



Facultat de Ciències Jurídiques
i Econòmiques · **FCJE**

**EXAMINING THE ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION
OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: THE ROLE OF
ENTREPRENEURIAL EDUCATION AND ATTITUDES**

Author: Salvador Gimeno Vidal

Tutor: María de las Mercedes Segarra Ciprés

GRADO EN ADMINISTRACIÓN DE EMPRESAS

AE1049 - TRABAJO FINAL DE GRADO

CURSO 2017-18

INDEX

A. TABLE INDEX	2
B. FIGURE INDEX	2
C. GRAPHIC INDEX	3
1. INTRODUCTION	5
2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND	7
2.1. The Entrepreneur and The Entrepreneurial Process	7
2.2. The entrepreneurial intention.....	12
2.3. The Theory of Planned Behaviour	16
2.3.1. Attitude towards behavior.....	17
2.3.2. Subjective norm.	18
2.3.3. Perceived control over behavior.....	19
2.4. Sociodemographic characteristics.....	19
2.5. Entrepreneurial education	25
3. A PROPOSED RESEARCH MODEL.....	29
4. SAMPLE AND METHOD	31
5. RESULTS.....	34
6. CONCLUSIONS	43
7. REFERENCES	46
8. ANNEXES	60

A. TABLE INDEX

Table 1. A sample of what we want students to know	28
Table 2. Descriptive statistics	34
Table 3. Working experience frequency and percent	35
Table 4. Gender sample frequency and percent.....	35
Table 5. Entrepreneurial education, sample frequency and percent	36
Table 6. Background variables average.....	37
Table 7. ANOVA analysis of entrepreneurship training and premeditated variables. ...	38
Table 8. ANOVA analysis of the premeditated variables and entrepreneurial intention.	39
Table 9. ANOVA analysis of the premeditated variables and entrepreneurial intention, related with work experience.....	41
Table 10. ANOVA analysis of the premeditated variables and entrepreneurial intention related to gender.	42
Table 11. ANOVA analysis of intentional variables and entrepreneurial intention related to the formative specialisation of origin.....	43

B. FIGURE INDEX

Figure 1. A model of the entrepreneurial process	11
Figure 2. Model of the Entrepreneurial Event.....	14
Figure 3. The contexts of intentionality	15
Figure 4. The determinants of behaviour.....	16
Figure 5. “The theory of planned behavior”	17
Figure 6. Analysing intentions toward entrepreneurial behaviour using the theory of planned behaviour.	27
Figure 7. A proposed research proposed model of entrepreneurial behavior of university students.....	29

C. GRAPHIC INDEX

Graphic 1. Entrepreneurial groups distribution by gender in Spain, 2016.21

Graphic 2. TEA index by gender Evolution in Spain during the period of 2005-2016....22

Graphic 3. Distribution by age of the entrepreneurial groups in Spain in 2016.....23

Graphic 4. Distribution of entrepreneurial groups by education level in Spain in 2016.24

Graphic 5. Entrepreneurial groups distribution in Spain in 2016, depending on whether they have had specific entrepreneurial education.26

Graphic 6. Work experience frequency frequency35

Graphic 7. Gender sample frequency35

Graphic 8. Entrepreneurial education, sample frequency36

Graphic 9. Background variables average37

Abstract

Purpose: The main objective of this work is to study the influence the entrepreneurial intent of university students, and to observe to what extent students' attitudes and entrepreneurial education affect their decision to start up a business. Specifically, in this work, the role of education in entrepreneurship and certain socio-demographic aspects such as work experience, gender and training specialty will be analysed, exploring how they influence entrepreneurial intent. In the study of entrepreneurial intent, we will analyse three attitudinal backgrounds, such as the attitude of the person with respect to starting a business, subjective norms and the perceived behavioural control.

Design/Methodology: To answer the three research questions posed, we developed a questionnaire aimed at students of the Jaume I University. This study has an exploratory nature, so we selected a sample of levels of two training fields, together with a control group formed by the participants of the Explorer Program of the Santander Bank Entrepreneurship.

Findings: The results reveal that the most influential backgrounds in the entrepreneurial intention of the students are the personal attitudes and the perceived behavioural control with respect to entrepreneurship. We also found that education in entrepreneurship is associated with high levels of personal attitude, behavioural control and the intention to launch a business. Finally, the results indicate that students with work experience have higher levels of entrepreneurial intention. It is also observed that the training specialty influences the entrepreneurial intent, and, in contrast, gender does not seem to influence the intention to start up a business.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial intention/intent, personal attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, entrepreneurial education.

1. INTRODUCTION

The evolution of markets towards greater dynamism and the increase in technological complexity converts the current economic market into a very competitive one. The entrepreneur must take advantage of any opportunity that arises. It is not only the skills and abilities of entrepreneurs that are vital for the success of a company, but a greater speed and efficiency to adapt to any changes, and turn opportunities into competitive advantages for the business. These changes also imply an evolution in terms of the type of people who lead the developments and who can be oriented towards starting up entrepreneurial projects.

The entrepreneurial activity of a country has a direct reflection on its economic activity, contributing to economic and social development (Hall, 2010) In this sense, entrepreneurs have a central role and that is why this raises interest in knowing what the motivations and characteristics of entrepreneurs are. Thus, one of the aspects of the study on entrepreneurship has focused on trying to identify the characteristics of an entrepreneur and what their motivations have been to make the decision to start up a business (e.g. Ajzen, 1991; Dyer & Handler, 1994; Gartner, 1988; Madden et al, 1992; Sánchez et al, 2005).

This means that when studying the behaviour of an entrepreneur and their motivations to be one, we must bear in mind that there are a large number of interrelated variables that affect the process of creating a business (Morales, 2008).

But when analysing the process of creating a business, not only must we observe the socio-demographic characteristics of the person who carries it out, but also what the attitudes and intentional factors have been that have contributed to the decision to launch a business venture. In this regard, different authors have developed models of intention to explain the formation of an intention to start up a business, as a prelude to the decision to start up an entrepreneurial project (e.g. Baron, 2002; Shapero and Sokol, 1982; Bird, 1988).

In this study we review the different models and build on Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour (1991). In this theory, three background factors are considered as predecessors of the behaviour of the entrepreneur, which are: the attitude of the person regarding behaviour, the subjective norm and the perceived behavioural control with respect to that behaviour. This theory is open to the introduction of new variables, as long as these variables influence the main factors of the theory, and serve to better specify the behavior that is being studied.

Different authors point out that education in entrepreneurship is another factor that contributes to the intentional development of the decision to start up a business (e.g. Morales and Roig, 2005; Dutta et al., 2011; Jayawarna et al., 2014; Hayton et al., 2002; Espíritu and Sastre, 2007). The preparation and specific education of entrepreneurs towards entrepreneurship is a fundamental factor for the success of new business projects (e.g. Liñán et al., 2011; Krueger et al., 2000; Zhao et al., 2005; GEM, 2016). In this sense, education in entrepreneurship has also been studied within the models of entrepreneurial intention, in addition to its influence on the other factors of these models (e.g. Krueger and Carsrud, 1993, GEM, 2016).

The main objective of this study is to analyse the antecedents that intervene in the formation of the intentions to start-up businesses by university students. In this study, the factors proposed by the Theory of Planned Action, such as personal attitude, the subjective norm and perceived behavioral control, are considered as antecedents. In addition, the role of education in entrepreneurship and its effect on attitudinal factors and the intention to undertake will be analysed. Finally, the influence of a series of sociodemographic variables such as work experience, gender and the branch of learning that is being studied will be considered.

To develop this work, we will follow the following structure. In the first part, the theoretical framework of the entrepreneur and the process of entrepreneurship will be presented, as well as the review of different models of intentionality, focusing on the Theory of Planned Action and the antecedents of that theory. Next, the role of education in entrepreneurship and certain sociodemographic characteristics will be reviewed. Thirdly, a proposal for a research model and the research questions of the work will be presented. Fourth, the research design will be outlined and, finally, we will discuss the results and conclusions.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. The Entrepreneur and The Entrepreneurial Process

The French economist Richard Cantillon (1952) used the term 'entrepreneur' for the first time in the 18th century in his work, 'Essay about the nature of commerce in general', published in 1750. In this piece of work, it is considered that the differentiating factor between employers and employees is the uncertainty and risk involved in being self-employed, and that the economic benefit is born of this uncertainty. An entrepreneur buys at certain prices and sells at uncertain prices, and therefore assumes the risks associated with this process (Cantillon and Higgs, 1950).

Two centuries later, Schumpeter (1963) associated the ability to innovate with the definition of an entrepreneur and qualifies it as the factor that explains economic development. McClelland (1968) defines the entrepreneur as a person who has some form of control over resources and a means of production. This individual would produce more than they consume in order to obtain a profit from the excess. This author carries out numerous psychological studies linked to the motivation of achievement and this psychological factor as a means to economic development. For Varela (1998) the entrepreneur is "the said person who is capable of observing the potential of a certain production or service, and from this makes a free and independent decision of its capacity to succeed and begins the allocation of the natural, financial, technological and human resources necessary to start up the business. As well as increasing the value of the economy, this would generate work for this individual and even more so for others".

Other more recent authors, such as Timmons and Spinelli (2009), the entrepreneur is not only the one who organizes and manages the resources and takes the risks, but he or she is also the one who has the capacity to lead, to motivate, to spread the values, mission and vision of the business's culture, and to detect and solve problems.

When defining the distinctive features of the entrepreneur, two differentiated aspects can be identified. On the one hand, the features related to the analysis of the "individual-opportunity" nexus, that is, what are the characteristics of the opportunity the individuals that discover and run it, and how they acquire and organise resources through strategies that generate profits (Shane, 2003).

On the other hand, researchers have tried to shape the psychological aspects and the personal characteristics and traits of the entrepreneur. These have been explained through various theories, such as the motivational theory, the theory of personal traits of the individual or the cognitive theory, emphasising the need for execution, the power of control or the tendency to take risks as determinants of entrepreneurship (Cross and Travaglione, 2003). There are several authors who see these traits as the origin of the capacity, orientation and business intention of the people. Authors such as Stewart (1999), consider that psychological traits are predictive of the entrepreneurial intent of people. There are many other authors that are of the same opinion (Brockhaus, 1980; Parker, 2009; Ismail et al., 2009; Low and Macmillan, 1988; Misra and Kumar, 2000; Rauch and Frese, 2006; Roberts, 1970; Sánchez et al., 2002).

Other authors focus on demographic aspects when characterising the traits of the entrepreneur (Majid et al., 2008; Ismail et al., 2009; Low and Macmillan, 1988; Roberts, 1970; Sánchez et al., 2002) including gender, age, religion or place of origin.

Another facet identified that the personality of the entrepreneur is recognised as four personality traits such as the slight tendency to take risks and a high tolerance for ambiguity (Amit et al., 1993; Brockhaus and Horwitz, 1986). From this aspect, Koh (1996) adds the trait of having a high level of confidence and the orientation towards innovation.

Related to this last aspect, authors such as Liñán (2004), consider that the psychological factors of self-efficiency and the need for achievement and internal control are the key variables to help explain others highlighted in literature such as self-confidence, the tendency to take risks and innovate, the tolerance for ambiguity, initiative, insight and the need for independence or autonomy.

Although there are different classifications regarding the personality traits of entrepreneurs, at this point we will refer to those features most commonly studied when describing the entrepreneurial profile.

The first of these features composes the necessity of achievement, the need for realisation and self-realisation. The first researcher who highlighted this feature as one of the main characteristics of entrepreneurs was McClelland (1961). This author considers that people who have a greater need for achievement are more likely to make the decision to create their own business than people who have a low desire for achievement. This characteristic, defined by the authors McClelland (1968) and Fernández and Junquera (2001), is the continuous need of the person to achieve the

objectives that have been set and whose results he or she feels responsible for. The need for self-realisation is closely related in a positive way to entrepreneurship, developing an interest in the creation and success of their business (Collins, Hanges, & Locke, 2000; Johnson, 1990; Miner, 2000). These individuals who seek excellence feel motivated by challenges and how to transcend them successfully (Brockhaus, 1980; Gibb, 1993; McClelland, 1961). Finally, the need for realisation is related to the process of business creation and success (McClelland, 1961; Sanchis and Redondo, 1997).

Another one of the most prominent features is the tendency or predisposition to take risks. Brockhaus (1980) defines the predisposition to risk as the perceived probability of obtaining a reward before starting an economic adventure, knowing the consequences of potential failure. This feature is positively related to business success, since the assumption of risk is part of the decision-making in any activity of a business and its creation (Begley, 1995; Praag & Cramer, 2001; Stewart & Roth, 2001). Entrepreneurs who make the decision to run their own businesses, while being careful and cautious, feel secure in beginning launches that take place in uncertain conditions.

