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Entrepreneurship Education as A Catalyst for Venture Creation: A Conceptual Model.

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ABSTRACT

The study investigates the impact of Entrepreneurship Education (EE) on Venture Creation Intention (VCI) among undergraduate students in Zimbabwe, guided by the Theory of Planned Behavior. Utilizing a stratified random sampling method, the study surveyed a sample of 310 from a population of 1600 Chinhoyi University of Technology students. Data analysis employed regression analysis to determine the relationships between EE components and VCI, revealing that active teaching methods, EE content, and engagement in incubation acceleration services significantly influence VCI. The study emphasizes the importance of integrating experiential learning and industry-aligned curricula within EE frameworks to equip students with essential skills for venture creation. Recommendations advocate for a revised EE model that emphasizes mentorship, real-world applications, and supportive institutional ecosystems. The implications of these findings underscore the urgent need for systemic changes in EE to effectively cultivate entrepreneurial skills and reduce unemployment in Zimbabwe. Future research should adopt longitudinal designs and consider demographic variations to further validate these results. This study contributes to the growing literature on entrepreneurship education and its role in economic development, particularly in contexts facing significant youth unemployment challenges. By addressing the unique barriers within Zimbabwe's educational landscape, this research lays the groundwork for developing effective entrepreneurial ecosystems that empower students to transition successfully from education to entrepreneurship.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship Education; Venture Creation Intention

Introduction

Formal education is required to promote entrepreneurship instead of depending only on luck, as it is widely acknowledged to be crucial for both economic growth and individual prosperity (Nabi et al., 2017; Wibowo & Saptono, 2018). Formal entrepreneurship education (EE) is the most effective means of fostering individuals' entrepreneurial abilities and effectively refutes the outdated belief that entrepreneurship is solely innate (Burns, 2020). Research indicates that everyone may acquire entrepreneurial mindsets and skills. Importantly, EE actively promotes entrepreneurial behavior and Entrepreneurial Intention (EI) by igniting interest, imparting the knowledge and skills necessary to start businesses, and building the confidence necessary to do so (Morris et al., 2013; Bulgaru et al., 2021). Over a 15-year span, engineering students exposed to EE had much higher launch rates (48%) than control groups (26%), according to studies that followed the students (Klein et al., 2023). Surveys show that a sizable portion of students taking entrepreneurship courses either start their own companies or have a strong desire to do so (Peterman & Kennedy, 2003). The growing complexity of the global economy emphasizes this need since EE fosters vital skills including creativity, innovation, risk management, adaptation, problem-solving, and self-efficacy to traverse uncertainties (Obschonka et al., 2021; Liñán & Fayolle, 2015). The two ways that EE works are by improving the cognitive skills required to recognize opportunities and launch businesses (Obschonka et al., 2021; Arruti & Paños-Castro, 2020) and by influencing the educational environment to encourage entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions (Liñán & Fayolle, 2015).

The significance of EE for job creation, youth empowerment, and economic development in Africa has been validated by studies conducted in South Africa, Nigeria, and Uganda (Olutuase et al., 2020; Chauke & Obadire, 2020). Nevertheless, despite the high levels of early-stage entrepreneurial activity and the recognition of EE's importance, there are major implementation barriers across the continent (Herrington & Kew, 2017). These challenges include inadequate human capital and trained EE staff, a lack of government commitment, curricula that are not in line with real-world needs, a lack of industry connections, a persistent lack of funding and graduate-friendly environments, and a failure to center EE within educational systems (Herrington & Kew, 2017). Accordingly, many African countries fall behind of other developing regions in terms of converting EE initiatives into observable economic results, like as growth in GDP per capita (Herrington & Kew, 2017).

Zimbabwe serves as the best example of this disparity between the potential and actual impact of EE. EE is taught through courses, modules, practical subjects, and—above all—year-long industry attachments that provide practical experience (Ndofirepi & Rambe, 2021). Some noteworthy policy initiatives include the change from the Higher & Tertiary Education 3.0 model to the HTE 5.0 model, which integrates innovation and industrialization, and the National Qualifications Framework, which is being implemented by the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) (Chihota, 2020). This adjustment aims to close the gap between academic knowledge and local economic demands that existed under the prior system (Murwira, 2020). Significant budget commitments and government efforts such as the Indigenization Act (2008) further demonstrate a commitment to supporting youth entrepreneurship (Ndofirepi, 2020). These institutions and inputs do not eliminate the efficacy gap in Zimbabwe. An estimated 70.5% of people live in extreme poverty, and 90–95% of the population is unemployed (ZCTU, 2021). Only 5% of graduates are believed to obtain formal employment despite the fact that 95% of people are literate and that over 30,000 university graduates enter the workforce annually (Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, 2023).

In contrast to rates of 35% in Uganda and 25% in Ivory Coast, the venture creation rate for graduates is a startlingly low 5% of all registered running enterprises (Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency, 2024; ILO, 2022). This highlights EE's serious failure to provide graduates with the initiative and practical skills necessary to start successful firms (Munyoro & Phiri, 2021), wasting educational resources and making the unemployment problem worse (Mabhanda, 2023). The findings, which stand in stark contrast to the inputs and policy goals, reveal a significant and persistent paradox. EE's incapacity to promote new business endeavors is a direct cause of rising unemployment, limited economic growth, and extreme poverty (AfDB, 2021; Vinogradova et al., 2023).

