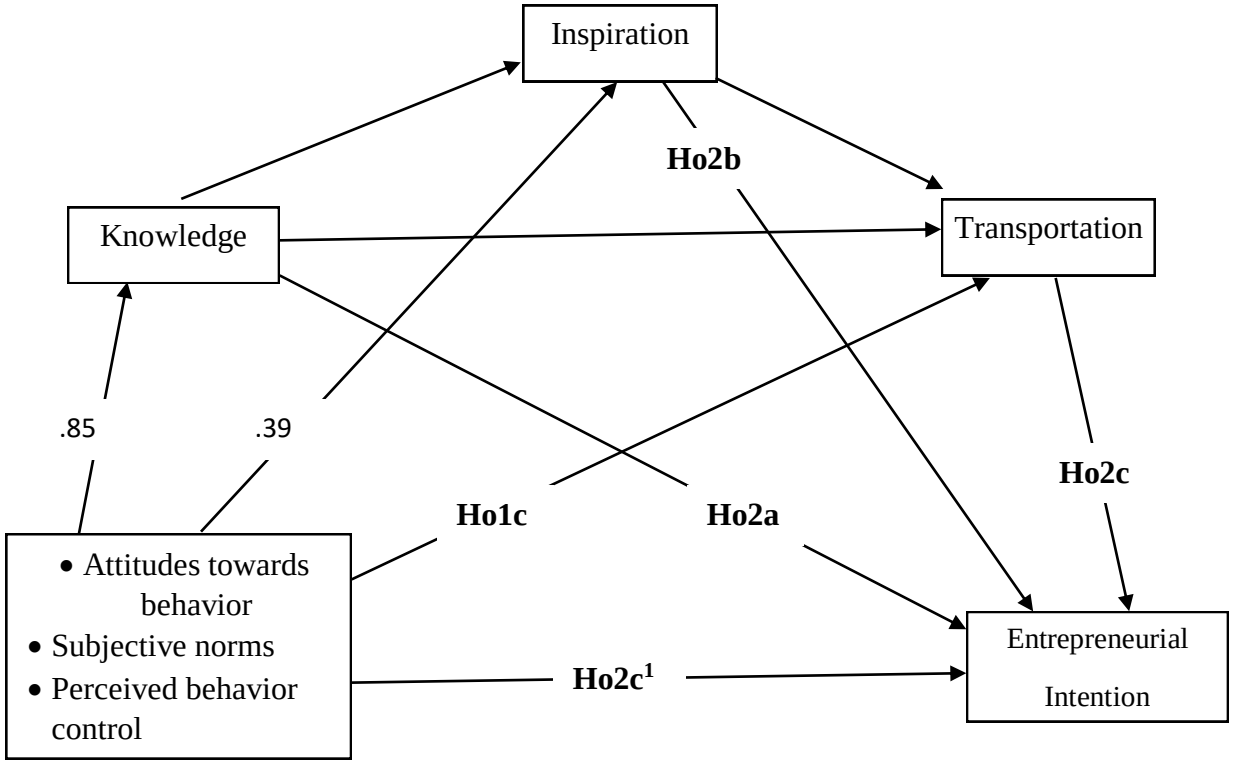

Figure 4. 1: Mediating effect of entrepreneurial narratives

4.15 Summary of Hypothesized Testing Results

This chapter reported the study's findings and discussed them in detail in effect of investigate the mediating effect of entrepreneurial narratives (knowledge, inspiration and transportation) on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, summary of hypothesis testing is presented below:

Table 4. 30: Summary of Hypothesized Testing Results

Hypothesis		Beta values	P values	Decision
Ho1a	Human behavior has no significant effect on knowledge	0.85	0.000	Reject
Ho1b	Human behavior has no significant effect on inspiration	0.39	0.000	Reject
Ho1c:	Human behavior has no significant effect on transportation	0.15	0.000	Reject
Ho2a	knowledge has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention	0.47	0.000	Reject
Ho2b	Inspiration has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention	0.14	0.000	Reject
Ho2c	Human behavior has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention	0.14	0.000	Reject
Ho2c1	Human behavior has no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention	0.09	0.000	Reject
		Indirect effect (a*b)		
Ho3a:	Knowledge does not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention	0.119(BootLLCI =.003, BootULCI=.226)	0.000	Reject
Ho3b:	Knowledge and inspiration do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention	0.066(BootLLCI =.010, BootULCI=.128)	0.000	Reject
Ho3c:	Knowledge and transportation do not significantly mediate the relationship between Human behavior and entrepreneurial intention	0.032(BootLLCI =.0003, BootULCI=.073)	0.000	Reject
Ho3d:	Inspiration and transportation do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention	0.011(BootLLCI =.001, BootULCI=.025)	0.000	Reject
Ho3e:	Knowledge, inspiration and transportation do not significantly mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention	0.012(BootLLCI =.002, BootULCI=.027	0.000	Reject