The locus of internal control refers to the confidence that a person has in being able to control their own destiny (Rotter, 1966). There are two types of locus control: firstly, the external one, which refers to all those actions that a person takes being conditioned by events, bystanders, and by luck or chance, for which the person feels that many decisions are beyond their means. Secondly, the internal one is the belief that the conditioning factors in the decision making and execution of an action by a person are conditioned by himself or herself, their behaviour and characteristics. Some studies prove that the locus of internal control is intrinsic in entrepreneurs (Shapero, 1975) and consider that the success of their objectives depends to a large extent on their decisions and their own influence of events. By contrast, there is another group of people with a more external locus who believe that their success will be conditioned by external forces that lay beyond their control.

General self-efficacy is the perception of a person regarding their ability to carry out an activity and develop an action. It is related to the confidence a person has in themselves and their abilities (Krueger, 1993). According to Bandura (1999, p. 21), self-efficacy is "the beliefs in one's own abilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to handle future situations.

Leadership implies that a person is able to influence other people in order to exploit an opportunity and take risks through their charisma. This positively influences the probability of starting an economic venture (García, 2003; Stuart, Hoang, & Hybels, 1999). Entrepreneurs with leadership skills feel the need and satisfaction of being able to influence other people's decision-making and behaviour so that they act in the way that the entrepreneur wants, and not necessarily in the way they themselves would usually act (McClelland, 1961).

Finally, the creativity and power of innovation as a psychological trait of the entrepreneur and their ability to successfully begin business ventures. This implies that an entrepreneur is a dynamic person who promotes new ways of acting, tackling reality head-on and innovating (Schumpeter, 1934). Creativity and the ability to innovate allow the entrepreneur to adapt and exploit changing situations to their advantage to obtain an advantage from an opportunity that did not exist before (Drucker, 1985). In addition, entrepreneurs are individuals who innovate, identify and create new forms of business opportunities, establish and coordinate new combinations of resources, to extract the greatest benefits from their innovations, thus increasing their chances of success in the market (Villalonga & Amit, 2004).

The entrepreneurial process

Timmons (1989) has one of the most recognised definitions of the term 'entrepreneurship', understanding that "it is a human and creative act that builds something of value from nothing. It searches insistently for opportunity without taking into account the resources available. It requires vision, passion and commitment to lead a team to pursue that vision. And it also requires a willingness to take calculated risks."

Other authors such as Stevenson and Jarillo (1990, p. 23), define it as "the process by which individuals - by themselves or within an organisation - pursue opportunities regardless of the resources they control." Including in its definition key elements such as the discovery of opportunities, the propensity towards moderate risks, and the characteristics of self-confidence and the probability of success.

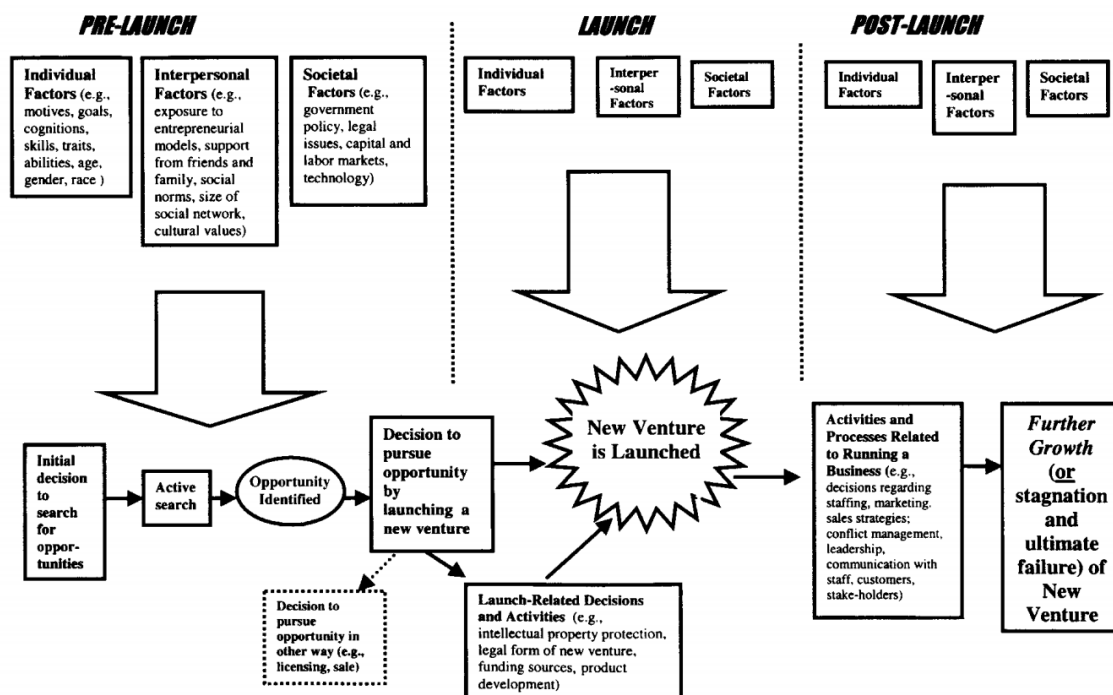
There are different models that cover the process of business creation (Baron, 2002; Carton, Hofer, & Meeks, 1998) which explain the stages by which the entrepreneur is progressing. Figure 1 shows the stages of this process. First, the pre-launch by looking for new opportunities and their identification as possible successful breaks and what the

possible risks involved are, that is, the evaluation of the viability of the project. The second part of this phase includes the design of the business idea and the design of the plan and the strategies that will be carried out (F Liñán, Moriano León, & Zarnowska, 2008)

Secondly, the launching phase, which, once the company is established, has to design the entire structure of the organisation, as well as the collection of resources, the creation of a network of customers, and in addition the selection of a competitive edge. This phase is a key part of the process with regards to the self-sufficiency of the company, since it depends on the success or failure of a business. Carton et al (1998) accepts this approach, adding that this phase will end when the company has its self-sustainability.

Third, the post-launch phase, which marks the end of the entrepreneurial process, where the process of business management begins.

Figure 1. A model of the entrepreneurial process



Source: Baron (2002).

The process of business creation begins with the decision of an individual entrepreneur to create a business. This decision is influenced by various factors studied

throughout a lot of pieces of literature, since they are the cause of the economic engine and its evolution. From Morales (2008) we complete the table 1 with the main authors who have studied the factors that influence the decision of the entrepreneur to carry out the creation of a company.

Tabla 1. Factors that influence the creation of a company

Factors	Authors
Race, Gender; occupies sources of ideas; occupation of parents; education level; level experience; age; personal objectives.	Cooper and Gimeno Gascón (1992)
Related to the subject; the process; the environment; the organisation itself.	Gartner (1998)
Entrepreneur background; personal attributes; incubator organization; environment.	Veciana (1988)
Individual, social and economic factors	Dyer (1994)
Procedures and governmental processes; socio-economic conditions; Entrepreneurial and managerial skills; financial assistance; non-financial assistance.	Gnyawali y Fogel (1994)
Related to the offer; related to the demand.	Audretsch, Verheul, Wennekers and Thurik (2001)
Formal factors: Government policies; Entrepreneurs and company-creation support assistance. Informal factors: Community attitude; Business function legitimization; Entrepreneur social status; Family support; Family background.	Urbano (2003)

Source: based on Morales (2008), my own elaboration.

2.2. The entrepreneurial intention.

There are several models that explain the behaviour of the phenomenon of entrepreneurship and decision-making regarding perusing people. It is considered that the entrepreneurial intention is the prelude to the action of the initial starting up, so it is a subject studied by many authors.

The first step in the process is a previous step to the entrepreneurial behaviour that supposes the intentionality of the enterprising people to make the decision to create a company. Authors such as Gartner (1988) claim that trait models do not predict the behaviour towards entrepreneurship correctly, while the approach to behaviour does.

Sánchez et al. (2005) points out that business creation and decision making towards entrepreneurship does not originate as a reaction to a stimulus, but rather as a decision previously planned through a process.

According to Ajzen (1991), intentionality is the best predictor of planned behaviour, since it is a prediction of the individual conduct of people, and therefore, of the entrepreneurial conduct (J. C. Sánchez et al., 2005).

Next, we will briefly explain some of the models of intentions developed by different authors that explain the process of the intent of people to carry out the process of entrepreneurship.

As a result of the reproaches of personality trait models, (Peter B. Robinson, Stimpson, Huefner, & Hunt, 1991; Shane, 2003; Shaver & Scott, 1992) models of entrepreneurial intention emerge. The models of personality traits lack an explanation of some variables that clearly influence entrepreneurial decision-making as, in addition to personality traits, they can be motivations, values, social factors and subjective norms such as the perceptions of the individual.

Later we will discuss the Theory of planned action (Ajzen, 1991) in detail, which is the basis for this work.

Model of the entrepreneurial event

The Entrepreneur Event model is the first model of Entrepreneurial Intent (A Shapero & Sokol, 1982; Albert Shapero, 1975) that bases the intent of the entrepreneur on three fundamental factors (see figure 2).

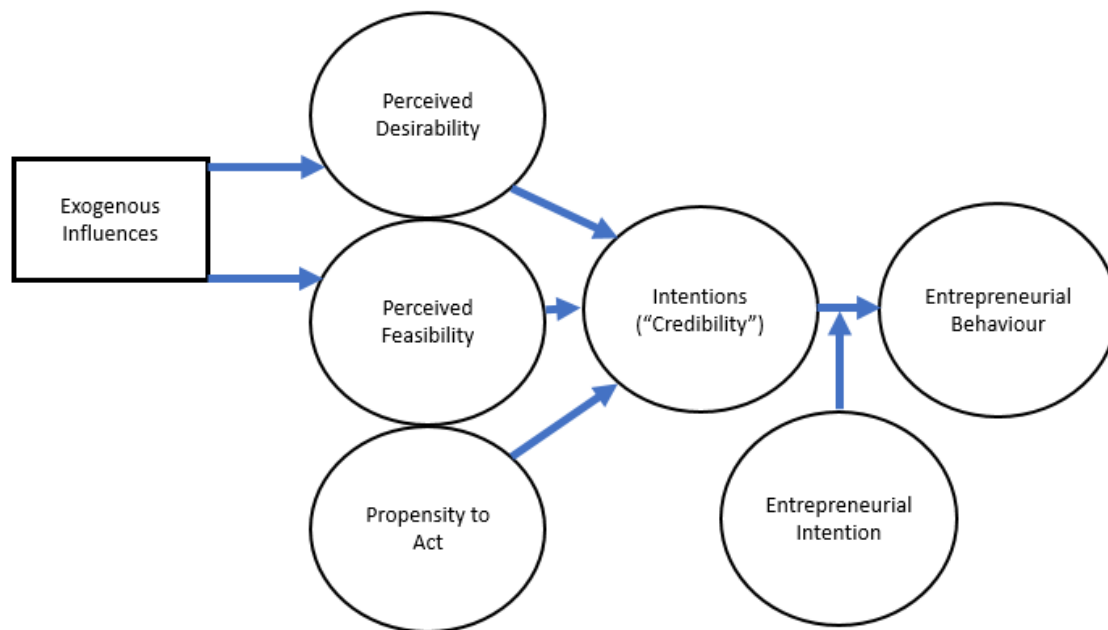
The first factor is the perceived attractiveness (desirability) by the person in question, about the opportunities. It refers to the level of personal lure towards the creation of a company.

The second factor is the person's propensity to act when opportunities arise. It is intimately related to the traits of the person linked to their tendencies to take risks and practise tolerance in the face of uncertainty.

The third factor is the level of viability (feasibility) perceived by the person regarding the opportunities to launch. Given the uncertainty involved in the decision to kick-start things, this is the perception that the person has about the control of the situation, the economic context, the availability of resources, etc.

These factors are related to each other, and have direct influence upon one another, both positive and negative. All of them are conditioned by the person's previous personal experiences.

Figure 2. Model of the Entrepreneurial Event



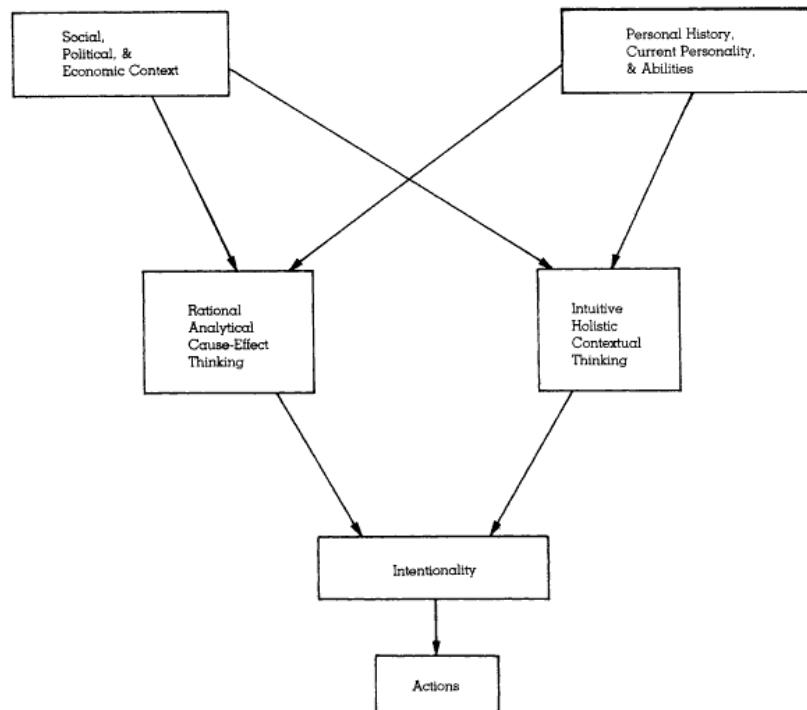
Source: Based on Shapero and Sokol (1982). My own elaboration

Model of entrepreneurial ideas

Bird (1988) develops the 'Model of Entrepreneurial Ideas' in such a way that the first factors that influence the intention to undertake are, in the first place, the personal history and the social context of the individuals, and these in turn influence the personality and capacity of them (see figure 3). The author separates thought into two parts: 1) analytical thinking, which deals with cause-effect relationships, the analysis of opportunities, acquisition of resources, etc. and 2) intuitive thinking, which helps in making decisions and following a business vision. All this leads to the intention (or not) of the person and, therefore, their actions, which in this case would be the action of undertaking.