These circumstance draws attention to a significant lacuna in the literature on EE, which has not adequately addressed the unique interaction between EE and graduates' actual venture formation in challenging environments like Zimbabwe. By investigating the connection between EE and venture creation by graduates, the research directly fills this gap. Facilitating successful graduate entrepreneurship is the ultimate goal in order to drastically reduce Zimbabwe's crippling unemployment rate.

Theoretical framework

Theory of Plan Behaviour (TPB)

Since then, the theory has dominated research on entrepreneurship, especially in the past decade (Kolvereid, 2014). The fundamental idea is that action follows intentionality, and that entrepreneurial behavior produces intentionality. Additionally, since people actively contribute as agents to their own development, their engagement in entrepreneurship is intentional rather than accidental. Three antecedents, or essentially independent factors, influence entrepreneurial goals, which in turn influence entrepreneurial action, to summarize:

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

The planned behavior theory was first presented by Ajzen in 1991. The reasoned action theory (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) is expanded upon by this theory. As per this idea, human social behavior is logical, monitored, or planned since it considers the outcomes of the action being considered (Ajzen and Fishbein, 2000). Various human actions, including voting decisions and quitting smoking, have been predicted by the model. For examining the potential effects of an entrepreneurship education program (EEP) on participants' experiences and entrepreneurial activity, this theory provides a tried-and-true framework. According to this perspective, EE influences people's attitudes, which in turn influences their intentions for behaviour or action related to entrepreneurship.

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) provides a robust theoretical framework for understanding the connection between venture creation and entrepreneurship education (Ajzen, 1991). The premise behind this association is that EE is a significant external element that can affect the three primary antecedents of entrepreneurial intention: perceived behavioral control (PBC), attitude toward conduct, and subjective norms. When combined, these variables forecast the desired outcome of starting a new company (Ali et al., 2020). Venture creation is essentially a planned, goal-directed action that contains intention, according to the TPB, which is its most precise and immediate predictor (Nguyen, 2021). In order to promote greater entrepreneurial intentions, EE programs are specifically developed to systematically alter these three factors.

By highlighting successful role models, highlighting the potential benefits of entrepreneurship, and increasing the perceived value of launching a business, the primary objective is to encourage more positive attitudes of entrepreneurship (Sánchez, 2020). Second, by creating encouraging peer situations, connecting participants with mentors and entrepreneurial networks, and emphasizing the growing social legitimacy of entrepreneurship, EE seeks to alter views of social approbation (Ali et al., 2020). Crucially, perceived behavioral control (PBC), or the belief that one can effectively do venture creation activities, is developed in large part by EE. This is accomplished by promoting experiential learning and dispensing practical knowledge (such as financial management and market analysis), which directly raises self-efficacy and perceived control over the entrepreneurial process (Hassan, 2023). Thus, the primary measurable effect of EE in the context of TPB is its ability to increase entrepreneurial intention (Sánchez, 2020). By positively modifying attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC, EE establishes the cognitive and motivational foundations necessary to cultivate a strong intention to engage in venture development. This greater intention represents the commitment and purposeful effort needed to start a firm and is a

necessary prerequisite for true entrepreneurial activity (Ajzen, 1991). As a result, in addition to explaining how EE affects the psychological preconditions for venture creation, the TPB framework offers a validated method for assessing EE effectiveness by measuring changes in these antecedents and entrepreneurial intention, demonstrating the formation of the prerequisites for further action (Ukpabi et al., 2021).

Experiential Learning Theory

TPB is complemented by Dewey's (1938) groundbreaking work on learning by experience and Kolb's (1984) Experiential Learning Theory (ELT). The four-stage cycle process of ELT (Concrete Experience, Reflective Observation, Abstract Conceptualization, and Active Experimentation) is intrinsically linked to the iterative, practice-based character of entrepreneurship (Demirel et al., 2022). Students participate in practical entrepreneurial activities (Concrete Experience), such as developing prototypes, as part of EE inspired by ELT, which goes beyond theoretical training. Applying developed concepts in new contexts (Active Experimentation), conceptualizing entrepreneurial principles (Abstract Conceptualization), and reflecting on these experiences under guidance (Reflective Observation) are the next stages (Passarelli & Kolb, 2023). Furthermore, Kolb's categorization of distinct learning styles (Assimilators, Convergers, Accommodators, Divergers) emphasizes the necessity of a range of educational approaches within EE to accommodate individual variances (Demirel et al., 2022). Dewey's (1938) emphasis on the teacher as a facilitator who assists students in finding meaning via experimentation and hands-on work supports this pedagogical transition (Roberts, 2022). According to Dewey's theory, the ultimate objective is to unleash each person's ability to apply talents for the good of society rather than concentrating solely on competency acquisition (Matlay, 2021).

