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EXPERIENTIAL PEDAGOGY, ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS AND STUDENTS' ENTREPRENEURIAL BEHAVIOUR: THE MODERATING ROLE OF ENTREPRENEURIAL EXPERIENCE

LADY GLORIA TAWIAH

2024

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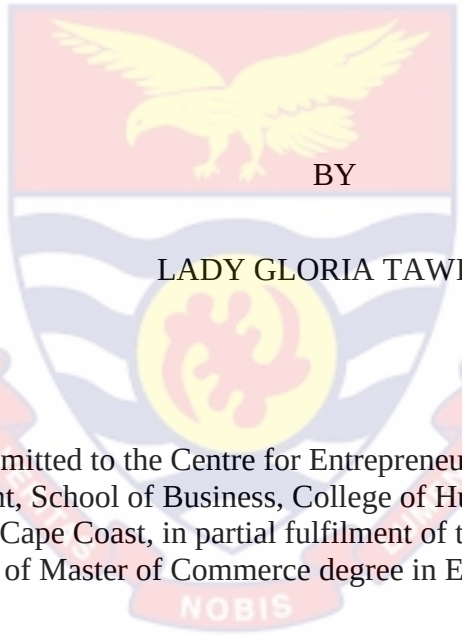

BY

LADY GLORIA TAWIAH

Thesis submitted to the Centre for Entrepreneurship and Small Enterprise Development, School of Business, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Commerce degree in Entrepreneurship

AUGUST 2024

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: …….. Date: ……..

Name: Lady Gloria Tawiah

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature: …….. Date: ……..

Name: Dr. Edward N. A. Amarteifio

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention on entrepreneurial behaviour among students at the University of Cape Coast, with a focus on the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour. Using a stratified random sampling technique, data were collected from 298 respondents through a survey and analysed using PLS-SEM. The results indicated a statistically significant positive effect of experiential pedagogy on entrepreneurial behaviour. Additionally, experiential pedagogy had a significant positive effect on entrepreneurial intention, which, in turn, positively influenced entrepreneurial behaviour. However, entrepreneurial experience did not have a significant effect on entrepreneurial intention, nor did it moderate the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour. Based on these findings, it is recommended that universities provide students with more opportunities to gain practical entrepreneurial experience through internships, projects, and startup competitions to enhance their entrepreneurial development.

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KEYWORDS

Entrepreneurial behaviour

Entrepreneurial experience

Entrepreneurial intentions

Experiential pedagogy

University of Cape Coast

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DEDICATION

To my husband, Peter Atindaana, and son, Jesse Atindaana

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Considering the importance of entrepreneurship, it is imperative to investigate the factors by which the level of entrepreneurial behaviour can be enhanced. This study, thus, focused on how experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention influence entrepreneurial behaviour among students of the University of Cape Coast, taking cognisance of the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience. To achieve the purpose of the study, the quantitative approach was employed, while the analysis was done within the remits of the explanatory research design. Results suggested that, while intentions and behaviour are not contributed to by entrepreneurial experience, they are significantly driven by experiential pedagogy. This chapter of the study presents, among others, the background to the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, and research hypotheses.

Background to the Study

Entrepreneurial behaviour (EB) revolves around idea generation, innovation, opportunity identification, business plan writing, and implementation intentions (Gollwitzer & Oettingen, 2011). It has also been operationalised to include planning, opportunity recognition, task efforts, passion, financial commitment or investment, goal commitment, persistence, creativity and innovativeness (Sukavejworakit, Promsiri & Virasa 2018). Presently, EB has become a global focus as it is deemed very imperative in managerial decision making and business policy formulation (Reuters Africa, 2017). According to

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Owoo and Lambon-Quayefio (2014), EB contributes to attainment of competitiveness in market and industry. Oppong, Owiredu and Quarmyne (2014) averred that EB facilitates smooth growth and survival of organisations.

Baruah and Ward (2014) also opined that, in today's competitive business and economic world, EB of employees can be relied on to formulate and come up with effectual and efficient organisational strategies. These show that the importance of EB cannot be overemphasised; hence, the need for business organisations, academia and individual industry players to identify factors that could ensure that the best is brought out of individuals, in the form of demonstration of EB or entrepreneurial activities. Consequently, experiential pedagogy (EP), entrepreneurial intentions (EI), and entrepreneurial experience (EE) have been cited as factors that could trigger and contribute to the overall improvement of EB among people (Kuchera & Redman, 2020; Olokundun, Moses, Iyiola, Ibidunni, Ogbari, Peter & Borishade, 2018; Radu-Lefebvre, Lefebvre, Crosina & Hytti, 2021). This implies that EP, EI and EE, to some extent, influence EB (Radu-Lefebvre et al., 2021).

According to McCarthy (2010), EP refers to the process of learning by doing, where learners are actively involved in real life hands-on experiences. This is predicated on concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation (Kuchera & Redman, 2020; Olokundun et al., 2018). EI, on the other hand, is the willingness of an individual to show entrepreneurial behaviour and engage in entrepreneurial activities (Barringer & Ireland, 2010) – thus, one's desire to own their own businesses or start

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a business (Sukavejworakit, Promsiri & Virasa 2018), and this revolves around perceived feasibility, perceived act and perceived desirability (Singh, Prasad & Raut, 2012) – whilst EE is the entrepreneurial engagement one had had in the past, through ownership of a business (es) for a specific length of time (Farmer, Yao & Kung-Mcintyre, 2009; Hallak, Lindsay & Brown, 2011).

Theoretically, the social learning theory contended that learning through direct observation, imitation and modelling (i.e., experiential way of learning – EP) contributes to and strengthens one's desire to practicalise (e.g., to act entrepreneurial – EB) what has been learnt (Akers & Jennings, 2015; Bandura, 1969). Kolb's experiential learning theory posited, among other things, that practical experiences grapsed through direct involvement in entrepreneurial actitvities (EP) drive the individual to take innovative actions that may result in the implementation of a business idea (EB) (Hawtry, 2007; Kolb, 1984).

It could also be inferred from the Kolb's theory that EP empowers individuals to develop the willingness to demonstrate entrepreneurial activities (EI) (Radu-Lefebvre et al., 2021; Sukavejworakit et al., 2018). The theory of planned behaviour extended the Kolb's theory by contending that, aside EP, past entrepreneurial experience (EE) of individuals may also influence EI, which may all in turn result in demonstration of EB (Ajzen, 1985; Goemaere, Vansteenkiste & Van Petegem, 2016). Moreover, Kolb's theory suggests that external boundary conditions, such as EE (Tahlil & Ali, 2015), may contribte positively to how EP drives EB (Hallak, Lindsay & Brown, 2011; Tahlil & Ali, 2015).

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From the forgoing assertions, it could be seen that EP directly influences EI and EB, and indirectly influences EB through mechanisms of EI; EI predicts EB; EE affects EI, and EE influences the link between EP and EB. These interplays, to a considerable extent, have been confirmed by a number of empirical studies. For instance, Olokundun et al. (2018) found that students exposed to EP appeared to have the ability to see socio-economic problems as challenges and got propelled to express entrepreneurial actions as a response to the challenges identified. Leal-Rodríguez and Albort-Morant (2018) reported experiential methods of education (EP) to positively influence individuals' real-life entrepreneurial performance. Similarly, Kabir, Haque and Sarwar (2017), and Jumamil et al. (2017) documented a positive relationship between EP and EB among entrepreneurs.

Aslam, Awan and Khan (2012) also revealed students who participated in EP to have more intention towards entrepreneurship (EI), compared to those who did not participate in experiential teaching and learning. In like manner, Uddin and Bose (2012) found a statistically significant positive effect of EP on EI of Bangladeshi business students. Kisolo (2016) found that EP contributes to people's intentions to undertake entrepreneurial activities. On the flipside, some prior empirical studies have reported a negative relationship between variants of experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention (Graevenitz, Harhoff & Weber, 2010; Oosterbeek, Prag & Ijsselstein, 2011; Piperopoulos & Dimov, 2015; Wang & Wong, 2004).

Regarding EI and EB, Fernández-Pérez, Montes-Merino, Rodríguez-Ariza and Galicia (2019) found a positive relationship between entrepreneurial intention

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(EI) and entrepreneurial behaviour (EB). Kautonen, Van Gelderen and Tornikoski (2013) had also reported a significant positive relationship between EI and EB. Shiri, Hosseini and Mohammadi (2012) revealed that EI significantly contributes to the actual implementation of entrepreneurial activities. In another study, Miralles, Giones and Riverola (2015) found EE to have a significantly positive effect on EI. Quan (2012) also suggested that individuals with prior entrepreneurial knowledge or experience are likely to develop intentions for further entrepreneurial activities.

It could be realised from the foregoing that, the state of the empirical literature – despite the fact that it extensively explored data from countries other than those in sub-Saharan Africa of which Ghana is part – is limited in terms of how entrepreneurial experience (EE) influences the relationship between EP and EB (Carpenter & Wilson, 2022; Rajput & Singh, 2019). Besides, it should be pointed out that some of the empirical findings on the relationships between EP, EI, EE and EB were not consistent, possibly due to issues of research context, scope and most importantly the choice of analytical techniques which might have influenced robustness and consistency of results (Kepes, Wang & Cortina, 2022).

The above issues notwithstanding, a number of countries have been making efforts to ensure that more university students graduate as entrepreneurs and job creators than jobseekers (Permatasari & Anggadwita, 2019; Premand, Brodmann, Almeida, Grun & Barouni, 2016). Based on this, and in the hope to increase the number of active entrepreneurs who could contribute to economic development and reducing high rates of unemployment, many countries have incorporated

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entrepreneurship programmes into their education system to boost entrepreneurial behaviour among students (Banha, Coelho & Flores, 2022; Permatasari & Anggadwita, 2019).

In the United States, for instance, only 12 per cent of the total population are entrepreneurs; hence, the introduction of advanced experiential pedagogy in their education system to drive entrepreneurial activities (Permatasari & Anggadwita, 2019). Japan, China, Singapore, Malaysia and Indonesia have 11 per cent, 10 per cent, 7 per cent, 5 per cent and 3.1 per cent, respectively, of their total populations being entrepreneurs (Othman & Othman, 2019). Consequently, these countries have strengthened their entrepreneurship education to whet the willingness and intentions of students to engage in entrepreneurial activities (Mei & Symaco, 2022; Othman & Othman, 2019).

In Africa, though many universities and colleges offer entrepreneurship programmes, the number of entrepreneurs is still on the low, while unemployment rates keep increasing, resulting in lower socio-economic statuses among the youth (Irene, Opute & Ibidunni, 2020). For instance, less than 15 per cent of Nigerian's population qualifies to be considered as entrepreneurs (Abolore, 2023; Kolade, Osabuohien, Aremu, Olanipekun, Osabohien & Tunji-Olayeni, 2021), whilst South Africa saw an increase from 10.8 per cent in 2019 to 17.5 per cent in 2021 (Mahlaole & Malebana, 2021). In Ghana, only 8.1 per cent of the population was reported to be entrepreneurs, despite the entrepreneurship programmes run in the country's universities – including the University of Cape Coast (Fieve & Chrysostome, 2022).

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Statement of the Problem

The rising rate of unemployment in Ghana, currently at 4.7% (excluding latent entrepreneurs) (International Labour Organisation [ILO], 2021), poses a significant challenge to economic development, leaving many young graduates struggling to secure a livelihood (Fieve & Chrysostome, 2022). While entrepreneurship has been widely proposed as a means to mitigate this crisis (Adu, Appiahene & Afrifa, 2023; Ampadu-Ameyaw, Jumpah, Owusu-Arthur, Boadu & Fatunbi, 2020), the actual entrepreneurial engagement of students remains low despite the existence of entrepreneurship education (EE) programmes in Ghanaian universities (Alhassan, Paul, Salia & Nwagbara, 2023; Ampadu-Ameyaw et al., 2020). This raises the critical issue of what interventions could enhance students' entrepreneurial intention (EI) and translate it into entrepreneurial behaviour (EB), ultimately contributing to employment generation.

Experiential pedagogy (EP) has been identified as a key driver of EI and EB (Kabir et al., 2019; Miralles et al., 2015), aligning with theoretical perspectives such as Kolb's experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984), the social learning theory (Akers & Jennings, 2015), and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). Empirical studies have supported these claims, documenting significant relationships between EP and EB (Leal-Rodríguez & Albort-Morant, 2018; Olokundun et al., 2018), EP and EI (Aslam et al., 2012; Graevenitz et al., 2010), EI and EB (Fernández-Pérez et al., 2019; Kautonen et al., 2013), and EE and EI (Goemaere et al., 2016). However, despite this body of research, several critical gaps remain unaddressed.

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First, existing studies on these relationships predominantly rely on data from Western and Asian contexts, with limited empirical investigations using data from Ghanaian students, even though Ghana faces a pressing unemployment crisis (Padi & Musah, 2022). The generalisability of findings from different socio-economic and educational environments remains uncertain, necessitating a context-specific examination. Second, prior studies have yielded inconsistent findings regarding the relationships among EP, EI, and EB. While some studies report positive associations (Carpenter & Wilson, 2022), others find no relationship or even negative associations (Piperopoulos & Dimov, 2015).

These inconsistencies may stem from differences in analytical techniques, as many prior studies employ methods such as ordinary least squares (OLS), which are sensitive to variations in sample size and research settings (Farrar, 2022). In contrast, partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) has been recognised for its robustness in handling small sample sizes and complex models (Purwanto & Sudargini, 2021; Sarstedt, Radomir, Moisescu & Ringle, 2022), yet its application in this domain remains limited (Fernández-Pérez et al., 2019).

Third, while Kolb's experiential learning theory suggests that external conditions, such as EE, can influence the impact of EP on EB, empirical studies examining this moderating role remain scarce (Newman, Obschonka, Moeller & Chandan, 2021). Some studies indicate that experiential learning combined with past entrepreneurial exposure enhances entrepreneurial engagement (Gabrielsson, Hägg, Landström & Politis, 2020; Lattacher & Wdowiak, 2019). However, research explicitly testing whether EE strengthens the EP-EB link is limited,

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particularly within the Ghanaian context, and Sub-Saharan Africa in general. Understanding this moderating effect could provide insights into how EE programmes can be designed to better foster entrepreneurial outcomes among students.

Given these gaps, this study aims to empirically investigate the relationships between EP and EB, EP and EI, EI and EB, and EE and EI, while also examining the moderating effect of EE on the EP-EB relationship. By employing PLS-SEM as the analytical technique, this research seeks to provide robust insights into how experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention contribute to entrepreneurial behaviour in the Ghanaian higher education context, offering valuable implications for policy and practice in addressing youth unemployment.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to assess the effects of experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention on entrepreneurial behaviour, taking cognisance of the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour among students.

Research Objectives

The specific objectives were to:

1. Examine the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour;
2. Determine the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions;

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3. Analyse the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour;
4. Examine the relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions;
5. Assess the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.

Research Questions

Based on the research objectives, the following research questions were framed and answered.

1. What is the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions?
2. How does experiential pedagogy influence entrepreneurial behaviour?
3. How does entrepreneurial intentions relate to entrepreneurial behaviour?
4. What is the relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions?
5. Can entrepreneurial experience moderate the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour?

Research Hypotheses

1. H^1_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour**.**

   H1: Experiential pedagogy positively influences entrepreneurial behaviour.

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2. H^2_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention.

   H2: Experiential pedagogy positively affects entrepreneurial intention.

3. H^3_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour.

   H3: There is statistically significant positive relationship between entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour.

4. H^4_0 There is no statistically significant relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions.

   H4: There is a statistically significant positive effect of entrepreneurial experience on entrepreneurial intentions.

5. H^5_0: Entrepreneurial experience does not moderate the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.

   H5: Entrepreneurial experience positively moderates the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.

Significance of the Study

The result of this research project can help policymakers, academicians, entrepreneurial educators, government, consultants and advisors to find the appropriate solutions to foster entrepreneurship in universities as well as in the Ghanaian society. Specifically, policymakers and government will be encouraged to craft the necessary policies with its associated infrastructure necessary to support entrepreneurship, as well as see the need to finance entrepreneurship education and provide financial support to potential student entrepreneurs. Advisors and

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consultants will get to know the interplays between EP, EI, EE and EB, and advise potential entrepreneurs accordingly to contribute to reducing the growing unemployment problems in Ghana and Africa at large. This study contributes to theory by extending the experiential learning theory and the theory of planned behaviour to issues of prior entrepreneurial experience of students, s well as expanding the path between EP and EB to include EI and EE.

Delimitations of the Study

This study was delimited to the University of Cape Coast (UCC) because three schools offer an entrepreneurship course using experiential method. More importantly, entrepreneurship was a 3-credit core course in these schools in the University. This makes UCC an appropriate setting for a continual research to assess, among others, the effectiveness of the entrepreneurship programmes. The entire study revolved around four key constructs of experiential pedagogy (EP), entrepreneurial intentions (EI), entrepreneurial behaviour (EB), and entrepreneurial experience (EE). In this study, EP served as an independent variable, EI functioned as both an independent and a dependent variable, EE served as both an independent and a moderating variable, whilst EB functioned as a dependent variable. Only students of the entrepreneurship course served as informants for the study.

Limitations of the Study

The current study focused exclusively on the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education at the University of Cape Coast. It did not encompass other schools or departments within the university. This limitation in scope restricts the applicability and generalisability of the conclusions

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and recommendations, especially to other schools within the University of Cape Coast. Consequently, the findings and insights from this study might not fully represent the academic practices and performance of other schools and departments within the university.

The study design was cross-sectional, where data was collected from respondents at a single point in time rather than over an extended period. People's views and opinions could change over time due to experience or changing circumstances. Furthermore, this study was limited by the nature of the data collected for analysis, which formed the basis of its conclusions and inferences. It relied on subjective responses from students of the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education, rather than objective measures. The use of subjective responses was due to unavailability of pure objective data on the key study variables. Consequently, the limitation was that subjective responses can sometimes be personal and might be influenced by biases. Nonetheless, prior related studies employed similar datasets using subjective scales (i.e., semantic differential scales) and their results showed similarity with the present findings.

Organisation of the Study

The study was organised in five chapters. Chapter One, highlighted the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, research hypotheses, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitation of the study, definition of terms and finally, the chapter summary. In the Chapter Two, the underpinning theories, concepts and related empirical studies were reviewed, as well as the conceptual framework.

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Chapter Three discussed the research methods employed for this study. Chapter Four focused on analysis and discussion of results. The final chapter, Chapter Five, concluded the thesis by highlighting the summary, key findings, conclusions, and recommendations, as well as suggestions for further research.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to assess the effects of experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention on entrepreneurial behaviour, taking cognisance of the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour among students. This chapter therefore reviews relevant theories that panchor these relationships. The chapter also discusses and reviews key concepts of the study, as well as related empirical studies. More specifically, the chapter is organised under theoretical framework, conceptual review, empirical review, and conceptual framework.

Theoretical Framework

Theory is a reasoned statement, supported by evidence to explain some phenomenon (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). The theoretical framework assisted the present researcher to situate and contextualise formal theories into the study, as a guide (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). It also contributed to interpreting the entire literature review, by helping the researcher to find a suitable research approach, analytical tools and procedures for the research inquiry (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Moreover, the framework assisted in defining this study philosophically, epistemologically, methodologically and analytically (Adom, Hussein & Agyem, 2018). It has also made the findings of this research more meaningful and generalisable (Akintoye, 2015). Three relevant theories were reviewed herein. These were the Kolb's

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Experiential Learning Theory (Kolb, 1984), the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1985), and the Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1969).

Kolb's experiential learning theory

The experiential learning theory (ELT) was propounded by Kolb (1984). The ELT posits that knowledge results from experiences that have been grasped and transformed (Kolb, 1984). In terms of experience grasping, ELT puts forth two dialectically related modes of grasping experience – concrete experience (CE) and abstract conceptualisation (AC) (Kolb & Kolb, 2009). Regarding transformation of experience, the ELT identifies another two dialectically related modes of reflective observation (RO) and active experimentation (AE) (Kolb & Kolb, 2009). According to Newman et al. (2021), these modes characterise experiential pedagogy (EP) and drive individuals' entrepreneurial intentions (EI), and subsequently entrepreneurial behaviour (EB). Also, drawing on ELT, Olokundun et al. (2018) opined that hands-on learning encourages individuals to develop intentions that could lead to actual undertaking or execution of entrepreneurial activities.

Taking the assertions of ELT into account, it can be explained that students who have been trained using approaches buttressed by experiential pedagogy (EP) are more likely to develop the potential to demonstrate behaviours that can lead to the initiation of a venture or an endeavour, compared to students trained based on a more theoretical technique. This is because the EP-trained students will directly experience and be exposed to how entrepreneurial activities, such as brainstorming and business plan development, are carried out; thus, making it alluring to the

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students, which many whet their intents (intentions) to engage in actual entrepreneurial activities (entrepreneurial behaviour).

Thus, predicated on the ELT, a direct relationship can be inferred between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour (i.e., objective 1), and between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions (i.e., objective 2) (Knapp & Benton, 2006; Leal-Rodríguez & Albort-Morant, 2018). Moreover, Lattacher and Wdowiak (2019) contended that the ELT acknowledges the influence of other exigent factors that could further propel and strengthen the efficiency and effectiveness of experiential pedagogy to drive entrepreneurial behaviour. Among these factors, according to Goemaere et al. (2016), is the existing experience an individual has (entrepreneurial experience). This means that students who had, for instance, operated businesses in the past or had relatives who operated their own ventures are likely to demonstrate entrepreneurial behaviours, and even more likely if they had undergone experiential training or education (EP) (i.e., objective 5).

Empirically, several related prior studies have applied the ELT to investigate the relationships between experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurial experience. For instance, in the study of the effect of EE on EI, Miralles et al. (2015) employed ELT and the findings supported the positions of the ELT. Similarly, Aslam et al. (2012) had anchored their study of the relationship between EP and EI in the ELT. Kabir et al. (2017) and Jumamil et al. (2017) also underpinned their explorations of the relationship between EP and EB by the ELT, and their findings fell within the remits of the ELT. These accentuate the appropriateness and relevance of the ELT

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to the present study which also sought to explore the relationships among EP, EB, EI and EE.

It should, however, be pointed out that the present study has extended the ELT to the study of students, which has been given less attention in terms of ELT application (Ampadu-Ameyaw et al., 2020), and as well, expanded its application to include EE which ELT was argued to have made a subtle mentioning of (Lattacher & Wdowiak, 2019). Nonetheless, all said and done, ELT was contended to have some limitations, as no apparent link could be inferred between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour (Alhassan et al., 2023), despite the plethora of empirical evidences suggesting that entrepreneurial intentions directly precede actual entrepreneurial behaviour regardless of the kind of experiential learning an individual has been exposed to (Goemaere et al., 2016). In like manner, EE has been argued as an antecedent to EI, but the ELT did not capture this (Ajzen, 1985; Goemaere et al., 2016). These call for the employment of the theory of planned behaviour and the social learning theory to recompense these limitations.