This model, highlights, therefore, the transcendence of cognitive processes in the intentionality of people for the progress of entrepreneurial decision. It is in this model that other models such as the 'Theory of Reasoned Action' (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the Theory of Planned Action (I Ajzen, 1991) will be based upon.

Figure 3. The context of intentionality



Source: Bird (1988).

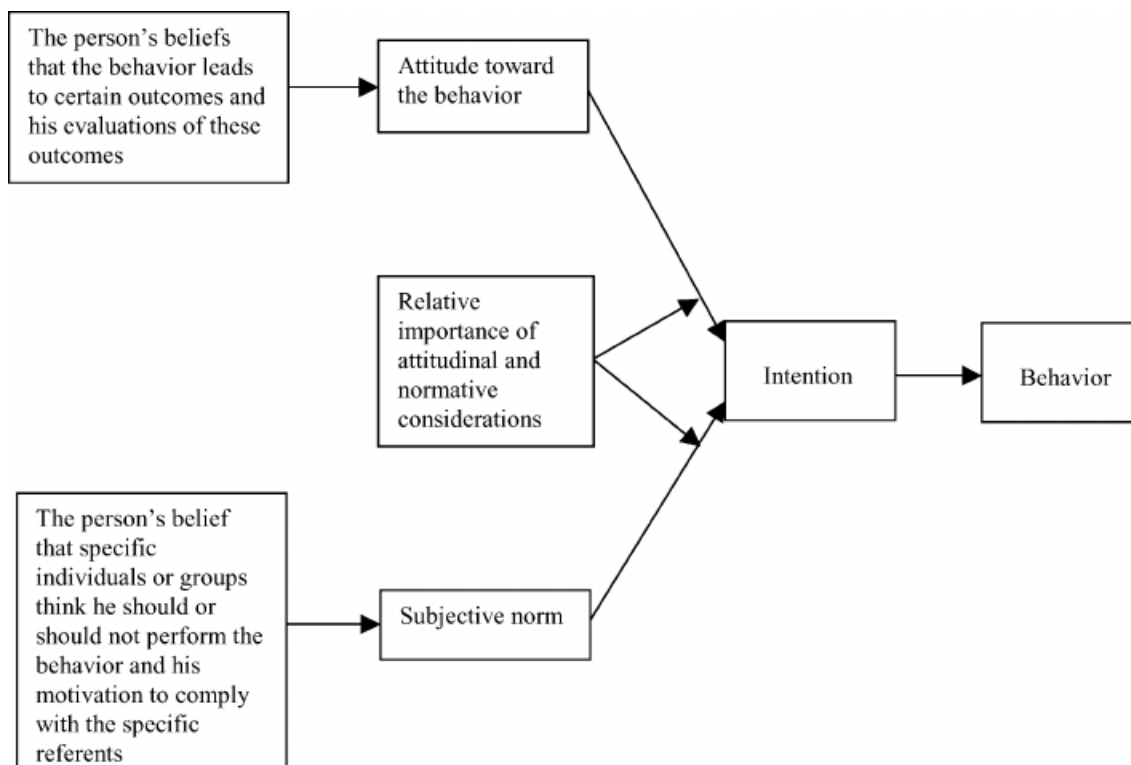
The theory of reasoned behaviour

This theory considers that the intentionality of the individual is the key factor in order for an action to be carried out, since the subjects normally move according to their intentions (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In this way, this theory poses a model to explain the behaviour of people directly through intention (see figure 4)

Figure 4 shows the model of Fishbein and Ajzen (1980) where the external or unrelated variables do not influence the behaviour directly. This said, a very small amount of variables directly affects the behaviour (I Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Having said this, external variables will only affect behaviour depending on how they affect the variables that determine such behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

This theory has been criticised by several authors as Armitage et al (1999) because the will of the individual plays too much of an important role since there are also involuntary behaviours or contexts of uncertainty. In addition, the influence of external variables such as the social and political context and the availability of resources, often have more importance than attitude and motivation (Liska, 1984).

Figure 4. The determinants of behaviour



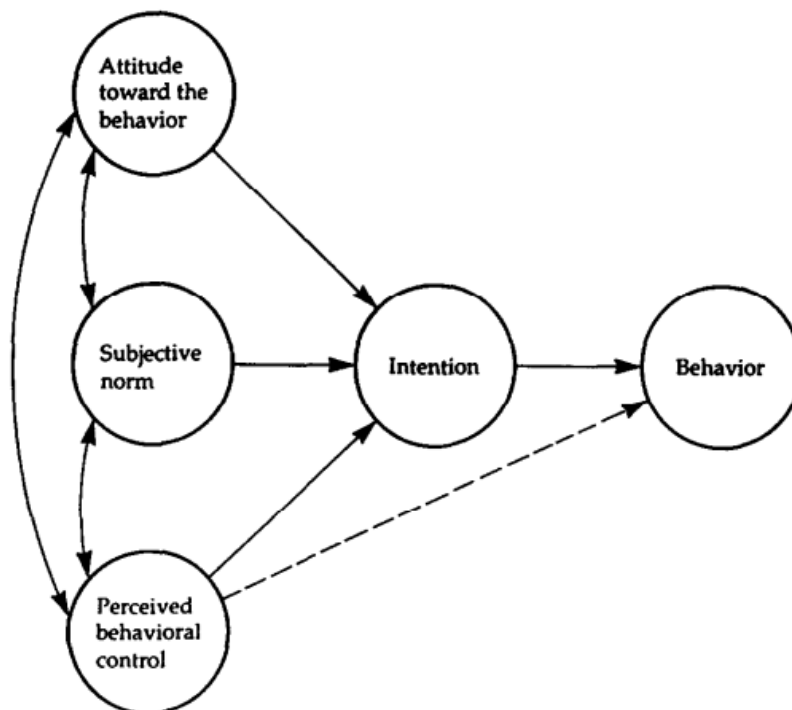
Source: Ajzen and Fishbein (1980).

2.3. The Theory of Planned Behaviour

The Theory of Planned Behaviour or TPB (I Ajzen, 1991) is a revision of the Theory of Reasoned Behaviour. Like the theory of reasoned action, it was created to clarify the behaviour of individuals through the study of the intention to manifest a certain behaviour (figure 5). It adds a new conditioning factor to the intentionality of the individuals which is the perception of control that it has on the success of the results, that is, what the level of the internal control locus is. This new factor will influence when carrying out the action of undertaking. This new factor implies that if a person has a sufficient level of internal locus of control, as soon as an opportunity arises, he or she will make the decision to launch (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).

The TPB is based on three components, such as in figure 5: a) the attitude toward behaviour; b) the subjective norm and; c) perceived control. Next, we will explain each one of them in more detail.

Figure 5. The theory of planned behavior



Source: Ajzen (1991).

2.3.1. Attitude towards behavior

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) define the attitude towards entrepreneurial behaviour as the acquired predisposition of a person to respond to a behaviour, or in other words, how a person evaluates (positively or negatively) to carry out a particular behaviour.

The attitudes of individuals are explained in the theory of planned action as a factor influenced by the beliefs that a person has towards a certain element (object, individual or organisation) and this in turn is determined by the perception that these beliefs hold. In addition, attitudes are not only influenced by beliefs, but also by the personal evaluation that the individual has regarding these behavioral beliefs (Moriano, 2005).

In this way, the authors say that "the more favourable a person's attitude towards an object is, the greater the intention will be to develop positive behaviours (and less of these being negative) in relation to that object" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 288). In

addition, positive evaluations towards that object allow the person to develop their creativity and innovation, and therefore, the greater the attitude toward entrepreneurial behaviour, the higher the value of the entrepreneurial intention. Even so, a person may consider entrepreneurship as something desirable, while another person may have the opposite opinion, which may have a negative impact on the intention. There are studies that analyse the impact, both positive and negative, of the evaluations regarding the entrepreneurial attitude (Marques et al, 2012; Laspita et al, 2012; Zhang et al, 2014).

2.3.2. Subjective norm

The subjective norm refers to the individual perception of a particular behaviour, which is influenced by the judgment of other people, which are significant to them (parents, partner, friends, teachers...), those of the family nucleus being the most influential (Aidis & Wetzels, 2007). Answer the question: What do others expect from my behaviour? (I Ajzen, 1991). It assumes that, according to someone's beliefs towards an object, as individuals, they are significant to them, and, therefore, so are the beliefs themselves. This is the most social component of the model.

In turn, the subjective norm is made up of two components. The first are the normative beliefs, which are the beliefs that the individual attributes to the people of their socially influenced environment, and it is what others expect of their behaviour. Secondly, this said person will try to act or not act according to these said beliefs, consequently it will influence their intentions and therefore, may influence their actions to a greater or lesser extent (Ajzen, 2006).

There are several recent studies that support the idea that the individual who has contact in their social context with entrepreneurs influences the attitude toward entrepreneurship (Laspita et al., 2012), and that the subjective norm influences the decision to start up a business (Mueller, 2011; Otuya et al, 2013; Robert L. Engle et al., 2010). This thinking goes in the same direction as other research in which the current social models of the family field positively influence decision-making towards entrepreneurship. And having a close social circle which has made the decision to venture into self-employment allows others to see the positive and negative aspects of this (Hisrich & Brush, 1986; Moriano León et al, 2006; Sánchez Almagro, 2003; Scherer et al, 1990).

On the other hand, there are studies that show that the subjective norm does not significantly influence the entrepreneurial intention (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Pelling &

White, 2009). This is because people who have a strong locus of control are not as influential (Ajzen, 2002).

We can see that the subjective norms, in short, reflect the social effects on intentions, while the attitude towards the behaviour reflects the individual's psychological effect (Morales et al, 1996).

2.3.3. Perceived control over behavior

This is all about the degree of ease or difficulty that the individual experiences when judging their own ability to carry out a code of conduct or a certain behaviour. In addition, there are two possible origins of this that demonstrate the relationship between this factor and behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). The first is the perception of effort that the individual has from the beginning of a behaviour until the success of the proposed objective (motivation). The second is the perception of the control that has on the behaviour, which will be used as a predictor of the probability of performing said behaviour.

This factor is also referred to as self-efficacy (Rodgers et al, 2008), defined as "an estimation of one's own abilities or the confidence to perform a set of well-defined behaviours". There are authors who highlight the importance of the perception of self-efficacy over real abilities (Krueger & Dickson, 1994). People who have a high level of self-efficacy are more determined to achieve goals, work harder and work more effectively.

It is a factor that has a direct and positive relationship with respect to behaviour, and it also influences other factors such as: ease of gaining opportunities and resources, education, gender, income, age, etc. Regarding the totality of the variables that form the model of the 'Theory of Planned Intent', the three variables have independent contributions and also influence one another.

2.4. Sociodemographic characteristics

In addition to the personal characteristics of the entrepreneur's profile, we also refer to the sociodemographic characteristics that influence the creation of companies. As with personality traits, we will discuss the ones which are the most distinctive and analysed: gender, age, educational standard, work experience and family history.

Gender is a personal characteristic whose study and analysis is focused upon its influence in certain fields and how it has increased in recent decades. Regarding the creation of companies, there are authors who have tried to discern which gender is more enterprising and thanks to these studies, many initiatives have emerged to promote the participation and creation of companies by women (Minniti & Nardone, 2007). Historically, in literature, the masculine gender has always stood out within the subject of entrepreneurial initiative and has been linked to the creation of new businesses (Hernández et al., 2013). It is a sociodemographic characteristic that has acquired great relevance in recent years and has been part of numerous studies.

First of all, we can see that, at present, as Vossenbergh (2013) says, the main obstacles to entrepreneurship are balancing family and work life, training difficulties, access to information and financial resources, legal barriers and lack of social support, among others.