Literature Review

Entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurship education, has evolved since the 1950s as a vital response to economic pressures, while scholars continue to debate on its precise definition. Many perspectives position EE as: (1) preparing students for the creation, profitability, and economic contribution of successful new ventures (Doan & Sung, 2018); (2) developing their ability to identify opportunities, innovate, and allocate resources (Udo-Imeh et al., 2016; Davidsson, 2004); and (3) a field that is distinct from traditional business education because it emphasizes startup action rather than organizational management (Hindle, 2017).

Entrepreneurship Education Dimensions of Implementation

Three interconnected elements underpin effective EE delivery. While integrating startup-specific information (industry dynamics, venture processes) with business fundamentals (market analysis, finance, and leadership), the curriculum must incorporate attitudinal development in creativity, resilience, and risk management (Olakundu, 2017). The teaching methodology needs experiential pedagogies that go beyond theoretical business plans in order to develop decision-making agility in uncertain environments (Neck & Greene, 2011). This is in line with the institutional goals of teaching about, for, or stimulating entrepreneurship (Hytti & O'Gorman, 2004). Using incubators, industrial alliances, and research commercialization infrastructure, universities foster entrepreneurial ecosystems outside of the classroom that link academic and regional economic priorities (Rokhman & Ahamed, 2015).

Venture Creation intention

Venture creation intention (VCI) reflects a deliberate commitment to launching new businesses. Recent research has demonstrated that experiential educational approaches, including startup simulations and prototyping, significantly increase VCI by promoting practical skills and lowering risk aversion (Kassean et al., 2020). University innovation ecosystems, particularly incubators and mentorship programs, improve VCI by facilitating access to resources and connecting networks (Audretsch et al., 2022). Digital solutions that improve opportunity feasibility assessments, such AI-driven market analytics, significantly improve VCI (Haddoud et al., 2021). Our understanding of cross-cultural variations, such as those between the Global South and Western contexts, and the delay between intention and venture launch is still lacking in significant ways (Franco et al., 2022).

The Influence of Entrepreneurship Education Components on Venture Creation Intention

Entrepreneurship Education Teaching Methods and Venture Creation Intention

Empirical evidence supports the idea that active approaches are different from passive approaches in entrepreneurship education (EE). Active pedagogies are more successful in raising venture creation intention (VCI) by fortifying basic Theory of Planned Behavior antecedents. To achieve this, they close intention-action gaps by developing self-efficacy (Nabi et al., 2017), foster positive attitudes by exposing people to role models, and increase perceived behavioral control by applying skills (Fayolle & Gailly, 2015). Conversely, passive approaches that are too theoretical may inadvertently lower entrepreneurial self-efficacy and show weak direct relationships with the establishment of VCI (Oosterbeek et al., 2010). Nuanced data suggests that well-structured passive information can enhance the construction of core knowledge and attitudes, even while digital transmission reduces resource restrictions (Martin et al., 2013). This supports the hypotheses:

H1: Exposure to entrepreneurship education active teaching methods have a positive effect on students' venture creation intention.

H2: Exposure to entrepreneurship education passive teaching methods have a positive effect on students' venture creation intention.

Entrepreneurship Education Content and Venture Creation Intention

Content specificity has a major role in mediating the development of VCI. Practical modules that emphasize concrete venture development activities, such as financial planning, resource acquisition, and opportunity discovery, enhance PBC and exhibit stronger relationships with VCI than abstract theory (Lüthje & Franke, 2003; Hägg et al., 2021). Furthermore, material has distinct effects on TPB dimensions: networking/ecosystem content changes subjective norms, while risk-resilience content affects attitudes (Wang & Bansal, 2023). Critical gaps remain, including the methodological confounding of content-method interactions (Nabi et al., 2017), the cultural contingency of content efficacy (Piperopoulos & Dimov, 2015), and the over-reliance on unvalidated business administration content (Rideout & Gray, 2013). Despite the fact that EE content is generally thought to have a good effect (Souitaris et al., 2007), there is still uncertainty over the optimal content configurations, so:

H3: Exposure to entrepreneurship education content have a positive effect on students' venture creation intention**.**

University Innovation Hubs and Venture Creation Intention

Two distinct ways that TPB pathways impact VCI are through acceleration and pre-incubation services. According to Hayter et al. (2018) and Audretsch et al. (2022), pre-incubation (idea validation, prototyping, seed finance) strengthens PBC by lowering uncertainty regarding feasibility and transforming nascent interest into concrete intention. PBC is further strengthened by acceleration services (mentorship, growth finance, and networks), which give access to resources and impact subjective norms through community embeddedness (Hackett & Dilts, 2004). Critics questioned the assumption of universality, citing (1) selection bias inflating hub impact metrics (Schwartz & Hornuf, 2022), (2) high participant attrition hinting at intention-commitment decoupling (Vanderstraeten et al., 2022), and (3) potential adverse effects of intensive programming (Colombo-Delpoggio, 2020). Unresolved issues about the relative impacts of pre-incubation (feasibility focus) versus acceleration (scaling focus), as well as interactions with formal EE components, shape the final hypotheses (Huang-Saad et al., 2022).

H4: Engagement with pre-incubation services have a positive effect on students' venture creation intention.