Source; (Field data, 2020)

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the findings of a study that examined the mediating effects of knowledge, inspiration, and transportation on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. Specific objectives and hypotheses guided the study. Thus, this chapter summarizes the research effort and draws conclusions from it, as well as making recommendations and identifying areas for further research regarding data analysis.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

This study's main objective was to examine how information, inspiration, and mobility influence human behaviour and entrepreneurial purpose. The study investigated the effects of human behavior on knowledge, human behavior on inspiration, human behavior on transportation, knowledge on entrepreneurial intention, inspiration on entrepreneurial intention, transportation on entrepreneurial intention and the effect of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention. An additional focus was placed on the role of knowledge in mediating the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intent, as well as knowledge and inspiration in mediating the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intent.

The first objective is to determine the effect of human behavior on knowledge. Finding revealed that human behavior is significantly associated with knowledge. This showed that human behaviors encourage knowledge acquisition from narratives of entrepreneurship. The findings about human behavior, namely their attitude toward behavior, indicated that students agreed that if given the opportunity and finances,

they would prefer to start a business. For the student, being an entrepreneur entails more benefits than disadvantages and would provide them with immense joy. Additionally, they are drawn to careers as entrepreneurs. As a result, they would prefer to be an entrepreneur above other career.

With respect to subjective norms, if the students would decide on creating a firm, their decision would be approved by their close family, close friends, from university and their peers. Regarding perceived behavioral control, the students agreed that starting was likely to succeed. They can also regulate the formation of a new firm and know the required practical aspects. Besides that, they are ready to start a business.

The findings on effect of human behavior on inspiration showed that human behavior is significantly associated with inspiration, and it is concluded that human behavior significantly influences inspiration. Based on results on effect of human behavior effect on transportation, the findings showed that human behavior is significantly associated with transport ($\beta=0.15$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, the study concluded that human behavior significantly influences transport. The entrepreneurial narratives that were focused on in the study were knowledge, inspiration and transport. Particularly on knowledge, the study established that the students somewhat agreed that the entrepreneurial narratives increase their understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs. As well, they somewhat agreed that the narratives/stories enhance their ability to identify an opportunity. Furthermore, the students agreed that entrepreneurial narratives increase their understanding of the actions someone must take to start a business. Besides, the narratives enhance their ability to develop networks. In addition, the narratives enhance their practical management skills to start a business.

Regarding inspiration, the students somewhat agreed that they are inspired to create their own venture. Also, the narratives they have heard motivates them to pursue an entrepreneurial idea. Moreover, the narratives they have heard /read stirs them to pursue an entrepreneurial idea. Similarly, the narratives/stories they have heard/read inspires them to pursue an entrepreneurial career. Further, the narratives stories they have heard/read energized them to pursue an entrepreneurial career. With regards to transportation, the students stated that they got a vivid image of the entrepreneur after listening to/reading the narratives/stories. Additionally, people could envision themselves in the scene of the entrepreneurial narratives/stories.

Additionally, they are psychologically engaged in entrepreneurial narratives/stories as they listen/read. Similarly, they could easily visualize entrepreneurial occurrences while listening to/reading entrepreneurial narratives/stories. Additionally, the students considered alternative outcomes for the entrepreneurial stories/narratives. Moreover, they found it easy to forget about it after listening to/reading entrepreneurial stories. Finally, entrepreneurial narratives/stories had an emotional impact on them.

