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DOES ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION DETERMINE ENTREPRENEURIAL MOTIVATION AMONG UNIVERSITY GRADUATES: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

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ABSTRACT

The study seeks to know if the acquired knowledge from entrepreneurship education offered in the university enhances and moderates entrepreneurship competencies on entrepreneurial motivation. The study employs qualitative interviews and a cross-sectional survey of 300 graduates cutting across different faculties. The study finds that entrepreneurship education is a requisite to entrepreneurship motivation. It also reveals that entrepreneurship motivation could predict through entrepreneurship competencies. Contrary to the common belief that entrepreneurship education is a requisite to entrepreneurship motivation and competencies, this study reveals otherwise. It shows that entrepreneurship education does not account for graduates' motivation to become entrepreneurs. The study recommends that entrepreneurship education should direct towards developing the psychology of graduates along the path of entrepreneurship to boost entrepreneurial motivation, skills, and critical thought. The study contributes to research on entrepreneurship. Specifically, it seeks to determine if the knowledge acquired from entrepreneurship education influences entrepreneurship competencies on entrepreneurial motivation.

Keywords: entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurial motivation, university graduates, entrepreneurship competencies.

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship is key to economic well-being (Otekunrin, Akintunde, Lawal & Rotimi, 2013). It means the formation and application of new ideas to enhance well-being. It is also so as an engine of growth. Various studies have upheld these claims. For example, Rasmussen & Sorheim (2006) assert that entrepreneurship represents a significant driver of economic growth and sustainability. They also add that entrepreneurship is a mechanism of social transformation and development prospects in a situation characterized by high

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volatility, uncertainty, and complexity. Following these, therefore, Mayhew, Simonoff, Baumol, Wiesenfeld & Klein (2012) assert that promoting entrepreneurial philosophy may serve as a panacea to complex issues like economic stagnation, high unemployment rate, and low productivity.

Consequently, entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education would be required to create and sustain business structure in a complex, dynamic, ambiguous, uncertain, and volatile business environment. Hence, Rondstadt (1985) avows that educating competent people to drive and sustain established business outfits is a priority for business stakeholders and policymakers. While entrepreneurship education has significantly expanded and appreciated in several developed and industrialized nations, there is want of evidence for entrepreneurship education in developing and emerging countries (see Rae, Malay, McGowan & Penaluna, 2014; Malay & Carey, 2006; Rae, Martin, Antcliff & Hannon, 2012). Several developing countries have evolved and introduced entrepreneurship education into the university education curriculum to support entrepreneurship growth. However, appraising the influence of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial motivation is lacking within developing countries. The need for introducing entrepreneurship into the university curriculum is informed by the fact that universities are active agents contributing to their environs' socio-economic development (see Sarmento, 2016). In the context of the assumption of Sarmento, entrepreneurship education serves as a strategic reaction that could contribute to a rise in entrepreneurial activities in a region (Laukken, 2000). This study implies that the university is in charge of increasing entrepreneurial competence among university students.

According to Rasmussen and Sorheim (2006) and Sarmento (2016), entrepreneurial education in the university look forward to motivating students toward future entrepreneurial challenges and activities. Despite this contribution, with the want of evidence, it remains unclear whether entrepreneurship education motivates graduates from the university in developing countries, including Nigeria. The question therefore remains, does entrepreneurship education motivates entrepreneurship among university graduates? This l study could only research empirically. In addition, there is no general agreement on the theory of entrepreneurship education despite its recognition from the social and economic viewpoint (Sarmento, 2016; Henry, Hill & Leitch (2005). In addition, Sarmento (2016) and Gorman, Hanlon & King (1997) noted that there is also no general agreement on how entrepreneurship education impact motivations and entrepreneurship skill. These assumptions are related to the belief that entrepreneurship is still at the infantry stage (see Sarmento, 2016; Brazeal & Herbert, 1999). Furthermore, several studies share this view that the study of entrepreneurship education is at the exploratory stage (see Gorman Graevenitz et al., 2010; Sarmento, 2016). Consequently, Fayolle (2013) opines that entrepreneurship education requires appropriate conceptual and theoretical bases. This study will systemize distinctly instead of accumulating theories (see Fiet, 2000). In addition, it will also systemize the current paradigms, which only offer a partial understanding of the complexities of entrepreneurship education (see Sarmento, 2016; Malay, 2008; Colette, 2015). Despite the disagreement among studies on a theory for entrepreneurship, various studies have revealed that graduates who studied