H5: Engagement with acceleration services have a positive effect on students' venture creation intention.

Empirical Review

Oosterbeek et al. (2010) - Economics of Education Review

Using a rigorous quasi-experimental design and a sample size of over 1,500, this study discovered that participation in a university entrepreneurship program had no appreciable positive effect on actual startup activities one and a half years later and reduced students' intentions to launch their own business by 6%. In accordance with the authors' "discouragement effect," EE may raise entrepreneurial risk awareness without appreciably enhancing confidence or perceptions of feasibility, which would, in the near term, inhibit the intention and action of venture development.

von Graevenitz et al. (2010) - Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization

According to this natural field experiment (N=170), EE participation significantly increased startup attempts by 8-10 percentage points within a year, which is different from what Oosterbeek et al. found. The biggest benefit was observed in students who had a lower starting aptitude for entrepreneurship, which is significant. This demonstrates indisputably that EE, particularly its action-oriented pedagogy (business planning, mentorship), may actively promote venture formation behavior, even in individuals who are not accustomed to starting their own company.

Lafuente et al. (2019) - International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research

EE had no appreciable effect on graduates launching their own firms, according to the results of this six-year longitudinal research that tracked 2,061 graduates. Ironically, study demonstrated that graduates' participation in intrapreneurship—the practice of joining already-existing startups—had a major positive influence. This challenges the idea that EE primarily supports new venture founders by offering a different path into the entrepreneurial ecosystem that does not include traditional "venture creation" as commonly understood.

Elert et al. (2015) - Small Business Economics

Unlike Lafuente et al., this large-scale registry investigation (N>26,000) indicated that university EE exposure increased the likelihood of starting a new firm (a direct proxy for self-employment) by 3–4 percentage points. For almost five years, this effect was more pronounced among students whose parents were entrepreneurs. This provides compelling evidence that EE is linked to the launch of new companies, particularly when that connection is coupled with family business ownership.

Nabi et al. (2017) - Academy of Management Learning & Education

Although not a major study, this systematic analysis of 159 EE studies provides important context for the discrepancies. Programs that prioritized experiential learning, such venture projects and simulations, were found to have a significantly higher impact on behavioral outcomes and competences than those that mostly concentrated on theory. This implies that the instructional approach, which is usually not appropriately differentiated in studies like Oosterbeek et al. or von Graevenitz et al., is a significant mediator explaining the differential EE outcomes on venture creation.

Methodology

Grounded in positivist philosophy, the study employed survey design (Saunders et al., 2012) to gather quantitative data from a sample of 310 out of a population of 1600 undergraduate students enrolled in five business programs at Chinhoyi University of Technology (CUT). These students were direct consumers of Entrepreneurship Education (EE). The diverse population was separated into mutually exclusive subgroups using stratified random sampling (Smith, 2020; Johnson & Lee, 2019). To establish proportionate sample sizes for every stratum, simple random sampling was employed (Thompson, 2021). 300 valid questionnaires (96.8% response rate) were returned from the initial sample of 310, which was determined using Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table. The instrument was validated in a pilot study at the University of Zimbabwe with 30 participants (Zikmund et al., 2010; Johanson & Brooks, 2010). Due to their greater likelihood of becoming entrepreneurs after graduation, business students were given preference (Ertuna & Gurel, 2011).

Ethical Consideration

The study conformed with significant ethical requirements by obtaining consent from collaborating institutions and ethical clearance from the university (CUT) (Tracy, 2019). Also informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity were observed (Tracy, 2019; Navalta et al., 2019).

Questionnaire Administration

EE students were given the questionnaires, which were an improved version of the ones used in the pilot study, by the researcher both in person and electronically. The researcher verbally explained the purpose of the study to the participants as necessary. Students' contact details were extracted from the university's files with the administration's approval. CUT final-year students were asked to complete structured questionnaires in order to collect primary data. Once completed, respondents returned the surveys to the researcher. As stated by Saunders et al. (2012), every participant provided answers to the "same set of questions in a predetermined order." This questionnaire's questions were entirely standardized, which means that each respondent received exactly the same version.

Measures Used to Determine Entrepreneurial Intention

The study measured entrepreneurship education using a self-designed instrument. The instrument has 5 items for each of the five variables utilized in the investigation. The instrument was designed using Likert scales, which go from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The literature on entrepreneurial education and university support ecosystems was used to construct the items. All of the instrument items are listed in Table 1.