The finding showed that knowledge is significantly and positively affect associated with entrepreneurial intention ($\beta=0.47$, $p<0.05$). Thus, the based on these findings the study infer those entrepreneurial narratives give knowledge that improves entrepreneurial intention

Results of effect of inspiration on entrepreneurial intention showed that inspiration is significantly and positively affect associated with entrepreneurial intention ($\beta=0.14$, $p<0.05$). Thus, the based on these findings the study infer those entrepreneurial narratives give inspiration that increases entrepreneurial intention

Findings on effect of transportation on entrepreneurial intention showed that transportation is significantly and positively affect associated with entrepreneurial intention ($\beta=0.14$, $p<0.05$). Thus, the based on these findings the study infer those entrepreneurial narratives give transportation that increases entrepreneurial intention

Regarding effect of Human behavior on entrepreneurial intention findings showed that human behavior is significantly and positively affect associated with entrepreneurial intention ($\beta=0.09$, $p<0.05$). Thus, the based on these findings the study infer that human behavior (attitudes towards behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control) that increases entrepreneurial intention

The findings on mediating effect of the knowledge on the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention revealed significant indirect effect (path ab) of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its influence. This infers that knowledge partially mediate the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions. Findings also showed that knowledge and inspiration mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. Findings also reported that the indirect effect (ab) of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its influence on inspiration, is positive. This is a consequence of human behavior effect on knowledge and inspiration, which then influence entrepreneurial intention. The study infers that knowledge inspiration from entrepreneurial narratives mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention.

Findings for mediating effect of knowledge and inspiration on relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention showed that the indirect effect (ab) of the human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its influence on transport, is positive but insignificant, similarly, results further illustrated that the indirect effect of

human behavior on entrepreneurial intention, through its influence on inspiration and transport is positive but insignificant.

Lastly, the indirect effect (ab) of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention is favorable but minor. The mediation effect does not exist because the direct path is positive and significant. In terms of entrepreneurial intent, the students agreed that they are determined to start their own business in the future and have seriously considered beginning one. They also want to build a business in the next 2-5 years and will do whatever to achieve this goal. Their professional ambition is to become an entrepreneur. They also plan to launch a business in the following two years.

5.3 Discussion of Findings

5.3.1 The Effect of Human Behavior on Entrepreneurial Narrative

The first objective is to determine the effect of human behavior on knowledge. Finding revealed that human behavior is significantly associated with knowledge. This showed that human behaviors encourage knowledge acquisition from narratives of entrepreneurship. The findings on effect of human behavior on inspiration showed that human behavior is significantly associated with inspiration, and it is concluded that human behavior significantly influences inspiration. The findings are supported by Bird, Schjoedt, & Baum (2012) emphasizes the need to focus more attention on human behavior in an enterprise will likely improve on entrepreneurial knowledge and inspiration. According to Schlaegel and Koenig (2014) an important predictor of human behavior is personal attitude toward entrepreneurship inspiration. On the hand, personal attitude stands the mindset of someone towards a specific issue, such as transportation as entrepreneurial narratives (DINC & Budic, 2016). As per Do Paço et al. (2011), societal norm has historically had little influence on entrepreneurial

narratives and thus entrepreneurial ambition. They contend that social norms have no impact on entrepreneurial narrative. Fini et al. (2009) and Sommer and Haug (2009) also corroborate this conclusion (2011).

5.3.2 Effect of Entrepreneurial Narratives on Entrepreneurial Intention

The study revealed that entrepreneurial intention was positively influenced by knowledge. Consistent with the findings, Henry et al. (2004) hypothesized that entrepreneurship education improves the start-up rate considerably. In a similar vein, Menzies & Paradi (2002) discovered that 48% of entrepreneurship group students had founded their own businesses 15 years after graduation. The implication is that entrepreneurial education has a strong correlation with entrepreneurial inclination. Additionally, the data corroborate Levie and Autio's (2008) assertion that entrepreneurship education is an effective method of encouraging entrepreneurship. Similarly, Fox and Pennington (2009) asserted that entrepreneurship education has a large impact on entrepreneurial activity, resulting in economic development via firm start-ups that generate new employment and money.

Inspiration had a substantial impact on entrepreneurial purpose, according to research. Turker and Selcuk (2009) discovered that if a university gives appropriate knowledge and inspiration for entrepreneurship, young individuals may choose an entrepreneurial profession. The study established that transport positively impacted on entrepreneurial intention ($\beta_3 = 0.09$, $p < 0.05$). The findings imply that mobility can provide a realistic narrative experience. Transportation can evoke significant emotions in the storey characters, which might then impact the readers' beliefs. As a result, transportation helps students become more enterprising.

5.3.3 Mediating effect of Entrepreneurial Narratives on the relationship between Human behavior and Entrepreneurial Intention

The results on the mediating effect of knowledge revealed that the direct effect paths are significant as well as the indirect paths. As such, knowledge partially mediates the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. Nevertheless, the effect of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention is reduced through its influence on knowledge. The findings highlight the role of information in enhancing human behavior and student entrepreneurial intent. TPB, specifically perceived behavioral control, helps us learn how to modify people's behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

According to the study, knowledge and inspiration both contribute to the mediation of the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. Both mediational and direct routes are beneficial and significant. When information and inspiration are added to the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention, the prior relationship deteriorates. This suggests that subjective standards, attitude toward conduct, and perceived behavioral control all have a greater influence on students' entrepreneurial intents than entrepreneurial narratives do.