On the other hand, we also have to consider the fact that gender stereotypes associated with a particular job make young people choose a certain university degree. They choose it not only based upon their personality and passion for the subject (Santos & Amâncio, 2014), but also because sometimes there is an association that a certain job must be occupied by a specific gender (Gupta et al, 2009). Therefore, male entrepreneurship continues to dominate due to a great lack of reference models for women (Díaz-Casero et al, 2016)

The subjective standard within gender is also a factor to be taken into account, since the roles historically and socially attributed to women are in the process of change, but they are still in the process, after all. There are several studies that confirm that the subjective norm is more of a contributing factor for women rather than men, because of the inferiority stereotypes connected to entrepreneurship, in addition to the difficulty of access to economic resources (García & Moreno, 2010; Vossenbergh, 2013).

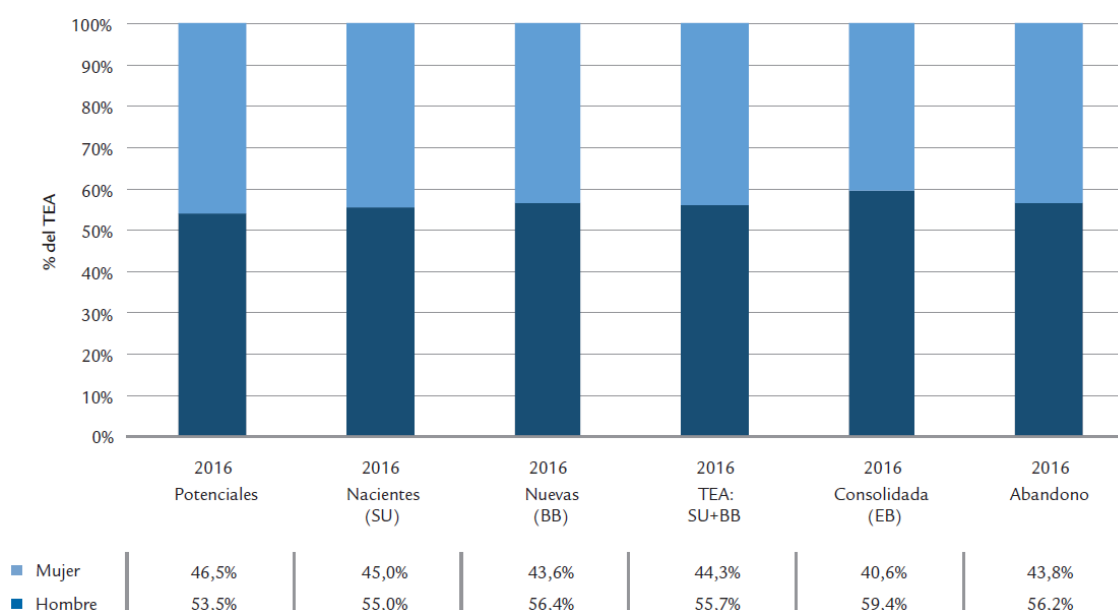
On the other hand, women who decide to create a business project are usually from smaller companies and in sectors distinct from those of men, and usually with less profit potential, so it can be a factor that explains the difficulty of access to financial resources (García & Moreno, 2010).

Regarding a more psychological dimension, men tend to present values more oriented towards power, self-realisation and stimulation, while women tend to be more oriented towards values of collectively, social equality or protection (Almeida, 2013). By this we mean to say that at the time of undertaking the individualist values positively

influence entrepreneurial intention, while the collectivists have more of a negative influence (Oliveira, 2015).

Regarding the GEM report (2016) there are at least two theoretical perspectives. On the one hand, liberal feminism holds that men and women are equally capable of acting and deciding, so that the gender differences at the time of undertaking are the result of barriers or systematic differences that limit access to opportunities on equal terms. On the other hand, socialist feminism holds that men and women have different entrepreneurial behaviours because social structures encourage the development of ability, perceptions and ways of seeing life that are specific to each gender. So, if women are less prone to undertake it is because, as a result of a socially constructed reality, they play roles connected to values, motivations and expectations (e.g. the search for balance between family life and work) that make them choose less ambitious or risky occupations when compared to men (Pernía et al, 2012). As we can see in Graphic 1, there is a great gender difference within the group of people who decide to undertake in Spain within the adult population. This difference is accentuated among the consolidated companies among men (59.4%) compared to women (40.6%).

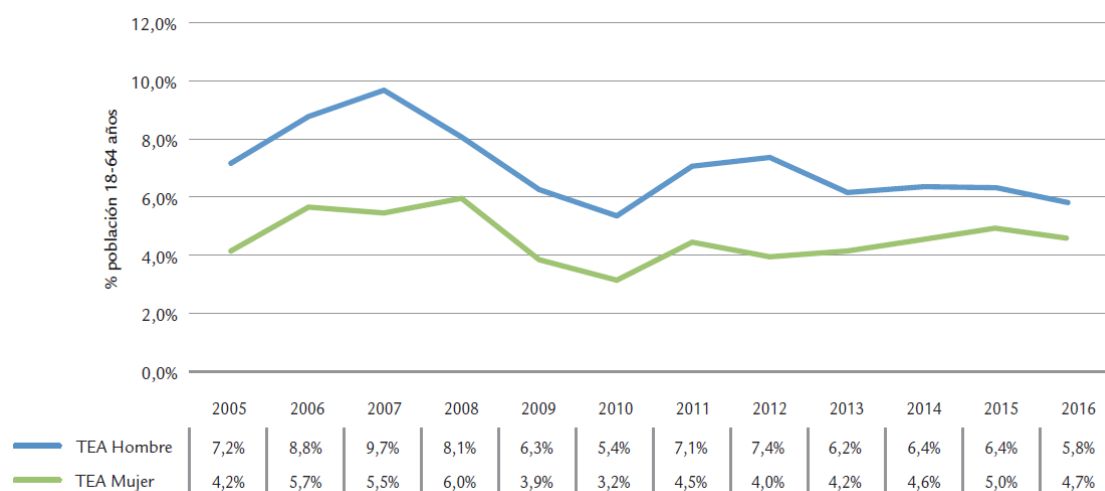
Graphic 1. Entrepreneurial groups distribution by gender in Spain, 2016.



Source: GEM Spain, APS 2016.

Although the separation between men and women has existed over the years, its intensity has in fact recently decreased, as can be seen in graphic 2.

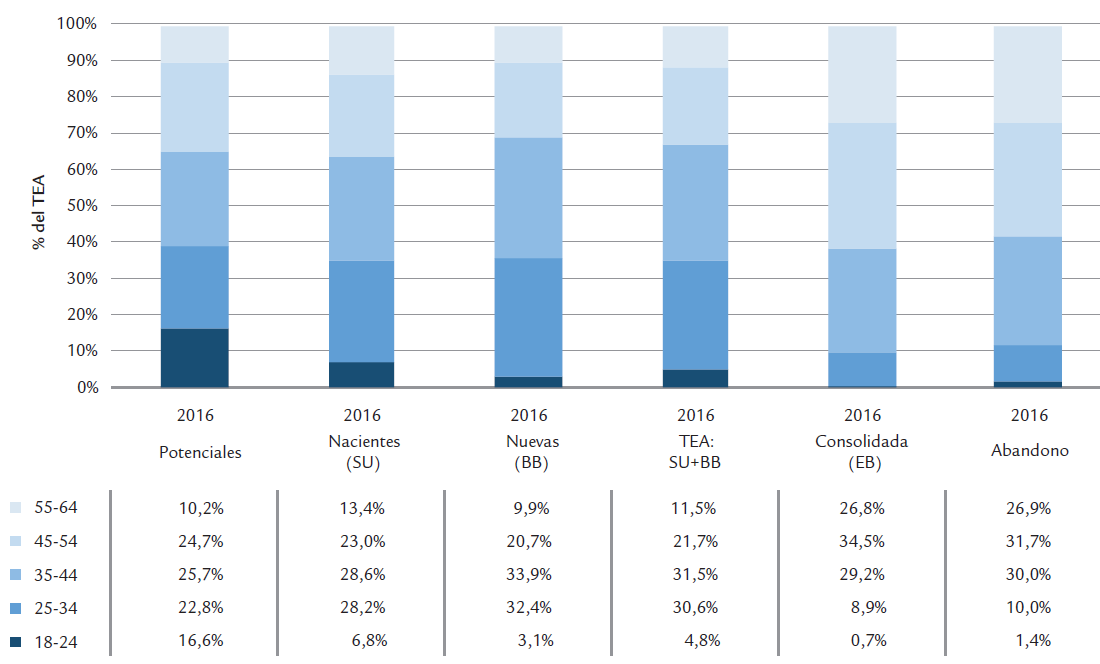
Graphic 2. TEA index by gender Evolution in Spain during the period of 2005-2016.



Source: GEM Spain, APS 2016.

Age is another one of the sociodemographic variables to be analysed in the field of business creation and entrepreneurial initiative. One of the reasons, according to Fernández and Junquera (2001), is that the older a person is, the more the ability to detect new opportunities lessens. In young people, however, in addition to having a greater predisposition to risk, thanks to their updated knowledge, they are better able to detect business opportunities. These statements are contrary to those of the GEM report (2016), which maintains that the knowledge and experience accumulated over the years are key elements for the detection and exploitation of new business opportunities, and that the more involved in the entrepreneurial process the individual is (which usually occurs at older ages) the greater the intent to be entrepreneurs. As shown in graph 3, the Total Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) statistic is concentrated on people aged twenty-four and upwards.

Graphic 3. Distribution by age of the entrepreneurial groups in Spain in 2016.

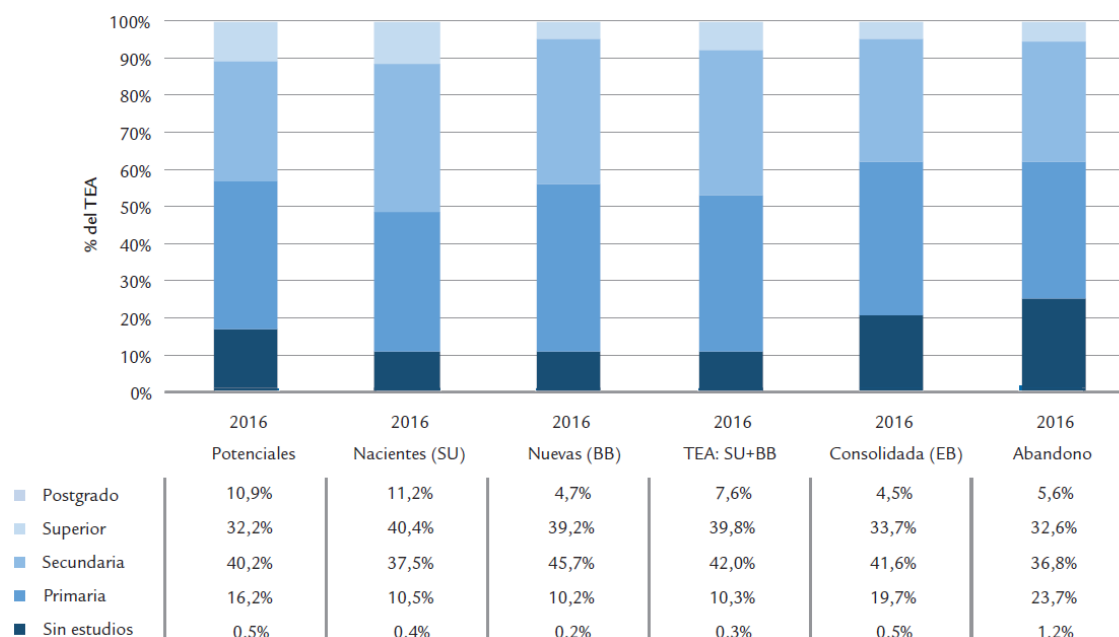


Source: GEM Spain, APS (2016).

Educational level is one of the characteristics that arouses most interest but the literature has not clearly expressed its influence on the creation of companies. As it has been demonstrated empirically, greater training increases the desirability that entrepreneurs have towards the creation of new businesses, but especially if they have specific entrepreneurial training (Peterman & Kennedy, 2003). More recent studies (Fayolle et al, 2006), suggest that the effect of entrepreneurial training is much more effective and influential if the people who receive it have no previous experience with entrepreneurship, compared to those who do.

According to the GEM report (2016) it is considered that having a higher level of education implies better cognitive development and broader vision. In addition, it also grants the ability to obtain information and consider the use of resources of great importance to a company. As shown in graph 4, in Spain, most people who carry out entrepreneurial activities have a level of higher education or postgraduate studies (47.4%).

Graphic 4. Distribution of entrepreneurial groups by education level in Spain in 2016.



Source: GEM Spain, APS 2016.

In the same vein as the level of education, work experience is positively related to the process of business creation. This is a characteristic that significantly influences everything, since, with greater work experience comes a greater desire to launch business ventures (Robinson & Sexton, 1994). However, this has a less forceful positive effect than entrepreneurial training (Majid et al, 2011). The work experience helps in the detection of business opportunities due to the practical knowledge gained about the market and production acquired from previous professional practice in companies.

Family background is also one of the critical characteristics, since many new entrepreneurs come from families which have already been involved with entrepreneurial experience, mainly encouraged by the parents. Litvak and Maule (1980) conducted a study in Canada, comparing it with other studies from the United States and the United Kingdom, in which special reference was made to the entrepreneurial family background and entrepreneurial intention.