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entrepreneurship during their undergraduate program demonstrate greater motivation and propensity to start entrepreneurship (see Iglesias-Sánchez, Jambrino-Maldonado, Velasco & Kokash, 2016; Sarmento, 2016; Fenton & Barry, 2014; Lee, Chang & Lim, 2005). Following the understanding that studies on the relationship between entrepreneurship education and motivation for entrepreneurial activities remain equivocal, the need to develop a further empirical study that may offer clarification to this confusion (see Matlay, 2006; Joensuu, Varamaki & Viljamaa, 2015). This study contributes to entrepreneurship education literature by clarifying the relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial motivation among university graduates. Furthermore, it contributes to the literature on entrepreneurship education in theory and practice. The study establishes various beneficial explanations of contradictions in the earlier studies, specifically emphasizing the inadequacies of the entrepreneurship education model. It, therefore, offers further understandings and recommendations to aid education policymakers and management of the university in hiring a capable workforce to develop, design, implement, and evaluate innovative, workable, and disruptive curricula for the students.

Following the introduction, the rest of this paper arrange as follows. Section two reviewed the literature. The conceptual framework is in section three, and section four presents the research methodology. Section five presents the empirical results and findings of the discussion, and section six concludes this section.

Category of people who have taken and passed all Entrepreneurship courses introduced into the university curriculum. Following the claim that entrepreneurship is at the infantry stage (see King, 1997; Sarmento, 2016; Brazeal & Herbert, 1999; Gorman Graevenitz et al., 2010; Sarmento, 2016), entrepreneurship education in the universities is an emerging concept that is attracting increasing interest from policymakers, academics, and researchers around the world. Thus, the meaning of entrepreneurship characterize by controversies, and its perception is complex (Shane, Locke & Collins, 2005; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Nonetheless, there are various definitions of entrepreneurship. For instance, Umaru and Obeleagu-Nzelibe, (2014) defined entrepreneurship as being an entrepreneur. Locke (2000) refers to entrepreneurship as an outcome of integrating cognitive factors (skills and knowledge) with motivational factors. Drucker (1985) defined entrepreneurship as a creative act that creates a new ability to produce wealth. According to Gartner (2001), entrepreneurship is creating a new organization. Shane and Venkataraman (2000) refer to entrepreneurship as the process by which we discover, evaluate, and explore opportunities to create future goods and services. Entrepreneurship also means bringing resources together to start a new business (Adelekan & Tijani, 2017; Esch, 2011; Otekunrin, Akintunde, Lawal & Rotimi, 2013). Any business leader with creative or innovative business abilities is terming an entrepreneur or somebody who participates in entrepreneurship (see Okala, 2008). Various terms are interchangeably used in the literature to refer to the same thing, enterprise, small-scale business, and entrepreneur (Sarmento, 2016). The complexity of the meaning of entrepreneurship creates a challenge arousing the increasing attention of academics and policymakers. Some academics advocate that standard definitions and entrepreneurship models are crucial for developing entrepreneurship (see Drucker, 1985; Volkmann, 2009). In contrast, other studies consider

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standard definitions and single models of entrepreneurship insufficient to meet the needs of the various interest (see Bygrave & Hofer, 1991; Audretsch, 2012). While the controversy persists, that entrepreneurship views differently. Gartner (1990) concludes that the idea of entrepreneurship is complex because of this recognition. The study argued further that the multiple meanings of entrepreneurship must be recognized. Therefore, ensuring that everyone understands what discuss is essential.

This study follows Sarmento (2016) to adopts the definition that "entrepreneurship is an examination of how, by whom, and with what effects opportunities to create future goods and services discovered, evaluated, and exploited. This study is suitable for this study because the definition is tilted toward the action of entrepreneurship and refers to entrepreneurship as an outcome of an interaction between individuals and opportunities in a defined environmental context (Dutta, Li & Merenda, 2011). According to Sarmento (2016), this definition, with precision, captures the logic in which entrepreneurship education plays a vital role; it can stimulate students to start entrepreneurial activities and develop the essential skills to recognize, evaluate, and exploit the appropriate opportunity to prosper in contexts within an environment characterized with a high degree of complexity, volatility, uncertainty, and ambiguity (Neck & Greene, 2011). Entrepreneur undertakes innovations and has the business acumen to transform innovations into economic goods (see Adedeji, Ayodele, & Olalekan, 2018).