The indirect effect of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention through its influence on knowledge and transport is positive but insignificant. It is only the direct path (human behavior on entrepreneurial intention) that is positive and significant. The implication is that the mediation effect is non-existent. As such, human behavior exerts its influence on entrepreneurial intention in only one way.

The indirect path between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention via inspiration and transportation was not significant. As such, the mediation effect does not exist. It is only the direct path that is positive and significant. There is thus no

sufficient evidence to claim there is an indirect effect of inspiration and transportation on entrepreneurial intention. The study revealed that the indirect effect of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention through its influence on knowledge, inspiration and transport is positive but insignificant. The implication is that the mediation path is insignificant though the direct path is positive and significant.

5.4 Conclusion

This is the first research of its sort in Kenya. Although the study is limited in scope and includes only first- and fourth-year undergraduate students at public universities, it emphasizes significant findings about the mediating function of entrepreneurial narratives in the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial goals. The findings corroborate previous research indicating that an attitude toward behavior and perceived control over behavior positively influenced entrepreneurial intention.

Particularly on attitude towards behavior, the study confirmed that if the students were given the opportunity and resources, they would want to start a business. In fact, they find entrepreneurship to be advantageous. With respect to perceived behavioral control, the students possess the knowledge of starting a firm and are confident of succeeding in the business. These finding indicate that the students have the intention to become entrepreneurs.

However, subjective norms did not influence the students' entrepreneurial intentions. The findings confirm that of Moriano et al. (2012) which alluded that subjective norms are the least important predictor of students' entrepreneurial intentions. The implication is that close family and friends may not be key in influencing entrepreneurial intentions among students.

In model 1 (path a) human behavior is significantly associated with knowledge while in model 2, human behavior significantly influences inspiration. Moreover, in model 3, human behavior is significantly associated with transport. In addition, in model 4, human behavior is significantly associated with entrepreneurial intention. Also, knowledge is significantly associated with entrepreneurial intention. The findings indicate that storytelling can play a crucial role in motivating students to be self-employed. Besides, inspiration is significantly associated with entrepreneurial intention. Inspiration has a good effect on students, motivating them to become entrepreneurs. Consequently, narrative can be a beneficial trigger. Transportation also influences entrepreneurial intent. The direct paths are shown to be significantly positive.

On the other hand, the mediation results indicated that knowledge partially mediates the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. In this case, both the direct and mediation paths were positive and significant. These results indicate that knowledge from storytelling could be a key point of stimulating entrepreneurial intentions. Further, knowledge and inspiration partially mediate the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. Nevertheless, knowledge and inspiration diminished the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention.

In addition, the indirect effect of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention through its influence on knowledge and transport is positive but insignificant. As well, there is no evidence to suggest that inspiration and transportation mediates the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. Furthermore, inspiration and transport have a positive but insignificant mediating effect on the relationship

between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention. A character's identity is often, but not always, related with being transported into a storey, as Cohen (2001) shows.

5.5 Contribution of the Study

5.5.1 Theoretical contribution

Theoretically, this study supports and expands the notion of planned behavior by providing additional insight into the role of human behavior on entrepreneurial intention. The study verifies the idea by demonstrating that an individual's behavioral intention and behavior are shaped by his or her attitude toward behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). Additionally, the findings demonstrate that the theory of planned behavior provides a valuable framework for evaluating the efficacy of entrepreneurship education programs offered by public universities.

5.5.2 Contribution to managerial practice

The study influences universities', governments', and families' perspectives toward activities that foster entrepreneurial purpose among students. To begin, the study established that students' attitudes toward behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all contribute significantly to the formation of entrepreneurial intention.

These findings imply that policymakers and colleges should endeavour to strengthen these motivating elements, hence increasing students' entrepreneurial inclinations. While increasing perceived behaviour control may be beneficial, it is unlikely to influence students' attitudes on entrepreneurship or their subjective norms regarding such (Carrier 2005; Linan *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, content should be designed with the goal of raising all three of the antecedents of entrepreneurial ambitions.

Additionally, suggestions for improving the appearance of attitudes toward behaviour and subjective norms about entrepreneurial purpose may be sent to university administration as well as to students' families and friends.