2.5. Entrepreneurial education

Entrepreneurship-oriented education is a research topic that is becoming very important in recent decades. There are authors such as Hall et al (2010) who affirms that the promotion of entrepreneurial initiatives contributes to the socio-economic development of any country that promotes it. Institutions such as the Lisbon European Council (2000) establish that this type of entrepreneurial education is the key element for the economy to evolve more dynamically.

The educational system and entrepreneurial education, therefore, become the cornerstone of societies that wish to promote entrepreneurship. Different authors suggest that carrying out this type of training during the university period is key for the training and promotion of new entrepreneurs (Morales & Gualdrón, 2008). Other authors such as Pleitner (2003) urge universities to set up this type of training, since they are the most important quality training centers. Entrepreneurship and its training are instructional subjects and skills that can be acquired, and universities are encouraged to provide the means (such as platforms) for this training to be carried out (Peltier & Scovotti, 2010).

It has been shown in numerous studies that the legend that entrepreneurs are born and not made, is disappearing. Entrepreneurship is a discipline like any other and can be taught in many of its facets (Drucker, 1985).

According to Dutta et al. (2011, p. 165) “entrepreneurship education plays a critical role in guiding and developing future entrepreneurs, providing them with the set of knowledge, skills and aptitudes to start new businesses”. In this way, individuals who participate in entrepreneurship programs acquire a greater awareness of entrepreneurship and can consider it as a career option (Liñán et al, 2011). In addition, many authors point out that entrepreneurship training increases the likelihood that a person will make the decision to start a business venture (Jayawarna, 2014), since it increases entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Liñán et al, 2011). It also changes and improves the students' perception about the option to launch a business, since they will see the possibility of opening up their own business as a more viable option with possible success, and this will increase their perception of entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Krueger et al, 2000; Zhao et al, 2005).

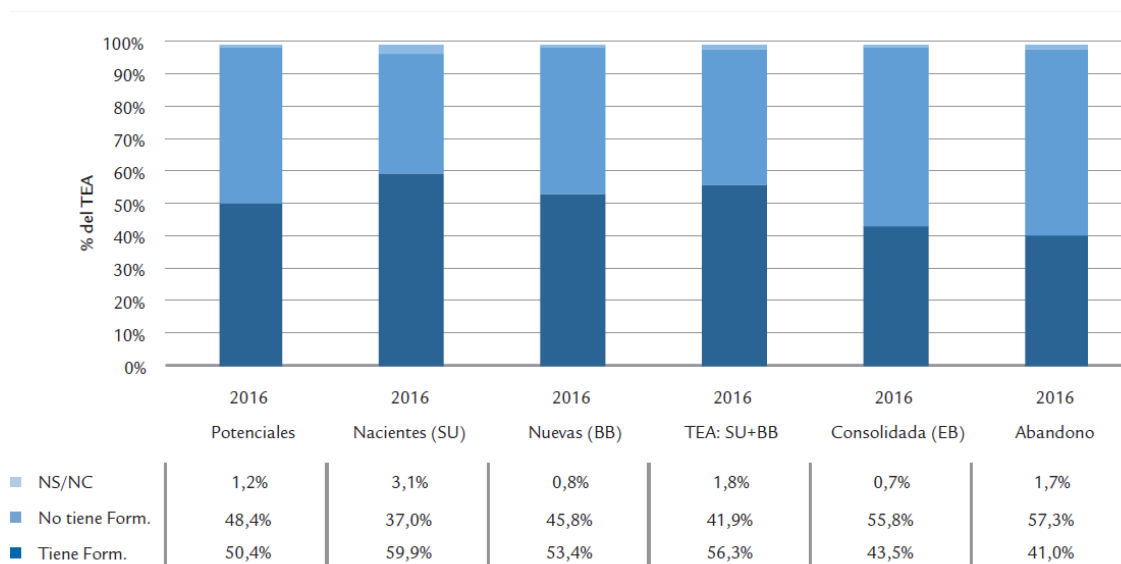
There are studies that present very different results about the influence of entrepreneurial oriented training and the real boost to entrepreneurship. Some authors believe that the relationship is positive (Espíritu & Sastre, 2007; Hayton et al, 2002),

others that there is no relationship and there exist those of the opinion that it is a negative relationship (Gurel et al, 2010).

From a historical perspective, since 1970, the first Masters at university for business administration began in the USA. From this stage to the present there have been many reference articles written for a new type of learning called "experiential learning" taught at universities.

Currently, in Spain, according to the GEM report (2016), training in entrepreneurship is not only key for a person to make the decision to undertake a business venture, but it is also of utmost importance for this entrepreneurial attitude to be maintained over time through the success of the business created. As seen in Graphic 5, 56.3% of the entrepreneur population in the initial phase identified in Spain in 2016 had specific training to start businesses. It is the same case with potential entrepreneurs, of which 50.4% had received entrepreneurial education at some point. On the other hand, we can also see that there is a greater proportion of consolidated entrepreneurs who have never received specific training. The same happens with people who left the business world, of which a high percentage had not received training in entrepreneurship.

Graphic 5. Entrepreneurial groups distribution in Spain in 2016, depending on whether they have had specific entrepreneurial education.

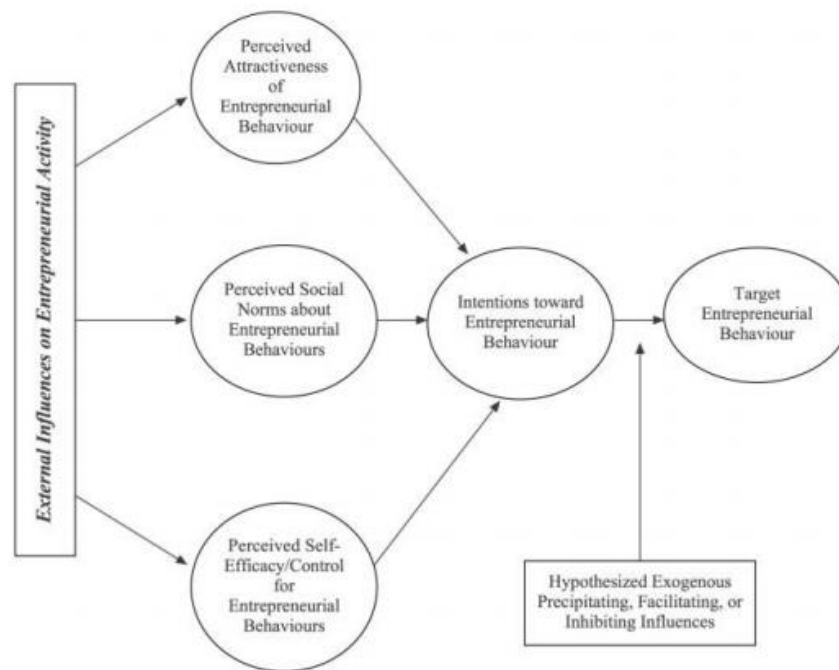


Source: GEM Spain, APS 2016.

In reference to the Theory of Planned Action, Ajzen and Fishbein's model (1980) has been adapted by some authors to be able to carry out a model that defines the entrepreneurial intention, adding to the model the external influences on business

activity, such as education in entrepreneurship, which will affect the three variables of the model (figure 6).

Figure 6. Analysing intentions toward entrepreneurial behaviour using the theory of planned behaviour.



Source: Krueger and Carsrud (1993, p. 323)

Another issue concerning entrepreneurship education is the content it has, teaching-wise. Authors like Morris (2014) have wanted to go a step further and try to answer the following questions about entrepreneurship education from a teaching perspective: 1) What do we want students to know? 2) What do we want students to be able to do? 3) What do we want students to think?

This author specifies that there is no specific content in education in standardised entrepreneurship, but that there are patterns, which are classified into three categories, which should be included in any teaching of entrepreneurship (see table 1).

The first category, "business basics" are the basic elements of marketing, finance, accounting, management and economics. The second is "entrepreneurship basics", focused on the processes of entrepreneurship, their role in society, detection and evaluation of opportunities, types of entrepreneurs and business creation models. The third is "the entrepreneurial mindset", which aims to help students to take advantage

of opportunities, such as mitigating risk, developing their creativity, being tolerant and adapting to changes, etc.

Table 1. A sample of what we want students to know.

Business basics and acting	Entrepreneurship basics	Entrepreneurial thinking
Setting up the books	Entrepreneurship defined	Opportunity alertness
How to sell	The entrepreneurial process	Risk mitigation
Hiring of staff	Characteristics of entrepreneurs	Resource leveraging
Forms of enterprise	Types of entrepreneurs	Conveying a vision
Cash flow management	Contexts for entrepreneurship	Innovating
Formulating strategy	Designing a business model	Passion
Market analysis	Protecting intellectual property	Persistence and tenacity
Setting up operations	Writing a business plan	Creative problem-solving
Pricing	Ethics and entrepreneurship	Guerrilla behavior
Promotion and advertising	Seed and venture capital	Optimism
Financial statements	Assessing opportunities	Learning from failure
Franchising	Deal structuring	Effecting change
Management control	Entrepreneurship and society	Adaptation
Cost analysis	Exit strategies	Resilience

Source : Morris (2014)

3. A PROPOSED RESEARCH MODEL.

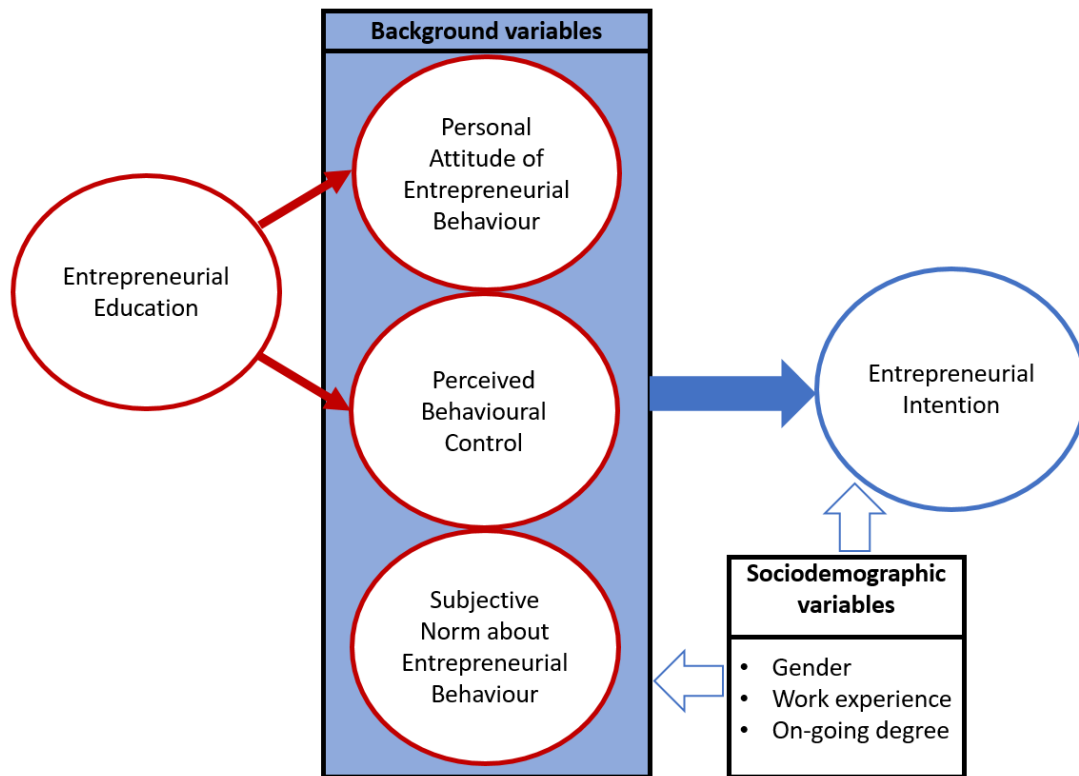
In order to develop students' entrepreneurial intentions, it is necessary to consider some background variables relating to the influence of The Theory of Planned Action. These variables will be those included in this model and presented in the theoretical review: the attitude of the person with respect to starting a business venture, the subjective norm and the perceived behavioral control with respect to entrepreneurship. The rest of the variables that we will include in the model are of a socio-demographic type, and these will be the age, gender, work experience and degree that the student is studying. In addition, entrepreneurship training is another one of the aspects to be analyzed as a precedent of entrepreneurial intention, especially in terms of the analysis of university students. It is a specific variable to determine to what extent entrepreneurial education affects the intentional antecedents of the attitude of the person with respect to entrepreneurship and the perceived behavioral control linked to entrepreneurship, and therefore to the entrepreneurial intention.

Thus, our objective is to determine certain variables that define the entrepreneurial intention, affecting the entrepreneurial intention of the students and the decision to start up a business. These antecedents will affect this differently according to the sociodemographic variables and their specific education in entrepreneurship. To do this, in our work we will analyse, using the TPB, the effect that the antecedents have on the entrepreneurial intention, and if these antecedents are indeed affected by each other, and if the external variables mentioned affect said antecedents also.