Theory of planned behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB), previously referred to as the theory of reasoned action, was developed by Icek Ajzen (Ajzen, 1985) through an article titled “From Intentions to Actions: A Theory of Planned Behaviour.” The theory essentially links an individual’s intentions with behaviour (Goemaere et al., 2016). These intentions have been cited, among other things, to revolve around entrepreneurial intentions (EI) and may be determined by attitude, subjective norm,

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and perceived behavioural control, whilst behaviour includes entrepreneurial behaviours (EB) (Landry, Kindlein, Trépanier, Forest & Zigarmi, 2016). Moreover, according to the TPB, intentions (EI) are said to be triggered by direct involvement in a learning process that upholds hands-on experience (i.e., EP), as well as prior involvement in entrepreneurial activities (i.e., EE) (Goemaere et al., 2016; Mueller et al., 2014).

Linking the TPB to this study, it could be explained that students are triggered to develop entrepreneurial intentions after being exposed to experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial experience (i.e., objectives 2 & 4) (Landry et al., 2016). Consequently, these intentions translate into actual entrepreneurial behaviour (i.e., objective 3) (Fernández-Pérez et al., 2019; Kautonen et al., 2013; Shiri et al., 2012). This theoretical perspective underscores the importance of structured experiential learning and prior entrepreneurial exposure in fostering entrepreneurial mindsets among students.

The implications of TPB for this study are significant. First, it provides a robust framework for understanding how experiential pedagogy influences entrepreneurial intentions, thereby validating the study's focus on EP-EI linkage. Second, the TPB helps to explain how entrepreneurial experience plays a role in shaping EI, reinforcing the EE-EI connection. Third, it justifies the inclusion of the EI-EB relationship, as TPB posits that strong entrepreneurial intentions are a precursor to actual entrepreneurial actions. By grounding the study within the TPB framework, it ensures a comprehensive understanding of how students' exposure to

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experiential pedagogy and prior entrepreneurial engagements translate into both intention and action.

Just as in the present study, Kautonen et al. (2013) also employed the TPB to explore the relationship between EI and EB. Similarly, Miralles et al. (2015), predicated on the TPB, analysed the link between EE and EI. Uddin and Bose (2012) and Kisolo (2016) also employed the TPB to explore the relationship between EP and EI. These studies further confirm the relevance of the TPB to the present study, reinforcing its validity in examining the EP-EI, EE-EI, and EI-EB nexuses.

Social learning theory

The social learning theory, developed by psychologist Albert Bandura, suggests that people learn through observing others and imitating their behaviour (Bandura, 1969). According to this theory, learning is not only influenced by direct personal experiences [e.g., experience garnered from involvement in entrepreneurial activities (EE)], but also by observing and modelling the actions, attitudes, and outcomes of others (Bandura, 2019; Koutroubas & Galanakis, 2022). Specifically, the theory revolves around attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation (Bandura, 2019).

Drawing from the social learning theory, Boldureanu, Ionescu, Bercu, Bedrule-Grigoruță and Boldureanu (2020) argued that the motivation strand of the theory could lead to reproduction of the experiences chalked from the learning process, in the form of demonstration of entrepreneurial behaviour (EB). Wei, Liu and Sha (2019) also averred that the kind of learning explained by the social

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learning theory suggests hand-on, evidential and practice-based type of learning which is experiential and can trigger the individual's intention to engage in entrepreneurial activities. Predicated on these, a link can be drawn between experiential pedagogy (EP), entrepreneurial intention (IE) and entrepreneurial behaviour (EB) (Gieure, del Mar Benavides-Espinosa & Roig-Dobón, 2020; Meoli, Fini, Sobrero & Wiklund, 2020).

Given the foregoing, the social learning theory suggests that experiential pedagogy (EP) can positively influence entrepreneurial behaviour (EB) by providing opportunities for observation, modelling, vicarious reinforcement, skill development, and the enhancement of self-efficacy beliefs (Türk et al., 2020). That is by engaging in hands-on experiences and interacting with entrepreneurial role models, learners can acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to whet their entrepreneurial intention (EI), and to trigger entrepreneurial endeavours. Several extant related studies have applied this theory to explain issues related to EP, IE and EB (Olokundun et al., 2020; Pazos et al., 2022; Türk et al., 2020). Congruently, the present study extends this theory to the study of the interplays between EP, EI and EB among students, considering the relevance of its tenets – as described earlier – to the objectives of this study ((i.e., objectives 1, 2 & 3).

Conceptual Review

This section of the chapter reviews the key concepts of the study, as well as their measurements. This is to ensure that the concepts are well operationalised, and their measurements supported by extant literature (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). The

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concepts reviewed herein are experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial behaviour, entrepreneurial intentions, and entrepreneurial experience.

Experiential pedagogy

According to Moses, Akinbode, Olokundun and Agboola (2016), experiential pedagogy is defined as a combination of knowledge and skills necessary for effectiveness in teaching entrepreneurship. Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud (2000) had earlier described experiential pedagogy as a highly dynamic blend of theoretical understanding and relevant practical skill. Other authors had also posited that the pedagogical approach salient to entrepreneurship education is termed experiential pedagogy (Neck & Greene, 2011; Olokundun et al., 2018). Kolb (2014) stated that experiential pedagogy revolves around experiential learning which focuses on learning by doing. These characterisations of experiential pedagogy had been subsumed into the experiential learning theory which operationalised experiential pedagogy to include concrete experience, abstract conceptualisation, reflective observation and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Kolb, 2009).

Experiential pedagogy is regarded as one of the best instructional techniques in entrepreneurship, as it provides learners with opportunities to internalise materials and comprehend instructions given to them (Periz-Otiz et al., 2016; Sahlberg, 2010). Experiential pedagogy approach in entrepreneurship education creates an environment where learners come with various useful and valuable experiences, from life outside the classroom, which can be employed to

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promote equality and diversity and, as well, explores learners' views and challenges (Neck & Greene, 2011; Olokundun et al., 2018).

It should however be stated that pedagogical approaches work differently, based on the variety of a procedure, the kind of learners and the peculiarity of the context under consideration (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2011). Thus, it has been suggested that a good experiential pedagogical approach should be all-encompassing and involve a broad collection of experiential learning techniques which can sustain responsiveness regardless of context (Uhm & Kim, 2019). A learning that is considered "experiential" is said to include elements of reflection, critical analysis and synthesis; opportunities for learners to take initiative, make decisions, and be accountable for the results; opportunities for learners to engage intellectually, creatively, emotionally, socially, or physically; and a designed learning experience that includes the possibility to learn from natural consequences, mistakes, and successes (Newman et al., 2021).

Experiential pedagogy stresses learning from mistakes, the use of role play activities, case studies, interdisciplinary team experience of real life challenges; experiential learning activities such as hands-on laboratory experiments, internships, practicums, field exercises, study abroad, undergraduate research and studio performances; and well-planned, supervised and assessed experiential learning programmes that stimulate academic inquiry by promoting interdisciplinary learning, civic engagement, career development, cultural awareness, leadership, and other professional and intellectual skills (Breunig, 2017; Moses et al., 2017).

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Regarding the measurement of experiential pedagogy, aside from the aspects that can be inferred from the construct's definitions, several defining indicators have been used in prior studies to reflect experiential pedagogical activities. These include the level of exposure learners believe they are given in terms of real-world problems, whether they experience some level of stimulation to act rather than just follow theories, whether their understanding has been improved, whether practical application of knowledge is encouraged, whether they can easily apply the knowledge and experience gained, and whether they feel prepared for future experiences, among others (Breunig, 2017; Kuchera & Redman, 2020; Olokundun et al., 2017; McCarthy, 2010; Moses et al., 2017).

These prior studies measured experiential pedagogy by using a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree), with the foregoing items. Using this scale, respondents are asked to indicate their level of agreement with statements capturing key dimensions of experiential pedagogy, such as real-world exposure, stimulation to act, enhanced understanding, practical application of knowledge, ease of application, and preparation for future experiences (Kuchera & Redman, 2020). Consistent with the literature, this study thus operationalises experiential pedagogy as an instructional approach that emphasises learning through direct experience, reflection, and application in real-world entrepreneurial settings (Kolb, 1984), involving active participation in entrepreneurial activities such as case studies, simulations, internships, and business incubation programmes, fostering students' ability to translate theoretical knowledge into practical skills measured in a five-point Likert scale (Neck & Greene, 2011; Moses et al., 2017).

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Entrepreneurial intentions

Entrepreneurial intention is defined as the willingness of an individual to express entrepreneurial behaviour and engage in entrepreneurial activities associated with self-employment initiatives and new business start-ups (Dell, 2008; Dohse & Walter, 2010). Sukavejworakit, Promsiri and Virasa (2018) also referred to entrepreneurial intention as one's desire to own or start a business. Generally, entrepreneurial intention is the mindset or the inclination of individuals towards starting and running their own business venture (Breunig, 2017). Thus, once the formation of entrepreneurial intentions occurs, an actual entrepreneurial behaviour is expected, and this has made social-psychological studies to assume that intention is the single best predictor of actual behaviour (Schwarzer, 2008; Sukavejworakit et al., 2018).

Besides, Ajzen (1991) had argued that intention is the immediate determinant of behaviour. This aligns with Davidsson's (1995) assertion that individuals would consider a career in entrepreneurship only based on their perceptions of its suitability and desirability which are characteristics of intention. Similarly, Barringer and Ireland (2010) contended that individuals will consider careers in entrepreneurship based on their perceptions that such efforts can enhance the achievement of personal goals, pursuit of ideas and the realisation of financial gains.

Taking into account the foregoing, entrepreneurial intentions are basically a reflection of inner courage, ambition and a sense of independence (Liñán & Fayolle, 2015; Zain, Akram & Ghani, 2010). Bird (1988) also averred that

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entrepreneurial intention reflects an individual's state of mind targeted at new venture creation, development of new business models and value addition within existing business enterprises. Khalid, Jusoff, Rahman, Kassim and Zain (2009) opined that an individual's potential to become an entrepreneur may not find expression, except they have intentions to become entrepreneurs. This suggests that intentions represent an important factor, in the processes associated with new venture creation, business growth and survival.

In the measurement of entrepreneurial intention, three key dimensions are taken into account. These are perceived desirability, perceived feasibility and propensity to act (Jumamil, Depositario & Zapata, 2017; Shiri, Hosseini & Mohammadi, 2012). Perceived desirability plays a crucial role in shaping individuals' entrepreneurial intention as it influences their perception of the attractiveness of entrepreneurship (Mahfud, 2020; Tan, Pham & Bui, 2021). If an individual perceives entrepreneurship as a desirable and attractive option, they are more likely to have a higher intention of becoming an entrepreneur. Conversely, if an individual perceives entrepreneurship as less desirable or less attractive, their intention to become an entrepreneur may be lower (Saeed, Muffatto & Yousafzai, 2014; Tan, Pham & Bui, 2021).

Perceived feasibility, on the other hand, refers to an individual's evaluation of the potential to successfully start and operate a new business venture (Tan et al., 2021). According to Saeed et at. (2014), perceived feasibility involves individuals' assessment of their skills, resources, and external factors that may impact the success of their business idea. Perceived feasibility plays a crucial role in shaping

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an individual's entrepreneurial intention as it influences the individual's perception of the potential to successfully start and operate a new business venture. Thus, if an individual perceives his/her business idea as feasible, they are more likely to have a higher intention of becoming an entrepreneur (Hockerts, 2017).

It should further be stated that perceived feasibility is influenced by a variety of factors, such as the individual's knowledge and skills, the availability of resources, market conditions, and the competitive environment (Ip, Wu, Liu & Liang, 2017). It is also influenced by the individual's prior experiences, education, and training (Ip et al., 2017). In all, perceived feasibility highlights the importance of developing an entrepreneurial mindset and acquiring the necessary skills and resources to promote the intention of starting and operating a successful business.

Furthermore, propensity to act is termed as an individual's tendency or inclination to take action towards starting a new venture (Ingabo, 2017). According to Purwana (2018), propensity to act, as one of the key components of entrepreneurial intention, is the mindset and attitude of individuals towards starting and developing a new business venture. Propensity to act is influenced by a variety of factors, including personality traits, past experiences, social and cultural factors, and environmental factors such as access to resources and opportunities (Zhao, Seibert & Lumpkin, 2010). Individuals with a higher propensity to act are more likely to take the necessary steps to start and develop a new venture, such as researching the market, developing a business plan, seeking funding, and launching the business (Arrighetti, Caricati, Landini & Monacelli, 2016).

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In the context of entrepreneurial intention, a high propensity to act is an important predictor of whether an individual will actually follow through on their intention to start a new business. It is important to note, however, that intention alone does not always translate into action. Other factors such as fear of failure, lack of resources, and external constraints may also play a role in determining whether an individual actually takes the steps to start a new venture (Arrighetti et al., 2016; Ip et al., 2017). This implies that in the consideration of entrepreneurial intention, all three dimensions of perceived desirability, perceived feasibility and propensity to act should be taken into account to make intentions complete.

In terms of measurement of entrepreneurial intentions, various items anchored on a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from least agreement (1) to highest agreement (5) have been used in prior studies to assess the construct. These items typically capture an individual's willingness, readiness, and commitment to engage in entrepreneurial activities. Specifically, prior research has measured entrepreneurial intentions based on factors such as the desire to start a business, the perceived feasibility of entrepreneurship, the likelihood of pursuing entrepreneurial activities in the future, and self-confidence in entrepreneurial capabilities (Kautonen, Gelderen & Fink, 2015). Entrepreneurial intentions can thus be operationalised as an individual's conscious and planned commitment to starting a new business or engaging in entrepreneurial activities, reflecting a person's motivation and willingness to pursue entrepreneurship as a career path, measured on a five-point Likert scale.

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Entrepreneurial behaviour

An intention put into action is what is reflected as behaviour (Gollwitzer, 1999). According to Edelman, Brush and Manolova (2010), entrepreneurial behaviour or action is about generating a business idea, identifying a business opportunity and other similar actions involved in an entrepreneurship process. Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud (2000) had also explained that these entrepreneurial actions of idea generation, innovation, opportunity identification, business plan writing and implementation intentions are closely connected. Thus, Gollwitzer and Oettingen (2011) have argued that an individual who expresses these actions is more likely to engage in an entrepreneurial pursuit.

Business planning has been considered as a key reflection of entrepreneurial behaviour, and has been described as a process that involves the intentions and actions envisioned by an entrepreneur in order to guarantee the survival, prosperity and growth of a business (Olokundun et al., 2018). This planning is usually required for the preparation of a well written or documented business plan to solicit for investment capital from financial institutions, angel investors of venture capitalists (Brinckmann, 2010). This plan usually communicates a potential entrepreneur's intentions, as it serves as a pre-requisite to obtain any loan for venture establishment (Bacigalupo et al., 2016; Kubberød & Pettersen, 2017).

With regards to the measurement of entrepreneurial behaviour, planning takes precedence, followed by opportunity recognition, task effort, passion, financial investment, goal commitment, persistence, creativity, and then innovative behaviour/innovation (Bhansing et al., 2017). Planning is about the entrepreneur

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establishing goals, planning achievement and defining organisational rules in order to mitigate the risks of business (Gürol & Atsan, 2006). Usually, these goals tend to be high and challenging, but they are realistic and attainable (Bhansing et al., 2017).

Opportunity recognition is a characteristic that enables the entrepreneur to engage in new ideas and businesses (Nakano & Muniz, 2018). Markman and Baron (2003) suggested that this ability to identify potential market opportunities is highly related to entrepreneurial success. Persistency, on the other hand, is an entrepreneurial characteristic which is viewed as a lack of intimidation when faced with difficult situations, or the self-motivation necessary to endure work problems (Markman & Baron, 2003). It includes the ability to deal with defying circumstances when a new business is started, combined with the idea of intensive working to overpass them (Nakano & Muniz, 2018).

With respect to goal commitment, the outcomes of entrepreneurs' general passion for work are taken into consideration (Baum & Locke, 2004). Goal commitment is directly linked with an entrepreneur's passion for work (Snell et al., 2015). Passion, in this context, is said to correlate with growth quality of work-life ambidexterity and greater inspiration – a specific type of motivation that allows the entrepreneur to transform creative ideas into creative products (Bhansing et al., 2017; Nordström et al., 2016). However, it has also been argued that the increasing time that an entrepreneur spends in business and the extent to which he/she interacts with others reduces passion for entrepreneurship, due to the heightened negative emotions that result from choice overload (Bhansing et al., 2017).

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In all, it could be seen that entrepreneurial behaviour is about taking actions or making intentions realities. These realities or action manifest in several ways, including planning activities related to business establishment, confidence level, self-development, business promotion actions, sharing of business ideas with others, saving or investing towards business establishment, identifying viable products/services and markets, connecting with knowledgeable individuals already in the field of entrepreneurship, and setting realistic timelines, among others (Azim & Al-Kahtani, 2015; Nakano & Muniz, 2018). These have been measured in prior studies using Likert-type scales varying from least agreement (1) to highest agreement (1) (Nakano & Muniz, 2018). Thus, consistent with the literature, in this study, entrepreneurial behaviour is defined as the extent to which individuals engage in activities that transform their entrepreneurial intentions into real business actions.

Entrepreneurial experience

According to Morris, Kuratko, Schindehutte and Spivack (2012), entrepreneurial experience refers to the knowledge, skills, and abilities that individuals acquire through their involvement in starting, managing, and growing businesses. It encompasses a range of experiences, from starting a small business to working for a large corporation in an entrepreneurial role (Toft-Kehler, Wennberg & Kim, 2014). Entrepreneurial experience can be measured using a variety of indicators, including the number of businesses started, years of experience, industry expertise, size of business managed, success of previous ventures, and network contacts (Ucbasaran, Westhead, Wright & Flores, 2010).

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Specifically, the number of businesses started measures the extent to which an individual has been involved in starting new businesses (Toft-Kehler et al., 2014). It is measured by the number of businesses an individual has founded, co-founded, or been involved in starting in some capacity (Ucbasaran et al., 2010). According to Toft-Kehler et al. (2014), this indicator is useful in assessing an individual's experience in identifying opportunities, developing business plans, and launching new ventures. On the other hand, years of experience measures the amount of time an individual has spent working in entrepreneurial roles or starting and managing businesses (Morris et al., 2012). It takes into account both the quantity and quality of an individual's entrepreneurial experience, as it assesses an individual's level of expertise, as well as the individuals' ability to adapt to changing market conditions and navigate the challenges of entrepreneurship over time (Murnieks, Klotz & Shepherd, 2020).

The industry expertise indicator measures the level of knowledge and expertise an individual has in a particular industry or sector. It takes into account an individual's understandings of market trends, customer needs, and competitive dynamics within a specific industry (Gielnik, Zacher & Wang, 2018). This indicator is useful in assessing an individual's ability to identify and capitalise on opportunities within a particular industry or sector. Also, size of businesses managed measures the level of responsibility an individual has had in managing businesses of different sizes, from small startups to large corporations, and considers an individual's experience in managing operations, finances, and personnel at various levels of organisational complexity (Gielnik et al., 2018).

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Additionally, success of previous ventures measures the extent to which the individual's previous ventures have been successful, as indicated by factors such as revenue, profit, growth, and longevity (Newbery, Lean, Moizer & Haddoud, 2018). This takes into account an individual's ability to generate value for customers and stakeholders, as well as their ability to sustain that value over time (Newbery et al., 2018). Finally, network of contacts measures the size and strength of an individual's network of contacts in the entrepreneurial ecosystem, including investors, mentors, advisors, and other entrepreneurs (Dillon, Glavas & Mathews, 2020). It considers an individual's ability to build relationships, access resources, and leverage knowledge and expertise from others in the ecosystem (Dillon et al., 2020).

In summary, it can be said that entrepreneurial experience is an important factor in predicting an individual's success in starting and growing new businesses. It provides individuals with the skills and knowledge necessary to identify opportunities, manage risks, and navigate the challenges of entrepreneurship. Its measurement, therefore, requires a combination of quantitative and qualitative indicators that take into account an individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities related to starting, managing, and growing businesses, as these indicators can be used to assess an individual's readiness to start a new venture, as well as their potential for success as an entrepreneur (Clarke & Holt, 2019).

In quantitative studies, these indicators have been measured using Likert-type scales ranging from least agreement to highest agreement (Dillon et al., 2020). Consistent with the literature thus far, entrepreneurial experience is defined as the

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knowledge and skills individuals acquire through their direct involvement in starting, managing, or growing businesses, measured by factors such as the number of ventures started, years of experience, industry expertise, and prior business success.

Empirical Review

This section reviewed previous empirical studies to help answer the research questions form a holistic perspective. The empirical review allowed the researcher to keep a strategic distance from duplications in the present study (Neuman, 2014). It also allowed the researcher to differentiate and improve existing methodology, and as well identified limitations in the studied domain and the application of theories in extant studies (Rowland et al., 2018). Furthermore, the review helped the researcher to account for what had already been done, how it had been done, and what had been found by prior related empirical studies, so that other researchers could be informed of reproducibility and replicability of those prior studies (Nakano & Muniz, 2018).

This section, therefore, specifically reviewed studies related to experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial behaviour, entrepreneurial intentions, and entrepreneurial experience. Five subsections were taken into account. The first looked at the effect of experiential pedagogy on entrepreneurial behaviour. The second evaluated the effect of experiential pedagogy on entrepreneurial intentions. The third reviewed the effect of entrepreneurial intentions on entrepreneurial behaviour. The fourth subsection was on the effect of entrepreneurial experience on entrepreneurial intentions. Finally, the fifth subsection was the interplays

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between entrepreneurial experience, experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour. The presentation was done chronologically (i.e., based on year of publication) under each thematic area (research objective).

Experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour

Studies on the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour were very scanty and limited, as the focus had been on either experiential pedagogy or education and concepts other than entrepreneurial behaviour, or entrepreneurial behaviour and concepts other than experiential pedagogy. For instance, Kirkley (2017) investigated the degree to which entrepreneurship education was being provided to secondary school students following changes to the Secondary School Curriculum in 2010 by the New Zealand Ministry of Education. According to the author, under these changes, secondary schools were charged with following an "entrepreneurial" approach to school instruction that would develop entrepreneurial behaviours in students.