5.5.3 Contribution to Policy

In terms of policy, policymakers must recognize that government interventions can only support business creation if they influence young people's attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC, motivating them to pursue a viable enterprise. The availability of funding, subsidies, decreased bureaucracy, fewer laws, and fewer requirements for beginning an enterprise all send the message that government and society respect entrepreneurship. In response, increased student awareness of the government's and society's support for entrepreneurship may result in more positive subjective norms and attitudes toward entrepreneurship among students. The ministry of education through the commission of university education should ensure that curriculums developed by universities must consider entrepreneurship as a core course in all specialties in all universities.

5.6 Limitation of the Study

The study's first shortcoming is the use of only prone to bias surveys. Other methodologies should be used in future study on entrepreneurial inclinations (e.g., observation and interview). This information can then be triangulated to learn more about students' entrepreneurial goals. The study also faced the limitation of research generalizability. The results of the study may not be generalized to all institutions of higher learning. Therefore, future research be conducted in different institutions of higher learning and more fully a comparative study between private and public universities is recommended. The study was limited to the mediating role of

entrepreneurial narratives on the relationship between human behaviour and entrepreneurial orientation. Further research may contribute to literature by considering the mediating role of personal traits on the link between entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurial intention.

5.7 Recommendations

Evidence from the study suggests that human behavior positively and significantly influences entrepreneurial intention. Specifically, attitude towards behavior and perceived behavior control were the only predictors of behavioral that influenced entrepreneurial intention. It is therefore utmost necessary to increase the level of attitude towards behavior and perceived behavioral control to enhance entrepreneurial intention among the students.

Entrepreneurship is a legitimate career option, and students who start their own firms are almost certain to succeed. To boost perceived behavioral control, students could be convinced that starting a business is a good idea. They may also be persuaded that they may direct the formation of a new firm. Also, the institution needs a solid infrastructure to help new businesses get off the ground.

Given that knowledge partially mediates the relationship between human behavior and entrepreneurial intention, universities must ensure that participants gain specific knowledge about entrepreneurship through storytelling to improve their ability to identify opportunities and thus their entrepreneurial intentions. Additionally, information and inspiration serve as a partial mediator between human behavior and entrepreneurial ambition. As a result, institutions must ensure that the narratives they hear drive students to pursue an entrepreneurial concept.

5.8 Contributions for Further Research

The study's implications and shortcomings lead to recommendations for additional research. This study studied the role of knowledge, inspiration, and transportation in influencing human behavior and entrepreneurial ambition. It has also presented a rich prospect for other areas to be researched in future. In terms of scope, the study was only confined to first- and fourth-year students in public universities. It would however be useful to carry out similar study across different institutions of higher learning. Future research should therefore expand to technical training institutes because entrepreneurial intentions among the students vary according to the institution. A larger sample size may be used in future study to generalize the results to a larger population. Besides, future studies may explore whether personal traits are a significant trigger of entrepreneurial intention.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Introduction Letter

CHENUOS NEHEMIAH KOSGEI
P. O. BOX 3900,
ELDORET.

Dear Respondent,

My name is Chenuos Nehemiah a student at Moi University, School of business and Economics undertaking my PHD degree in Business Management. I am undertaking research on *Human Behavior, Entrepreneurial Narratives and Entrepreneurial Intention of Undergraduate Universities Students in Kenya*, your assistance will be highly appreciated. Any information you provide will be kept confidential and will only be used for academic purposes.

Thank you in advance.

CHENUOS NEHEMIAH KOSGEI

Appendix II: Questionnaire

Section A

This part contains questions on your background information. Please tick ( ) and indicate your appropriate response in the spaces provided.

1. What is your gender?

Male ☐

Female ☐

2. How appropriately is your age?

Less than 18 years ☐

18 – 22 years ☐

23 – 27 years ☐

28 – 30 years ☐

Over 30 years ☐

Section B: Entrepreneurial Intention

Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements from 1 (Total Disagreement) to 7 (Total Agreement)

Key: 1 – SD –Strongly Disagree, 2 – D –Disagree, 3 – SWD –Somewhat Disagree, 4 – N –Neutral, 5 – A–Agree, 6 – SWA – Somewhat Agree, 7 – SA- Strongly Agree

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	I am ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur							
2.	My professional goal is becoming an entrepreneur							
3.	I will make every effort to start and run my own business							
4.	I am determined to create a firm in the future							
5.	I have very seriously thought of starting a business							
6.	I have got the intention to start a firm in the next 2 years							
7.	I have got the intention to tart a firm min the next 2 to 5 years							