Introducing entrepreneurship education into the university curriculum has resulted in debates on whether entrepreneurship could be taught or not, using varying and opposite methods discussed in the literature (Sarmento, 2016; Henry *et al*., 2005). One of the methods highlights the personality traits of the entrepreneur and a different viewpoint emphasises the behavioural characteristics of entrepreneurship. The personality-trait method argues that individual entrepreneurs have a unique set of innate characteristics enhancing entrepreneurial action which cannot be expand, copied, or learnt through training and education (Cope, 2005). According to this school of thought Personality traits are predictable characteristics of individual behaviour that help explain divergences in the activities of various individuals in similar contexts. This method classifies the various personality traits that make entrepreneurs behave differently: the need to achieve self-efficacy, an internal locus of control, pro-activeness, and tolerance of ambiguity (see Llewellyn & Wilson, 2003; Rauch & Frese, 2007). Contrarily, the behavioural method argues that entrepreneurship needs to be relized as a learning process (Minniti & Bygrave, 2001), that entrepreneurs do not operate in a vacuum, hence, react to its environment (Gartner, 1985, Sarmento, 2016). The entrepreneur's reaction to the environment shows that entrepreneurs develop peculiar features and skills, contrary to the idea that personality traits are undisputable.

The contention surrounding teaching entrepreneurship education might be solving through the theoretical assumptions in the literature of entrepreneurship education. But, unfortunately, contextual, and conceptual difficulties have affected the developing body of knowledge (Matlay & Carey, 2006; Joensuu et al., 2015) such that an all-encompassing theory is still wanting (Fiet, 2000; Colette, 2013).

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The relevance of entrepreneurship education to motivate entrepreneurial activities is will debated in the literature. While the personality-trait method argues that individual need for entrepreneurial motivation may not necessarily be a classroom affair, the behavioural method argues that entrepreneurship needs to be understood, hence, the need for entrepreneurship education. Despite this divergence, entrepreneurship education in the university may be relevant. Sarmento (2016) supports this claim and suggests that entrepreneurship education is relevant because it stimulates economic growth and social development. Neck & Greene (2011) supports the relevance of entrepreneurship education arguing that entrepreneurship education provides required entrepreneurial skills that enables entrepreneurial activities to flourish under a complex and uncertain environment. Buttressing this assertion, Rasmussen and Sorheim (2006) and Sarmento (2016) posit that the universities highlight the relevance of entrepreneurship education by presenting themselves as active agents that contribute to the economic and social development of their regions. Equally, Neck & Greene (2011) assert that entrepreneurship education equip entrepreneur to cope in an uncertain, complex, and volatile environment where specific entrepreneurial skills may be needed. Entrepreneurs are frequently confront with various business challenges like capital and managerial ability to succeed. Therefore, Jones & Penaluna (2013) and Nilsson (2012) are that entrepreneurship education could offer specific education to combat these challenges.

The study of entrepreneurship education in the universities is dated back to eight decades (Kuratko, 2005), with the most popular curriculum format of entrepreneurship education in the United States of America (USA) focussing on "business plans" (Honig, 2004). Yet, a want of critical thought persists in entrepreneurship education for entrepreneur to flourish (Fayolle, 2013). Notwithstanding efforts to increase demand for knowledge, and research on how to improve entrepreneurial skills through teaching, entrepreneurship rather remains underdeveloped (Colette, 2013; Kirby, 2004; Sarmento, 2016). Validating this claim, Graevenitz, Harhoff & Weber (2010) states that "It is largely unknown how the courses impact students' willingness to engage in entrepreneurial activity and what kind of learning processes are responsible for these effects" (see Sarmento, 2016). Similarly, there is an extended divergence in the contents of entrepreneurship education (Jones & Matlay, 2011; Henry *et al*., 2005). This discrepancies and submission suggest that entrepreneurial education is a characteristic of a new academic discipline.

According to Young (1997), entrepreneurship education is a formal business knowledge transfer. It also means a collection of formal lessons that educate, inform, and train students interested in developing new businesses (Bechard & Toulouse, 1998). Also, it means a strategic response to raise the level of entrepreneurial behaviour in the sense that it explores students' entrepreneurial potential (Laukkanen, 2000).