Measure of Entrepreneurship Education

Table 1: Measure of Entrepreneurship Education

Construct	Statements	Item Source
Passive Methods	I find lectures to be an effective way to learn new concepts.	Bennett (2006); Oosterbeek et al. (2010)
	The use of multimedia presentations enhances my understanding of the material.	Bennett (2006); Walter & Block (2016)
	Reading assignments are helpful for my comprehension of the subject.	Bennett (2006); Martin et al. (2013)
	I prefer passive teaching methods over interactive approaches.	Bennett (2006); Nabi et al. (2017)
	Passive teaching methods adequately prepare me for assessments.	Bennett (2006); Rideout & Gray (2013)
Active Methods	Group discussions greatly enhance my learning experience.	Bennett (2006); Fayolle & Gailly (2015)
	Hands-on activities help me better understand the course material.	Bennett (2006); Neck & Greene (2011)
	I feel more engaged in classes that use active teaching methods.	Bennett (2006); Nabi et al. (2021)
	Active teaching methods encourage collaboration among students.	Bennett (2006); Pittaway et al. (2015)
	Active teaching methods improve my retention of information.	Bennett (2006); Walter & Block (2016)
EE Content	The EE content is relevant to my business goals.	Souitaris et al. (2007)**;** Hägg & Kurczewska (2021)
	The EE materials are engaging and informative.	Neck & Corbett (2018)**;** Bell (2023)
	The skills I learned from EE are applicable to real-world scenarios.	Nabi et al. (2017)**;** Hägg et al. (2021)
	EE content encourages critical thinking and creativity.	Pittaway et al. (2020)**;** Lackéus (2020)
	I feel more confident in my entrepreneurial abilities after completing the EE program.	McGee et al. (2009)**;** Nabi et al. (2021)
Pre-Incubation Services	Pre-incubation services helped me refine my business idea effectively.	Bollingtoft (2012); Hayter (2016)
	I received valuable mentorship during the pre-incubation phase.	Scillitoe & Chakrabarti (2010); Hausberg & Korreck (2020)

Construct	Statements	Item Source
Incubation and Acceleration Services	Pre-incubation workshops were beneficial for my business development.	Hackett & Dilts (2004); Audretsch et al. (2022)
	Networking opportunities in pre-incubation connected me with potential partners.	Hansen et al. (2000); Mansoori et al. (2023)
	Pre-incubation services enhanced my chances of entrepreneurial success.	Schwartz (2013); Hausberg & Korreck (2020)
	The incubation program provided essential resources for my startup.	Hackett & Dilts (2004); Hayter et al. (2018)
	Acceleration services improved my business's growth potential.	Pauwels et al. (2016); Audretsch et al. (2022)
	I received adequate mentorship during the incubation process.	Scillitoe & Chakrabarti (2010); Mansoori et al. (2023)
	Funding opportunities in the incubation program met my needs.	Aernoudt (2004); Vanderstraeten et al. (2022)
	The structure of incubation/acceleration programs effectively promotes startup success.	Hackett & Dilts (2004); Schwartz & Hornuf (2022)

Measures of Venture Creation Intention

The literature on venture creation and EE was adopted to create the section of the instrument used to measure venture creation elements, as shown in table 2.

Table 2: Measures of Venture Creation Intention

Construct		Statements	Item Source
Venture Intention	Creation	I intend to start my own business.	Liñán & Chen (2009); Thompson (2009)
		I will start my own business within the next five years.	Kolvereid (1996); Liñán & Chen (2009)
		I intend to start my business one day.	Liñán & Chen (2009); Autio et al. (2001)
		I intend to start my business because I have the knowledge, skill, and experience required.	McGee et al. (2009); Thompson (2009)

Results

Reliability and validity.

To determine the internal consistency of answers to questions about the variables in question, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were employed. In other words, reliability testing looked for evidence that a set of questions measured the same thing. For every construct, the following coefficients (Table 3) were acquired:

Table 3: Reliability Statistics.

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Active teaching methods	.938	5
Incubation and acceleration services	.937	5
EE Content	.942	5
Passive teaching methods	.943	5
Preincubation services	.939	5
Venture Creation Intention	.846	5

Based on George and Mallery's (2016) scale, all these derived alpha coefficients ranged from good to excellent.

Convergent Validity

Table 4: Convergent Validity

Construct	Avg. Inter-Item Correlation	Ave	Interpretation
Active teaching methods	0.75	0.72	Strong (≥ 0.50)
Incubation and acceleration services	0.74	0.70	Strong (≥ 0.50)
EE content	0.76	0.73	Strong (≥ 0.50)
Passive teaching methods	0.7	0.71	Strong (≥ 0.50)
Preincubation services	0.75	0.72	Strong (≥ 0.50)

All constructs demonstrated strong convergent validity, with average inter-item correlations > 0.70 and AVE > 0.50.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity confirms that constructs are distinct (e.g., Active Teaching Methods is empirically different from Incubation and Acceleration Services).

Table 5: Discriminant validity

Construct Pair	HTMT Value	Threshold (<0.85)
Active Teaching Methods vs. Incubation and Acceleration Services	0.08	Passed
Active Teaching Methods vs. EE Content	0.05	Passed
Active Teaching Methods vs. Passive Teaching Methods	0.07	Passed
Active Teaching Methods vs. Preincubation Services	0.16	Passed
Incubation and Acceleration Services vs. EE Content	0.07	Passed
Incubation and Acceleration Services vs. Preincubation Services	0.05	Passed

The Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations was used to evaluate discriminant validity, with a conservative cut off of 0.85 to guarantee that the constructs are empirically distinct (Henseler et al., 2015). All construct pairs displayed HTMT values between 0.05 and 0.16, which

are significantly below the threshold, as indicated in Table 4.3. Active Teaching Methods and EE Content, as well as Incubation and Acceleration Services and Preincubation Services, had the highest observed HTMT value (0.16), while Active Teaching Methods and Preincubation Services had the lowest (0.05). The HTMT values for every other pair were similarly low (for example, 0.07 between Active Teaching Methods and Passive Teaching Methods). These findings support strong discriminant validity, showing that the measurement model's constructs are discrete and assess original theoretical ideas.