Section C:Attitudes towards Behavior

Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements from 1 (Total Disagreement) to 7 (Total Agreement)

Key: 1– SD –Strongly Disagree, 2 – D –Disagree, 3 – SWD –Somewhat Disagree, 4–N –Neutral, 5– A–Agree, 6– SWA– Somewhat Agree, 7– SA-Strongly Agree

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages to me							
2.	A career as an entrepreneur is attractive for me							
3.	If I had the opportunity and resources, I would like to start business							
4.	Being an entrepreneur, would entail great satisfaction for me							
5.	Among various options, I would rather be an entrepreneur							

Subjective Norms

If you decided to create a firm, would people in your close environment approve of what decision? Indicate from 1 (Total Disapprovement) to 7 (Total Approvement)

Key: 1 – SD –Strongly Disapprove, 2 – D –Disapprove, 3 – SWD –Somewhat Disapprove, 4 – N –Neutral, 5 – A–Approve, 6 – SWA – Somewhat Approve,

7 – SA- Strongly Approve

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Your close family							
2.	Your close friends							
3.	Your close friends from University							
4.	Your entrepreneurial narratives							
5.	Your peers /age mates							

Perceived Behavioral Control

To what extend do you agree with the following statements regarding your entrepreneurial capacity? Value them from 1 (total Disagreement) to 7(Total Agreement)

Key: 1 – SD –Strongly Disagree, 2 – D –Disagree, 3 – SWD –Somewhat Disagree, 4– N–Neutral, 5– A–Agree, 6– SWA – Somewhat Agree, 7– SA-Strongly Agree

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	To start a firm and keep it running will be easy for me							
2.	I am prepared to start a viable firm							
3.	I can control the creation process of a new firm							
4.	I know the necessary practical details to start a firm.							
5.	If I tried to start a firm, I would have a high probability of succeeding							

Section D: Entrepreneurial Narratives

Knowledge

To what extend do you agree with the following statements regarding your entrepreneurial capacity? Value them from 1 (total Disagreement) to 7 (Total Agreement)

Key: 1 – SD –Strongly Disagree, 2 – D –Disagree, 3 – SWD –Somewhat Disagree, 4 – N –Neutral, 5 – A–Agree, 6 – SWA – Somewhat Agree, 7– SA-Strongly Agree

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	The entrepreneurial narratives/stories increase my understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs (i.e., why do entrepreneurs act?)							
2.	The entrepreneurial narratives/stories increase my understanding of the actions someone must take to start a business (i.e., what needs to be done?)							
3.	The narratives/stories enhance my practical management skills to start a business (i.e., how do I start the venture?)							
4.	The narratives/stories enhance my ability to develop networks (i.e., who do I need to know?)							
5.	The narratives/stories enhance my ability to identify an opportunity (i.e., when do I need to act?)							

Inspiration

To what extend do you agree with the following statements regarding your entrepreneurial capacity? Value them from 1 (total Disagreement) to 7 (Total Agreement)

Key: 1 – SD –Strongly Disagree, 2 – D –Disagree, 3 – SWD –Somewhat Disagree, 4 – N –Neutral, 5 – A–Agree, 6 – SWA – Somewhat Agree, 7– SA-Strongly Agree

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	The narratives/stories I have heard/read inspires me to pursue an entrepreneurial career							
2.	The narratives/stories I have heard/read energized me to pursue an entrepreneurial career							
3.	I am inspired to create my own venture							
4	The narratives/ stories I have heard/ read motivates me to pursue an entrepreneurial idea							
5	The narratives/ stories I have heard/ read stirs me to pursue an entrepreneurial idea							

Transportation

To what extend do you agree with the following statements regarding your entrepreneurial capacity? Value them from 1 (total Disagreement) to 7 (Total Agreement)

Key: 1 – SD –Strongly Disagree, 2 – D –Disagree, 3 – SWD –Somewhat Disagree, 4 – N –Neutral, 5 – A–Agree, 6 – SWA – Somewhat Agree, 7– SA-Strongly Agree

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	When I was listening/reading entrepreneurial narratives/stories, I could easily picture the entrepreneurial events in it taking place							
2.	I could picture myself in the scene of the events described in the entrepreneurial narratives/stories							
3.	I was mentally involved in the entrepreneurial narratives/stories while listening/reading							
4.	After listening/reading entrepreneurial stories, I found it easy to put it out of my mind.							
5.	The entrepreneurial narratives/stories affected me emotionally.							
6.	I found myself thinking of ways the entrepreneurial stories/narratives could have turned out differently							
7.	While listening/reading the narratives/stories, I had a vivid image of the entrepreneur							