How entrepreneurship education predicts entrepreneurial motivation among university graduates. How entrepreneurship education predicts entrepreneurial motivation among university graduatesAdopting Sarmento (2016), this study suggests a model that entrepreneurship competencies and knowledge base, in addition with entrepreneurship education, are requisites to motivate entrepreneurship among university graduates (see Figure 1).

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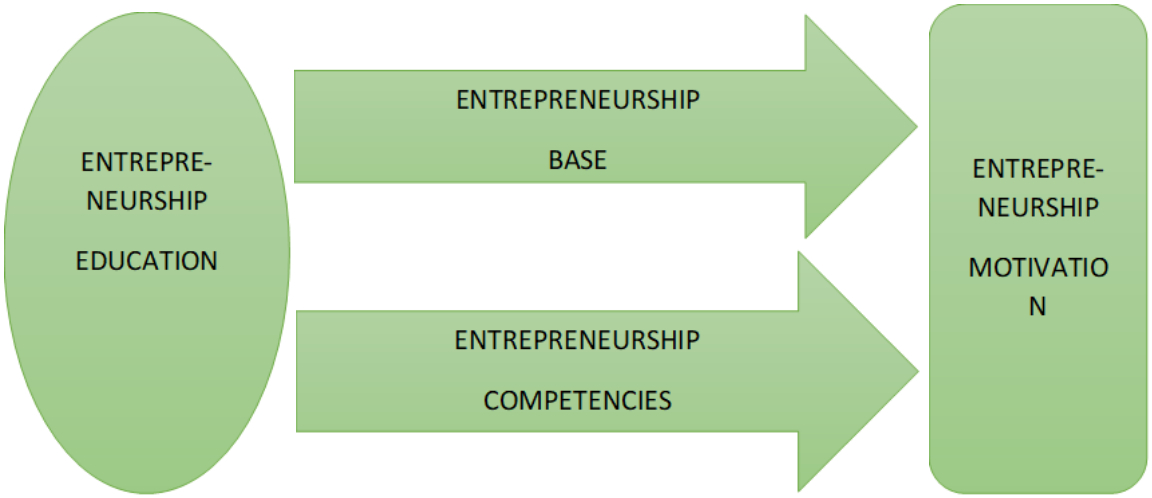

Figure 1: Determinants of entrepreneurship motivation among university graduates

The figure 1 proposes that, entrepreneurship education boosts entrepreneurship competencies and base among university graduates. In this study, knowledge base means knowledge taught to latent entrepreneurs through the university settings especially through entrepreneurship studies and other traditional studies like business ethics, business management, financial management, business strategies, human resources, business law and accounting (see Neck & Greene; Jones & Penaluna, 2013). Knowledge base enhanced by entrepreneurship education is assumed to assist university graduate entrepreneurs to identify larger number of entrepreneurial prospects (Shepherd and DeTienne, 2005). Furthermore, Souitaris et al. (2007) assert that knowledge base increases the tendency of success for those who may wish to commence new business. On the other hand, Mitchelmore & Rowley (2010) argue that entrepreneurship based mainly on knowledge acquisition is insufficient to offer the required traits for long-term success. They further argue that for graduates to be successful entrepreneurs, entrepreneurship education must be take in the university above the conventional boundaries. According to them, they must concurrently include the transfer of essential knowledge that will provide graduates with entrepreneurship competencies. Buttressing this argument, Jones & Matlay (2011), assert that effectiveness of entrepreneurship education encompasses the unique set of "dialogic relations" that develops the individual instead of delivering facts and theories.

The entrepreneurship motivation refers to a set of relevant personal goals that potential entrepreneurs aspire and believe they can achieve through entrepreneurship (Sarmento, 2016). This belief, according to Kuratko et al. (1997), motivates individuals to undertake entrepreneurial action. Because of this, Joensuu et al., (2015) avow that entrepreneurship education should not be limited to the importance of knowledge and vital characteristics of entrepreneurial activity but extended to developing attitudes that are favourably disposed to entrepreneurship. Consequently, for a graduate to develop appetite to undertake entrepreneurial activities, it is required that favourable attitudes directed at entrepreneurship are instill therein. These attitudes are intuitively generate and internally derived. Thus, entrepreneurship education aims to position itself as a knowledge base, increase favourable attributes and competencies for entrepreneurship, and prompt graduates

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to entrepreneurial activity and action. So, entrepreneurship education must seek to prepare graduates, during their trainings, for entrepreneurial activity by constructing attitudes and values favourable to entrepreneurship so that they see it as something attractive, beneficial, and desirable and will be motivated to take entrepreneurial action (Sarmento, Martin & Laing, 1998).