Entrepreneurship Education and Venture Creation Intention

Table 6. Entrepreneurship Education Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Active teaching methods	300	1.00	5.00	2.9533	1.27143
Incubation and acceleration services	300	1.00	5.00	3.0007	1.27392
EE content	300	1.00	5.00	3.0193	1.29306
Passive teaching methods	300	1.00	5.00	2.7780	1.26572
Preincubation services	300	1.00	5.00	2.9847	1.25436
Venture creation intention	300	1.00	5.00	2.9647	.92542
Valid N (listwise)	300				

According to the descriptive statistics, 300 participants have a moderate opinion of how well entrepreneurship education encourages the intention to launch a venture. Incubation services and active teaching strategies received means of 3.02 and 2.95, respectively, while EE content marginally outperformed at 3.02. On the other hand, passive teaching strategies were perceived as less effective, as evidenced by their lower mean of 2.78. Despite significant variation in responses across the various educational components, the overall venture creation intention averaged 2.96, indicating a moderate propensity towards entrepreneurship.

Correlation Among Independent Variable

		Tolerance	VIF
1			
	Active teaching methods	.984	1.016
	Incubation and acceleration services	.994	1.006
	EE content	.992	1.008
	Passive teaching methods	.984	1.016
	Preincubation services	.998	1.002

Table 7: Correlation between the independent variable

According to Hair et al. (2010), multicollinearity is the degree of correlation between independent variables. To evaluate tolerance and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), a multicollinearity analysis was conducted in this study. Multicollinearity problems occur when the VIF is greater than 10 and the tolerance value is less than 0.10, according to Hair et al. (2010). Each variable's tolerance value is more than 0.10 and the corresponding VIF values are below 10, indicating that there are no multicollinearity issues among the components, as shown in Table 4.5. This suggests that the elements are unrelated to one another and have no mutual influence.

Normality Test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Unstandardized Residual	.045	300	.200*	.995	300	.363
Standardized Residual	.045	300	.200*	.995	300	.363
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.						
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

Table 8: Tests of Normality

The normality tests were performed to determine whether the regression analysis's residuals had a normal distribution. Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were used, and the outcomes are shown in Table 4.6.

Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals vs. Predicted Values

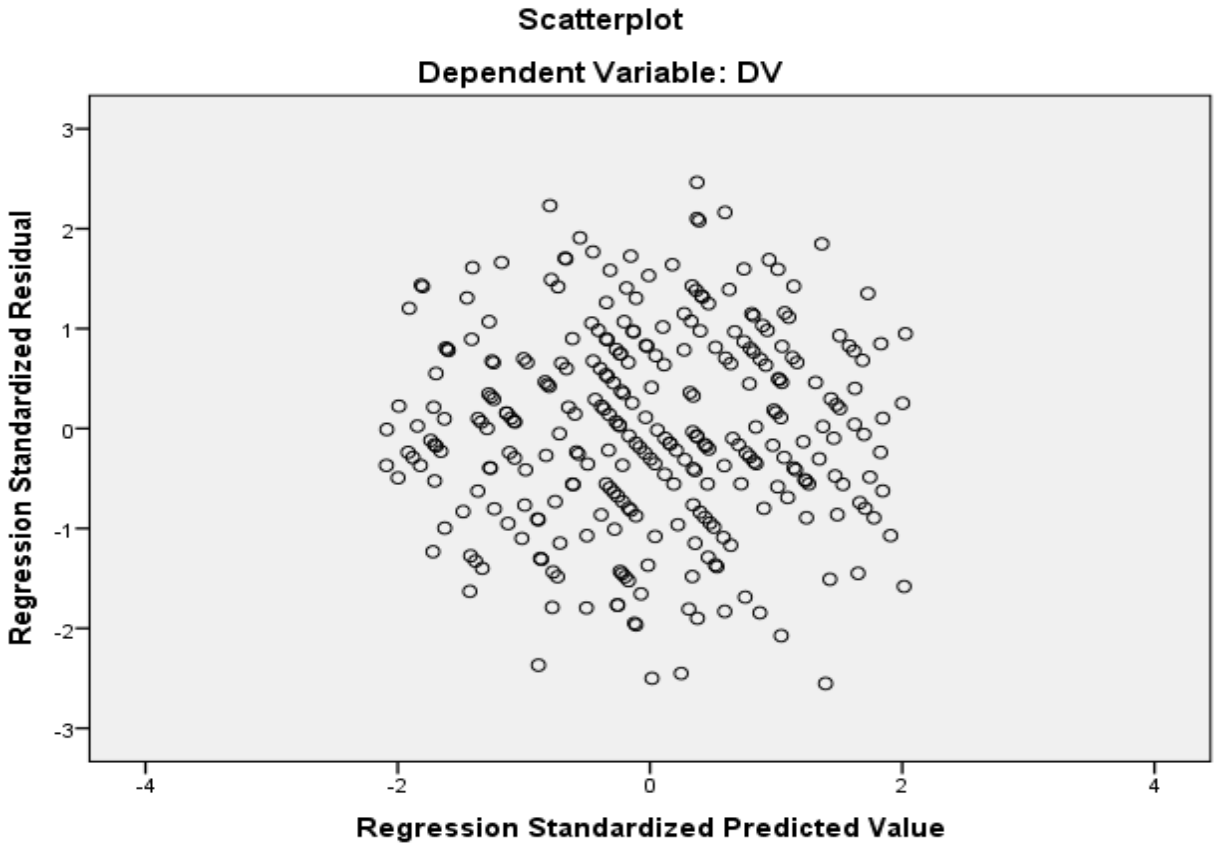

Fig 1: Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals vs. Predicted Values

The standardized residuals' random distribution around zero is demonstrated by the scatterplot of the residuals against the expected values, suggesting that the variance of the residuals is constant across all anticipated value levels. The lack of any observable pattern supports the heteroscedasticity assumption, which is crucial to the validity of our regression model. As a result, the results validate that the model's assumptions are met, allowing for reliable statistical inferences and robust interpretations of the relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

All things considered, the scatterplot demonstrates that the regression analysis provided in the paper is legitimate.

Regression Analysis

Table 9: Model Summary

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.815[a]	.664	.658	.54090

a. Predictors: (Constant), incubation and acceleration services, preincubation services, passive teaching methods, EE content, active teaching methods

The model summary shows a high linear association between the predictor set and the dependent variable, with a multiple correlation coefficient (R) of 0.815, indicating a great overall fit. According to the coefficient of determination (R2 = 0.664), the predictors (active teaching techniques, passive teaching methods, EE content, preincubation services, and incubation/acceleration services) together account for 66.4% of the variance in venture creation intention. Robust explanatory power without overfitting is confirmed by the Adjusted R2 (0.658), which is nearly unchanged after controlling for model complexity (number of predictors).

Table 10: Anova

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	170.048	5	34.010	116.242	.000[b]
	Residual	86.018	294	.293		
	Total	256.065	299			

a. Dependent Variable: venture creation intention
b. Predictors: (Constant), incubation and acceleration services, preincubation services, passive teaching methods, EE content, active teaching methods

The ANOVA results for the regression model that predicts venture formation intention show that the overall connection is statistically significant (F (5, 294) = 116.24, p <.001). About 66.4% (R2 = 170.048 / 256.065) of the overall variance (overall SS = 256.065) seen in participants (df total = 299) can be explained by the regression sum of squares (170.048). The extremely significant F-statistic and R2 value show that this set of entrepreneurship education components strongly predicts venture creation intentions, suggesting that these elements function as key drivers in concert.

Table 11: Regression Coefficients

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.343	.160		2.145	.033
	Active teaching methods	.358	.025	.492	14.442	.000
	EE content	.091	.024	.127	3.748	.000
	Passive teaching methods	.001	.025	.001	.031	.975
	Preincubation services	-.025	.025	-.034	-.991	.322
	Incubation and acceleration services	.454	.025	.625	18.450	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Venture Creation Intention

Regression analysis showed that, after controlling for other model variables, Incubation and Acceleration Services (B = 0.454, β = 0.625, p <.000), Active Teaching Methods (B = 0.358, β = 0.492, p <.000), and EE content (B = 0.091, β = 0.127, p <.000) all showed statistically significant positive associations with Venture Creation Intention, with standardized coefficients (β) indicating their relative efficacy. In contrast, there was no significant correlation between the outcome and either passive teaching methods (B = 0.001, β = 0.001, p =.975) or preincubation services (B = -0.025, β = -0.034, p =.322). Also noteworthy was the model's intercept (B = 0.343, p =.033).

Discussion of Findings.

A sample of 310 was used to gather preliminary data on the relationship between venture creation intention (VCI) and entrepreneurship education (EE) components; 300 valid questionnaires (96.8% response rate) were returned. According to the study, each variable was measured using a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 represents low and 5 represents high. The mean scores clustered close to the midpoint (3.00), suggesting moderate views of EE components (Nabi et al., 2021; Fayolle, 2023). For example, respondents thought that EE material (3.02), incubation/acceleration services (3.00), active teaching techniques (mean = 2.95), and preincubation services (2.98) were neither completely absent nor highly valued. Passive teaching methods received a somewhat lower score (2.78), which may indicate less interest in traditional lecture-based methods and is in line with educational shifts toward experiential learning (Lackéus, 2020). The venture creation intention (mean = 2.96) similarly demonstrated participants' neutral-to-moderate entrepreneurial intent, which is consistent with cross-cultural assessments of entrepreneurial education (Liñán et al., 2021).