The study was qualitative, and used the exploratory design focused on gauging the reaction by teachers, students and their parents to this new teaching approach. The sample comprised ten secondary schools situated in Northland, New Zealand. A series of focus groups were used to solicit data among the three levels under study in each school, i.e. teachers, students and parents. Individual semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from school principals to determine overall reactions to entrepreneurial education by the rest of the school. Content analysis was used to establish trends in the data. The findings showed teachers report benefits in terms of reduced direct teaching workload, increased participation

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from students and significantly improved scholastic results compared to targets set in the curriculum. Also, whilst the students reported positively on the greater degree of flexibility allowed under this teaching approach, parents reported changes in attitude and more engagement in school activities and projects.

The author concluded that entrepreneurial education was necessary for encouraging students to undertake real-life projects. Though Kirkley (2017) touched on entrepreneurial education and how it could influence students to engage, among other things, in projects, issues of experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour were not explicitly considered. Moreover, considering the fact that Kirkley (2017) employed qualitative method, a statistical relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour could not be established, as qualitative designs do not support the application of inferential statistical tools such as regression and correlation techniques (Gibbs, Shafer & Miles, 2017).

Furthermore, due to the fact that it was a qualitative study, and employed a scanty sample size, the result could not be generalised, compared to a quantitative study which would have included adequate number of participants (Aslam, Awan & Khan, 2012). Again, even though it was a qualitative study (but not a grounded theory design used), reference could have been made to relevant theories to help enhance the quality of the study and reliability of the findings (Akintoye, 2015). For instance, the fact that issues of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial education were considered, the study could be anchored in the experiential learning theory by Kolb (1984) or the theory of planned behaviour by Ajzen (1985), as argued by Leal-Rodríguez et al. (2018).

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In another study, Olokundun et al. (2018) studied the extent to which experiential teaching methods in entrepreneurship adopted by Nigerian universities stimulate students' entrepreneurial interest and business start-ups. The theory of planned behaviour underpinned the study. Data were gathered following a descriptive cross-sectional quantitative survey conducted among 600 university students of four selected institutions in Nigeria offering a degree programme in entrepreneurship. Questionnaires were used for data collection, where items defining experiential teaching methods, among others, were anchored on a five-point Likert-type scale varying from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

For analysis of data, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used. The findings from the analysis showed that the adoption of experiential practical activities was considered as best practices in entrepreneurship teaching in Nigerian universities and could stimulate students' interest and drive for engaging in business start-up activities even as undergraduates. It could be seen that Olokundun et al. (2018) employed sufficient sample size and, as well, situated the study within a relevant theoretical remit – that was the theory of planned behaviour by Ajzen (1985). Nonetheless, procedures used by the authors in selecting their sample were not clearly articulated for other researchers to reproduce or replicate in case of a similar study; hence denying the study scientific relevance (Sharma, 2017).

Ismail, Sawang and Zolin (2018) investigated whether different pedagogies used in teaching entrepreneurship education influence individual skill development, which then in turn translates into a likelihood of entrepreneurial implementation intention. The study was underpinned by the theory of planned

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behaviour. It was a quasi-experimental study, and the number of total participants for the quasi-experiment was 308 undergraduate students in Malaysia, in which pre- and post-test (n = 203) and control (n = 105) groups were included. Specifically, students who enrolled in the entrepreneurship course were randomly allocated into a class employing teacher-centred pedagogy or student-centred pedagogy. Learning outcomes were measured by objective and subjective measures.

The two-way repeated measures analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used for data analysis. The findings indicated that both pedagogical approaches had a positive effect on the development of the learning outcomes. However, the students who learned using the teacher-centred approach statistically developed a higher level of objective and subjective learning outcomes compared to the students who learned using the student-centred approach. Though the focus was on entrepreneurial pedagogical approaches, the link between these and how they translate into students' entrepreneurial actions could not be deduced directly from the analysis, due to the analytical approach employed by the authors (O'Connell, Dai, Jiang, Speiser, Ward, Wei & Gebregziabher, 2017).

Kozlinska, Rebmann and Mets (2020) examined the relationship among experiential entrepreneurship pedagogy, entrepreneurial competencies and employment status of business graduates in two European countries. The study proposed a model that relied on the adapted Bloom's taxonomy, human capital theory, and experiential learning theory. The model examined knowledge, skills, and attitudes as competencies, and related them to two forms of employment status – nascent intrapreneurship and early-stage entrepreneurial activity. These inter-

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relationships were tested closely considering a dominant pedagogical approach to teaching entrepreneurship – traditional or experiential.

The study was based on a cross-sectional survey of 454 graduates from Bachelor-level business programmes delivered at eight higher education institutions (four in each country); and on 16 semi-structured interviews with entrepreneurship educators, who taught the surveyed graduates. Predicated on Deslauriers et al. (2019), entrepreneurial competencies were based on a continuous measure, and a dichotomous measure used for the pedagogy type. Since the first part of the study design relied on existing theoretical framework of teaching and learning entrepreneurship (Béchard & Grégoire, 2007) that informed the interview instrument, content analysis was employed (Braun & Clarke, 2006), and the data were coded and processed in NVivo 11.

To test the study hypotheses, multiple linear and binary logistic regressions were estimated using IBM SPSS Statistics 24. The findings highlighted that experiential pedagogy could be indeed more effective for developing all three entrepreneurial competencies, while traditional pedagogy might still be suitable for theoretical knowledge about entrepreneurship. Furthermore, experiential pedagogy moderated the relationship between different competencies and the employment status of graduates. The authors concluded that a combination of traditional and experiential teaching methods should be adopted to balance the effects of entrepreneurship education.

Though Kozlinska et al. (2020) looked at experiential pedagogy in the light of entrepreneurship education, there was still a missing issue of how all these result

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in students taking entrepreneurial actions. Moreover, structural equation modelling, using the partial least squares, could have been applied to the analysis of the moderating effect of experiential pedagogy on the relationship between different competencies and employment status of graduates, as it has been argued that PLS-SEM is robust for complex interplay analyses and may produce more statistically reliable results, compared to other analytical approaches (Hair et al., 2019; Yousuf & Siddiqui, 2019).

In all, the review of studies on the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour revealed that there was a modicum of empirical evidence on how experiential pedagogy influences entrepreneurial behaviour among students. Besides, some extant studies, though used scanty sample sizes, did not use the appropriate analytical approaches (such as the PLS-SEM) which are robust against the limiting effects of small sample size (Yousuf & Siddiqui, 2019). Moreover, despite the availability of several relevant theories (i.e., theory of planned behaviour, experiential learning theory, etc.) in the field of entrepreneurship, some of the existing related studies could not buttress the relationships explored by any of these theories, denying their findings quality, reliability and generalisability (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Table 1 displays a summary of the empirical studies reviewed.

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Table 1: Summary of Studies on Experiential Pedagogy and Entrepreneurial Behaviour

Author	Year	Theory	Research approach	Research design	Sampling	Analytical tools
Kirkley	2017	-	Qualitative	Exploratory	-	Content analysis
Olokundun et al.	2018	Theory of planned behaviour	Quantitative	Descriptive cross-sectional survey	-	Hierarchical multiple regression
Ismail, Sawang and Zolin	2018	Theory of planned behaviour	Quantitative	Quasi-experimental	Simple random	Mean, standard deviation, the two-way repeated measures ANCOVA
Kozlinska, Rebmann and Mets	2020	Human capital theory, and experiential learning theory	Quantitative	cross-sectional survey	Purposive	Multiple linear and binary logistic regressions, and content analysis

Source: Author (2024)

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Experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions

Several studies have looked at issues related to experiential pedagogy or practice-based entrepreneurial education, and entrepreneurial intentions, from diverse perspectives. Uddin and Bose (2012), for example, investigated the factors that influence the entrepreneurial intentions of business students in Bangladesh. The study was quantitative and used the survey design. Out of a student population of 22,144 from 89 private and public universities, a total of 520 (masters and undergraduates) were selected using the convenience sampling technique. A structured questionnaire was used for data collection. All variables were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). Regression techniques were employed for the data analysis, after multicollinearity tests were conducted.

The findings showed that students' willingness to take risks, their need for achievement, their education and environment for establishing a business, and their employment stability all play a statistically significant role in predicting their intentions. Except for job security, all variables were found to be positively associated. Based on the present study, issues of education and intentions would be of essence, as entrepreneurial education had been found by the authors (Uddin & Bose, 2012) to have positively influenced entrepreneurial intentions of the students. Nonetheless, there appeared to be quite a number of issues with the study, as well as the reliability and applicability of the results. First, the use of convenience sampling technique undermined a scientific study seeking to make inferences by employing the regression technique (Ejoh & Ejom, 2014; Munene et al., 2016).

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A probabilistic approach, such as the simple random technique, would have been appropriate for a quantitative study seeking to make generalisation to a population (Ejoh & Ejom, 2014). Second, Uddin and Bose (2012) employed no relevant theoretical perspective to validate their hypothesised relationships, despite the availability of theories such as the experiential learning theory and the theory of planned behaviour which had been employed by related studies on entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions (Aslam et al., 2012; Olokundun et al., 2018). Furthermore, though the authors claimed the sample was made up of master's degree students and undergraduates, their proportional contributions were not explicitly presented to ensure proper contextualisation of their findings.

In their study, Aslam et al. (2012) examined the levels of entrepreneurial intentions among the students in Punjab, a province of Pakistan, through Ajzen's (1985) theory of planned behaviour. It was a quantitative study which employed the explanatory design. The study covered 197 Pakistani university students randomly selected. Data was collected using the questionnaire, where items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale varying from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The data collected was analysed using correlation, t-test and regression techniques. It was revealed that students who participated in entrepreneurship education have more intention towards entrepreneurship than those who had not participated in entrepreneurship education courses. Consequently, the authors concluded that entrepreneurial education was a driver of entrepreneurial intentions among students.

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Though Aslam et al. (2012) considered entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial education, experiential pedagogy was not expressly operationalised as the focus was on entrepreneurial education in its entirety. This made it difficult to specifically tell the kind of relationship between that aspect of entrepreneurial education that employs "learning by doing" approach and entrepreneurial intentions among students. Again, despite the fact that the authors employed a relevant theory of the theory of planned behaviour, it could be argued that the experiential learning theory by Kolb (1984) might have further given the study a firm theoretical grounding, considering the fact that the authors took into account issues of entrepreneurial education (Leal-Rodríguez et al., 2018).

Ambad and Damit (2016) determined the factors that influence undergraduate students' entrepreneurial intentions. The theory of planned behaviour underpinned the study. Perceived educational support, perceived relationship support, perceived structural support, personal attitude, and perceived behavioural control were the independent factors. The study was quantitative and used the explanatory research design. Three hundred and fifty-one (351) university students at one of Malaysia's public universities made up the sample for the study. The multiple regression technique was used for data analysis. Personal attitude, perceived behavioural control, and perceived relationship support were revealed to be predictors of entrepreneurial intentions. Perceived educational support did not show influence on entrepreneurial intentions of students.

Though the study brought forth the relationship between perceived education and entrepreneurial intentions, which turned out that education did not

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have any influence on entrepreneurial intentions, the authors did not define and describe the sampling techniques used to arrive at the 351 students involved in the study. Thus, if the procedure used was non-random, it could probably have contributed to the no-relationship results (Aslam et al., 2012), as the assertions of the theory of planned behaviour suggested that perceived education has a noteworthy influence on entrepreneurial intentions (Goemaere et al., 2016; Landry et al., 2016; Mueller et al., 2014).

Kisolo (2016) examined the determinants of entrepreneurial inclinations among university students, specifically using data from the United States International University in Kenya. The focus was to identify and explain the characteristics that influence entrepreneurial inclinations among Kenyan university students. Particularly, the effects of entrepreneurship education/information, demographic characteristics, and personal attitudes on entrepreneurial intentions were examined. The study used the quantitative approach, and employed the explanatory research design. Data was collected from 100 students – made up of 80 undergraduates and 20 graduates – using structured questionnaires containing items measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale varying from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

For analysis of the data collected, descriptive statistics of mean, standard deviation, frequency and percentages, and inferential statistics of correlation, ANOVA and regression were computed. It was discovered that undergraduate students' entrepreneurial knowledge/education had a substantial impact on their intentions. However, graduate students' intentions were unaffected by education.

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Also, students' entrepreneurial goals were influenced by their personal attitudes. Practical entrepreneurial training was however reported to have influenced the entrepreneurial intentions of both undergraduate and graduate students.

Although the study appeared to have employed the appropriate analytical tools to assess the various relationships, the sample size composition was far unbalanced as the graduate students contributed less than 50% to the total sample. Moreover, since the author conducted separate computations on only the graduate students, as well as on the undergraduate students, it would have been expected that the sample per group was at least 100 students to ensure reliable and robust results from inferential statistics (Yousuf & Siddiqui, 2019). Again, the study did not found the relationships investigated in any relevant theory, despite the availability of theories such as the theory of planned behaviour and the experiential learning theory since the study took into account issues of education/training and entrepreneurial intentions (Knapp & Benton, 2006; Landry et al., 2016; Miralles et al., 2015).

Using Azjen's theory of planned behaviour as a background theory, Joseph (2017) investigated the elements impacting the entrepreneurial ambition of foreign students in Malaysia. It was a quantitative study, and employed the explanatory research design. The purposeful sampling approach was used to select 200 students, due to the fact that the target population was big and dispersed without a sampling frame. Data was collected by self-administered structured type surveys containing items measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Data was analysed using multiple regression techniques.

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The results showed that the will to accomplish, subjective norm, entrepreneurial education, and economic situation predicted entrepreneurial intentions or inclination. Other independent variables, such as family background and desire for independence, failed to predict entrepreneurial inclination. One of the conclusions drawn was that improved entrepreneurial education is a requisition for entrepreneurial intentions among students. Though the sample size for this study could be said to be sufficient to produce robust and generalisable results, the sampling approach did not seem convincing, as the author did not outline the criteria that demand for the use of the purposive sampling technique. Besides, being a non-probability sampling strategy, purposive sampling seems to work well with non-inferential statistical analysis (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016).

Using the sequential mixed method, van Ewijk, Oikkonen and Belghiti-Mahut (2020) explored how pedagogy affects students' entrepreneurial intentions. The study specifically outlined how positivist and constructivist educational paradigms were the basis of conventional and experiential pedagogy , and how these paradigms manifested themselves in entrepreneurship course learning objectives and teaching strategies. A novel coding scheme that supported a double-coder qualitative content analysis of seventeen entrepreneurship course syllabi, from twelve universities in eight countries, was employed. The coding results were then quantified and incorporated into a hierarchical multiple regression analysis, using data from a pre-post course student survey (N = 232).

Contrary to expectations, teaching strategies across the international sample remained relatively conventional – particularly assessments – even for courses that

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had mostly entrepreneurial course learning objectives. Furthermore, the results did not demonstrate any effect of pedagogy type on students' entrepreneurial intentions. From all control variables, only 'pre-course entrepreneurial intentions' and 'study level' are related to (an increase in) entrepreneurial intentions. The authors, thus, recommended that universities target more mature students and do not rely on stand-alone entrepreneurship courses to instil aspirations of entrepreneurship among students. Instead, universities should strive to embed a more constructivist educational approach more widely throughout their curricula.

Though this study appeared to be an all-inclusive one which, among several other things, analysed the effect of pedagogy on entrepreneurial intentions, there was a lack of theoretical basis, despite the fact that similar studies conducted prior to this one buttressed their assertions and hypothesised relationships with theories such as the experiential learning theory and the theory of planned behaviour (Aslam et al., 2012; Jumamil et al., 2017; Miralles et al., 2015). Moreover, the authors did not describe the sampling methods used to obtain the study participants across the 12 universities in the eight countries involved in the study. This could adversely influence how the findings would be interpreted as research result interpretations are to be done giving cognisance to contextual issues – including sample compositions (Stratton, 2021).

In summary, the review of studies on the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions has shown that the results produced, thus far, were not consistent. Whilst some reported a significant relationship (i.e., positive or negative) between experiential pedagogy or entrepreneurial education

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and entrepreneurial intentions, others showed no relationship at all. Contexts of the studies were argued to have contributed to the various findings. It should also be noted that some of the prior studies did not use adequate sample size, or employ required sampling techniques. Also, it appeared that most of the studies did not underpin their hypothesised relationships (i.e., relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions) with relevant theories. Table 2 presents a summary of the studies reviewed on the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions.

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Table 2: Summary of Studies on Experiential Pedagogy and Entrepreneurial Intentions

Author	Year	Theory	Research approach	Research design	Sampling	Analytical tools
Uddin and Bose	2012	-	Qualitative	Survey design	Convenience	Content analysis
Aslam et al.	2012	Theory of planned behaviour	Quantitative	Explanatory	Simple random	Correlation, t-test and regression techniques
Ambad and Damit	2016	Theory of planned behaviour	Quantitative	Explanatory	-	Multiple regression analysis
Kisolo	2016	-	Quantitative	Explanatory	-	Mean, standard deviation, frequency, percentages, correlation, ANOVA and regression
Joseph	2017	Theory of planned behaviour	Quantitative	Explanatory	Purposive	Multiple regression techniques
van Ewijk et al.	2020	-	Mixed method	Sequential mixed	-	Content analysis, hierarchical multiple regression analysis

Source: Author (2024)

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Entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour

Though it may seem that there exists a plethora of studies on the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour as several entrepreneurship theories appear to align with this interplay (Ajzen, 1985; Higgins, 2000; McMullen & Shepherd, 2006; O'Gorman, 2019), the contrary seems to be the reality as, from the literature search, only few empirical studies specifically investigated issues related to the entrepreneurial intentions and how these influence entrepreneurial behaviour. The possible reason for this rarity of studies on the relationship could be ascribed to the fact that entrepreneurial intentions and behaviour have been used interchangeably in prior studies, or operationalised as though they were inseparable concepts (Lent & Brown, 2017; Martin et al., 2013; Meoli et al., 2020; Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014).

The foregoing notwithstanding, few studies attempted to empirically investigate how entrepreneurial intentions relate to the entrepreneurial behaviour. For example, Malebana (2014) investigated whether entrepreneurial role models, social valuation of entrepreneurship, perceived knowledge of entrepreneurial support and barriers to starting a business, entrepreneurial intention and its determinants were related to entrepreneurial motivation. The study integrated the theory of planned behaviour with environmental factors to determine the factors influencing entrepreneurial motivation among final year rural university students in the Limpopo Province in South Africa.

The study was carried out by means of a survey, and included 329 final year students who were registered for various commerce degrees. These students were

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selected using the convenience and purposive sampling techniques. A structured questionnaire was used to collect the data. Items of the questionnaire were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Data were analysed by means, Pearson correlation and hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The findings indicated that entrepreneurial motivation has a significant correlation with entrepreneurial intention and its three determinants – social valuation of entrepreneurship, having entrepreneurial role models, knowledge of entrepreneurial support and perceived barriers to starting a business.

It was also revealed that the respondents were motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, as well as the need for independence. Furthermore, entrepreneurial intention, attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur, subjective norms, social valuation of entrepreneurship, knowledge of entrepreneurial role models and entrepreneurial support were found to have a significant influence on entrepreneurial motivation. Though this study appeared to have made a significant contribution to literature and theory, as the author claimed it was the first to use the theory of planned behaviour to investigate the factors that influence entrepreneurial motivation in South Africa, the sampling methods employed defeated the scientific implication of a generalisable research study (Stratton et al., 2021). This is because convenience and purposive sampling, among other non-probability techniques, have been argued to be more suitable for qualitative studies, compared to quantitative studies (Etikan et al., 2016; Stratton et al., 2021).

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Neneh (2019) examined the role played by action-oriented personality traits (i.e. trait competitiveness and proactive personality) in the transition from opportunity recognition to entrepreneurial action. It was a quantitative study, and used the explanatory research design. The questionnaire was used for data collection, where items defining entrepreneurial alertness, entrepreneurial behaviour, trait competitiveness and proactive personality were measured using 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). A total of 533 valid survey responses were gathered. Among descriptive statistical tools of means and standard deviations, the PLS-SEM was used to analyse the hypothesised relationships.

The findings showed that entrepreneurial alertness significantly influenced entrepreneurial intentions, which subsequently resulted in entrepreneurial action. Also, the entrepreneurial alertness to entrepreneurial intentions association was positively moderated by trait competitiveness while the entrepreneurial intention to behaviour association was positively moderated by proactive personality. Additionally, the total indirect effect of entrepreneurial alertness on entrepreneurial behaviour was significant. However, it was argued that applicability of the results might be limited, as the author could not state how the respondents were drawn to respond to the survey instruments (Etikan et al., 2016). Moreover, the study lacked theoretical support, as despite the availability of relevant theories [e.g., theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985), the author could not anchor the study in any of them.

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Using data from two waves of the multi-country Global University Entrepreneurial Spirit Students' survey (GUESSS) conducted in 2011 and 2013/2014, Bogatyreva, Edelman, Manolova, Osiyevskyy and Shirokov (2019) studied the entrepreneurial intention-action gap among university students, demonstrating that the translation of intention into action is context-specific. The dataset from the specified period was solicited from 1434 students. The data was analysed using means, standard deviation, correlation coefficients and regression analysis. The results showed that core aspects of national culture influence the association between entrepreneurial intention and subsequent action.

Just as Neneh (2019), Bogatyreva et al. (2019) did not discuss any theoretical perspective and align it to their study. This, as contended by Ravitch and Carl (2016), influences the quality and reliability of research findings. It should also be noted that since the data used was a national-level data, the authors did not have any control over the management and curation of the data, and this could influence, to some extent, the suitability of the data for the analyses it was used for (Tang & Hu, 2019); chiefly because the procedures used in drawing the data were not disclosed to inform the kind of analyses the data was suitable.

Meoli et al. (2020) built on the social cognitive career theory to examine the relation between entrepreneurial intention and new venture creation (i.e., the entrepreneurial career choice). The authors modelled how contextual influences at different levels may favour or inhibit the translation of entrepreneurial intention into new venture creation. Using unique longitudinal data from almost the entire population of Italian university graduates, the study assessed how the immediate

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(i.e., the influence of relevant others) and larger context (i.e., organisational and environmental influences) affect new venture creation. Means, standard deviations, correlation and regression techniques were applied for the data analysis. The main result confirmed the intention-behaviour link in entrepreneurship.

Though Meoli et al. (2020) employed the social cognitive career theory, the use of the theory of planned behaviour could have provided a strong and supporting perspective in the study of the relationship between entrepreneurship intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour, as this theory has been widely applied to the issues of entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour (Ambad & Damit, 2016; Aslam et al., 2012; Joseph, 2017). Besides, the study included only graduate students, whilst it has been widely argued that undergraduate students reading entrepreneurship courses provide a better perspective of the intention-behaviour nexus in entrepreneurship (Edelman et al., 2016; Criaco et al., 2017; Souitaris et al., 2007; Zellweger et al., 2011).