Based on the background and models previously explained in this work, we propose this model, shown in Figure 7 that considers the three organizational factors proposed by Ajzen (1991), specifically, we include the attitude of the person with respect to starting a business, the subjective norm and the perceived behavioral control regarding entrepreneurship. Their influence on the entrepreneurship intentions of the students will be considered. Our model proposes that the background variables used by Ajzen in the Theory of Planned Action have links in the entrepreneurial intention and behavior carried out in the world of entrepreneurship.

This model will attempt to show that the variables of the model affect the entrepreneurial intention, and that external variables such as entrepreneurship education and sociodemographic variables also have a considerable influence on students' intention to launch business ventures.

Figure 7. A proposed research proposed model of entrepreneurial behavior of university students.



Source: My Own elaboration.

After presenting our model, we will discuss the questions in our research analysis carried out in this work, which are the following:

RQ1. Does entrepreneurial education have a positive link with personal attitude, perceived behavior control and entrepreneurial intention?

RQ2. Does personal attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control have a positive effect on entrepreneurial intentions?

RQ3. Are there differences in personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial intentions, according to the formative branch of origin, work experience and gender?

4. SAMPLE AND METHOD

The empirical analyses are carried out from the data obtained by the surveys completed by the students of the Jaime I University, in order to analyse to what extent education in entrepreneurship and the conditions proposed by the Theory of Planned Action influence the intention of launching a business, based on sociodemographic characteristics.

The data collection has been carried out through a questionnaire (see annex 1) addressed to students in various grades. The objective was to obtain a sample of students from technical branches and branches of economic and social sciences. Specifically, information has been collected from students studying degrees such as Human Resources, Labour Relations and Computer Engineering. In addition, a sample of control has been included in order to have a representation of students who are participating in an educational program oriented towards entrepreneurship. More specifically, the participants of the Santander Bank's Explorer Program taught by the Cátedra Increa. This is an initiative for young people between 18 and 31 years old with concerns regarding starting a business, aimed at young people with innovative ideas and interests in developing themselves using a business focus in Spain, Argentina and Portugal. The program, in addition to personalised training, counselling and mentoring, offers a new environment of more collaborative and international opportunities. The Explorer Program, which is carried out both in Spain, Argentina and Portugal, is an initiative promoted by Santander Bank which is coordinated by the Santander Entrepreneurship International Centre (CISE), which has the support of Jaime I University and the Cátedra Increa through the Vice President of Students, Employment and Educational Innovation.

To perform the empirical study, we used the statistical program IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). With this program we have obtained the necessary results for the study to be carried out. As previously stated, the objective of this paper is to analyse whether the factors on which the Theory of Planned Action is based are antecedents of the entrepreneurial intentions of the students. In addition, in this proposed relationship we consider education in entrepreneurship and sociodemographic variables of students such as age, gender, work experience and the training branch they are studying. The questionnaire used mainly 'Likert 1-5' response scales, 1 meaning 'completely disagree', and 5 'completely agree'.

Regarding the sampling, we have obtained the data and the results of the following groups of students: 18 Human Resources and Labour Relations students, 43 Computer Engineering students and 26 students participating in the Explorer group by the Santander Bank Entrepreneurship. In this last group we found a varied sample of degrees being studied, since students of all faculties and even master students can access the programme. Within this group we found the following degrees or masters: Electrical Engineering (3), Business Administration and Management (5), Mechanical Engineering (2), Computer Engineering (5), Masters in Design and Manufacturing (4), Psychology (2), Advertising and Public Relations (1), Journalism (3) and Industrial Design (1). In total there are 26 students in this part of the sampling. Therefore, the total consists of 89 students.

Regarding the variables of the sampling, on the one hand, the questionnaire aims to measure the background of entrepreneurship and intentions of the students, as well as specific training in entrepreneurship.

On the other hand, to measure the considered antecedents of the entrepreneurial intention, such as personal attitudes, the subjective norm, the perceived behavioural control and the entrepreneurial intention, we have used three scales developed by the authors Liñán and Chen (2009) in annex 1 which refer to:

- The personal attitude: The personal attitude reflects the predisposition of the respondent towards entrepreneurship. This factor will be influenced by personal beliefs and by the personal assessment that the individual has towards entrepreneurial behaviour. To measure the personal attitude of the person towards entrepreneurship, we used a 5-item scale in order to collect this personal assessment of this attitude.
- The subjective norm: this includes the individual perception towards entrepreneurship conditioned by the judgment of the close social environment (family, friends, work or study colleagues) of the person surveyed. To measure the subjective norm, we used a scale of 3 items, which reflect the perception of the respondent in relation to their social environment linked to the entrepreneurial intention.
- Perceived behavioural control: refers to the perception of the person surveyed in relation to their ability to carry out the action business launching, in relation to their abilities or self-efficacy. To measure perceived behavioural control, we used a 6-item scale in order to collect their perception of their ability or self-efficacy linked to entrepreneurship.

Next, the scales used to measure entrepreneurial intention and education and sociodemographic characteristics of students are described.

- The entrepreneurial intention reflects the predisposition of the person towards entrepreneurial behaviour. To measure the entrepreneurial intention of the respondents, we used the scale of Liñán and Chen (2009) formed by 6 items in order to gather the information regarding the intentions of the person about entrepreneurial behaviour.
- Education in entrepreneurship. It shows if the person surveyed has received some type of specific education oriented towards the behaviour of entrepreneurship. To measure the entrepreneurship education of the respondents, the following question was asked: have you received any kind of entrepreneurial training outside of your degree?

In addition, some sociodemographic variables are included in the questionnaire, such as:

- Gender is represented by a dichotomous variable where 0 is male and 1 is female.
- Age consists of collecting the age of the person interviewed numerically.
- The work experience section reflects if the person has the work experience or not, through a dichotomous answer (yes / no), and indicates numerically (in months) what the length of their work experience has been.
- The degree that is being studied simply indicates the degree that the interviewees are studying.

5. RESULTS

In this section we analyze the data collected from the students in order to answer the research questions raised in the present study.

Descriptive statistics of the sampling

First, we present the descriptive statistics referring to the intentional variables, as well as those referring to entrepreneurship education and the sociodemographic variables of the students surveyed in the following tables. As shown in table 2, we have found out the average level of background studies of all the respondents (which we will analyse later), as well as the work experience and the number of hours in which they have received some type of entrepreneurship training.

We can see that the average hours carried out by people regarding some type of entrepreneurial education does not quite hit eight hours, so it is therefore data to be taken into account in general terms of the sampling, since it is rather low. Something similar occurs with the average number of months the respondents have worked (sixteen months), since many of them have not yet had any kind of work experience, while others have already had several years of experience, as can be seen in the maximum result of this data (two hundred and forty months).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics

	N	Mínimun	Máximun	Average	Standard deviation
Hours	89	0,0	100	7,79	21,41
EXLaboral (month)	89	0,0	240	16,00	33,43
Personal attitudes	89	1,40	5,00	3,47	,8655
Subjective norms	89	1,67	5,00	3,97	0,80
Perceived behavioural control	89	1,00	4,83	2,72	0,91
Entrepreneurial intentions	89	1,00	5,00	2,99	1,13

Source: My Own elaboration.

Continuing with work experience, as we see in table 3 and graphic 6, almost 56% of the sample has had some kind of work experience (51 students), while 42% have not (38 students). This is an interesting piece of information, because as we have seen before, the average of months worked is 16, so there exists the possibility that this work experience is of very short duration in most of the sampling

Graphic 6. Work experience frequency



Source: My own development

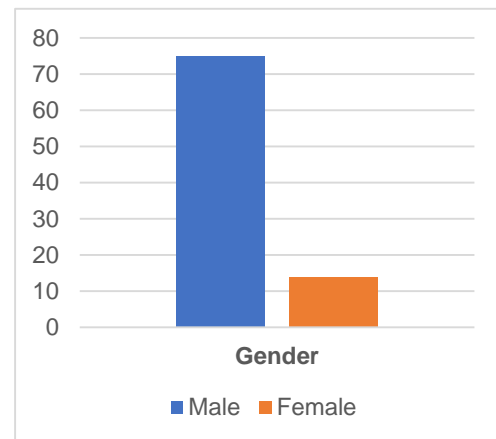
Table 3. Working experience frequency and percent

Work experience	Frequency	Percent (%)
No work experience	38	42,22%
Work experience	51	57,78%
Total	89	100%

Source: Own development

Regarding gender, as we can see in table 4 and graphic 7, only 15% of the sample are female (14 students), while there exists an 83% male sampling (75 people). Due to the attributes of the degrees being studied, the sample is not balanced between both sexes.

Graphic 7. Gender sample frequency



Source: My own development

Table 4. Gender sample frequency and percent

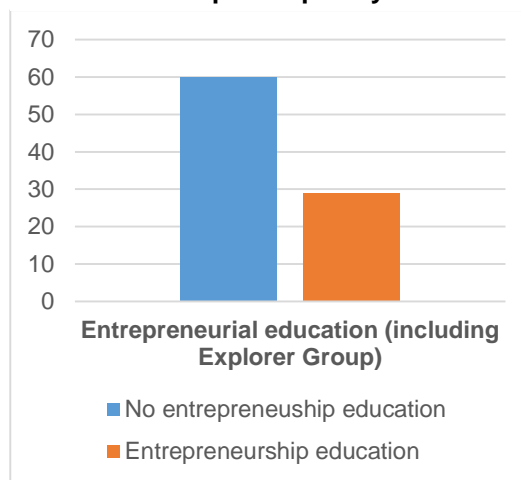
Gender	Frecuency	Porcentaje (%)
Male	75	84,44%
Female	14	15,56%
Total	89	98,89%

Source: My own development

In relation to the total number of people who have received some type of entrepreneurship education outside their degree, including the Explorer group, we will analyse the results of table 5 and graphic 8.

We find ourselves facing a sample where 32.22% of students have received some type of entrepreneurship education (29 students), while 66% have not (60 students). It is a sample with a level of education in entrepreneurship we consider appropriate for the objectives of the work, since almost a third of the sample has entrepreneurship education.

Graphic 8. Entrepreneurial education, sample frequency



Source: My own development

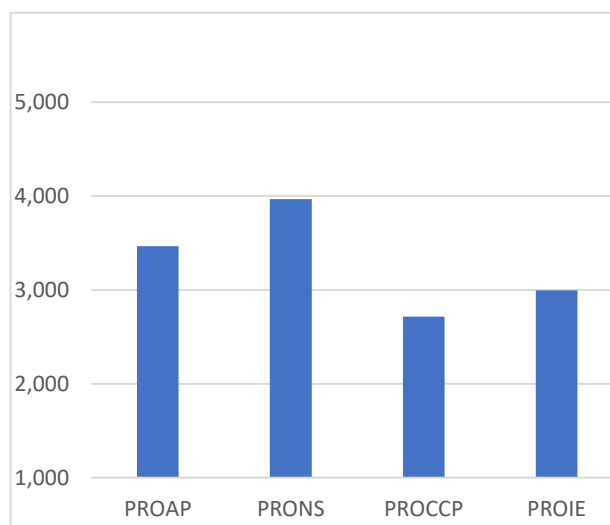
Table 5. Entrepreneurial education, sample frequency and percent

Entrepreneurship education+Explorer group	Frecuency	Porcentaje (%)
No entrepreneurship education	60	66,67%
Entrepreneurship education	29	32,22%
Total	89	98,89%

Source: My own development

Finally, regarding the averages values obtained from the background variable results, as we can see in table 6 and graph 9, we are facing a sample that has a high level of subjective norm, that is, they have the approval of their social environment regarding the entrepreneurial attitude, with an average of almost 4 points out of 5. The students surveyed also have a good attitude towards entrepreneurship, with an average of 3.4. The lowest average level of the antecedents is found in the perceived behavioural control, where its value is 2.72 points. We also see that the average of entrepreneurial intentionality is almost 3 points.

Graphic 9. Background variables average



Source: My own development

Table 6. Background variables average

	Average
Personal attitudes (PROAP)	3,467
Subjective norms (PRONS)	3,97
Perceived behavioural control (PROCCP)	2,72
Entrepreneurial intentions (PROIE)	2,99

Source: My own development

Next, we will present the results of the statistical analyses carried out together with a brief description.

The relationship between entrepreneurial education and attitudinal and intentional variables

In this part we analyse the extent to which entrepreneurship education is associated with a higher or lower level of attitude, behaviour and entrepreneurial intention. To do this, we will study if there are differences in these variables depending on the specific training in entrepreneurship from an ANOVA analysis. '1' being the group of students who have done training course during the completion of their university studies and '0' those who have not received training. Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics of each variable: personal attitude (PROAP), perceived behavioural control (PROCCP) and entrepreneurial intention (PROIE) in terms of entrepreneurial training (represented by groups 0 and 1) as well as the results of the ANOVA analysis in which

we compare if there are differences in the intentional levels of entrepreneurship based on training.