Significant heterogeneity in perceptions is highlighted by response variability, as seen by standard deviations (SD) for EE variables that range from 1.25 to 1.29. Concerns regarding the fair distribution of resources in entrepreneurial ecosystems are echoed by this dispersion, which points to uneven experiences or institutional irregularities in the provision of EE components, such as the caliber of active learning strategies or access to incubation programs (Hausberg and Korreck, 2021). The lower SD for venture formation intention (0.93), however, suggests that respondents were more in agreement and that their intentions clustered closer to the mean. According to research on entrepreneurial self-efficacy, this would suggest that variables outside of EE, including

individual goals, the socioeconomic context, or risk tolerance, have a more consistent effect on intent (Morris et al., 2023).

Regression analysis reveals a substantial correlation between the components of entrepreneurship education (EE) and venture creation intention (VCI), accounting for 66.4% of the variation in VCI ($R2 = 0.664$). Meta-analyses that highlight the importance of pedagogy and institutional support in predicting entrepreneurial achievements are in line with this (Fayolle, 2023). The statistically significant ANOVA result ($F = 116.242$, $p < 0.000$) highlights the predictors' collective relevance, which is consistent with frameworks that portray EE as a dynamic, practice-driven process (Lackéus, 2020). Among the factors, incubation and acceleration services ($\beta = 0.625$, $p<0.000$) and active teaching methods ($\beta = 0.492$, $p<0.000$) were the best markers of purpose. This is consistent with groundbreaking work on experiential learning (Kolb and Kolb, 2017) and subsequent research that supports institutional venture ecosystems (Hausberg and Korreck, 2021). These findings contrast with the non-significant effects of preincubation services ($\beta = -0.034$, $p = 0.322$) and passive teaching methods ($\beta = 0.001$, $p = 0.975$), which are consistent with criticisms of traditional pedagogy (Nabi et al., 2021) as well as the difficulties in creating early-stage support (Secundo et al., 2021). The minor but substantial effect of EE content ($\beta = 0.127$, $p < 0.001$) indicates that material must be linked with active delivery to drive intent, which is consistent with discussions about curriculum relevance (Fayolle and Gailly, 2018; Liñán et al., 2021).

The popularity of incubation services and active teaching approaches supports calls for institutional investment in venture infrastructure (Hausberg and Korreck, 2021) and pedagogical adjustments toward "learning-by-doing" (Lackéus, 2020). The lack of preincubation influence may be the result of misaligned program design, even while the non-significance of passive approaches is consistent with studies that theoretical training might alienate students in entrepreneurship situations (Nabi et al., 2021). According to Krueger (2007), perceived feasibility and desirability have an impact on entrepreneurial intent, and the success of incubation/acceleration programs is consistent with their function in bridging the gap between academics and industry (Hausberg and Korreck, 2021). Future research should use longitudinal designs to account for demographic moderators and provide insight into temporal dynamics (Nabi et al., 2021). These findings validate the importance of industry partnerships and mentorship, even though the cross-sectional design limits causal claims due to the possibility of unmeasured factors (like cultural capital) skewing relationships (Fayolle, 2023).

Conclusion

This study emphasizes how contextually structured entrepreneurship education (EE) affects venture creation intention (VCI) and the complex interactions among educational approaches, institutional support, and disciplinary alignment. The excellent explanatory power of the regression model ($R2 = 0.664$) suggests that active teaching techniques and incubation/acceleration services are important predictors of entrepreneurial intent. This is in line with modern educational ideas that place an emphasis on experience learning and ecosystem integration (Lackéus, 2020; Hausberg and Korreck, 2021). Critiques of traditional lecture-based curriculum and disjointed early-stage support systems were confirmed by the lack of impact of passive teaching techniques and preincubation services (Nabi et al., 2021; Secundo et al., 2021).

These results support a revised EE framework that focuses on three key pillars: (1) disciplinary contextualization, which makes sure that EE components are in line with student goals and

program-specific objectives; (2) institutional investment in strong incubation ecosystems to close the gap between academia and practice; and (3) pedagogical innovation, which is centered on industry partnerships, mentorship, and simulations. According to the moderate VCI scores across disciplines, EE must be integrated into larger ecosystems that address mentorship networks, financing access, and cultural attitudes in order to encourage entrepreneurial intent (Fayolle, 2023; Morris et al., 2023).

Limitations and Future Research

There are some limitations to consider, despite the fact that this study offers insightful information. First, the cross-sectional methodology precludes inferences regarding causality since unobserved factors (such as prior entrepreneurial exposure or cultural capital) may distort results. Research that tracks students' intentions over time could provide insight into temporal dynamics. Second, sample size imbalances, especially the small cohort in Retail and Operations Management (N=12), limit the generalizability of discipline-specific findings. Future research should ensure larger, more balanced samples from a range of specialties. Third, the single-institution approach may restrict external validity due to cultural settings and institutional resources that vary globally. Comparative studies across regions and educational types (e.g., technical versus business schools) would enhance generalizability.

Although this study provides insightful information, it should be noted that it has several limitations. First, because unobserved factors (such as prior exposure to entrepreneurship or cultural capital) may skew connections, the cross-sectional design precludes drawing conclusions about causality; research that monitor students' intent over time may provide insight into temporal dynamics; Third, the single-institution focus may limit external validity due to differences in institutional resources and cultural contexts around the world; comparative research across geographical areas and educational models (e.g., technical versus business schools) would improve generalizability.

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