Li, Murad, Shahzad, Khan, Ashraf and Dogbe (2020) also investigated the role of entrepreneurial passion in recognition of opportunity, developing entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial intention, in the shaping of entrepreneurial actions in the presence of proactive personality. This study applied partial least squares structural equation modelling to test the hypotheses on a sample of 346 university students, selected non-probability sampling of convenience, from Jiangsu Province in China. The data was collected using a questionnaire containing items on all the key constructs, measured on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The

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output of the study showed that entrepreneurial passion positively and significantly influenced entrepreneurial alertness, entrepreneurial self-efficacy to entrepreneurial intention, and entrepreneurial behaviour.

The findings also showed that a proactive personality positively and significantly moderated the relationship between entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour. Nonetheless, the study lacked theoretical support, as the authors did not make reference to any relevant theories to back their claims. Inclusion of theories could have enhanced the applicability of the findings (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Besides, the units of analysis were not afforded equal and fair chance of being selected as part of the sample size (i.e., the use of the convenience sampling), and this might influence the generalisation of the findings to the population from which the sample was drawn (Ejoh & Ejom, 2014).

All in all, investigation of the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour still appears to be a burgeoning area that requires more exploration and extension to variety of contextual levels (Meoli et al., 2020). Extant studies in the area also come with several limitations in terms of sampling technique application, sample adequacy, application of analytical or statistical tools, and application of relevant and appropriate theories. Moreover, contextually, majority of the extant studies paid limited attention to entrepreneurial intentions and behaviour data from sub-Saharan Africa (including Ghana), despite the need for empirical evidence in this area to help inform appropriate policy-driven recommendations to ensure unemployment rates are reduced (Adu et al., 2023;

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Ampadu-Ameyaw et al., 2022). Table 3 contains a summary of related studies on the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour.

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Table 3: Summary of Studies on Entrepreneurial Intentions and Entrepreneurial Behaviour

Author	Year	Theory	Research approach	Research design	Sampling	Analytical tools
Malebana	2014	Theory of planned behaviour	Qualitative	Survey	Convenience and purposive	Means, Pearson correlation and hierarchical multiple regression analysis
Neneh	2019	-	Quantitative	Explanatory	-	PLS-SEM
Meoli et al.	2020	Social cognitive career theory	Quantitative	Longitudinal	-	Means, standard deviations, correlation and regression techniques
Li et al.	2020	Human capital theory, and experiential learning theory	Quantitative	-	Convenience	PLS-SEM

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Entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions

Despite the fact that entrepreneurial experience could strengthen the effect of experiential pedagogy on entrepreneurial behaviour which is considered as a product of entrepreneurial intentions (Goemaere et al., 2016; Mueller et al., 2014), there was still a limited attention given to how entrepreneurial experience influences entrepreneurial intentions (Fernández-Pérez et al., 2019). Most of the existing related studies looked at elements that characterised entrepreneurial experience. For instance, Jumamil, Depositario and Zapata (2017) determined the characteristics that influence the entrepreneurial intentions of University of the Philippines Los Baos (UPLB) graduates with agricultural degrees. A framework incorporating Shapero's Model of Entrepreneurial Event, Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour, and Krueger's Entrepreneurial Potential Model was used to determine their entrepreneurial aspirations.

The study was quantitative and employed the explanatory design, where 307 UPLB graduates were asked to fill out a questionnaire based on prior studies on entrepreneurial intentions. The questionnaire contained items anchored on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The multiple linear regression was used for data analysis. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy, personal attitude toward entrepreneurship, and knowledge of the availability of entrepreneurial support were found to be the most important predictors of entrepreneurial intention. Also, when aspiring entrepreneurs were made aware of available entrepreneurial resources, such as financing, incubation programmes and training, the likelihood of their business ideas becoming a reality increased.

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Furthermore, it was revealed that among the socio-demographic characteristics, having entrepreneur grandparents, parents, and close friends, one's participation in family financing, and gender were important predictors of entrepreneurial intention at different levels. Though the study considered entrepreneurial intentions and how issues related to entrepreneurial experience influence intentions, the aggregate effect of entrepreneurial experience was not explored by the authors to help appreciate the broader picture in terms of how entrepreneurial experience affects entrepreneurial intentions. Moreover, Jumamil et al. (2017) did not clearly describe the procedure used in arriving at the sample size used, and this misnomer could influence the generalisability of the findings, as argued by Ejoh and Ejom (2014).

Bloemen-Bekx, Voordeckers, Remery and Schippers (2019) focused on the influence of family context on the development of entrepreneurial intention (EI) among young adults with entrepreneurial parents. The study extended the EI literature by drawing on social cognitive career theory to study the interaction between entrepreneurial parents and their children. The authors introduced learning experiences, 'vicarious learning' and 'social persuasion' as antecedents of EI. The participants of the study were bachelor students at a university in the Netherlands. This university had approximately 18,000 students. To increase the response rate, the respondents were eligible to participate in a raffle, where 1730 students out of the 18,000 were invited. Of the 1730 students, 1173 participated in the research.

The questionnaire was used for data collection and covered a range of topics including intentions regarding career status after graduation, parental career

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background, perceptions of careers of parents and parental preference and persuasion. Personal and background questions were also included. After the survey administration, 39 cases were expunged from the dataset because these respondents answered only the introduction questions. This led to a total of 1134 participants. The study found a significant empirical support for the influence of social persuasion. In addition, the results not only confirmed the direct effect of gender on EI but also revealed a significant mediating effect of parental preference – one of the social persuasion factors studied – on the gender–EI relationship.

Despite the fact that Bloemen-Bekx et al. (2019) employed adequate sample size for the study, the process involved in arriving at the final number of students used was not stated. This denied even the present researcher the opportunity to appreciate which technique could be applied in similar situations. Besides, as averred by Aguinis and Solarino (2019), in such cases, results of a study need to be interpreted and applied cautiously, and this means the overall worth, quality and reliability of the study is debatable (Funder & Ozer, 2019; McKenzie & Brennan, 2019).

In another study, Bignotti and le Roux (2020) adopted the theoretical lens of Bandura's (1986) SCT to examine the impact of different types of experience – entrepreneurial early childhood experiences, prior start-up experiences, work experience, education and peer influence – on the entrepreneurial intentions of South African youth. First, a quantitative survey of 827 secondary students was administered, and the results were analysed by means of hierarchical logistic regression. Second, two focus groups were conducted with secondary students

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representing two distinct segments of South African society to shed light on some of the unique survey findings.

The results revealed that the experiences of having attempted to start a business and having previously worked in a business, as well as entrepreneurship education, had a positive influence on youth entrepreneurial intentions, while peers' entrepreneurial intentions exerted a negative influence. Peer influence and contextual factors such as family and community support, which were catalytic in other parts of the world, appeared to dampen youth entrepreneurial intentions because of fear of failure and fear of competition. Though this study was methodically carried out, just as Bloemen-Bekx et al. (2019), issues of sampling procedure were missing, and this makes it difficult to generalise findings (Funder & Ozer, 2019).

Akhter, Hossain and Asheq (2020) also examined the predictive determinants of social entrepreneurial intentions (SEI) among Bangladeshi students. Specifically, the study investigated the influence of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, social support, prior experience, and educational support on SEI. The survey was conducted from a public university of Bangladesh, and 231 students, randomly selected, participated in the study. Questionnaire items under each construct variable were adopted from pre-tested research studies. All items defining each variable were measured on a five-point Likert scale. Data was analysed using correlation and multiple regression analysis to test the effects of the independent variables on SEI. Results exhibited that self-efficacy, social support, and

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educational support positively and significantly predicted SEI, while prior experience did not influence SEI.

Whilst this finding was surprising (i.e., the non-predictive effect of prior experience on entrepreneurial intentions), due to the fact that most of the existing studies indicated a positive relationship between prior experience and entrepreneurial intentions (Bloemen-Bekx et al., 2019; Bignotti & le Roux, 2020), it has also created an avenue to appreciate the fact that context matters in the investigation of experience and intentions; implying that more empirical exploration is required to establish how entrepreneurial experience influences entrepreneurial intentions. Moreover, Akhter et al. (2020) did not anchor their study in any relevant theory, and this might impact the overall level of quality of the study, as well as its findings (Adom et al., 2018).

Overall, the findings on the relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions have not been consistent, as it appears the findings are context-specific. This means findings from a study conducted in one context may not necessarily be applicable in another context; implying that further studies are required on the relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions, taking cognisance of diverse contexts. Furthermore, the review revealed that extant studies were limited in their application of relevant theories, sampling techniques, among others; hence the need for rectification of these by further studies. Table shows summary of the review.

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Table 4: Summary of Studies on Experiential Experience and Entrepreneurial Intentions

Author	Year	Theory	Research approach	Research design	Sampling	Analytical tools
Jumamil et al.	2017	Shapero's Model of Entrepreneurial Event, Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour, and Krueger's Entrepreneurial Potential Model	Qualitative	Explanatory	-	Multiple linear regression analysis
Bloemen-Bekx et al.	2019	Social cognitive career theory	Quantitative	Survey	-	Multiple regression analysis
Bignotti and le Roux	2020	Social cognitive career theory	Quantitative	Explanatory	-	Hierarchical logistic regression
Akhter	2020	-	Quantitative	-	Random	Correlation and multiple regression analysis

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Entrepreneurial experience, experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour

Despite the fact that entrepreneurial experience has been argued to have played a catalytic role in the effectiveness of experiential pedagogy in driving and promoting entrepreneurial behaviour (Aslam et al., 2012; Kabir et al., 2017), the area remains green and still at the bourgeoning stage in terms of empirical investigations. This notwithstanding, the researcher was able to identify and review few studies that depicted some level of relatedness in order to provide some level of insights into how these three variables are related, and as well set the grounds and support for the present study.

Olokundun, Dishon, Ibidunni and Ogbari (2020) examined the influence of empathy among university students as a determinant of creation of successful and innovative students' start-ups. The moderating role of experiential learning was also assessed. The quantitative approach was used, and the descriptive research design followed to achieve the purpose of the study. Out of a student population of 3240, a multistage sampling technique (Purposive, stratified and simple random sampling) was applied to arrive at a sample size of 357 students of Covenant University in Nigeria. Data was collected using a structured questionnaire with items measuring the key constructs of the study anchored on a 5-point Likert-type scale.

The data collected was analysed by means of regression analysis and Hayes process macro. The result showed that empathy has positive significant effect on students' start-ups among university students, and experiential learning moderated

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the relationship between empathy and students start-ups among university students. The findings also indicated that moderate levels of experiential learning activities are required to achieve best results. Therefore, university managers and other stakeholders may expand the curriculum of entrepreneurship training and education regimes to cover the development of empathy as an entrepreneurial skill.

Though this study surveyed 357 students, which might be considered as adequate, it did not seem to be representative of all the students of Covenant University as it was even less than 20% of the units of analysis (i.e., the 3240 students of the university) (Nardi, 2003; Neuman, 2007; Suskie, 1996). Also, these findings could be said to be context-specific and might not be applicable to other contexts, such as students of the University of Cape Coast in Ghana. Moreover, issues of how entrepreneurial experience influences the link between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour have not been estimated.

In another study, Türk, Zapkau and Schwens (2020), drawing on social learning theory, examined how prior entrepreneurial exposure (i.e., entrepreneurial role model experience and direct entrepreneurial experience) affects entrepreneurial passion and how an individual's learning orientation moderates the relationship. To evaluate the focal constructs of the study, 5-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) were used. To empirically validate the research model employed, data was collected from 928 students across several disciplines. Consistent with the theorising, the results from the regression analysis revealed both types of prior entrepreneurial exposure to positively influence

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entrepreneurial passion. Further, medium to high levels of learning orientation strengthened these relationships.

Despite the fact that the employment of the social learning theory provided a comprehensive framework for examining the relationships, Türk et al. (2020) did not detail how they arrived at the sample size used to study these relationships. Besides, just as Olokundun et al. (2020), elements of entrepreneurial behaviour were not given attention in the light of past entrepreneurial experience and experiential pedagogy. This only goes to confirm the need for studies on the experiential pedagogy-entrepreneurial behaviour nexus, taking cognisance of entrepreneurial experience.

Pazos, Pérez-López and González-López (2022) also explored teamwork competencies as a predictor of entrepreneurial team performance and the moderating effect of emerging cognitive and interpersonal team conflict as levers in entrepreneurship learning. A time-lagged survey method was used to collect data from 49 teams (156 individuals) of undergraduate students of in an experiential new venture creation course. A predictive model of entrepreneurial team performance through hierarchical regression analyses and moderated-moderation analyses was tested. The findings revealed that teamwork competencies had a significant and direct influence on entrepreneurial team performance, and that intragroup conflict strengthened that relationship when high levels of cognitive conflict and low levels of interpersonal conflict emerge.

Pazos et al.'s (2022) study, though considered entrepreneurial learning, there was still a lacuna as how entrepreneurial experience levers the effectiveness

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of experiential pedagogy to promote entrepreneurial behaviour has not been explored. This lacuna remained, as even a more related recent study by Duong (2023) which integrated the stimulus-organism-response (SOR) theory with Mair and Noboa's (2006) model to evaluate the stimulating role of education-related stimuli (i.e., entrepreneurial education, curriculum and lecturer competency) and the moderation impact of perceived university support on students' emotional and cognitive processes of social entrepreneurship, also did not take into account how entrepreneurial experience affects the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.

Specifically, Duong (2023) used a sample of 401 university students in Vietnam, and deployed a three-step analysis approach via SPSS 28.0 and AMOS 25.0 to test the hypothesised model. The results revealed that while entrepreneurship education and lecturer competency were positively associated with psychological organisms, then in turn affected social entrepreneurial intention and behaviours, the curriculum seemed to be less significant. Furthermore, social entrepreneurial intention was positively affected by social entrepreneurial self-efficacy and perceived social support, but not significantly influenced by empathy or moral obligation. It was concluded that the higher the perceived university support, the stronger the relationship between social entrepreneurial intention and social start-up behaviour.

All said and done, the review of the related studies on the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour has shown that there remains a lot to do in terms of

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how entrepreneurial experience influences the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour. Extant related studies either focused on how entrepreneurial exposure influences entrepreneurial performance, and how issues of learning orientations, among others, influence this relationship. These call for the need for further studies on how entrepreneurial experience affects the connection between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour, as it has been argued that prior entrepreneurial experience strengthens the efficiency of experiential pedagogy in enhancing students' entrepreneurial behaviour or actions. Table 4 displays a brief of the empirical studies reviewed.

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Table 5: Summary of Studies on Entrepreneurial Experience, Experiential Pedagogy and Entrepreneurial Behaviour

Author	Year	Theory	Research approach	Research design	Sampling	Analytical tools
Olokundun et al.	2020	-	Qualitative	Descriptive	Multistage sampling	Regression analysis and Hayes process macro
Türk et al.	2020	Social learning theory	Quantitative	-	-	Regression analysis
Pazos et al.	2022	-	Quantitative	Time-lagged survey	-	Hierarchical regression
Duong	2023	-	Quantitative	-	-	Three-step analysis approach

Source: Author (2024)

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Lessons Learnt from Theoretical and Empirical Review

A number of lessons have been gathered from the review of theories and empirical studies. In terms of theory application, most of the existing studies that looked at the interplays among or between any combinations of experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurial behaviour, and entrepreneurial experience used the theory of planned behaviour or the experiential learning theory, among others (Ismail et al., 2018; Malebana, 2014). This implies that further studies in this domain could analyse these relationships within the framework of the theory of planned behaviour and/or the experiential learning theory (Lattacher & Wdowiak, 2019; Ravitch & Carl, 2016).

With regards to the measurement of experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurial behaviour, and entrepreneurial experience, majority of the prior studies used a 5-point Likert-type scale, varying from "strongly disagree (1)" to "strongly agree (5)" (Kisolo, 2016; Uddin & Bose, 2012). Moreover, most of the studies relied on primary data sources (Kisolo, 2016; van Ewijk et al., 2020), with few using secondary data (Bogatyreva et al., 2019). As such, majority of the studies used structured questionnaires to collect data from study participants.

Moreover, it was realised that majority of the related studies on the relationships between experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurial behaviour, and entrepreneurial experience employed quantitative research approach, and followed the explanatory design (Kisolo, 2016; Uddin & Bose, 2012; van Ewijk et al., 2020). Regarding statistical tools, it was learnt that almost all the prior studies used any combination of means, standard deviations,

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frequencies, percentages, correlation and regression analysis (Lattacher & Wdowiak, 2019; Ravitch & Carl, 2016), with few using content analysis (i.e., qualitative studies) (Uddin & Bose, 2012; van Ewijk et al., 2020). To test hypothesised relationships between the constructs, majority of the studies used regression and/or correlation analysis (Olokundun et al., 2020; Türk et al., 2020), with few deploying PLS-SEM (Li et al., 2020; Neneh, 2019).

In terms of research paradigm, only inferences could be made based on the kind of research approach and design employed by the prior studies (Kisolo, 2016; Uddin & Bose, 2012; van Ewijk et al., 2020), as none of the prior studies specifically argued for any philosophical viewpoints. To ensure that a study is holistically carried out, there is the need to view the entire process from a specific philosophical perspective, as this, among others, will guide the kind of data to solicit from informants (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill & Bristow, 2015).

It was also realised that PLS-SEM was limitedly applied for data analysis, despite its comparative strengths of ensuring robustness of results, even with small sample sizes, and managing complex interplays among constructs, among others (Hair et al., 2019). Taking all these into account, there was the need for a study that would incorporate all the missing elements mentioned above to ensure that the identified gaps in literature were filled, as far as the relationships among/between experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurial experience were concerned. The present study was purposed to address these gaps, as it took into account the effects of EP on EI and EB; EE on

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EI; and EE on EP-EB nexus. These relationships are illustrated in the framework captured in Figure 1.

Conceptual Framework

The framework conceptualised the relationships between the variables in the study, as well as showed the diagrammatical relationship between the variables (Mwathi & Karanja, 2017). It guided the measurement of the variables of experiential pedagogy (EP), entrepreneurial behaviour (EB), entrepreneurial intentions (EI), and entrepreneurial experience (EE); collection of data, and the analysis of data (Antwi, & Hamza, 2015; Cooper & Schindler, 2014). It should be mentioned that the construction of the framework was, to some extent, guided by the Kolb's experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984), the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985), and extant empirical studies (Ambad & Damit, 2016; Joseph, 2017), taking cognisance of the five research objectives and corresponding hypotheses.

More specifically, as displayed in Figure 1, the framework comprised four key variables – EP, EB, EI and EE. Experiential pedagogy was an independent variable which predicted outcome or dependent variables of EB and EI [which consisted of three dimensions, namely, perceived desirability (PD), perceived feasibility (PF) and perceived act (PA)]. The links between these variables were labelled H1 and H2, respectively. Entrepreneurial experience also functioned as an independent variable, directly influencing EI, and a moderating variable, influencing the relationship between EP and EB.

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These nexuses were indicated by the arrows labelled H4 and H5, correspondingly. Finally, EI also served as an independent variable which had a direct effect on EB, and was shown by the path labelled H3. While it is acknowledged that entrepreneurial intentions may serve as a mechanism through which experiential pedagogy can affect entrepreneurial behaviour, this was not the focus of this study, as this relationship (i.e., mediation) has already been explored in several contexts by prior studies (Hallak et al., 2011; Tahlil & Ali, 2015; Radu-Lefebvre et al., 2021; Sukavejworakit et al., 2018). Consequently, this study focused only on the direct path between entrepreneurial intentions (EI) and entrepreneurial behaviour (EB).

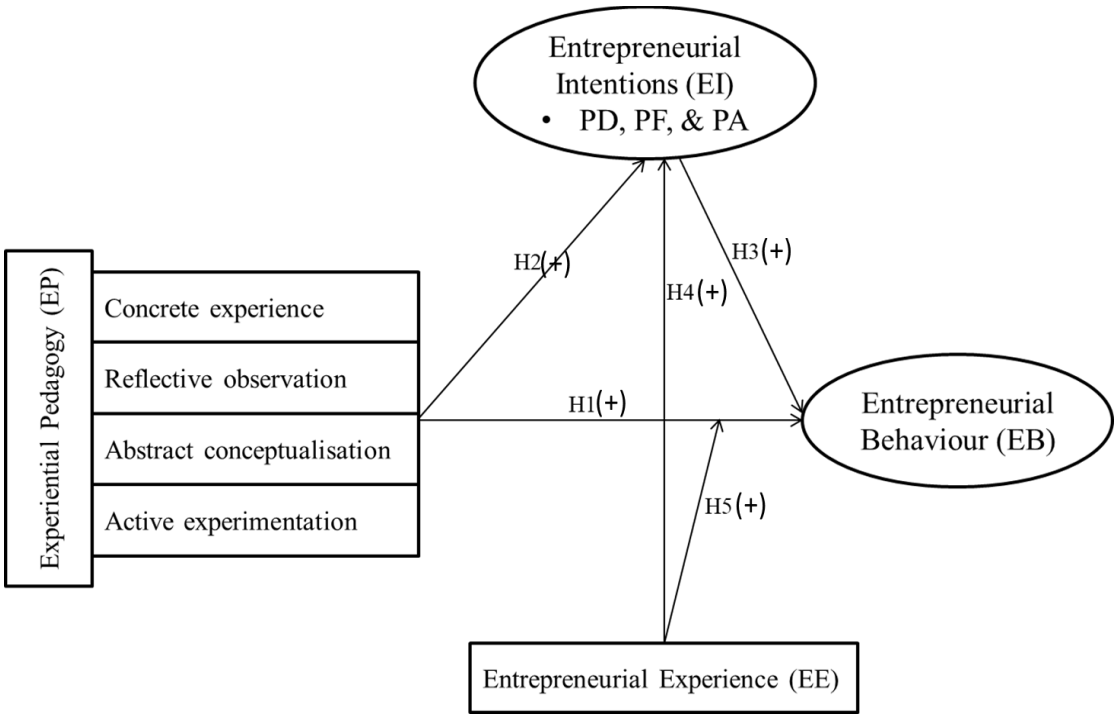

Figure 1: Conceptual framework
Source: Author's construct (2023)

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Hypotheses Development

This section of the chapter examines the interplay between the variables. It begins with the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour, followed by the link between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention. Next, it explores the interplay between entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour, the relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intention, and finally, the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in connection between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.

Experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour

Experiential pedagogy, rooted in Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory, emphasises learning through experience, reflection, and active experimentation. This approach encourages entrepreneurial behaviour by equipping individuals with the ability to navigate uncertainty, identify opportunities, and take proactive steps in business settings. Kolb's theory suggests that learning is most effective when individuals engage in concrete experiences, reflect on them, and apply insights to real-world challenges – key components of entrepreneurial behaviour (Rae, 2006).

Empirical studies support this connection. For instance, Kirkley (2017) found that experiential learning enhances problem-solving and risk-taking, essential traits of entrepreneurial behaviour. Similarly, Olokundun et al. (2018) demonstrated that students exposed to experiential entrepreneurship education exhibit higher levels of proactiveness and innovation. Given this, it is posited that:

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H1: Experiential pedagogy positively influences entrepreneurial behaviour.

Experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention

Experiential pedagogy, rooted in Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory, emphasises learning through direct experience, reflection, conceptualisation, and active experimentation. This approach enhances entrepreneurial intention by exposing individuals to real-world entrepreneurial challenges, fostering self-efficacy, and shaping their attitudes toward venture creation. When learners engage in hands-on entrepreneurial tasks – such as business simulations, case studies, and startup projects – they develop a deeper understanding of entrepreneurship, making it a more viable and attractive career path (O'Gorman, 2019).

In addition to experiential learning theory, Bandura's (1977) social learning theory reinforces this connection by emphasising the role of observational learning, modelling, and social reinforcement in shaping intentions. Through mentorship, networking, and exposure to entrepreneurial role models, learners internalise entrepreneurial behaviours and develop stronger intentions to pursue entrepreneurship (Neneh, 2019). Social learning occurs when individuals observe successful entrepreneurs, engage in interactive entrepreneurial environments, and receive feedback, which strengthens their entrepreneurial self-efficacy and perceived desirability of starting a business.

Empirical studies provide strong support for this argument. Bogatyreva et al. (2019) found that experiential entrepreneurship education enhances self-efficacy, a key determinant of entrepreneurial intention. Similarly, Meoli et al.

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(2020) showed that exposure to real-world entrepreneurial activities significantly increases students' motivation and desire to start businesses. Furthermore, Li et al. (2020) highlighted that learning through experience builds the confidence and risk-taking propensity essential for entrepreneurial commitment. Based on these theoretical and empirical insights, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Experiential pedagogy positively influences entrepreneurial intention.

Entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour

Entrepreneurial intention is a critical precursor to entrepreneurial behaviour, as individuals who express a strong intention to start a business are more likely to translate their aspirations into action. The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985) provides a strong theoretical framework for this relationship, asserting that intention is the most immediate predictor of behaviour. According to TPB, entrepreneurial behaviour is driven by an individual's intention, which in turn is shaped by attitude toward entrepreneurship, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control.

Entrepreneurial intentions reflect a conscious commitment to venture creation, and when individuals possess strong intentions, they are more likely to engage in entrepreneurial actions such as opportunity recognition, resource mobilisation, and business establishment (Krueger et al., 2000). Furthermore, perceived behavioural control – akin to entrepreneurial self-efficacy – reinforces an individual's ability to overcome obstacles and persist in entrepreneurial activities (Liñán & Chen, 2009).

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Empirical studies provide robust evidence for this relationship. Kautonen et al. (2015) found that entrepreneurial intention strongly predicts subsequent business startup activities. Similarly, Kautonen et al. (2013) demonstrated that individuals with high entrepreneurial intention are more likely to take concrete steps toward venture creation. Additionally, Meoli et al. (2020) highlighted that entrepreneurial intention serves as a reliable indicator of future entrepreneurial engagement across various contexts. Based on this foregoing arguments, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: Entrepreneurial intention positively influences entrepreneurial behaviour.

Entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions

Entrepreneurial experience plays a crucial role in shaping entrepreneurial intentions, as individuals who have been exposed to entrepreneurial activities are more likely to develop the motivation and confidence to start their own ventures. The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985) provides a strong theoretical foundation for this relationship, asserting that entrepreneurial intention is influenced by three key factors: attitude toward entrepreneurship, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. Entrepreneurial experience contributes to all three dimensions by shaping positive attitudes, reinforcing social validation, and enhancing self-efficacy.

First, prior entrepreneurial experience allows individuals to develop a more favourable attitude toward entrepreneurship by increasing their awareness of its benefits and challenges (Krueger et al., 2000). Second, exposure to entrepreneurial networks and mentors strengthens subjective norms, as individuals receive

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encouragement and validation from peers, family, and industry professionals (Liñán & Chen, 2009). Lastly, entrepreneurial experience enhances perceived behavioural control by equipping individuals with the skills, knowledge, and confidence needed to navigate the uncertainties of business creation, thereby making entrepreneurship a more feasible and attractive career choice (Zhao et al., 2010).

Empirical studies affirm this connection. Gabrielsson et al. (2020) found that individuals with prior entrepreneurial experience demonstrate higher levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and commitment to starting new ventures. Similarly, Bloemen-Bekx et al. (2019) highlighted that hands-on entrepreneurial exposure strengthens individuals' confidence in their ability to succeed in business. Additionally, Bignotti and le Roux (2020) revealed that previous entrepreneurial involvement significantly increases the likelihood of pursuing future entrepreneurial opportunities. Based on this theoretical and empirical foundation, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4: Entrepreneurial experience positively influences entrepreneurial intention.

Entrepreneurial experience as a moderator in the experiential pedagogy-entrepreneurial behaviour linkage

Entrepreneurial experience can serve as a moderator in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour by enhancing the effectiveness of experiential learning in promoting entrepreneurial actions. While experiential pedagogy equips individuals with entrepreneurial knowledge and skills

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through hands-on learning, the impact of this pedagogy on entrepreneurial behaviour may vary depending on prior entrepreneurial experience.

Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory suggests that learning is most effective when individuals can connect new experiences with prior knowledge. Individuals with entrepreneurial experience are likely to internalise and apply experiential learning more effectively, as they can relate new concepts to past entrepreneurial challenges, failures, and successes. This alignment strengthens their ability to translate learning into entrepreneurial behaviour (Gabrielsson et al., 2020). Additionally, social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) supports this moderating effect by emphasising that individuals with prior exposure to entrepreneurship are more likely to model and replicate learned behaviours in real-world entrepreneurial activities.

Empirical evidence supports this moderating role. Markman and Baron (2003) found that individuals with entrepreneurial experience demonstrate greater pattern recognition and opportunity identification, allowing them to benefit more from experiential learning. Similarly, Pazos et al. (2022) highlighted that experienced entrepreneurs leverage past learning to enhance decision-making and risk management, thereby strengthening the impact of experiential pedagogy on entrepreneurial behaviour. Furthermore, Duong (2023) suggested that experiential learning has a stronger effect on those with prior exposure to entrepreneurship, as they can better translate theoretical insights into practical actions. Predicated on the foregoing arguments, this study theorises that:

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H5: Entrepreneurial experience moderates the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour, such that the relationship is stronger for individuals with higher entrepreneurial experience.

Chapter Summary

This chapter logically presents literature related to this study. Specifically, relevant theories, such as the Kolb's experiential learning theory and the theory of planned behaviour, were reviewed in the light of the research objectives and their corresponding hypotheses. Further, the key concepts of the study were reviewed in order to highlight their operational definitions and how they have been conceptualised across prior related studies. These concepts include experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurial behaviour, and entrepreneurial experience. Subsequently, how EP related empirically to EI and EB; how EI related to EB; and how EE related to EI and the relationship between EP and EB were empirically reviewed. The lessons learnt from the review were also presented. Finally, predicated on the research objectives and the relevant theories employed for the study, a conceptual framework was constructed.

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to assess the effects of experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention on entrepreneurial behaviour, taking cognisance of the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour among students. Consistent with this, the chapter presents the research paradigm, research approach, research design, study area, population of the study, sample size and sampling procedure, data collection instrument, ethical considerations, validity and reliability, data collection procedure, and data processing and analysis.

Research Paradigm

Research philosophy or paradigm refers to a set of beliefs, values and techniques shared by a scientific community on how knowledge is generated (Kuhn, 2012; Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill & Bristow, 2015). According to Kuhn (2012), these beliefs, values and techniques consequently shape a researcher's view on what is discoverable and how it will be studied. Park, Konge and Artino (2020) added that an understanding of the principles and assumptions of various research paradigms aids in boosting the quality and soundness of research findings. The core elements on which the assumptions border, in their view, include the ontology – how reality is regarded; epistemology – how knowledge is originated; axiology –

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how a researcher's values and opinions affect the process; and methodology – the processes used in carrying out the scientific inquiry (Park et al., 2020).

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016) outlined various research paradigms, including positivism, interpretivism, critical realism and pragmatism. The present study employed the positivist paradigm, as related studies conducted by Kisolo (2016) and van Ewijk et al. (2020) made references to this philosophical viewpoint. The positivist's paradigm restricted the present researcher to only data collection and interpretation, and the results obtained were observable and quantifiable (Gachoka et al., 2018). Also, the researcher's interference was minimised (Wilson, 2017). These characteristics made the choice of the positivists' philosophy appropriate for this study, as the study investigated the interplays among/between EP, EE, EI and EB using quantitative data (Lattacher & Wdowiak, 2019).

The researcher, however, acknowledged the fact that results obtained through the positivists' perspective might lack deep insight into issues; thus, the determination of relationships between EP, EE, EI and EB, through this philosophical perspective, was done with caution (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2016). The researcher was also aware of the meta-theoretical position of postpositivism, which criticises positivism in the light of the fact that the researcher's values and preferences might still influence the investigation of the relationships between EP, EE, EI and EB (Mat, 2016). On the contrary, Ondieki (2013) had opined that the postpositivists' viewpoint does not ensure a balance between quantitative and qualitative aspects of a study, as the researcher's

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interference might influence reliability of the study outcomes, and that the positivists' view ensures that researcher interference is limited.

Furthermore, taking into account the fact that entrepreneurial education issues in universities in Ghana were controlled by humans who are social beings, employing the constructivists or the pragmatists' philosophical perspective – which would have led to the collection of qualitative data, to some extent, from them (humans) – might have diluted the objectivity of the study as they (humans) might be forced to provide pieces of information that favoured them as individuals than provide objective information on issues of experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial experience, entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour(Al-Matari & Mgammal, 2019; Dellai et al., 2016).

It should also be noted that, since the choice of research philosophy is informed by the end to which a study is being conducted, as well as the conventions in a discipline, it was appropriate to employ the positivist paradigm as the present study drew on quantitative techniques and numerical measures to assess the relationships between EP, EE, EI and EB (Easterby-Smith et al., 2016; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). Besides, the convention has revealed that majority of prior empirical studies on EP, EE, EI and EB had employed the positivists' philosophical viewpoint (Kisolo, 2016; Uddin & Bose, 2012; van Ewijk et al., 2020). Considering these, the positivists' paradigm was deemed appropriate for the present study.

Research Approach

In line with the positivists' philosophy and the knowledge drawn from previous studies which studied EP, EE, EI and EB, among others (Uddin & Bose,

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2012; van Ewijk et al., 2020), this study employed the quantitative research approach – due to the fact that quantitative data was used to explore the relationships between EP, EE, EI and EB (Creswell, 2018). Also, the researcher undertook numerical measurements of EP, EE, EI and EB, as well as analysed numerical data to provide descriptions and make inferences (Creswell, 2018). These processes were predicated on principles of verifiability, substantiation, confirmation, and utilisation of correct measurements of EP, EE, EI and EB, which are all characteristic features of quantitative approach (Wilson, 2017).

It should further be noted that majority of authors of related studies on EP, EE, EI and EB have argued that data collected from informants using survey instruments containing items anchored on Likert-type scales to help provide descriptions and make inferences through the computation of averages, correlation and regression coefficients, among others, are better featured in quantitative approach, compared to other approaches such as the qualitative approach (Olokundun et al., 2020; Türk et al., 2020). Thus, the quantitative approach was well suited for this study since data collected using questionnaires were numerically coded and analysed using quantitative statistical tools such as means, standard deviations, frequencies, percentages, correlation coefficients and multivariate regression techniques (i.e., PLS-SEM) (Hair et al., 2019; Saunders et al., 2015).

Research Design

Majority of prior related studies used the explanatory research design for the study of the relationships between/among EP, EE, EI and EB (Kisolo, 2016; Olokundun et al., 2020; Türk et al., 2020; Uddin & Bose, 2012; van Ewijk et al.,

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2020). The explanatory design was, thus, used for this study. The explanatory design helped the researcher to explain the cause-effect relationship between EP and EI, the effect of EP on EB, the link between EE and EI, the connection between EI and EB, as well as the effect of EE on the interplay between EP and EB (Saunders et al., 2019). The explanatory design also helped to describe the data collected, as well as the distribution of the data, before inferential statistics were performed (Saunders et al., 2019).

More specifically, Bignotti and le Roux (2020) who also studied the relationship between past entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions used the explanatory research design. Similarly, in the study of the influence of entrepreneurial intentions on entrepreneurial behaviour, Neneh (2019) employed the explanatory design. In their study to explore experiential pedagogy and issues of entrepreneurial intentions, Aslam et al. (2012) also used the explanatory design. Thus, it was in the right direction to employ the explanatory design in the study of the relationships between EP, EE, EI and EB, as the convention in this research domain embraces this design.

Study Area

The study area for this research was the University of Cape Coast (UCC), also known as the University of Competitive Choice. Established in October 1962, UCC is a public collegiate university located in the historic town of Cape Coast in the Central Region of Ghana (UCC, n.d.). UCC has a rare seafront and sits on a hill overlooking the wide Atlantic Ocean (UCC, n.d.). Also, two of the most important historical sites in Ghana, Elmina and Cape Coast Castle, are a few kilometres away

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from its campus. The University operates on two campuses, namely, Old Site (i.e., the Southern Campus) and New Site (i.e., the Northern Campus or popularly known among students and surrounding communities as Science).

The University of Cape Coast runs several academic and professional programmes through its six colleges (i.e., College of Agricultural and Natural Science, College of Distance Education, College of Education Studies, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, College of Health and Allied Sciences, and School of Graduate Studies and Research) (UCC, n.d.). Specifically, some of the programmes run include B.Ed. Management, BA English Language, BCom Accounting, BSc Nursing, MBA Finance, M.Ed. Accounting, MCom Finance, MCom Entrepreneurship, MPhil Education, PhD Business Administration, and PhD Mathematics Education, among others.

The University is known for its quality academic and globally recognised top-notch research activities. For consecutive times, the Times Higher Education (THE) ranked UCC as the topmost University in Ghana, number one in West Africa, and number four in Africa (UCC, 2022). Globally, UCC is ranked 24th for research influence, and among the top 400 universities (UCC, 2022). These, among other things, make UCC an ideal study area for researching the relationships between experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intentions, and students' entrepreneurial behaviour, with a particular focus on the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience.

UCC's School of Agriculture and School of Vocational and Technical Education are renowned for their academic programmes, particularly in the realm

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of entrepreneurship education. These schools offer an innovative curriculum that incorporates experiential pedagogy, emphasising learning by doing and allowing students to apply theoretical knowledge in practical settings. This approach has been shown to effectively promote entrepreneurial intentions and behaviours, making these schools ideal environments for studying the effect of experiential pedagogy on entrepreneurial outcomes. By studying the experiences of students from the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education, researchers can gain valuable insights into the factors that influence the effectiveness of experiential pedagogy in promoting entrepreneurial behaviour among university students.

Entrepreneurship education in the University of Cape Coast

The University of Cape Coast (UCC) in Ghana offers comprehensive entrepreneurship education through various faculties and dedicated centres. Key among these is the Centre for Entrepreneurship and Small Enterprise Development (CESED), which focuses on encouraging entrepreneurial skills and knowledge across the university community. Additionally, the School of Business integrates entrepreneurship into its curriculum, particularly for Level 400 students, ensuring that business students are equipped with essential entrepreneurial competencies before graduation. The School of Agriculture (SA) and the School of Vocational and Technical Education (VTE), which are largely entrepreneurship-based in their training deliveries, also offer entrepreneurship courses for their students. Table 1 compares the course outlines of these main outlets for entrepreneurship education and training at the University of Cape Coast.

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Table 6: Course Structure

SN	Course contents		
	CESED	SA	VTE
1	Overview of entrepreneurship	Overview of entrepreneurship and business management	Definition, terminologies and concepts used in small enterprise development
2	The entrepreneur	Business idea generation and market research	The small business owner and the informal sector
3	Creativity, invention and innovation	Business plan development	Self-employed versus wages employment
4	Identifying ideas and opportunities	Sources and access to funding	Issues with starting and operating a small business in Ghana
5	Business plan and business model development	International business	Licensing a business and other legal considerations in Ghana
6	Entrepreneur team formation	Growth strategies in Business	Entrepreneurial marketing and the marketing Mix
7	Forms of business ownership		Customer relationship management (CRM)
8	Resources		Entrepreneurial financing and accounting
9			Launching the imperfect business: Lean startup

Source: CESED (2023), SA (2023), and VTE (2023)

As could be seen in Table 1, CESED focuses on foundational entrepreneurship knowledge and skills applicable across various sectors, emphasising creativity, innovation, and business plan development. This prepares students for entrepreneurial roles and consultancy in diverse industries. School of Agriculture, on the other hand, integrates entrepreneurship with agricultural practices, offering courses on business management specific to agriculture, including international business and growth strategies. The aim is to produce

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graduates who can innovate within the agricultural sector and manage agribusinesses. Similarly, the School of Vocational and Technical Education provides practical training in entrepreneurship tailored to technical and vocational skills, including courses on small business operations, legal considerations, and marketing. The focus is on equipping students with the skills to start and sustain small enterprises.

While all the groups are exposed to entrepreneurship education, research indicated that students from technical and vocational education and training (TVET) backgrounds, such as those in the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education, tend to exhibit a higher inclination towards starting their own businesses (Alamineh, 2020; Manabete, & Umar, 2018). This is due to their hands-on training and practical skill sets which are essential for entrepreneurial ventures (Alamineh, 2020; Kimathi, 2021). Studies showed that these students are more likely to engage in self-employment and are often more prepared to handle the operational challenges of running a small business (Dimoska, 2019).

In contrast, students from Business Schools, such as the School of Business in the University of Cape Coast, and general entrepreneurship courses offered through CESED often aim for careers in corporate settings or roles that support entrepreneurs (Dzisi, Odoom, & Gligah, 2018; Patzelt, & Shepherd, 2009). As argued by Dadzie, Fumey and Namara (2020), their training is typically more theoretical and geared towards understanding business concepts, market analysis,

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and providing consultancy or management services in various organisational contexts.

Moreover, the UNESCO has highlighted the importance of TVET in promoting entrepreneurial mindsets and practical business skills, which are critical for self-employment and small business success (UNESCO-UNEVOC International Centre, 2020, 2021). Taking these into account, the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education presented an appropriate context for studying how entrepreneurial experience, experiential pedagogy, and entrepreneurial intentions influence entrepreneurial behaviour. Consequently, the present study focused on these schools.

Population

The study population consisted of 650 students from the School of Agricultural Sciences and the School of Vocational and Technical Education. Of these, 363 were from the School of Agricultural Sciences, while 287 were from the School of Vocational and Technical Education. All students were enrolled in an entrepreneurship course at the time of the study, making them suitable participants. The population included 381 male and 269 female students.

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The sample size for the study comprised 298 students of the two schools, computed using Slovin's (1973) sample size determination formula given by: $n = \frac{N}{[1+N(e)^2]}$; Where n = Sample size; N = Sample frame defined/population; and e = Margin of error.

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Thus, $n = \frac{650}{[1+650(0.05)^2]} = 247.619 \sim 248$

However, due to the possibility that some of the respondents might be unwilling or fail to complete the questionnaire, a non-response rate of 20% was expected (Barclay et al., 2002; Gustavson et al., 2019). Taking this into account, the sample size was increased to 298 [i.e., 248(1 + 0.20) = 297.6]. This number was determined using the convenience sampling technique, as surveys were distributed to students in their own class due to their easy accessibility, availability, and willingness to participate in the study (Wijewardena & De Zoysa, 2001). While convenience sampling does not ensure randomness, efforts were made to maintain proportional representation from each school. Following Ejoh and Ejom (2014) and Munene et al. (2016), the total number of entrepreneurship students in each school was divided by the overall population (i.e., 650), and the result was multiplied by 298 to determine proportional contributions. Consequently, the School of Agricultural Sciences contributed 55.8% (166 students), while the School of Vocational and Technical Education contributed 44.2% (132 students).

Given the non-random nature of convenience sampling, additional steps were taken to enhance fairness in selection. In each school, students were assigned numbers sequentially (e.g., 1, 2, 3, … nth, where nth represented the last student in the proportionate sample). A computerized lottery method was then used to shuffle and generate numbers in an Excel spreadsheet, and students corresponding to the randomly selected numbers were chosen. This process was repeated until the designated sample sizes – 166 students for the School of Agricultural Sciences and

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132 students for the School of Vocational and Technical Education – were reached, ensuring a structured yet accessible approach to sample selection.

Data Collection and Instrument Design

From the review of empirical studies, it was realised that majority of the studies on EP, EE, EI and EB employed the questionnaire for data collection, as questionnaires helped to collect data from a large group of respondents (Ismail et al., 2018; Malebana, 2014). Constructs of EP, EE, EI and EB have been measured on a five-point Likert type continuous scale varying from "least agreement (1) to the highest agreement (5) ", by prior researchers (Olokundun et al., 2020; Türk et al., 2020). Taking these into account, this study employed the structured questionnaire for data collection. For this study, printed questionnaires were used to solicit for responses. Data Collection Instruments went through the following stages: designing, developing, pre-testing, validation, and compilation of final instrument. The final questionnaires for data collection had 64 questions, comprising of five sections (Part I-V).

Part I obtained responses on the "Demographic Information" of the students involved in the study. Part II ascertained responses on "Entrepreneurial Experience". Part III collected data on "Experiential Pedagogy". Part IV was on "Entrepreneurial Intentions". The final part, Part V, solicited data on "Entrepreneurial Behaviour. Specifically, Part I was made up of 11 items relating to the demographic characteristics of participating students. Part II was made up 10 close ended questions capturing information on the Entrepreneurial experience of the respondent. Part III was made up of 16 close ended questions capturing

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information on the Experiential pedagogy employed. Parts IV D also has 15 questions on the Entrepreneurial Intention of the respondent and Part V also with 12 questions measuring the Entrepreneurial behaviour. All items in Parts II through V were anchored on a five-point Likert type scale where SD= Strongly disagree D= Disagree N=Neutral A= Agree, SA=Strongly Agree)". All the items in the various parts (II to V) were adapted from validated sources as shown in Table 7.