Appendix III: Matrix

Run MATRIX procedure:

********** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.4 **********

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
*****
Model : 6
Y :Entrepre
X :humanbeh
M1 :EN_Knowl
M2 :EN_Inspi
M3 :EN_Trans

Sample
Size: 349

****
*****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
EN_Knowl

Model Summary
R R-sq MSE F df1 df2 p
.76 .58 .58 484.05 1.00 347.00 .00

Model
coeff se t p LLCI ULCI
constant 1.20 .21 5.70 .00 .79 1.62
humanbeh .85 .04 22.00 .00 .78 .93

****
*****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
EN_Inspi

Model Summary
R R-sq MSE F df1 df2 p
.79 .62 .58 285.13 2.00 346.00 .00

Model
coeff se t p LLCI ULCI
constant .60 .22 2.72 .01 .17 1.04
humanbeh .39 .06 6.46 .00 .27 .51
EN_Knowl .53 .05 9.92 .00 .43 .64

****
*****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
EN_Trans

Model Summary
 R R-sq MSE F df1 df2 p
 .73 .53 .73 132.25 3.00 345.00 .00

Model
coeff se t p LLCI ULCI
constant .49 .25 1.95 .05 .00 .98
humanbeh .15 .07 2.12 .03 .01 .29
EN_Knowl .40 .07 5.83 .00 .26 .53
EN_Inspi .29 .06 4.88 .00 .18 .41

****
*****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Entrepre

Model Summary
 R R-sq MSE F df1 df2 p
 .79 .63 .44 146.99 4.00 344.00 .00

Model
coeff se t p LLCI ULCI
constant 1.06 .20 5.41 .00 .67 1.44
humanbeh .47 .06 8.51 .00 .36 .58
EN_Knowl .14 .06 2.50 .01 .03 .25
EN_Inspi .14 .05 2.98 .00 .05 .24
EN_Trans .09 .04 2.22 .03 .01 .17

************************** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL
****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Entrepre

Model Summary
 R R-sq MSE F df1 df2 p
 .76 .58 .50 471.41 1.00 347.00 .00

Model
coeff se t p LLCI ULCI
constant 1.53 .20 7.79 .00 1.14 1.91
humanbeh .78 .04 21.71 .00 .71 .85

********** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y
****

Total effect of X on Y
Effect se t p LLCI ULCI
.78 .04 21.71 .00 .71 .85

Direct effect of X on Y
Effect se t p LLCI ULCI
.47 .06 8.51 .00 .36 .58

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
Effect BootSEBootLLCIBootULCI
TOTAL .31 .06 .19 .41
Ind1 .12 .06 .00 .23
Ind2 .06 .02 .01 .10
Ind3 .01 .01 .00 .04
Ind4 .07 .03 .01 .13
Ind5 .03 .02 .00 .07
Ind6 .01 .01 .00 .03
Ind7 .01 .01 .00 .03

Indirect effect key:
Ind1 humanbeh ->EN_Knowl ->Entrepre
Ind2 humanbeh ->EN_Inspi ->Entrepre
Ind3 humanbeh ->EN_Trans ->Entrepre
Ind4 humanbeh ->EN_Knowl ->EN_Inspi ->Entrepre
Ind5 humanbeh ->EN_Knowl ->EN_Trans ->Entrepre
Ind6 humanbeh ->EN_Inspi ->EN_Trans ->Entrepre
Ind7 humanbeh ->EN_Knowl ->EN_Inspi ->EN_Trans ->Entrepre

********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS **********

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
EN_Knowl

CoeffBootMeanBootSEBootLLCIBootULCI
constant 1.20 1.20 .27 .73 1.77
humanbeh .85 .85 .05 .76 .94

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
EN_Inspi

CoeffBootMeanBootSEBootLLCIBootULCI
constant .60 .61 .22 .22 1.07
humanbeh .39 .40 .08 .24 .55
EN_Knowl .53 .53 .07 .38 .67

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
EN_Trans

CoeffBootMeanBootSEBootLLCIBootULCI
constant .49 .50 .20 .11 .92
humanbeh .15 .14 .08 -.01 .29
EN_Knowl .40 .40 .09 .23 .57
EN_Inspi .29 .30 .09 .14 .47

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Entrepre

CoeffBootMeanBootSEBootLLCIBootULCI
constant 1.06 1.06 .18 .75 1.45
humanbeh .47 .48 .08 .33 .63
EN_Knowl .14 .13 .07 .00 .27
EN_Inspi .14 .14 .06 .03 .26
EN_Trans .09 .09 .04 .01 .18

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
5000

NOTE: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce incorrect output.
Shorter variable names are recommended.