According to the analysis carried out there are differences in personal attitude, perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial intention. In table 7 we observe that the average values of these variables are higher in the group with entrepreneurship training than in the group that does not, and that there are significant differences between the groups according to the results of the value of the 'F' statistic. Therefore, the personal attitude towards entrepreneurship, the behavioural control concerning the capacity to launch a business and the entrepreneurial intention is backed by a formative base in entrepreneurship.

Table 7. ANOVA analysis of entrepreneurship training and premeditated variables.

		N	Media	Desviación estándar	Error estándar	Mínimo	Máximo	F	Sig.
PROAP	,0	60	3,26	,87	,11	1,4	5,0	11,884	,001
	1,0	29	3,89	,67	,12	2,6	5,0		
	Total	89	3,46	,86	,09	1,4	5,0		
PRONS	,0	60	4,02	,77	,09	1,66	5,00	,904	,344
	1,0	29	3,85	,85	,15	2,33	5,00		
	Total	89	3,96	,79	,08		5,00		
PROCCP	,0	60	2,45	,80	,10		4,16	19,178	,000
	1,0	29	3,27	,86	,16	1,66	4,83		
	Total	89	2,71	,90	,09	1,00	4,83		
PROIE	,0	60	2,68	1,10	,14	1,00	4,83	16,153	,000
	1,0	29	3,63	,88	,16	1,33	5,00		
	Total	89	2,99	1,12	,11	1,00	5,00		

Source: My own development

In view of the results, the question posed in the RQ1 is confirmed, in such a way that it seems that education in entrepreneurship is associated with high levels of attitude, behavioural control and entrepreneurial intention.

The relationship between background variables and entrepreneurial intention.

Secondly, we studied to what extent the intentional variables (personal attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control) are related to the entrepreneurial intention of the respondents. To do this, we will check to what extent each of them has an effect, and if there are differences between these variables from an ANOVA analysis.

In this case we have dichotomized the variable entrepreneurial intention. For this we have created two groups, with '1' being the group with the highest entrepreneurial intention, which includes those answers with a value greater than or equal to the average of the entrepreneurial intention (the average is 2.99). '0' represents the group with the least entrepreneurial intention and which collects IE values lower than 2.99.

Table 8 shows the descriptive statistics of each variable: personal attitude (PROAP), subjective norm (PRONS) and perceived behavioural control (PROCCP), depending on the level of intentionality towards entrepreneurship (represented by groups 0 and 1) as well as the results of the ANOVA analysis in which we compare if there are differences in attitude, subjective norm and perceived control based on the intention to start up a business.

According to the analysis that has been carried out, there are differences in how each of the intentional antecedents is related to the entrepreneurial intention. In table 8 we see that the levels of personal attitude (PROAP) and perceived behavioural control (PROCCP) are higher in the group with greater entrepreneurial intention and that there are significant differences between the groups according to the results of the value of the F statistic. This means that people with a personal attitude and perceived behavioural control oriented towards entrepreneurship have greater entrepreneurial intention. Only in the case of the subjective norm (PRONS) there are no significant differences between the groups according to their entrepreneurial intention, even in the case of the group with less entrepreneurial intention, the average of the subjective norm is a little lower than in the group with the greatest intention.

Table 8. ANOVA analysis of the premeditated variables and entrepreneurial intention.

	N	Media	Desviación estándar	Error estándar	Mínimo	Máximo	F	Sig.
PROAP 0	41	2,82	,59	,09	1,4	4,0	81,649	,000
1	48	4,02	,65	,09	2,0	5,0		
Total	89	3,46	,86	,09	1,4	5,0		
PRONS 0	41	4,02	,79	,12	1,66	5,00	,400	,529
1	48	3,91	,80	,11	2,33	5,00		
Total	89	3,96	,79	,08	1,66	5,00		
PROCCP 0	41	2,18	,65	,10	1,00	3,50	36,951	,000
1	48	3,17	,85	,12	1,00	4,83		
Total	89	2,71	,90	,09	1,00	4,83		

Source: My own development

From these results we can conclude that the personal attitude and behavioural control is associated with the group that has the greatest entrepreneurial intention. In this way, part of the approach made in the second RQ is verified, since two of the three premeditated factors influence the entrepreneurial intention.

The results of the effects of work experience, gender and formative field of origin, regarding the antecedents and entrepreneurial intention

Finally, we analyse to what extent the students' work experience, gender and formative field are related to the intentional factors and the entrepreneurial intention of the students. From an ANOVA analysis verify if there are any differences between the factors and the entrepreneurial intention, relating it to the work experience (or lack of) of the respondents. To do this we create the variable of work experience (EXLABORICO), in such a way that it transforms the EXLABOR variable of a dichotomous variable (yes / no), where the value '1' shows if it there has been work experience and '0' indicates otherwise.

Table 9 shows the descriptive statistics of each variable: personal attitude (PROAP), subjective norm (PRONS), perceived behavioural control (PROCCP) and entrepreneurial intention (PROIE) based on work experience, as well as the results of the ANOVA analysis in which we compare if there are differences in the intentional levels of entrepreneurship and its antecedents between experienced groups and groups that do not have such experience.

According to the analysis there is only one significant difference in the case of perceived behavioural control between the group that has work experience and the one that does not. In table 9 we observe that the average values of perceived behavioural control are higher if the respondent has work experience and that there are significant differences between the groups according to the results of the value of the F statistic. Therefore, the perceived behavioural control is indeed influenced by work experience. Regarding the other variables, personal attitude (PROAP), subjective norm (PRONS), and entrepreneurial intention (PROIE) are not significantly affected by work experience.

Table 9. ANOVA analysis of the premeditated variables and entrepreneurial intention, related with work experience.

		N	Media	Desviación estándar	Error estándar	Mínimo	Máximo	F	Sig.
PROAP	,00	38	3,38	,85	,13	1,4	5,0	,610	,437
	1,00	51	3,52	,87	,12	1,8	5,0		
	Total	89	3,46	,86	,09	1,4	5,0		
PRONS	,00	38	3,91	,73	,11	2,33	5,00	,302	,584
	1,00	51	4,00	,84	,11	1,66	5,00		
	Total	89	3,96	,79	,08	1,66	5,00		
PROCCP	,00	38	2,48	,89	,14	1,00	4,50	4,420	,038
	1,00	51	2,88	,89	,12	1,00	4,83		
	Total	89	2,71	,90	,09	1,00	4,83		
PROIE	,00	38	2,95	1,19	,19	1,00	4,83	,094	,760
	1,00	51	3,02	1,08	,15	1,00	5,00		
	Total	89	2,99	1,12	,11	1,00	5,00		

Source: My own development

We can say that, depending on the results obtained, the work experience does not significantly influence the intention to partake in entrepreneurship, apart from in one of its antecedents; the perceived behavioural control. This means that people with work experience have a greater perception of self-efficacy and confidence in their skills at the time of starting up businesses than those who do not, without influencing their intention to do so.

Regarding gender, we shall analyse to what extent the gender of the people surveyed is related to the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial intention based on an ANOVA analysis, '1' being the group represented by women and '0' by men. Table 10 shows the descriptive statistics of the variables of personal attitude (PROAP), subjective norm (PRONS), perceived behavioural control (PROCCP) and entrepreneurial intention (PROIE) according to gender, as well as the results of the ANOVA analysis.

Table 10. ANOVA analysis of the premeditated variables and entrepreneurial intention related to gender.

	N	Media	Desviación estándar	Error estándar	Mínimo	Máximo	F	Sig.
PROAP 0	75	3,451	,8823	,1019	1,4	5,0		
1	14	3,557	,7930	,2119	2,0	5,0	,177	,675
Total	89	3,467	,8655	,0917	1,4	5,0		
PRONS 0	75	3,964	,787	,090	1,666	5,000		
1	14	3,976	,881	,235	2,333	5,000	,003	,960
Total	89	3,966	,797	,0845	1,666	5,000		
PROCCP 0	75	2,697	,927	,107	1,000	4,833		
1	14	2,821	,833	,222	1,666	4,166	,216	,643
Total	89	2,717	,909	,096	1,000	4,833		
PROIE 0	75	3,031	1,154	,133	1,000	5,000		
1	14	2,797	,980	,262	1,333	4,500	,504	,480
Total	89	2,994	1,126	,119	1,000	5,000		

Finally, we verify to what extent these premeditated factors, personal attitude, perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial intention are related to the formative specialisation of origin. To do this, we check whether there are differences between these variables from an ANOVA analysis. '1' being respondents from technical degrees and '0' respondents from non-technical degrees.

Table 11 shows the descriptive statistics of each variable: personal attitude (PROAP), perceived behavioural control (PROCCP) and entrepreneurial intention (PROIE), from the groups linked to the formative specialisation of origin (represented by groups 0 and 1) as well as the results of the ANOVA analysis in which we compare whether there are differences between the variables mentioned in terms of their formative specialisation of origin.

The results indicate that the average levels of personal attitude, behavioural control and entrepreneurial intention are higher in the respondents who come from non-technical degrees than those who come from technical degrees. Specifically, there are significant differences in the case of personal attitude and entrepreneurial intention.

Therefore, students with technical degrees show less intention to set up a business than students with non-technical degrees.

Table 11. ANOVA analysis of intentional variables and entrepreneurial intention related to the formative specialisation of origin.

		N	Media	Desviación estándar	Error estándar	Mínimo	Máximo	F	Sig.
PROAP	,0	30	3,78	,74	,13	2,0	5,0	6,256	,014
	1,0	59	3,30	,88	,11	1,4	5,0		
	Total	89	3,46	,86	,09	1,4	5,0		
PROCCP	,0	30	2,97	,86	,15	1,66	4,50	3,833	,053
	1,0	59	2,58	,90	,11	1,00	4,83		
	Total	89	2,71	,90	,09	1,00	4,83		
PROIE	,0	30	3,32	,98	,17	1,33	4,83	4,101	,046
	1,0	59	2,82	1,16	,15	1,00	5,00		
	Total	89	2,99	1,12	,11	1,00	5,00		

In summary, the results in relation to the RQ3 indicate that the formative specialisation and work experience affect the intention to start up a business and their intentional background. In such a way, technical degrees have less personal attitude and intention at the time of starting up a business than non-technical degrees. We have also found that the people with work experience have a greater perception of self-efficacy and confidence in their skills when business launching, as well as a greater ability to detect and exploit opportunities than those who do not. And all of this without influencing the intention to launch a business venture.

Finally, although the inclination to start a business is greater in men, there are no differences in the intention due to gender, but by being an unbalanced sample between the two groups the results are not significant and would require further studies to verify this analysis.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The objective of this paper is to analyse the formation of entrepreneurial intention in the case of university students. Generally speaking, the literature has analysed the influence of sociodemographic aspects in the development of the intention to start a business (Cooper et al, 1992), however, the context in which this piece of work is

intended is to value education, specifically entrepreneurship training as one of the aspects that can stimulate and give rise to the intentions of entrepreneurship in students. Recent studies (e.g. Otuya et al., 2013; Rauch & Hulsink, 2015; Zhang et al., 2014) point out that people who have received some type of specific training related to entrepreneurship tend to undertake projects and obtain a lower rate of failure when starting business projects (Jayawarna et al., 2014; Mosey & Wright, 2007).

Other factors that we have studied, like the background of the entrepreneurial intention, refer to personal attitudes and general acceptance by the people involved in the personal social environment of the entrepreneur. These factors are part of Ajzen's model of intentionality (1991), widely used and agreed upon by other researchers to deepen the formation of the intention to launch business ventures. Additionally, the work also includes sociodemographic factors related to work experience, gender and formative specialisation, which have been highlighted as background factors linked to the decision to start a business (García & Moreno, 2010; Holcombe et al., 2013; Jungert, 2013; Robinson & Sexton, 1994; Romero et al., 2016; Vossenbergh, 2013; Walberg & Tsai, 1983).

The results show that education in entrepreneurship has a direct and significant effect on entrepreneurial intention. Our data show that there is a direct influence on attitude and behavioural control. We also see a direct influence of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention. These results appear in the lines of previous research (e.g. Hayton, Zahra, & Zahra, 2002, Espiritu and Sastre, 2007). They are also in the latest GEM report (2017) that states that the higher the levels of education, the higher improvement rates are in the analysis, detection and processing of business opportunities, in addition to the acquisition of skills such as obtaining information and the use of resources that can be key for the development of business activities.

Regarding the influence of attitudinal factors on entrepreneurial intention, as shown in the results obtained, personal attitudes (Laspita et al., 2012, Marqués et al., 2012, Zhang et al., 2014) and control behaviour have a significant connection to intentionality. On the one hand according to other authors (eg Laspita et al., 2012, Marqués et al., 2012, Zhang et al., 2014), the results obtained indicate that the more favourable the attitude of a person towards entrepreneurship is, the greater the predisposition towards the development of positive behaviour linked to entrepreneurship. There is also a positive relationship between behavioural control and entrepreneurial intention, so the self-efficacy or confidence to develop entrepreneurial behaviours favour the intention to start a business (Krueger and Dickson, 1994). On the other hand, the subjective norm may

not affect the intention to start up a business, as pointed out by Ajzen (2002), and one of the reasons for this is because people with a strong locus of control are not as impressionable.