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Table 7: Survey Instrument Construction and Measurements

Constructs	Variable types	Dimensions	Measurements	Items	Justifications
Experiential Pedagogy (EP)	Independent		5-point Likert-type scale varying from "strongly disagree (1)" to "strongly agree (5)"	16 (EP1-EP16)	Breunig, 2017; Kuchera & Redman, 2020; Olokundun et al., 2017
Entrepreneurial Experience (EE)	Independent/moderator		5-point Likert-type scale varying from "strongly disagree (1)" to "strongly agree (5)"	10 (EE1-EE10)	Clarke & Holt, 2019; Dillon et al., 2020
Entrepreneurial Intentions (EI)	Independent/dependent	• Perceived desirability (PD) • Perceived feasibility (PF) • Propensity to act (PA)	5-point Likert-type scale varying from "strongly disagree (1)" to "strongly agree (5)"	15 (EI1-EI15)	Arrighetti et al., 2016; Ip et al., 2017
Entrepreneurial Behaviour (EB)	Dependent		5-point Likert-type scale varying from "strongly disagree (1)" to "strongly agree (5)"	12 (EB1-EB12)	Azim & Al-Kahtani, 2015; Nakano & Muniz, 2018

Source: Author's construct (2023)

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Validity and Reliability

To ensure quality of the measurements, the data collection instrument was tested for validity and internal consistency reliability. According to Sarstedt, Bengart, Shaltoni and Lehmann (2018), validity is the degree to which an instrument accurately measures what it is intended to measure, whilst reliability refers to the consistency of a measure to ensure reproducibility or replicability under same sets of conditions. Specifically, in terms of validity, face validity and construct validity (i.e., construct and convergent validities) were carried out.

Face validity was done to ensure that items transparently and relevantly cover the constructs of EP, EE, EI and EB they purported to measure. This was done by an entrepreneurship education expert (i.e., the supervisor of this study who is a doctor in the field). On the other hand, discriminant validity ensured the various items measure the constructs (EP, EE, EI and EB) they were designed to measure, whilst convergent validity ensured that items measuring each of EP, EE, EI and EB were closely related as possible. To achieve convergent validity, factor loadings of ≥ 0.70 (significant at $p < 0.05$), and AVE of ≥ 0.50 were upheld (Chua, 2023). For discriminant validity, Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of ≤ 0.90 was given attention (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015). Regarding reliability, composite reliability coefficient (≥ 0.70) and Cronbach's alpha (≥ 0.70) were computed (Sarstedt et al., 2018).

To achieve the foregoing, a pre-testing was carried out by administering the instrument to students reading entrepreneurship course (not fewer than 50 participants) at the Cape Coast Technical University (CCTU) in the Central Region

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of Ghana. This setting was chosen because it shared several similarities with the main study institution – University of Cape Coast. For instance, just as the University of Cape Coast, the Cape Coast Technical University offered several business courses, including Entrepreneurship. Also, the technical university was tagged as an 'Entrepreneurial Technical University' providing quality technical, vocational and entrepreneurial education that inspires learners to be creative and driven towards technological-based and sustainable solutions for communities and industries within the country (i.e., Ghana) and the sub-region (CCTU, n.d.). Again, these analyses were conducted after the main data was collected and the results are presented in the succeeding chapter.

Ethical Consideration

Ethics is crucial in research; thus, every researcher is to adhere to ethics of research. As explained by Reame (2013), ethics in research are the standards that are followed to ensure that all subjects selected to partake in the study are sufficiently informed about the study and any potential dangers associated with it. As part of the requirements for conducting research involving human beings, the researcher obtained an ethical clearance from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), University of Cape Coast, before embarking on the data collection activities of the study.

Moreover, the data collection instrument was assigned an informed consent form that the participants were made to sign as evidence of their voluntary participation in the study. The participants were, also, fully informed about the purpose of the study, and were given the chance to ask any question they might

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have, prior to agreeing to participate in the study. Names of participants were not collected, in order to ensure anonymity. They were made to understand that participation in the study was voluntary and that they have the right to participate or not to participate. They were also made to understand that they have the right to withdraw from participating in the study without any consequences. Thus, if any participant decided to stop somewhere along the line, they would not be side-lined in any form.

Furthermore, the participants were assured that the data collected would be used for academic purpose only. They were kept anonymous, and no part of the data directly traceable to them was disclosed to third parties, as even in case of publication, it was only aggregated results that would be made available to the public. Besides, in order to protect the data collected, the data were converted into digital format and stored on a USB flash drive to be kept in a safe for a period of two years after use, before destroying it. This period was tenable, as two years are enough for all the necessary corrective references to be made to the data.

Data Collection Procedures

Data Collection Instruments went through the following stages: designing, developing, pre-testing, validation, and compilation of final instrument. For this study, structured questionnaire would be use for data collection. Thus, printed questionnaires would be used to solicit for the responses. The data collection process involved an official visit to the two schools offering the entrepreneurship course. An introductory letter from Centre for Entrepreneurship and Small Enterprise Development, was given to the appropriate Head of Department of the

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School of Agricultural Sciences and Department of Vocational and Technical Education who teach the Entrepreneurship course, requesting for permission to collect data from students of the 2018/2019 academic year. The actual field work was carried out in two phases simultaneously – instrument administration (phase I) and instrument retrieval (II).

Phase I of data collection took place during the third and fourth weeks of August, specifically from the 13th to the 25th. During this period, 400 questionnaires were distributed to students at agreed times to ensure that at least the minimum required sample size was obtained. All respondents could read and write in English, so an interpreter was not needed. However, the questionnaires were explained to them in case further clarification was required. Informed consent forms and authorization letters from the institution were also provided to validate the credibility of the researcher.

Students were given 20 minutes to complete the printed questionnaires. By the end of the two-week period, 374 responses had been received, exceeding the originally estimated sample size of 298, which had accounted for a 20% non-response rate. This number was sufficient for inferential analysis (Okoye et al., 2019). In total, the data collection process spanned from August 13th to August 25th. The final number of analysable retrieved instruments was 298, after taking care of incomplete records.

Data Processing and Analysis

In this study, data processing comprised data editing, entering, cleaning, and screening, whilst the analysis consisted of descriptive statistics and inferential

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statistics of PLS-SEM. From the empirical review, it became evident that studies that employed PLS-SEM to analyse the interplays among EP, EE, EI and EB were limited, despite the fact that robust results are produced when PLS-SEM is used in the light of moderating relationship analyses (Hair et al., 2019). Moreover, some of the prior studies (Li et al., 2020; Neneh, 2019) used scanty sample size, which could have still produced robust results had they employed PLS-SEM for analysis (Okoye et al., 2019). This implies that there is an analytical gap that needs to be filled, hence, the use of PLS-SEM in the present study.

Furthermore, regarding data processing, the data collected from the students was methodically vetted for mistakes, such as items left unfilled. After the data editing, valid questionnaires were deemed appropriate and entered into the IBM-SPSS version 26 for cleaning and subsequent analysis. Furthermore, the data set was taken through a rigorous screening procedure to detect scores that were either outside the range of possible ratings, missing, or erroneously entered. For preliminary analysis to understand the data as well as summarise information about the sample, descriptive statistics including the mean and standard deviation, were computed.

Next, the main analysis to achieve the research objectives was conducted. The study had five research objectives and five corresponding hypotheses. To achieve these objectives, and test the corresponding hypotheses, the PLS-SEM was employed for the analysis, using SmartPLS 4. According to Hair et al. (2014), Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a more reliable statistical approach that aids in including latent variables that are qualified inferentially by certain

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indicators. PLS-SEM is a non-parametric method for investigating the links between constructs. As such, it does not require a strict adherence to the assumptions of normal distribution of data and issues of sampling techniques (Hair et al., 2019). Regardless, as mentioned earlier, descriptive statistics were conducted to clean the data of outliers and extreme values to ensure robustness and reliability of the statistical analysis.

The researcher deemed PLS-SEM appropriate for this study because it had greater statistical power to accurately detect hypothesised effects of EP and EI on EB, effect of EP and EE on EI, as well as the moderating effect of EE on the EP-EB nexus, even with small sample size, compared to other analytical or estimation techniques (e.g., OLS) (Ali et al., 2018). Hair et al. (2019) also argued that PLS-SEM accepts different measurement models; has more reliable statistical prediction and accommodates more variables, more parameters, as well as complex relations – such as moderation and mediation relationships. This made it even more appropriate for this study as several relations were analysed, considering the various reflective indicators or defining items of EP, EE, EI and EB, and the moderating role of EE (Hair et al., 2019).

Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the methods employed for the study. The quantitative approach was used. In terms of design, the explanatory research design was employed. While the stratified random sampling technique was used to select the sample size of 382, taking into account non-response rate, 400 instruments were

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administered to increase the response rate so that at the minimum sample size computed was obtained. The data collected was analysed using the PLS-SEM.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed analysis of the data and discussion of the results. It is organised under demographic information, summary descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, measurement model, structural model, discussions, and summary hypotheses test results. The discussion section is presented in order of the research objectives, highlighting the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour; experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions; entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour; entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions; and entrepreneurial experience, experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.

Demographics

This section presents a brief analysis of the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Demographic elements described include gender, age, and highest academic qualification. The analysis was done using counts (frequency) and percentages. The results are displayed in Table 8.

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Table 8: Demographic Information

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	174	58.4
Female	124	41.6
Age		
18-20	41	13.8
21-30	241	80.9
31-40	13	4.3
40+	3	1.0
Highest qualification pursued		
Undergraduate	273	91.6
Postgraduate	25	8.4
Groups		
School of Agricultural Sciences	166	55.7
School of Vocational and Technical Education	132	44.3

n = 298
Source: Field survey (2023)

The analysis showed that more males (174, 58.4%) than females (124, 41.6%) responded to the questionnaire (Table 8). The majority of the respondents were between the age range of 21-30 (241, 80.9%), followed by those within the age bracket 18-20 (41, 13.8%), and then 31-40 (13, 4.3%), with only three (1%) being 40 years old or older. Most of the respondents were pursuing undergraduate degrees (273, 91.6%), while (8.4%) were engaged in postgraduate studies at the

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time of this study. Out of the 298 final responses obtained, the School of Agricultural Sciences contributed (55.7%), while the School of Vocational and Technical Education contributed (44.3%).

Summary Descriptive Statistics

This section of the chapter displays the descriptive statistics of entrepreneurial experience, experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intention, and entrepreneurial behaviour. This was to provide an initial understanding of the data, as well as an initial glimpse into the nature of the data collected, allowing for better data-driven decisions and forming the basis for the main analyses to achieve the research objectives, and test corresponding hypotheses. The analysis was conducted using means and standard deviations, where a mean score above 3.00 indicates general agreement or overall positive response to a statement, while a score of 3.00 or below signifies overall disagreement (Kisolo, 2016; Uddin & Bose, 2012).

The first analysis that was done is on entrepreneurial experience, and the results are displayed in Table 9.

Table 9: Entrepreneurial Experience

Statements	Mean	SD
I have actively started or managed my own business.	2.88	1.29
I have held a significant position (founder or co-founder) in a business venture.	2.83	1.38
I have successfully launched multiple businesses in the past.	2.37	1.15
I have achieved notable success with my previous entrepreneurial ventures.	2.69	1.22
I have managed businesses of varying sizes and complexities	2.62	1.23
I possess industry-specific knowledge and expertise relevant to entrepreneurship	3.28	1.20
I have actively utilised my entrepreneurial experience to make informed business decisions.	3.22	1.28

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Table 9 Continued		
I have accumulated substantial years of experience in entrepreneurship.	2.91	1.21
I have leveraged my past entrepreneurial experiences to identify and seize new business opportunities.	3.06	1.23
I have developed a wide network of contacts within the business and entrepreneurial community.	3.08	1.28
Overall entrepreneurial experience	**2.89**	**1.25**

Source: Field survey (2023)

Overall, the results indicated that the entrepreneurial experience of the respondents from the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education at the University of Cape Coast was considerably low (M = 2.89, SD = 1.25). This suggested that, on average, many students had not been exposed to entrepreneurial activities prior to engaging in entrepreneurial studies or education at the university (Table 9). Specifically, some respondents claimed to have possessed industry-specific knowledge (M = 3.28, SD = 1.20), which was crucial for identifying opportunities and making informed business decisions within their respective fields. They also actively utilised their entrepreneurial experience to make informed business decisions (M = 3.22, SD = 1.28), leveraged their past entrepreneurial experiences to identify and seize business opportunities (M = 3.06, SD = 1.23), and developed a wide network of contacts within the business and entrepreneurial community (M = 3.08, SD = 1.28).

However, many respondents reported that they had not actively started or managed their own businesses (M = 2.88, SD = 1.29). Furthermore, it became evident that not many of the students had held a significant position in a business venture (M = 2.83, SD = 1.38). Moreover, the respondents indicated that they had not established or launched multiple businesses in the past (M = 2.37, SD = 1.15)

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or achieved notable success with their previous entrepreneurial ventures (M = 2.69, SD = 1.22). The results also revealed that the students had not managed businesses of varying sizes and complexities in the past (M = 2.62, SD = 1.23). Additionally, they had not accumulated substantial years of experience in entrepreneurship (M = 2.91, SD = 1.21).

The second analysis carried out was on experiential pedagogy. The results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Experiential pedagogy

Statements	Mean	SD
The course provided opportunities for me to engage in realistic and practical experiences related to entrepreneurship.	3.88	1.08
I was able to actively participate in simulations and activities that mirrored real-world entrepreneurial challenges.	3.75	1.04
The course utilised demonstrations and presentations that allowed me to grasp entrepreneurial concepts through direct experiences.	3.89	1.05
The learning activities encouraged me to explore and interact with social problems and situations relevant to entrepreneurship.	3.92	1.02
I had the chance to reflect on my experiences and ideas related to entrepreneurship throughout the course.	3.78	1.01
The course provided opportunities for me to engage in critical self-reflection and thoughtful observation of my learning experiences.	3.86	1.03
I was encouraged to engage in class discussions and share my perspectives on entrepreneurial topics.	3.86	1.02
Practices incorporated into the course, allowed me to analyse and make sense of my entrepreneurial experiences.	3.81	1.03
The pedagogical methods employed in the course motivated me to actively think and generate creative ideas regarding entrepreneurship.	3.83	1.00
Visual representations and project-based learning activities were used to help me conceptualize and understand entrepreneurial concepts.	3.76	1.02
The course encouraged me to develop my own thought processes and solutions rather than relying on pre-determined answers.	3.90	.97
I was provided with opportunities to explore and experiment with different business concepts and ideas.	3.73	1.10
The course emphasized active testing and experimentation of entrepreneurial ideas in real-life situations.	3.79	1.07

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Table 10 Continued		
I had the chance to develop and refine my entrepreneurial skills through writing a business plan.	3.80	1.02
The business plan allowed me to bridge the gap between theory and practice by applying my knowledge to the creation of a new product or service.	3.84	1.03
The course empowered me to take action and become more confident in pursuing entrepreneurial opportunities	4.05	.95
Overall experiential pedagogy	**3.84**	**1.03**

Source: Field survey (2023)

From the analysis of the descriptive statistics of experiential pedagogy revealed in Table 10, it was evident that there is a generally positive perception among the students from the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education at the University of Cape Coast regarding various aspects of the course (M = 3.84, SD = 1.03). Across the board, mean scores for statements related to engagement in practical experiences, active participation in simulations, utilisation of demonstrations and presentations, exploration of social problems, reflection on experiences, engagement in class discussions, and encouragement of critical thinking and creativity all exceeded 3.00, indicating a consensus of agreement.

Particularly noteworthy were the high mean scores for statements regarding the encouragement of active thinking (M = 3.83, SD = 1.00), development of thought processes (M = 3.90, SD = 0.97), and empowerment to take action (M = 4.05, SD = 0.95), all of which scored above 3.80. Moreover, the data also suggested a consistent level of agreement regarding the effectiveness of pedagogical methods in bridging theory and practice, evidenced by mean scores above 3.80 for statements related to the application of knowledge through project-based learning

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(M = 3.76, SD = 1.02) and the development of entrepreneurial skills through writing a business plan (M = 3.80, SD = 1.02).

The third analysis focused on entrepreneurial intention. Table 11 presents the statistics.

Table 11: Entrepreneurial Intention

Statements	Mean	SD
A career as an entrepreneur is attractive and thought of starting a business enthuses me	4.09	1.01
If I had the opportunity and resources, I would like to start a business	4.28	.94
Being an entrepreneur would be a great satisfaction for me	4.19	.98
Among various options, I would rather be an entrepreneur	4.06	1.03
Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages	3.95	1.10
I believe I have the potential to successfully start and operate a new business venture.	4.02	1.01
I consider the required knowledge and skills, availability of resources, market conditions, and competitive environment before starting a business.	4.11	.91
I assess my skills, resources, and external factors that may impact the success of my business idea.	4.10	.89
My prior experiences, education, and training contribute to my confidence in starting and operating a new business venture.	4.10	.97
I feel confident in my ability to acquire the necessary skills and resources to start and operate a successful business.	4.12	.92
My mind-set and attitude are geared towards starting and developing a new business venture.	4.09	.95
I am willing to take the necessary steps, such as researching the market, developing a business plan, seeking funding, and launching a business.	4.12	.96
Despite potential challenges, I am determined to overcome them and start a new venture.	4.14	.93
I consider my personality traits, past experiences, social and cultural factors, and environmental factors in my decision to start a business.	4.07	.95
I am aware that fear of failure, lack of resources, and external constraints may affect my decision to start a new venture, but I am still motivated to take action.	4.25	.88
Overall entrepreneurial intention	**4.11**	**0.96**

Source: Field survey (2023)

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The statistics from Table 11 revealed consistently high mean scores across all statements related to entrepreneurial intention. Students from the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education at the University of Cape Coast expressed strong agreement with statements indicating the attractiveness of a career as an entrepreneur (M = 4.09, SD = 1.01), enthusiasm for starting a business if provided with the opportunity and resources (M = 4.28, SD = 0.94), and the belief in their potential to successfully initiate and operate a new business venture (M = 4.19, SD = 0.98).

Notably, mean scores for statements regarding confidence in acquiring necessary skills and resources (M = 4.12, SD = 0.92), determination to overcome challenges (M = 4.14, SD = 0.93), and consideration of various factors influencing the decision to start a business (M = 4.11, SD = 0.91) all exceeded 4.00, indicating a robust consensus among students. Furthermore, the results suggested a proactive mindset among respondents, as evidenced by high mean scores for statements related to the willingness to take necessary steps, such as researching the market and developing a business plan (M = 4.12, SD = 0.96). The acknowledgment of potential obstacles but persistent motivation to pursue entrepreneurship regardless (M = 4.25, SD = 0.88) underscored the resilience and determination of the students. Overall, the results indicated a strong alignment of attitudes and intentions towards entrepreneurship among the surveyed students, suggesting a high level of readiness and commitment towards venturing into entrepreneurial endeavours (M = 4.11, SD = 0.96).

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Finally, the descriptive analysis of entrepreneurial behaviour among students was conducted. The results are depicted in Table 12.

Table 12: Entrepreneurial Behaviour

Statements	Mean	SD
I actively engage in business planning to outline strategies and objectives for my entrepreneurial ventures.	3.83	2.74
I consistently identify and seize opportunities in the market to create new business ventures or improve existing ones.	3.75	1.03
I demonstrate a strong passion for my entrepreneurial endeavours, putting in dedicated effort and energy to make them successful.	3.94	1.02
I exhibit persistence in the face of challenges and setbacks, continuously striving to overcome obstacles and achieve my entrepreneurial goals.	3.88	.98
I apply creativity to develop innovative solutions and products that differentiate my business from competitors.	3.90	.99
I actively seek out new ideas and generate creative concepts to enhance my entrepreneurial ventures.	4.10	2.35
I translate my entrepreneurial ideas into action by developing clear implementation intentions and executing them effectively.	4.02	2.81
I make financial investments in my entrepreneurial ventures, allocating resources strategically to support business growth and development	3.80	1.09
I am committed to my entrepreneurial goals, setting clear objectives and actively working towards their attainment.	3.97	.97
I dedicate significant effort and time to tasks related to my entrepreneurial ventures, consistently putting in the necessary work to achieve desired outcomes.	3.93	1.01
I embrace innovation and proactively introduce new methods, technologies, or practices to improve the performance of my entrepreneurial endeavours.	3.94	.96
I generate and evaluate various ideas to identify potential opportunities and determine the best course of action for my entrepreneurial ventures.	3.98	1.03
Overall Entrepreneurial behaviour	**3.92**	**1.42**

Source: Field survey (2023)

From Table 12, the results revealed a mixed but predominantly positive perception regarding entrepreneurial behaviour among the students from the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education at the University of Cape Coast. While actively engaging in business planning (M = 3.83,

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SD = 2.74), demonstrating passion and persistence (M = 3.94, SD = 1.02), applying creativity (M = 3.90, SD = 0.99), seeking out new ideas (M = 4.10, SD = 2.35), and translating entrepreneurial ideas into action (M = 4.02, SD = 2.81) all exceeded 3.00, consistently identifying and seizing opportunities in the market (M = 3.75, SD = 1.03) and making financial investments in entrepreneurial ventures (M = 3.80, SD = 1.09) had relatively lower mean scores though they were above 3.00. Additionally, the students showed commitment to entrepreneurial goals (M = 3.97, SD = 0.97), dedication of effort and time to tasks (M = 3.93, SD = 1.01), and embraced innovation (M = 3.94, SD = 0.96).

Correlation Analysis

This part of the chapter tested the bivariate relationships between the variables. This served as a precursor to the main structural analysis to achieve the research objectives and test the corresponding hypotheses. To achieve this, the Pearson Product-moment correlation coefficient was conducted. The results are displayed in Table 13.

Table 13: Correlation between EE, EP, EI, and EB

Relationship	r	SD	P values
EE <-> EB	0.371	0.045	0.000
EI <-> EB	0.678	0.048	0.000
EI <-> EE	0.275	0.049	0.000
EP <-> EB	0.615	0.044	0.000
EP <-> EE	0.369	0.048	0.000
EP <-> EI	0.636	0.045	0.000

Note: EE = entrepreneurial experience, EP = experiential pedagogy, EI = entrepreneurial intention, EB = entrepreneurial behaviour; r = correlation coefficient, SD = standard deviation

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Source: Field survey (2023)

The correlation coefficients presented in Table 13 indicate the strength and direction of relationships between the different variables related to entrepreneurship, namely entrepreneurial experience (EE), experiential pedagogy (EP), entrepreneurial intention (EI), and entrepreneurial behavior (EB). The interpretation was done based on Cohen (1988). The result showed that there was a moderate positive correlation ($r = 0.371$, $p < 0.001$) between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial behaviour, suggesting that individuals with more entrepreneurial experience tend to exhibit higher levels of entrepreneurial behaviour. There was a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.678$, $p < 0.001$) between entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour, indicating that respondents with stronger entrepreneurial intentions are more likely to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour.