------ END MATRIX -----

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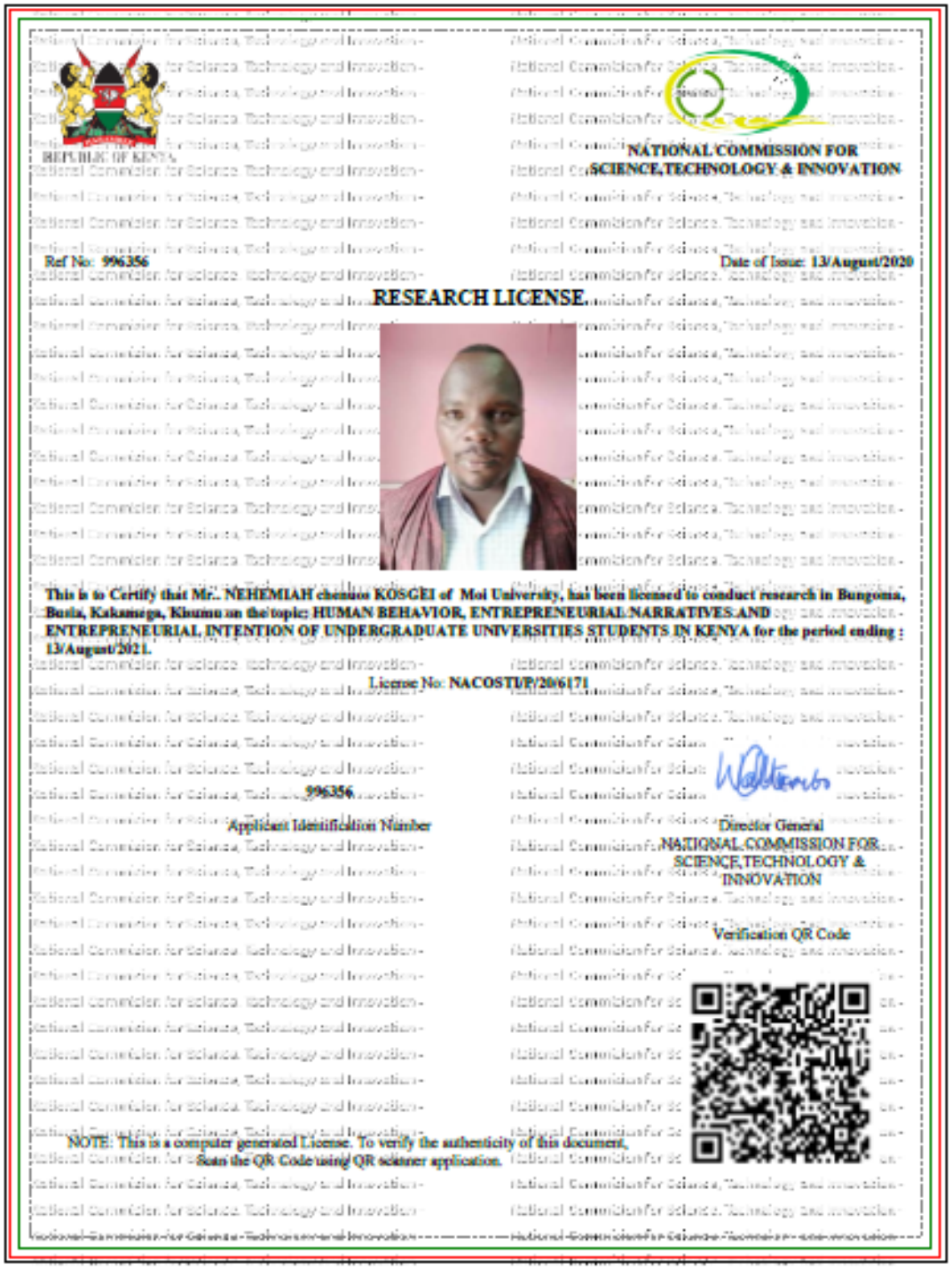

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Appendix V: Anti Plagiarism Similarity Index

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