Entrepreneurship competencies according to Man et al. (2002) refer to the essential competencies to establish and operate entrepreneurship successfully, using entrepreneurial skills and action. Following Man et al. (2002), the entrepreneurial competencies include set of interconnected behaviour skills, knowledge, and traits owned by the actual or potential entrepreneur. According to Taatila (2010), Henry et al. (2004); Jones & Penaluna (2013), entrepreneurial competencies are usually psychological. Thus, it consists essential attributes to lead and coordinate resources (human and non-human), creativity, ability to identify prospects, networking ability, teamwork building, innovation, critical and analytical skills. Others include negotiation skills, problem solving skills, sensitivity and exposure to political, cultural, and technological changes, adaptability and flexibility, communication skills, charisma. Attitude comprises of judgments that individual makes towards entrepreneurship and this has a direct association with entrepreneurial motivation in the sense that motivation is a function of values (Sarmento, 2016; Locke, 2000).

METHOD

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods are employe in this study. The choice of these methods is in line with Rotimi et al (2013) and Sarmento (2016). This technique has been select to examine how knowledge base and entrepreneurship competencies influence motivation to enable a graduate to become an entrepreneur. In carrying out this, a structured questionnaire has been design and administered to the graduates from Federal University, Lokoja (FUL) who have received entrepreneurship education and passed entrepreneurship course in Federal University Lokoja 2016/2017 and 2017/2018 sessions. A sample of three hundred graduates were consider in this study. Following the generally accepted non-response bias assessment of Armstrong and Overton (1977), both early and late respondents were compare to ensure that the data is free from bias. Consequently, findings reveal that the study is free from non-response bias problem since the respondents do not significantly differ in any dimension. Following this outcome, using SPSS software, this study carried out a regression analysis.

All the respondents are graduates from Federal University Lokoja who have received and passed entrepreneurship education (GST 204) in 2016 and 2019. The respondents cut across two faculties in the University. Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences and Faculty of Science are the two faculties. From the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, five departments were select namely: Economics, English Language and Literary Studies, Geography, History and Political Science; while from the Faculty of science, six departments were select namely: Biological Science, Chemistry, Computer Science, Geology, Mathematical Science and Physics. The population for this study is estimate at

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2,279. They are graduates from the faculty of Social Sciences and faculties of Sciences from 2016 to 2019.

The study employs the Yamane's (1967) formula to determine the sample size because of its general acceptability. The formula is defined below:

$$n = \left(\frac{\mathrm{N}}{1 + \mathrm{N(e)}^2}\right)$$

Where is the sample size, is the population and is the 5% error term in the sampling, Consequently, given that and (5%). That suggests that 340 participants are draw from the population as sample.

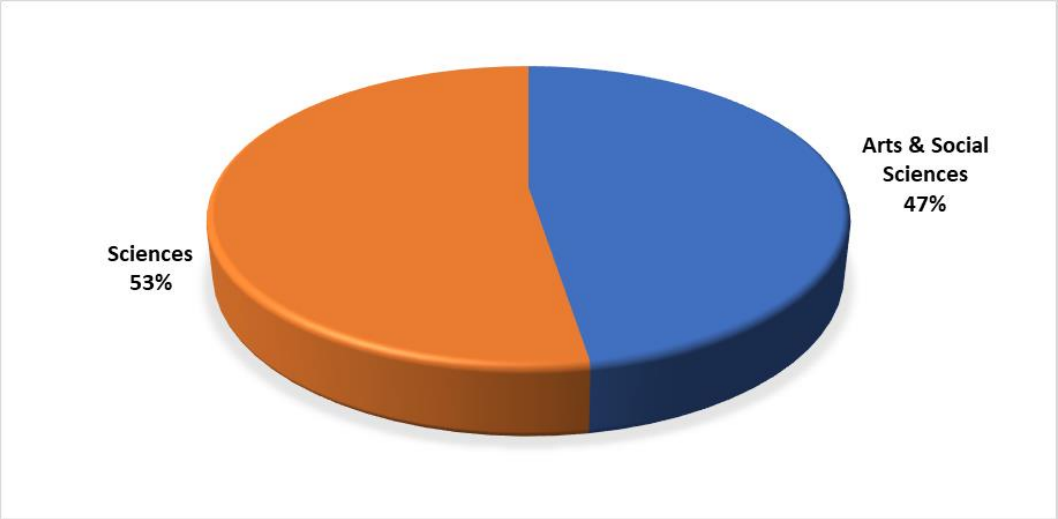

Figure 2: Percentage of Population by Faculties
Source: Authors' computation (2021).