Furthermore, a weak positive correlation ($r = 0.275$, $p < 0.001$) was identified between entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial experience. This suggests that students with higher entrepreneurial intentions may have slightly more entrepreneurial experience, but the relationship is not very strong. There is also a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.615$, $p < 0.001$) between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour, signifying that respondents who have been exposed to effective experiential pedagogy are more likely to exhibit entrepreneurial behaviour.

A moderate positive correlation ($r = 0.369$, $p < 0.001$) was found between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial experience, implying that respondents

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who have received effective entrepreneurial education are more likely to have entrepreneurial experience. Between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention, there was a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.636$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that effective entrepreneurial education is associated with stronger entrepreneurial intentions.

Additionally, the relationship between the interaction of entrepreneurial experience and experiential pedagogy, and entrepreneurial behaviour, entrepreneurial experience, entrepreneurial intention and experiential pedagogy was analysed. A weak negative correlation ($r = -0.219$, $p = 0.001$) between the interaction of entrepreneurial experience and experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour was reported. This suggests that the combined effect of entrepreneurial experience and pedagogy may have a slight negative association with entrepreneurial behaviour.

Also, a weak positive correlation ($r = 0.077$, $p = 0.221$) between the interaction of entrepreneurial experience and experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial experience itself was found. However, this correlation is not statistically significant. Furthermore, a moderate negative correlation ($r = -0.278$, $p < 0.001$) was revealed between the interaction of entrepreneurial experience and experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention, indicating that the combined effect of entrepreneurial experience and pedagogy may have a slight negative association with entrepreneurial intention.

Finally, a moderate negative correlation ($r = -0.293$, $p < 0.001$) was reported between the interaction of entrepreneurial experience and experiential pedagogy

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and experiential pedagogy itself, implying that the combined effect of entrepreneurial experience and pedagogy may have a small negative association with the effectiveness of experiential pedagogy. In summary, the correlations indicated various relationships between entrepreneurial experience, pedagogy, intention, and behaviour, highlighting the importance of effective educational interventions and experiences in encouraging entrepreneurial intentions and behaviours.

Measurement Model

The partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) estimator was used to model the interplays between entrepreneurial experience, experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intention, and entrepreneurial behaviour. Regression results were generated using 5,000 bootstrap samples and hypotheses tested at the 5% significance level. Basically, PLS-SEM executes a double examination procedure, which is a description of the measurement model and analysis of the structural model (Becker et al., 2015). Whilst structural model is used if the measurement model specification ensures that constructs have adequate indicator loading, convergent validity, composite reliability, and discriminant validity, structural model assessment revolves around evaluation of path coefficients and their significance (Becker et al., 2015). The results in relation to the measurement model are displayed in Tables 13 and 14.

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Table 14: Factor loadings, CA, CR, and AVE

Constructs	Loadings	CA	CR (rho_a)	CR (rho_c)	AVE
EB	**-**	**0.943**	**0.953**	**0.952**	**0.631**
EB1 <- EB	0.766				
EB10 <- EB	0.865				
EB11 <- EB	0.824				
EB12 <- EB	0.852				
EB2 <- EB	0.818				
EB3 <- EB	0.836				
EB4 <- EB	0.790				
EB5 <- EB	0.852				
EB6 <- EB	0.309				
EB7 <- EB	0.848				
EB8 <- EB	0.772				
EB9 <- EB	0.836				
EE		**0.930**	**0.940**	**0.941**	**0.615**
EE1 <- EE	0.781				
EE10 <- EE	0.788				
EE2 <- EE	0.783				
EE3 <- EE	0.744				
EE4 <- EE	0.813				
EE5 <- EE	0.712				
EE6 <- EE	0.700				

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Table 14 Continued

EE7 <- EE	0.824				
EE8 <- EE	0.826				
EE9 <- EE	0.853				
EI		**0.952**	**0.954**	**0.957**	**0.599**
EI_PA1 <- EI	0.823				
EI_PA2 <- EI	0.790				
EI_PA3 <- EI	0.828				
EI_PA4 <- EI	0.778				
EI_PA5 <- EI	0.809				
EI_PD1 <- EI	0.709				
EI_PD2 <- EI	0.750				
EI_PD3 <- EI	0.754				
EI_PD4 <- EI	0.758				
EI_PD5 <- EI	0.672				
EI_PF1 <- EI	0.775				
EI_PF2 <- EI	0.749				
EI_PF3 <- EI	0.801				
EI_PF4 <- EI	0.797				
EI_PF5 <- EI	0.801				
EP		**0.953**	**0.953**	**0.957**	**0.585**
EP1 <- EP	0.748				
EP10 <- EP	0.755				

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Table 14 Continued

EP11 <- EP	0.746
EP12 <- EP	0.784
EP13 <- EP	0.773
EP14 <- EP	0.756
EP15 <- EP	0.792
EP16 <- EP	0.763
EP2 <- EP	0.725
EP3 <- EP	0.767
EP4 <- EP	0.749
EP5 <- EP	0.747
EP6 <- EP	0.793
EP7 <- EP	0.715
EP8 <- EP	0.815
EP9 <- EP	0.797

Note: EE = entrepreneurial experience, EP = experiential pedagogy, EI = entrepreneurial intention, EB = entrepreneurial behaviour; CA = Cronbach's Alpha, CR = composite reliability, AVE = average variance extracted; all significant at the 1% level
Source: Field survey (2023)

Table 13 presents factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability, and average variance extracted of the constructs in the study. A factor loading ranges between -1.0 and +1.0, where a higher value, in absolute terms, signifies a high correlation with a given factor (Pett et al., 2003). As could be seen in Table 13, the factor loadings across all indicators of the constructs used in this study

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indicated that the indicators were highly valid as the items retained had loadings from 0.700 (item EE6) to 0.865 (EB 10) with significance level at $p < 0.001$. These loadings were higher than the minimum of 0.5 suggested by Hair et al. (2016). None of the construct-defining items had loadings of less than 0.50.

Regarding reliability of the constructs, the Cronbach's Alpha (CA) statistics ranged from 0.930 to 0.953, indicating that the constructs were valid, considering the minimum threshold of 0.7 suggested by Sarstedt et al. (2020). In like manner, all the composite reliability (CR) coefficients were higher than the 0.70 minimum mark suggested by prior authors (Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt et al., 2020), further affirming the reliability of the constructs used in the study. In terms of the convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) statistics obtained across the various constructs ranged from 0.585 to 0.631, confirming convergent validity – as the minimum cut-off suggested (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and used in prior studies was 0.5 (Bossman & Agyei, 2022). Table 15 presents the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) statistics

Table 15: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

Relationship	Critical values	2.50%	97.50%
EE <-> EB	0.384	0.283	0.478
EI <-> EB	0.704	0.601	0.793
EI <-> EE	0.278	0.183	0.374
EP <-> EB	0.644	0.552	0.731
EP <-> EE	0.378	0.276	0.476
EP <-> EI	0.663	0.567	0.749

Note: EE = entrepreneurial experience, EP = experiential pedagogy, EI = entrepreneurial intention, EB = entrepreneurial behaviour
Source: Field survey (2023)

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The Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio shown in Table 15 demonstrated that there was discriminant validity, as none of the correlation statistics (i.e., critical values) exceeded the maximum cut-off of 0.9 suggested by Teo et al. (2008) or the 0.85 put forth by Kline (2011). Specifically, the HTMT score between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial behaviour was 0.384, whilst entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour was 0.704. Entrepreneurial intention against entrepreneurial experience showed a score of 0.278. Experiential pedagogy showed discriminant scores of 0.644, 0.378, and 0.663 with entrepreneurial behaviour, entrepreneurial experience, and entrepreneurial intention, correspondingly. Consequently, there was enough statistical evidence to conclude that construct discriminant validity was upheld in this study.

Structural Model of EP, EE, EI and EB

In the structural model, the hypotheses formulated were tested, and these are captured in Figure 1 and Table 15. Table 16 displays the goodness of fit estimations for the model, where values for commonly used assessors of goodness of fit, such as Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Chi-square and Normed Fit Index (NFI) (Hair et al., 2019) are presented.

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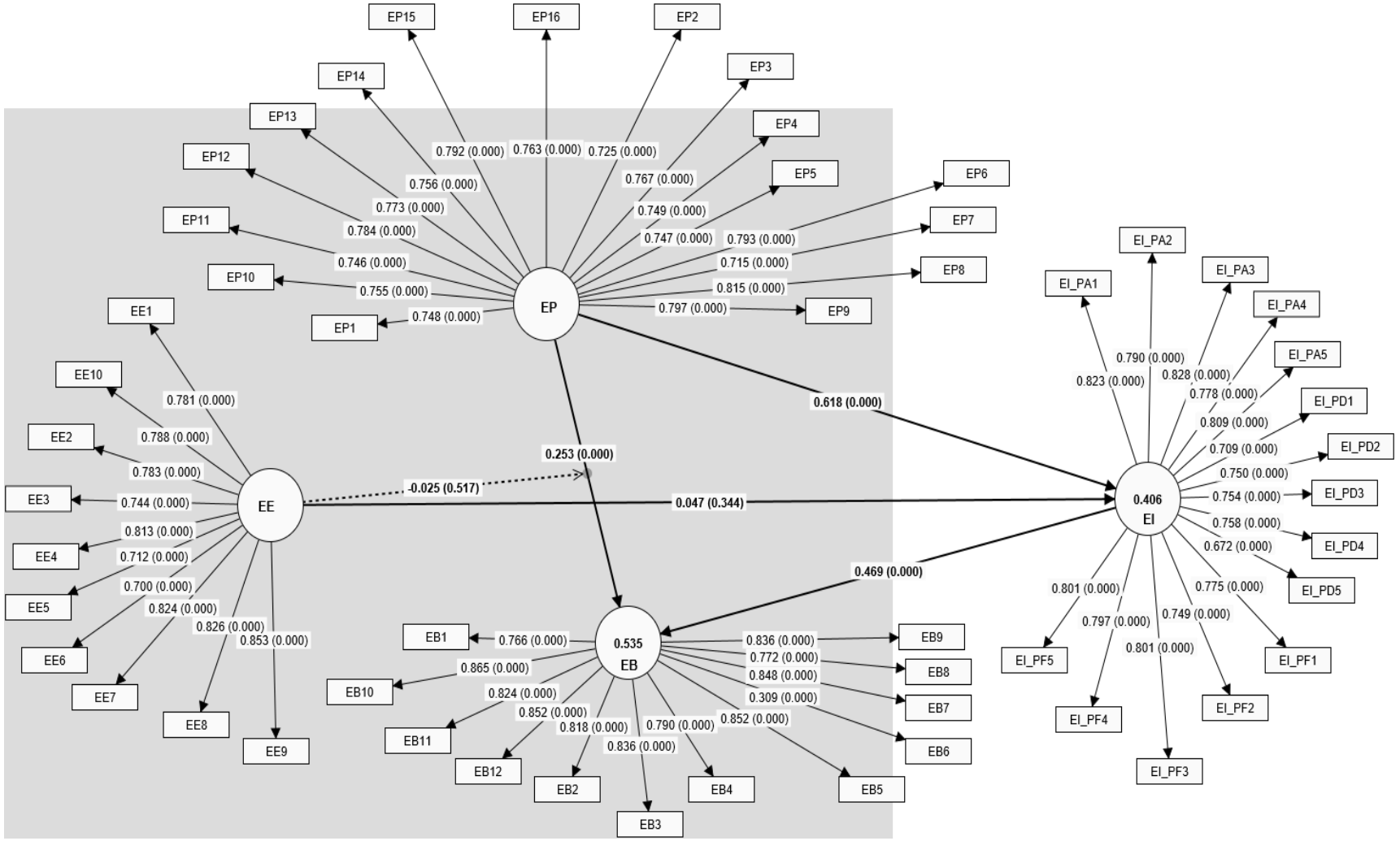

Figure 2: Structural model based on PLS-SEM bootstrapping
Note: EE = entrepreneurial experience, EP = experiential pedagogy, EI = entrepreneurial intention, EB = entrepreneurial behaviour
Source: Field survey (2023)

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Table 16: Path Coefficients

Relationship	β	T statistics	P values
EE -> EB	0.150	3.345	0.001
EE -> EI	0.047	0.947	0.344
EI -> EB	0.469	6.255	0.000
EP -> EB	0.253	3.801	0.000
EP -> EI	0.618	11.554	0.000
EE x EP -> EB	-0.025	0.648	0.517

Note: EE = entrepreneurial experience, EP = experiential pedagogy, EI = entrepreneurial intention, EB = entrepreneurial behaviour
Source: Field survey (2023)

The first research objective was to examine the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour. As could be seen from Figure 2 and Table 16, the results indicated that experiential pedagogy had a statistically significant positive effect on entrepreneurial behaviour ($\beta = 0.253$, $p > .001$). The second objective was to determine the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions, and the result was positive and statistically significant ($\beta = 0.618$, $p < .001$). The third objective analysed the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour, and the results revealed that entrepreneurial intention had a statistically significant positive effect on entrepreneurial behaviour ($\beta = 0.469$, $p < .001$).

The fourth objective examined the relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions, and it was shown that entrepreneurial experience had no significant relationship with entrepreneurial intention ($\beta = 0.047$, $p > .05$). However, a significant positive relationship was recorded between

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entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial behaviour (β = .15, p < .01), suggesting that as students' entrepreneurial experience increases, the likelihood to engage entrepreneurial behaviour also improves. Finally, the fifth objective assessed the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the experiential pedagogy-entrepreneurial behaviour linkage, and it was found that while entrepreneurial experience weakens the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour, the effect was statistically insignificant (β = -0.025, p > .05).

From Figure 2, it could be realised that, experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial experience, collectively, explained (40.6%) of the total variation in students' entrepreneurial intention (R^2 = 0.406). This was substantial as Ozili (2023) suggested a minimum of 30%. The remaining (59.4%) could be attributed to factors not captured in this model. Similarly, experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention, collectively, accounted for (53.5%) of the total variation in entrepreneurial behaviour of students (R^2 = 0.535). The remaining variance of (46.5%) could be attributed to conditions exogenous to the model estimated in this study. Table 17 displays the goodness of fit statistics.

Table 17: Model Fitness

Model	SRMR	NFI	d_ULS
Saturated model	0.054	0.831	19.036
Estimated model	0.054	0.804	20.767
Chi-square (*p < 0.001*)	1882.084		

Note: SRMR = Standardised root mean square residual, NFI =normalised fit index, d_ULS = degrees of freedom for the unweighted least squares
Source: Field survey (2024)

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In terms of SRMR, the statistics suggested a good model fit (SRMR = 0.054) as values lower than or around 0.08 are considered indicative of good fit in PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2019). Similarly, based on Anwar and Shah (2020), the NFI statistic of 0.804 indicated a good model fit. Furthermore, considering the Chi-square statistics ($\chi^2 = 1882.084$, $p < 0.001$) in light of the SRMR and NFI statistics, a good model fit could be said to have been achieved (Hair et al., 2019; Hair et al., 2020), implying that the results obtained were statistically robust, valid and reliable (Hair et al., 2020).

Summary of Hypotheses Test Outcomes

Table 18 displays a summary of the hypotheses tests. The hypotheses, test results, decision and conclusion are highlighted.

Table 18: Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Test results	Decision	Conclusion
1. H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.	β = 0.253 t = 3.801 p < 0.001	Rejected	There is a statistically significant positive effect of experiential pedagogy on entrepreneurial behaviour.
2. H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention.	β = 0.618 t = 11.554 p < 0.001	Rejected	There is a statistically significant positive effect of experiential pedagogy on entrepreneurial intention.

Table 18 Continued

3. H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and	β = 0.469 t = 6.255 p < 0.001	Rejected	There is a statistically significant positive effect of entrepreneurial

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entrepreneurial behaviour.			intentions on entrepreneurial behaviour.
4. H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions.	β = 0.047 t = 0.947 p > 0.05	Failed to reject	There is no statistically significant relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions.
5. H0: Entrepreneurial experience does not moderate the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.	β = -0.025 t = 0.648 p > 0.05	Failed to reject	Entrepreneurial experience does not significantly moderate the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.

Source: Field survey (2023)

Discussion

This section discusses the relevant results obtained. The discussion is presented in the order in which the research objectives were displayed. Thus, the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour, the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions, relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour, the relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions, and the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour. However, the descriptive and correlation results are discussed first in the succeeding paragraphs.

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The findings from the descriptive analysis indicate that students from the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education at the University of Cape Coast generally have limited entrepreneurial experience. While some respondents possessed industry-specific knowledge and leveraged past experiences for decision-making, few had actively started or managed businesses, held significant positions in ventures, or accumulated substantial entrepreneurial experience. These results align with Goemaere et al. (2016) and Mueller et al. (2014), who emphasise that theoretical exposure alone is insufficient for fostering entrepreneurial readiness; instead, hands-on experience plays a crucial role in developing entrepreneurial competencies, as highlighted by Newbery et al. (2018), Clarke & Holt, 2019, Murnieks et al. (2020), and Gielnik et al. (2018).

The results also indicate a generally positive perception of experiential pedagogy among students. The high mean scores across various aspects of experiential learning, including active participation, critical thinking, and practical application of knowledge, suggest that students found the instructional approaches effective in bridging theory and practice. These findings are consistent with Murnieks et al. (2020), who emphasise the role of experiential learning in fostering entrepreneurial skills and confidence. Moreover, the strong agreement on the effectiveness of project-based learning and business plan development supports existing literature, such as Clarke and Holt (2019) and Dillon et al. (2020), which advocate for integrating real-world experiences into entrepreneurship education.

Furthermore, the findings indicate a strong entrepreneurial intention among students, suggesting that the university's entrepreneurship education is effectively

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fostering a positive entrepreneurial mindset, aligning with studies such as Jumamil et al. (2017) and Mahfud (2020), which emphasise the role of education in shaping entrepreneurial aspirations. The high levels of enthusiasm, confidence, and resilience observed among respondents further support the argument that exposure to entrepreneurship education enhances students' readiness to pursue business ventures. However, while these results indicate a strong alignment with entrepreneurial intentions, previous studies (e.g., Mahfud, 2020) highlight that intention alone may not always translate into actual entrepreneurial activity.

The findings also indicate a predominantly positive perception of entrepreneurial behaviour among the students. The relatively high mean scores for key entrepreneurial attributes, such as innovation, commitment, and proactive implementation of ideas, suggest that students are enthusiastic about entrepreneurship and willing to invest time and effort into their ventures. These results agree with Schlaegel and Koenig (2014), who found that entrepreneurial intentions are strongly linked to individuals' commitment and proactive behaviour. However, the relatively lower mean scores for consistently identifying and seizing opportunities, as well as making financial investments, indicate some hesitancy or lack of confidence in practical execution, which is consistent with Liñán and Fayolle (2015), who noted that entrepreneurial intention does not always translate into immediate business action.

The correlation analysis revealed significant relationships between entrepreneurial experience, experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intention, and entrepreneurial behaviour. A strong positive correlation between entrepreneurial

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intention and entrepreneurial behaviour suggests that students with strong intentions are more likely to engage in entrepreneurial activities. Similarly, experiential pedagogy was strongly linked to both entrepreneurial behaviour and intention, emphasising the role of effective entrepreneurial education in fostering these traits (Ismail et al., 2018).

While entrepreneurial experience showed a moderate correlation with entrepreneurial behaviour, its relationship with entrepreneurial intention was weaker, indicating that prior experience alone may not strongly predict intention. Interestingly, the interaction between entrepreneurial experience and experiential pedagogy showed weak to moderate negative correlations with entrepreneurial behaviour, intention, and pedagogy itself, suggesting that their combined effect may not always enhance entrepreneurial outcomes. Overall, these findings highlight the pivotal role of experiential learning in shaping entrepreneurial behaviour and intentions while also revealing complexities in how experience and education interact.

Experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour

The first research objective examined the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour among University of Cape Coast students. The study revealed that enhanced experiential pedagogy significantly influences entrepreneurial behaviour within the student population. This finding could be attributed to several factors. Firstly, experiential pedagogy emphasises active learning through hands-on experiences, allowing students to gain practical skills and insights crucial for entrepreneurship. Secondly, such pedagogy facilitates skill

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development by providing opportunities for problem-solving, critical thinking, and decision-making in contexts resembling real-world entrepreneurial challenges.

In addition, engagement in experiential learning activities not only enhances students' motivation and confidence in their entrepreneurial capabilities but also encourages a proactive approach to entrepreneurial pursuits. This increased self-assurance and drive contribute to a mindset primed for innovation, resilience, and the identification of opportunities – essential traits for entrepreneurial success (Ismail et al., 2018). As students actively participate in hands-on experiences and reflect on their learning outcomes, they internalise these entrepreneurial principles, shaping their behaviours and decision-making processes. Ultimately, the cultivation of an entrepreneurial mindset through experiential pedagogy lays a solid groundwork for students to navigate the complexities of entrepreneurship with adaptability and creativity, promoting a culture of innovation and growth within academic environments.

This finding validates Kolb's experiential learning theory, which posits that experiential pedagogy encourages learning through concrete experiences, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation (Kolb & Kolb, 2009). Aligning with this theoretical framework, the study underscores the pivotal role of experiential pedagogy in nurturing entrepreneurial behaviour among students. Through active engagement in experiential learning activities, students acquire practical skills and insights essential for entrepreneurship, reinforcing the theoretical principles advocated by Kolb's framework. Consequently, the relationship between enhanced experiential pedagogy and heightened

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entrepreneurial behaviour affirms the efficacy of incorporating experiential learning approaches into entrepreneurship education.

Moreover, prior studies by Olokundun et al. (2018) and Jumamil et al. (2017) provide further substantiation to the notion that experiential pedagogy has the capacity to catalyse genuine entrepreneurial engagement. These studies underscore the transformative influence of experiential learning methodologies in developing not only the requisite entrepreneurial mindset but also the essential skills and behaviours vital for entrepreneurial success. The finding also resonates with findings from previous empirical investigations conducted by Ismail et al. (2018), Kirkley (2017), Kozlinska et al. (2020), and Olokundun et al. (2018), collectively emphasising the significant role played by experiential pedagogy in stimulating entrepreneurial activity and ensuring a culture of entrepreneurship among students.

Experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions

The second research objective delved into understanding the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions among students of the University of Cape Coast. The results yielded a significant finding, suggesting that improved experiential pedagogy plays a crucial role in encouraging entrepreneurial intentions among students. This finding can be understood through several lenses. For instance, experiential pedagogy, which emphasises active learning through hands-on experiences, immerses students in practical entrepreneurial activities, sparking their interest and passion for entrepreneurship.