Table 1 depicts the distribution of respondents according to the departments, Figure 2 presents the distribution of the population according to the faculties, and Table 2 presents Respondents in the Departments by Sex.

Table 1. Respondents by Departments

S/N	Departments	No of Respondents	%
1	Biological Science	39	11.5
2	Chemistry	29	8.4
3	Computer Science	38	11.1
4	Geology	25	7.4
5	Mathematical Science	26	7.6
6	Physics	22	6.6
7	Economics	35	10.2
8	English Language and Literary Studies	32	9.3
9	Geography	27	8.0
10	History	29	8.5
11	Political Science	39	11.4
	Total	**340**	**100**

Source: Authors' computation (2021).

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Table 2. Respondents in the Departments by Sex

S/N	Departments	No of Respondents	
		Male	**Female**
1	Biological Science	17	22
2	Chemistry	14	14
3	Computer Science	31	7
4	Geology	19	6
5	Mathematical Science	21	5
6	Physics	17	5
7	Economics	21	14
8	English Language and Literary Studies	11	21
9	Geography	21	7
10	History	28	13
11	Political Science	17	11
	Total	**215**	**125**

Source: Authors' computation (2021).

Table 1, departments of Biological science and Political Science each account for 39 respondents. Department of Physics accounts for 22 which is the least. On aggregate, the faculty of social sciences accounted for 53% and 47% for the faculty of social science (see Figure 2).

Following earlier studies like Sarmento (2016) and Otekunrin et al (2013), this study used a 5-point Likert scale. It ranged from 1 for "wholly disagreed" to 5 for "wholly agreed") and 1 for "very low" to 5 for "very high". Similarly, this study follows Matlay (2008) and Sarmento (2016) to measure knowledge based. The study also follows Man & Lau (2005) and Man et al. (2008) to derive entrepreneurship competencies scales. Scales adopted from Souitaris, Zerbinati & Al-Laham (2007), Robichaud, McGrawand Alain (2001), Sarmento (2016) were use to measure entrepreneurship motivation. Among other questions asked in the questionnaire were, "if the graduates have taken GST 204: Entrepreneurial Skills", "faculty of the graduates".

The measurement statistics for the study constructs is summarize in Table 3, and Table 4 provides inter-construct correlations. All measures have acceptable reliability and psychometric properties.

Qualitative analysis technique entails organizing and describing to make sense from the responses and explanations of participants on a phenomenon by obtaining patterns, subject matter, classifications and consistencies from the independent opinions and views of participants (Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007). Codings are involved in qualitative analysis technique (see Otekunrin et al.). For this study, the qualitative analysis technique aims at offering complementing understanding to the quantitative results obtained. Furthermore, it also seeks to corroborate the findings obtained in the quantitative analysis. Five-in-depth interviews were conduct with graduates from the University who have business establishment in Lokoja. The choice of this size was determine by availability of graduates who already established within the reach of the researchers. To complement the quantitative analysis, various questions were ask. These include, "which type of entrepreneurship education is most appropriate to promote effective entrepreneurship"? "What is the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurship motivations"?

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"What is the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurship competencies"? The interviews were taped with the permission of the interviewees and lasted an average of 60 minutes. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. To ascertain accuracy and correctness in the recorded interview, transcripts from the interviews were return to the interviewees. Interestingly, no changes which made to the transcription, accepted as presented. Coding means qualitative action used to identify a passage or text from the transcribed documents that represents or illustrates ideas.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study relies on the previous studies to measure variables in the questionnaire. Specifically, it employed the 5-point Likert scale of Man et al. (2008), Matlay (2008), Man & Lau (2005). Consequently, the variables are measured accordingly with the specified authors as shown in Table 3. Furthermore, the reveals the means of knowledge base, entrepreneurship competencies and entrepreneurship motivation as 3.251, 4.174 and 4.883 respectively. Similarly, the Cronbach Alpha and standard deviation is summared in the table.

Table 3. Measurement Characteristics for variables

Measures	**Descriptions of scales**	**Sources**	**Cronbach Alpha (α)**	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Knowledge Base	5-point Likert scale with end point as: 1 = very low 5 = very high	Matlay (2008), Sarmento (2016)	0.879	3.251	0.898
Entrepreneurship Competencies	5-point Likert scale with end point as: 1 = strongly agree 5 = strongly disagree	Man and Lau (2005), Man et al. (2008) and Sarmento (2016)	0.942	4.174	0.577
Entrepreneurship Motivation	5-point Likert scale with end point as: 1 = strongly agree 5 = strongly disagree	Kuratko et al. (1997), Souitaris et al. (2007) and	0.878	4.883	0.478

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		Sarmento (2016)			

Source: Authors' computation (2021).

Table 4. Correlation Results

	$\delta 1$	$\delta 2$	$\delta 3$
$\delta 1$	-	0.622***	0.315***
$\delta 2$	0.622***	-	0.514***
$\delta 3$	0.315***	0.514***	-

Source: Author's computation (2021); Note: *** denotes statistical significance at 5%.

Table 4 presents the correlations among the variables employed in the study. The variables considered are Knowledge Base (δ1), Entrepreneurship Competencies (δ2), and Entrepreneurship Motivation (δ3). The findings reveal that all the variables used in the study have satisfactory and psychometric properties. Furthermore, this study provides a robust correlation analysis over the study period among stability, the dependent variable of interest and the regressors (see Table 4). The result shows a quite significant positive association among the measures. That corroborates our expectation and points to the fact that knowledge base and entrepreneurship competencies may be advantageous to entrepreneurship motivation.

Table 5. Determinants of Entrepreneurship Motivation

Independent variables	δ1	δ1	R^2	Adjusted R^2
Entrepreneurship motivation	0.025	0.571***	0.431	0.428

Authors' computation (2021). Note: *** statistically significant at 5%

This study primarily seeks to examine whether knowledge base influences entrepreneurship motivation. Nevertheless, it also reveals the relationship between entrepreneurship competencies and other variables (knowledge base and entrepreneurship motivation) as shown in tables 5 and 6. To answer the question whether entrepreneurship education motivates entrepreneurship among university graduates, the study employed a regression analysis. The major impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurship motivation as shown in Table 5, 0.025 is not significant, though positive, corroborating the correlation results (see Table 4). Contrary to Sarmento (2016) and Souitaris et al (2007) who found negative and non-significant correlation between knowledge base and entrepreneurship motivation, this finding corroborates Martin & Laing (2008) who found otherwise.

The study also examined the impact of entrepreneurship competencies on entrepreneurship motivation. The finding revealed that entrepreneurship competencies significantly impact entrepreneurship motivation (see Table 4, 0.431 at 5% significant

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level). This finding validates Sarmento (2016), which argued in favour of entrepreneurship competencies as a significant factor for making university graduates and entrepreneurs.

Furthermore, findings from this study reveals contrary to the conventional belief suggesting that earlier knowledge evolving from traditional fields like business law, business ethics, accounting, entrepreneurship theory, marketing, human resources, finance, business management, strategy among other related disciplines are decisive criteria to motivate university graduates to become entrepreneur. Rather, the study finds entrepreneurship competencies to be significantly accountable to motivate university graduates to become entrepreneurs. This finding suggests further that other than entrepreneurship education offered in the university to give entrepreneurship knowledge base, skills which may include good concepts, ability to organise and persevere, coordinate factors of production, ability to design workable strategy, commitment, confidence to do business, risk bearing ability, and personal business philosophy are central to motivate and create viable entrepreneurs among university graduates.

From the interview, a few responses are highlighted below, the respondents have similar responses. For instance, when the question, "which type of entrepreneurship education is most appropriate to promote effective entrepreneurship" was asked, below is the response.

[…] No straight jacket entrepreneurship education came to mind that can motivate entrepreneurship. However, I know and believe that the entrepreneurship motivation is all about passion, inborn, intuition and ability to endure. I notice that many successful entrepreneurs here do not have university education where they could have tech entrepreneurship. It is rather common sense and discipline.