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Also, by developing essential entrepreneurial skills and enhancing students' confidence in their abilities, experiential pedagogy instills a sense of self-efficacy, driving their intentions to pursue entrepreneurial ventures. Furthermore, exposure to real entrepreneurs and industry experts serves as inspiration, motivating students to emulate their success and aspire towards their entrepreneurial goals. Additionally, the innovative and creative aspects of experiential learning encourage students to explore new opportunities, shaping their entrepreneurial mindset and solidifying their intentions to engage in entrepreneurial pursuits.

This finding resonates with Kolb's experiential learning theory. Kolb posits that learning is most effective when individuals engage in a cyclical process of concrete experiences, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984). The finding also correlates with the theory of planned behaviour, which suggests that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control influence intentions, and subsequently, actual behaviour (Landry et al., 2016). Enhanced experiential pedagogy likely influences students' attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived control related to entrepreneurship, thereby positively shaping their intentions to engage in entrepreneurial activities (Goemaere et al., 2016).

Furthermore, the finding corroborates the conclusions drawn in prior studies conducted by Uddin and Bose (2012), Aslam et al. (2012), Ambad and Damit (2016), Kisolo (2016), Joseph (2017), and van Ewijk et al. (2020). These studies have highlighted the positive effect of experiential learning approaches on the promotion of entrepreneurial intentions among diverse student populations. This

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convergence of findings underlines the robustness of the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions across various contexts and reinforces the importance of incorporating experiential learning methodologies into entrepreneurship education to cultivate a new generation of entrepreneurial leaders.

Entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour

The third research objective analysed the connection between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour among students. The findings revealed that students with high levels of entrepreneurial intention are more likely to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour. In other words, a strong desire or intention to pursue entrepreneurship serves as a motivating factor that drives students to take tangible actions towards starting and operating their own ventures. This finding indicates the importance of entrepreneurial intentions as a precursor to entrepreneurial behaviour and highlights the significant role that mindset and motivation play in shaping students' actual entrepreneurial activities.

This finding may be attributed to several factors. Firstly, strong entrepreneurial intentions often reflect individuals' passion, interest, and commitment towards entrepreneurship, which in turn, propel them to actively pursue entrepreneurial opportunities and initiatives. Individuals with high levels of entrepreneurial intentions are likely to exhibit greater persistence, resilience, and determination in overcoming challenges and obstacles encountered during the entrepreneurial journey, thereby increasing the likelihood of engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour.

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Additionally, entrepreneurial intentions may serve as a guiding force, influencing individuals' decision-making processes and actions towards entrepreneurial pursuits. Thus, individuals with strong entrepreneurial intentions may actively seek out resources, networks, and opportunities conducive to entrepreneurship, further facilitating their engagement in entrepreneurial behaviour. This is in line with the theory of planned behavior, which posits that intentions are a key determinant of behaviour (Kisolo, 2016), arguing that individuals are more likely to engage in a behaviour if they have strong intentions to do so (Landry et al., 2016).

The finding is consistent with prior empirical studies conducted by Malebana (2014), Neneh (2019), Bogatyreva et al. (2019), Meoli et al. (2020), and Li et al. (2020). These studies support the notion that strong entrepreneurial intentions serve as a motivating force that drives individuals to engage in entrepreneurial activities and initiatives. For instance, Li et al. (2020) demonstrated that entrepreneurial intentions influence individuals' mindset and motivation on actual entrepreneurial actions. This agreement of findings across multiple studies reinforces the reliability of the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and behaviour, highlighting the pivotal role of intentions in shaping entrepreneurial outcomes among varied populations.

Entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions

The fourth research objective examined the relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions. It was revealed that entrepreneurial experience had no significant effect on entrepreneurial intentions.

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The absence of a significant effect of entrepreneurial experience on entrepreneurial intentions could be attributed to several plausible reasons. One, individuals may perceive entrepreneurial experience differently based on the nature and context of their prior entrepreneurial endeavours. For instance, students who have encountered unsuccessful entrepreneurial ventures may become more cautious or hesitant in developing future entrepreneurial intentions, whereas those with successful experiences may feel more confident and motivated to pursue additional entrepreneurial opportunities.

Additionally, the timing and sequence of entrepreneurial experiences relative to the measurement of entrepreneurial intentions could also impact the observed relationship. Individuals may reassess their entrepreneurial intentions based on recent experiences or changes in their circumstances, which may not be fully captured in the analysis. This result also underscores the complexity and multifaceted nature of entrepreneurial decision-making, highlighting the need for comprehensive approaches to understanding the dynamics between experience, intentions, and entrepreneurial outcomes.

To some extent, this finding is in alignment with the theory of planned behaviour, which posits that intentions are primarily influenced by attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, rather than past experiences alone (Ajzen, 1985; Fernández-Pérez et al., 2019). According to this theory, individuals form intentions based on their beliefs about the outcomes of behaviour, social pressures to perform the behaviour, and their perceived ability to execute the behaviour (Goemaere et al., 2016). This suggests that in the context of

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entrepreneurship, while past entrepreneurial experiences may shape individuals' attitudes and perceptions towards entrepreneurship, they may not directly influence their intentions if they do not perceive themselves as capable or if social norms do not support their entrepreneurial aspirations.

It should however be pointed out that while the present finding suggests that entrepreneurial experience does not significantly affect entrepreneurial intentions, some related empirical studies, such as Jumamil et al. (2017), Bloemen-Bekx et al. (2019), Bignotti and le Roux (2020) and Akhter et al. (2020), have indicated that entrepreneurial experience might positively influence entrepreneurial intentions among individuals. These studies suggested that individuals who have prior entrepreneurial experience are more likely to develop stronger intentions to engage in entrepreneurship in the future.

The divergent findings by these studies regarding the relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions may arise from several factors. Firstly, variations in sample characteristics, such as cultural backgrounds, educational levels, and levels of entrepreneurial exposure, may influence individuals' perceptions and responses to entrepreneurial experience. Additionally, differences in the operationalisation and measurement of entrepreneurial experience and intentions across studies could contribute to divergent findings.

Moreover, methodological differences, such as study design, data collection methods, and statistical analyses, may also impact the observed relationships. Furthermore, contextual factors, such as economic conditions, industry dynamics, and entrepreneurial ecosystems, could play a role in shaping the relationship

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between entrepreneurial experience and intentions. All in all, the opposing findings highlight the complexity of the relationship and underscore the importance of considering various contextual and methodological factors in analysing the entrepreneurial experience-entrepreneurial intention nexus, as it appears the existing findings are not definite.

Entrepreneurial experience, experiential pedagogy, and entrepreneurial behaviour

The fifth research objective determined the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour. It was found that entrepreneurial experience though attenuates the effectiveness of the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour, the effect was insignificant. This could be due to the fact that individuals with prior entrepreneurial experience may already possess certain entrepreneurial skills, knowledge, and mindset acquired through their past ventures. Consequently, they may derive less additional benefit from experiential pedagogy compared to individuals with limited or no entrepreneurial experience.

Additionally, the effectiveness of experiential pedagogy in promoting entrepreneurial behaviour may depend on various contextual factors, such as the quality of the learning experiences, the relevance of the content to individuals' entrepreneurial goals, and the degree of alignment between pedagogical approaches and students' learning preferences. This finding challenges Olokundun et al. (2020), Türk (2020), Pazos et al. (2022), and Duong (2023) who reported conflicting results regarding how entrepreneurial experience may influence the

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relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour. The inconsistent findings may be due to differences in socio-cultural environments of the research settings of the various studies.

Chapter Summary

The chapter presents the study results and corresponding discussions. Alongside a brief overview of respondents' demographic information, summary descriptive statistics for key variables were provided and discussed. The measurement model was thoroughly examined. The main analyses revealed a significant positive effect of experiential pedagogy on entrepreneurial behaviour. Additionally, experiential pedagogy demonstrated a statistically significant positive effect on entrepreneurial intention. Entrepreneurial intention was found to have a significant positive influence on entrepreneurial behaviour. However, entrepreneurial experience does not significantly affect entrepreneurial intention, and does not moderate the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to assess the effects of experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention on entrepreneurial behaviour, taking cognisance of the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour among students. This chapter presents the Summary, Key Findings, Conclusions, Recommendations, and Suggestions for Further Studies. The Summary section briefly presents an overview of what has been done so far, whilst the Key Findings section outlines the main outcomes of the study. Conclusions section displays the general and the specific implications and deductions drawn from the key findings, as the Recommendations section outlines applicable policy-driven and context-specific suggestions based on the conclusions drawn. Finally, the Suggestion for Further Research section outlines avenues for further research possibilities.

Summary

Organised in five chapters, this study dwelled on the fact that encouraging entrepreneurial behaviour among students could drive employment, consequently reducing the rate of unemployment in Ghana. Drawing on the experiential learning theory, the theory of planned behaviour, and the social learning theory, it was argued that experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intention, and entrepreneurial experience could promote entrepreneurial behaviour among students in the

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University of Cape Coast. Predicated on this assertion, this study assessed the effects of experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention on entrepreneurial behaviour, taking cognisance of the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour among students.

To achieve this, the study was anchored in the positivists' paradigm, while following the explanatory research design. Due to its robustness and high statistical power, the PLS-SEM was used to analyse the data collected through a survey administered to 400 respondents of which 93.5% response rate was obtained. Both descriptive and inferential results were conducted, and the key outcomes are as outlined under Key Findings.

Key Findings

The first research objective sought to examine the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour among students of the University of Cape Coast. The following key finding emerged:

1. Experiential pedagogy had a statistically significant positive effect on the entrepreneurial behaviour of students of the University of Cape Coast.

The second research objective was to determine the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions. The following key finding was revealed:

1. Experiential pedagogy significantly and positively affected entrepreneurial intentions of students of the University of Cape Coast.

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The third objective intended to analyse the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial behaviour. The following key finding emerged:

1. Entrepreneurial intentions had a significant positive influence on entrepreneurial behaviour among students of the University of Cape Coast.

The fourth research objective was to examine the relationship between entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial intentions. The following key finding was revealed:

1. Entrepreneurial experience had no significant effect on entrepreneurial intentions of students of the University of Cape Coast.

The fifth and final research objective intended to determine the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience in the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour. The following finding became evident:

1. Entrepreneurial experience had no significant moderating effect on the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour.

The following notable results also emerged:

1. There was, generally, a low level of entrepreneurial experience among the students of University of Cape Coast ($M = 2.89 \pm 1.25$).
2. Overall, the experiential pedagogy implemented the School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education at the University of Cape Coast was deemed successful in engaging

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students and nurturing their development as entrepreneurs (M = 3.84±1.03).

3. There was a strong alignment of intentions towards entrepreneurship among the students (M = 4.11±0.96).
4. Students of the University of Cape Coast demonstrated willingness and proclivity towards entrepreneurial behaviour (M = 3.92±1.42).

Conclusions

Generally, the findings affirmed the assertions of the Kolb's experiential learning theory, theory of planned behaviour, and the social learning theory regarding the interplays among experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial behaviour, entrepreneurial experience, and entrepreneurial intentions, in parts. Specifically, the study concluded that experiential pedagogy significantly and positively influences entrepreneurial behaviour; hence, rejection of the first null hypothesis. Similarly, it was resolved that experiential pedagogy promotes entrepreneurial intentions. In like manner, the study arrived at the conclusion that entrepreneurial intention is an antecedent to entrepreneurial behaviour among students. However, while entrepreneurial experience does not have any noteworthy influence on entrepreneurial intentions, it also lacks the tenacity to strengthen the effectiveness of experiential pedagogy in encouraging entrepreneurial behaviour among students.

The foregoing suggests that, indeed, experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial intentions are precursors to entrepreneurial behaviour among students of the University of Cape Coast. Moreover, it was evident that if experiential pedagogy is enhanced, students' entrepreneurial intention may be

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promoted. This underscores the importance of integrating entrepreneurship education into Ghana's education system. This is to say that if entrepreneurship education is promoted in tertiary institutions, students' entrepreneurial intention will be whetted, consequently culminating in actual entrepreneurial behaviour or activities. However, in the development of entrepreneurial intentions, prior entrepreneurial experience may not be necessary. Similarly, entrepreneurial experience may not be a factor to place more emphasis on when promoting experiential pedagogy to drive entrepreneurial behaviour among students, as this relationship does not appear to be contingent on entrepreneurial experience.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and the conclusions drawn thereof, the following recommendations have been outlined.

1. The School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education at the University of Cape Coast (UCC) should integrate more experiential pedagogy methods into their entrepreneurship curriculum. The faculty and curriculum development committees should collaborate with industry professionals to design hands-on learning modules, such as case studies, simulations, and problem-based learning, to enhance entrepreneurial behaviour. Additionally, the university administration should allocate funding and resources to train educators in experiential teaching methodologies, ensuring they can effectively implement these strategies.

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2. The academic leadership of UCC, in partnership with external entrepreneurship organisations, should organise workshops, entrepreneurship boot camps, and industry networking events to expose students to real-world entrepreneurial experiences. Student entrepreneurship clubs and innovation hubs should also be empowered with funding and mentorship to facilitate peer-driven experiential learning activities. These initiatives should be actively promoted through student engagement programmes to ensure maximum participation.
3. The university's business incubation centre and entrepreneurship support offices should introduce structured mentorship programmes, pairing students with successful entrepreneurs and alumni who have launched businesses. Additionally, career services department should collaborate with local businesses and startup accelerators to provide internships, business competitions, and seed funding opportunities to encourage students to take concrete entrepreneurial actions beyond the classroom.
4. The School of Agriculture and the School of Vocational and Technical Education should partner with government agencies, industry associations, and NGOs to establish internship placements, field projects, and student-led startup initiatives where students can gain hands-on entrepreneurial experience. Enterprise Ghana and other national entrepreneurship development programmes should be engaged to provide funding and training for students to work on real business challenges, thereby strengthening their practical knowledge.

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5. Since the findings suggest that experiential pedagogy remains beneficial irrespective of prior entrepreneurial experience, the university should institutionalise experiential learning as a core approach across all entrepreneurship courses. The teaching and innovation centres at UCC should take the lead in training educators on innovative teaching methods that encourage entrepreneurial mindsets. Additionally, the university management should explore partnerships with venture capitalists and business development organisations to support student-driven entrepreneurial initiatives, ensuring that all students, regardless of experience levels, have access to hands-on learning opportunities.

Suggestions for Further Research

The following suggestions could be considered for further studies on entrepreneurial experience, experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intensions, and entrepreneurial behaviour.

1. Future research should have a broader scope, including entrepreneurship students from other universities in Ghana besides those in the University of Cape Coast. Expanding the geographical coverage of an entrepreneurial study is crucial not only for generating a comprehensive body of knowledge that captures the perspectives and methods across universities in Ghana but also for encouraging collaborative efforts and enhancing entrepreneurial practices on a nationwide basis.
2. Future research agenda focusing on longitudinal studies that encompass all entrepreneurship schools or departments in universities across Ghana,

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analysing data objectively collected, would be a promising and relevant direction for further investigation. These studies could explore aspects of entrepreneurial experience, experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intensions, and their effects on entrepreneurial behaviour. Adopting a longitudinal design would allow researchers to track changes and trends over time, providing deeper insights into the dynamics of entrepreneurial behaviour. This approach could enhance the applicability and generalisability of findings, contributing to the literature on antecedents of entrepreneurial behaviour and how these influence this behaviour.

3. Building on the study's findings, where entrepreneurial experience was observed to have no significant influence on the relationship between experiential pedagogy and entrepreneurial behaviour among students of the schools involved in the study, as well as the low level of entrepreneurial experience among the students, future research should explore this phenomenon further. This unexpected relationship challenges conventional assumptions as depicted in the conceptual framework (Figure 1), underscoring the need for deeper investigations into the factors influencing entrepreneurial experience and behaviour of students in universities across Ghana. This may contribute to refining entrepreneurship education and training, enhancing students' interest in entrepreneurial ventures.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

EXPERIENTIAL PEDAGOGY, ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS AND STUDENTS' ENTREPRENEURIAL BEHAVIOR: THE MODERATING ROLE OF ENTREPRENEURIAL EXPERIENCE

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is being used to gather information on experiential pedagogy, entrepreneurial intentions, and students' entrepreneurial behaviour: the moderating role of entrepreneurial experience. Please respond by ticking the appropriate option. Please be assured that the information provided will be used solely for academic purposes. All information shall be treated as confidential. Thank you for your co-operation.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

D1. Sex

1. Male [ ]

2. Female [ ]

D2. Age

1. 18-20 [ ]

2. 21-30 [ ]

3. 31-40 [ ]

4. 40+ [ ]

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D3. Level

1. Undergraduate [ ]

2. Postgraduate [ ]

3. Others [ ]

D4. School/ Faculty

1. School of Agricultural Sciences [ ]

2. School of Vocational and Technical Education [ ]

SECTION B: ENTREPRENEURIAL EXPERIENCE

This section captures any prior experience before taking the Entrepreneurship course. Please rate the extent of agreement using one (**Strongly disagree**) as the least agreement to seven (**Strongly agree**) as the highest agreement to the statements below.

SN	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I have actively started or managed my own business.					
2	I have held a significant position (founder or co-founder) in a business venture.					
3	I have successfully launched multiple businesses in the past.					
4	I have achieved notable success with my previous entrepreneurial ventures.					
5	I have managed businesses of varying sizes and complexities					
6	I possess industry-specific knowledge and expertise relevant to entrepreneurship					

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7	I have actively utilized my entrepreneurial experience to make informed business decisions.					
8	I have accumulated substantial years of experience in entrepreneurship.					
9	I have leveraged my past entrepreneurial experiences to identify and seize new business opportunities.					
10	I have developed a wide network of contacts within the business and entrepreneurial community.					

SECTION C: EXPERIENTIAL PEDAGOGY

This section captures the teaching method adopted and the experience during the Entrepreneurship course. Please rate the extent of agreement using one (**Strongly disagree**) as the least agreement to seven (**Strongly agree**) as the highest agreement to the statements below.

SN	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	The course provided opportunities for me to engage in realistic and practical experiences related to entrepreneurship.					
2	I was able to actively participate in simulations and activities that mirrored real-world entrepreneurial challenges.					
3	The course utilized demonstrations and presentations that allowed me to grasp entrepreneurial concepts through direct experiences.					
4	The learning activities encouraged me to explore and interact with social problems and situations relevant to entrepreneurship.					

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5	I had the chance to reflect on my experiences and ideas related to entrepreneurship throughout the course.					
6	The course provided opportunities for me to engage in critical self-reflection and thoughtful observation of my learning experiences.					
7	I was encouraged to engage in class discussions and share my perspectives on entrepreneurial topics.					
8	Practices incorporated into the course, allowed me to analyse and make sense of my entrepreneurial experiences.					
9	The pedagogical methods employed in the course motivated me to actively think and generate creative ideas regarding entrepreneurship.					
10	Visual representations and project-based learning activities were used to help me conceptualize and understand entrepreneurial concepts.					
11	The course encouraged me to develop my own thought processes and solutions rather than relying on pre-determined answers.					
12	I was provided with opportunities to explore and experiment with different business concepts and ideas.					
13	The course emphasized active testing and experimentation of entrepreneurial ideas in real-life situations.					

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14	I had the chance to develop and refine my entrepreneurial skills through writing a business plan.					
15	The business plan allowed me to bridge the gap between theory and practice by applying my knowledge to the creation of a new product or service.					
16	The course empowered me to take action and become more confident in pursuing entrepreneurial opportunities					

SECTION D: ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION

This section captures the intentions of respondents to undertake an entrepreneurial activity. Please rate the extent of agreement using one (**Strongly disagree**) as the least agreement to seven (**Strongly agree**) as the highest agreement to the statements below.

SN	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	Perceived Desirability					
1	A career as an entrepreneur is attractive and thought of starting a business enthuses me					
2	If I had the opportunity and resources, I would like to start a business					
3	Being an entrepreneur would be a great satisfaction for me					

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4	Among various options, I would rather be an entrepreneur					
5	Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages					
Perceived Feasibility						
1	I believe I have the potential to successfully start and operate a new business venture.					
2	I consider the required knowledge and skills, availability of resources, market conditions, and competitive environment before starting a business.					
3	I assess my skills, resources, and external factors that may impact the success of my business idea.					
4	My prior experiences, education, and training contribute to my confidence in starting and operating a new business venture.					
5	I feel confident in my ability to acquire the necessary skills and resources to start and operate a successful business.					
Propensity to Act						
1	My mind-set and attitude are geared towards starting and developing a new business venture.					
2	I am willing to take the necessary steps, such as researching the market, developing a business plan, seeking funding, and launching a business.					
3	Despite potential challenges, I am determined to overcome them and start a new venture.					

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4	I consider my personality traits, past experiences, social and cultural factors, and environmental factors in my decision to start a business.					
5	I am aware that fear of failure, lack of resources, and external constraints may affect my decision to start a new venture, but I am still motivated to take action.					

SECTION E: ENTREPRENEURIAL BEHAVIOUR

This section captures the entrepreneurial behaviour of respondents which focuses on the actual entrepreneurial activities that have been done. Please rate the extent of agreement using one (**Strongly disagree**) as the least agreement to seven (**Strongly agree**) as the highest agreement to the statements below.

SN	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I actively engage in business planning to outline strategies and objectives for my entrepreneurial ventures.					
2	I consistently identify and seize opportunities in the market to create new business ventures or improve existing ones.					
3	I demonstrate a strong passion for my entrepreneurial endeavours, putting in dedicated effort and energy to make them successful.					
4	I exhibit persistence in the face of challenges and setbacks, continuously striving to overcome obstacles and achieve my entrepreneurial goals.					

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5	I apply creativity to develop innovative solutions and products that differentiate my business from competitors.					
6	I actively seek out new ideas and generate creative concepts to enhance my entrepreneurial ventures.					
7	I translate my entrepreneurial ideas into action by developing clear implementation intentions and executing them effectively.					
8	I make financial investments in my entrepreneurial ventures, allocating resources strategically to support business growth and development					
9	I am committed to my entrepreneurial goals, setting clear objectives and actively working towards their attainment.					
10	I dedicate significant effort and time to tasks related to my entrepreneurial ventures, consistently putting in the necessary work to achieve desired outcomes.					
11	I embrace innovation and proactively introduce new methods, technologies, or practices to improve the performance of my entrepreneurial endeavours.					
12	I generate and evaluate various ideas to identify potential opportunities and determine the best course of action for my entrepreneurial ventures.					

Thank you.

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