Similarly, the question focusing on, "What is the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurship motivations", received the response that follows

[…] "it was evident that some of the facilitators of GST 204: Entrepreneurship skills could not largely demonstrate practical situation that could help us think deeper to appreciate entrepreneurship education as a vital element to motivating entrepreneurship". "Discussion on entrepreneurship education is bias towards theories of entrepreneurship rather than practice that I feel is more needed, to help motivate and create entrepreneurs". Although, additional responses argued in favour of the poor state of the Nigerian educational system to account for not offering needed support for teaching entrepreneurship education in the university. This finding aligns with several studies that have associated the inability of entrepreneurship education to motivate entrepreneurship to factors like shortage of the entrepreneurship educational tools and model (see Rasmussen & Sorheim, 2006; Laukkanen, 2000). According to these studies, several procedures, and techniques underlying entrepreneurship education are insufficient. Therefore, making it difficult to refocus on the question of pedagogics (Heuer & Kolvereid, 2014) and the acceptance of more advanced methods (Neck & Greene, 2011; Matlay & Carey, 2007).

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Other arising response is […] "our education system is ill equipped to offer a promising entrepreneurship education that will deliver required attributes to motivate entrepreneurship"

On the question, "What is the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurship competencies"? Few interviewees responded that entrepreneurship education is suitable at enhancing entrepreneurship competencies. Instead, they argue that entrepreneurship can assist individual to appreciate their competencies and apply it optimally in the desired business plane". Supporting this claim, a respondent argues that entrepreneurship education speaks better to psychological competencies rather than directly motivating an individual to become an entrepreneur." Buttressing this claim, Kirby (2004) argues that, "… rather than allowing entrepreneurship education to create new business venture, entrepreneurship should be likened with creativity and change, and it should be centre towards the psychological growth of graduates during their training in the university (Taatila, 2010). Also, Souitaris et al. (2007) assert that entrepreneurship education that introduces an emotional view should be consider in the entrepreneurship literature. They believe that what is required to motivate and create entrepreneurship is not entrepreneurship theory but inspiration, a change in hearts (emotion) and minds (motivation).

CONCLUSION

This study primarily investigated whether entrepreneurship education influences university graduates to become entrepreneurs. It alongside investigated the influences of entrepreneurship competencies on entrepreneurship motivation among graduates in the university context. Unfortunately, contrary to the traditional belief that entrepreneurship education in the university is knowledge base, hence, motivates university to become entrepreneurs, this study revealed otherwise. Rather, the study found entrepreneurship competencies as a factor leading to entrepreneurship motivation among university graduates. The finding from this study shows that entrepreneurship education which offers knowledge in the traditional fields like business law, business ethics, accounting, entrepreneurship theory, marketing, human resources, finance, business management, strategy among other related disciplines are is not a decisive factor to improve the motivation of graduate students to become entrepreneurs. This finding aligns with Souitaris et al. (2007) and Heuer and Kolvereid (2014). On the other hand, the finding contradicts Peterman and Kennedy (2003) that argue that entrepreneurship education is not a predicting factor of entrepreneurship education.

Because of these findings, the study suggests that, rather than dissipating efforts on entrepreneurship education, such efforts should be channell towards improving and developing the university students' psychological growth so that entrepreneurship skills and interest could develop, that will help to cover not only just entrepreneurship in theory but in practice through emotion and passion. This study also emphasises and pitches tent with the model and view of Honig (2004) leaving entrepreneurship education to business-planning education which supports thinking "inside the box", the curriculum of

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entrepreneurship education should be design to be more creative, innovative. Therefore, it should focus on critical taught "outside the box,". According to Souitaris et al. (2007), such formative thinking will stimulate university graduates to undertake entrepreneurship effectively and independently.

This study, like every other study, is not without its limitations. The study relied on a cross-sectional Federal University Lokoja (FUL) survey. Hence, longitudinal data survey may be considering because it permits real actions, instead of intentions, to be capture. Although, this may be difficult to implement due to the costs and time involved. Furthermore, findings from this study may not be generalised due to the peculiarity that may characterise the university which may not be the same with other universities.

Regarding size and age, FUL is new and may not have garnered competencies and experienced hands to train and prepare students towards entrepreneurship motivation. Unlike universities located in the modern centres where businesses flourish, the proximity of FUL from core business arena where entrepreneurship motivation could be engendermatters, that may not offer the same results; hence, results generalisation is constraint. Following the conventional belief that research with a large sample offers a more reliable result, it is recommending that larger samples be consider in future studies. Only a few graduates could be interview because the bulk of graduates from FUL reside outside Kogi State, where this study was conduct.

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