Finally, the role of different aspects such as gender, work experience and the formative specialisation linked to the creation of the entrepreneurial intention is analysed. With respect to these factors, work experience reveals an influence on the perceived behavioural control; this means that people with more work experience perceive that they have greater control over the conduct of entrepreneurship (Robinson and Sexton, 1994), but this will not influence the final outcome of the entrepreneurial intentionality. Regarding gender, no significant differences were observed in the variables between the two groups; these results are contrary to those provided by other authors in similar fields of study (García and Moreno, 2010; Vossenberg, 2013; GEM, 2016), in which there was a positive relationship between the male gender and entrepreneurial intention. However, our sampling is by no means balanced with respect to the masculine and feminine gender; a premise necessary in order for the results to be considered as valid. This would explain the differences found in the results of our study with respect to the data observed by the other authors mentioned previously. The last sociodemographic factor to study has been which degree the student has studied beforehand, having distinguished between technical and non-technical degrees. In this aspect, the analysis of the results shows that this variable significantly influences the attitude towards the conduct and the final result of the entrepreneurial intentionality, while it does not influence the perceived behavioural control, being greater in the group of non-technical degrees (Walberg and Tsai, 1983; Jungert, 2013; Hoog, 2013).

Finally, it should be mentioned that the results of these studies should be viewed according to the limitations of the study. First, it is an exploratory study, whose unbalanced sampling does not have an accurate representation of the population. We suggest that in subsequent studies the data be collected with official uniform samples in all its variables and with a greater number of respondents to improve the representativeness and reflect results true to reality. Second, there are differences in perception when conducting surveys by respondents, since the different ways of thinking among students with technical and non-technical degrees can lead to confusion when answering the poll's questions. We also recommend a rethinking of the questions asked in the sections of 'background' for future studies.

7. REFERENCES

- A. Litvak, I., & Maule, C. (1980). *Bill c-58 and the Regulation of Periodicals in Canada* (Vol. 36). <https://doi.org/10.2307/40201938>
- Abdul Majid, I., Dora, M., & Md. Saad, M. (2008). Prevalence of Entrepreneurial Management practices in Technology-based Firms (pp. 1-16). Presentado en International Conference on Business & Management, Brunei. Recuperado a partir de <http://eprints.utm.edu.my/11623/>
- Aidis, R., & Wetzels, C. M. M. P. (2007). *Self-Employment and Parenthood: Exploring the Impact of Partners, Children and Gender* (SSRN Scholarly Paper No. ID 995500). Rochester, NY: Social Science Research Network. Recuperado a partir de <https://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=995500>
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179-211. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90020-T](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T)
- Ajzen, I. (2002). Perceived Behavioral Control, Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control, and the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 32, 665-683. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2002.tb00236.x>
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Prentice-Hall.
- Ajzen, Icek. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. En *Action control* (pp. 11-39). Springer.
- Ajzen, Icek. (2006). *Constructing a Theory of Planned Behavior Questionnaire*.
- Almeida, G. de O. (2013). *Valores, atitudes e intenção empreendedora: um estudo com universitários brasileiros e cabo-verdianos*.

- Amit, R., Glosten, L., & Muller, E. (1993). Challenges to Theory Development in Entrepreneurship Research*. *Journal of Management Studies*, 30(5), 815-834. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.1993.tb00327.x>
- Armitage, C. J., Armitage, C. J., Conner, M., Loach, J., & Willetts, D. (1999). Different Perceptions of Control: Applying an Extended Theory of Planned Behavior to Legal and Illegal Drug Use. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 21(4), 301-316. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15324834BASP2104_4
- Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001). Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analytic review. *British journal of social psychology*, 40(4), 471-499.
- Bandura, A. (1999). *Auto-eficacia: cómo afrontamos los cambios de la sociedad actual*. Recuperado a partir de <https://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/libro?codigo=313940>
- Baron, R. A. (2002). OB and entrepreneurship: The reciprocal benefits of closer conceptual links. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 24, 225-269. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085\(02\)24007-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085(02)24007-1)
- Begley, T. M. (1995). Using founder status, age of firm, and company growth rate as the basis for distinguishing entrepreneurs from managers of smaller businesses. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 10(3), 249-263. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026\(94\)00023-N](https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026(94)00023-N)
- Bird, B. (1988). Implementing Entrepreneurial Ideas: The Case for Intention. *The Academy of Management Review*, 13(3), 442-453. <https://doi.org/10.2307/258091>
- Brockhaus, R. . (1980). Risk Taking Propensity of Entrepreneurs. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 23(3), 509-520. <https://doi.org/10.2307/255515>
- C. Parker, S. (2009). *The Economics of Self-Employment and Entrepreneurship*. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511817441>

- Cantillon, R., & Higgs, H. (1950). *Ensayo sobre la naturaleza del comercio en general / Richard Cantillon*. México: Fondo de Cultura Económica.
- Cantillon, Richard. (1952). *Essai sur la nature du commerce en général*. INED.
- Carla S. Marques, João J. Ferreira, Daniela N. Gomes, & Ricardo Gouveia Rodrigues. (2012). Entrepreneurship education: How psychological, demographic and behavioural factors predict the entrepreneurial intention. *Education + Training*, 54(8/9), 657-672. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00400911211274819>
- Carton, R. B., Hofer, C. W., & Meeks, M. D. (1998). The entrepreneur and entrepreneurship: operational definitions of their role in society. En *Annual International Council for Small Business. Conference, Singapore*.
- Collins, C. J., Hanges, P. J., & Locke, E. A. (2000). The Relationship of Achievement Motivation to Entrepreneurial Behavior: A Meta-Analysis. *Human Performance*, 17(1), 95-117. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327043HUP1701_5
- Cooper, A. C., Folta, T., Gimeno-Gascon, J., & Woo, C. Y. (1992). Entrepreneurs' exit decisions: the role of threshold expectations. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1992(1), 75-79. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ambpp.1992.4977477>
- Cross, B., & Travaglione, A. (2003). THE UNTOLD STORY: IS THE ENTREPRENEUR OF THE 21ST CENTURY DEFINED BY EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE? *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 11(3), 221-228. <https://doi.org/10.1108/eb028973>
- Díaz-García, M. C., & Jiménez-Moreno, J. (2010). Entrepreneurial intention: the role of gender. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 6(3), 261-283.
- Drucker, P. (1985). Purposeful Innovation and the Seven Sources for Innovative Opportunity. *Innovation and Entrepreneurship: Practice and Principles*, 30-36.

- Dutta, D. K., Li, J., & Merenda, M. (2011). Fostering entrepreneurship: impact of specialization and diversity in education. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 7(2), 163-179.
- Dyer, W. G., & Handler, W. (1994). Entrepreneurship and Family Business: Exploring the Connections. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 19(1), 71-83.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/104225879401900105>
- Espíritu, R., & Sastre, M. . (2007). La actitud emprendedora durante la vida académica de los estudiantes universitarios. *Cuadernos de Estudios Empresariales*, 17, 97-116.
- Fayolle, A., Gailly, B., & Lassas-Clerc, N. (2006). Assessing the impact of entrepreneurship education programmes: a new methodology. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 30(9), 701-720.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/03090590610715022>
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: an introduction to theory and research*. Recuperado a partir de <https://trid.trb.org/view/1150648>
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (2010). *Predicting and Changing Behavior: The Reasoned Action Approach*. Taylor & Francis. Recuperado a partir de <https://books.google.es/books?id=2rKXqb2ktPAC>
- García, Á. C. (2003). La creación empresarial: de empresarios y directivos. En *Creación de empresas : homenaje al profesor José María Veciana Vergés, 2003, ISBN 84-490-2314-9, págs. 49-74* (pp. 49-74). Servei de Publicacions. Recuperado a partir de <https://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/articulo?codigo=1142661>
- Gartner, W. B. (1988). "Who Is an Entrepreneur?" Is the Wrong Question. *American Journal of Small Business*, 12(4), 11-32.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/104225878801200401>

- Gibb, A. (1993). ENTERPRISE IN EDUCATION EDUCATING TOMMORROWS ENTREPRENEURS, 17.
- González-Pernía, J. L., Peña-Legazkue, I., & Vendrell-Herrero, F. (2012). Innovation, entrepreneurial activity and competitiveness at a sub-national level. *Small Business Economics*, 39(3), 561-574.
- Gupta, V. K., Turban, D. B., Wasti, S. A., & Sikdar, A. (2009). The role of gender stereotypes in perceptions of entrepreneurs and intentions to become an entrepreneur. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, 33(2), 397-417.
- Gurel, E., Altınay, L., & Daniele, R. (2010). Tourism students' entrepreneurial intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(3), 646-669. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2009.12.003>
- H. Brockhaus Sr, R., & S. Horwitz, P. (1986). The Psychology of the Entrepreneur. *Encyclopedia of entrepreneurship*.
- Hall, J. K., Daneke, G. A., & Lenox, M. J. (2010). Sustainable development and entrepreneurship: Past contributions and future directions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 25(5), 439-448.
- Hayton, J. ., George, G., & Zahra, S. . (2002). National Culture and Entrepreneurship : A Review of Behavioral Research. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 26(4), 33-52. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104225870202600403>
- Hernández, R., Coduras, A., Vaillant, Y., Batista, R. M., Sosa, S., Mira, I., & Martínez, J. (2013). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor: Informe GEM España 2012. *Centro Internacional Santander Emprendimiento (CISE), Santander*.
- Hisrich, R. D., & Brush, C. G. (1986). *The woman entrepreneur: Starting, financing, and managing a successful new business*. Lexington Books.

- Holcombe, M., Coakley, S., Kiran, M., Chin, S., Greenough, C., Worth, D., ...
Deissenberg, C. (2013). Large-scale modeling of economic systems.
- Ismail, M., Khalid, S., Othman, M., Jusoff, H., Rahman, N., Kassim, K., & Zain, R.
(2009). Entrepreneurial Intention among Malaysian Undergraduates.
International Journal of Business and Management, 4(10).
<https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v4n10p54>
- Jayawarna, D., Jones, O., & Macpherson, A. (2014). Entrepreneurial potential: The role
of human and cultural capitals. *International Small Business Journal*, 32(8), 918-
943.
- Johnson, B. R. (1990). Toward a Multidimensional Model of Entrepreneurship: The Case
of Achievement Motivation and the Entrepreneur: *Entrepreneurship Theory and
Practice*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104225879001400306>
- Jungert, T. (2013). Social identities among engineering students and through their
transition to work: a longitudinal study. *Studies in Higher Education*, 38(1), 39-
52.
- Junquera, B., & Fernández, E. (2001). Factores determinantes en la creación de pequeñas
empresas: una revisión de la literatura. *Revista ROL de enfermería*, 24(12), 322-
342.
- Koh, H. (1996). Testing Hypotheses of Entrepreneurial Characteristics: A Study of Hong
Kong MBA Students. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 11, 12-25.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/02683949610113566>
- Krueger, N. (1993). The Impact of Prior Entrepreneurial Exposure on Perceptions of New
Venture Feasibility and Desirability. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/104225879301800101>

- Krueger, N, & Carsrud, A. (1993). Entrepreneurial intentions: Applying the theory of planned behaviour. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 5(4), 315-330.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/08985629300000020>
- Krueger, N, Reilly, M., & Carsrud, A. (2000). Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15(5), 411-432.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026\(98\)00033-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026(98)00033-0)
- Krueger, Norris, & Dickson, P. R. (1994). How believing in ourselves increases risk taking: Perceived self-efficacy and opportunity recognition. *Decision Sciences*, 25(3), 385-400.
- Laspita, S., Breugst, N., Heblich, S., & Patzelt, H. (2012). Intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 27(4), 414-435.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2011.11.006>
- Liñán, F. (2004). *Educación empresarial y modelo de intenciones, formación para un empresariado de calidad análisis empírico para la provincia de Sevilla*. Universidad de Sevilla. Recuperado a partir de <http://hdl.handle.net/11441/15036>
- Liñán, F, Moriano León, J. A., & Zarnowska, A. (2008). Stimulating entrepreneurial intentions through education - Dialnet. Recuperado 27 de mayo de 2018, a partir de <https://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/articulo?codigo=5249837>
- Liñán, Francisco, Rodríguez-Cohard, J. C., & Rueda-Cantuche, J. M. (2011). Factors affecting entrepreneurial intention levels: a role for education. *International entrepreneurship and management Journal*, 7(2), 195-218.
- Liska, A. E. (1984). A Critical Examination of the Causal Structure of the Fishbein/Ajzen Attitude-Behavior Model. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 47(1), 61-74.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/3033889>

- Low, M., & Macmillan, M. . (1988). Entrepreneurship: Past Research and Future Challenges. *Journal of Management*, 14(2), 139-161.
- Madden, T. J., Ellen, P. S., & Ajzen, I. (1992). A comparison of the theory of planned behavior and the theory of reasoned action. *Personality and social psychology Bulletin*, 18(1), 3-9.
- Majid, I. A., Ismail, K., & Cooper, S. (2011). Prevalence of entrepreneurial management practices in technology-based firms in Malaysia. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(6), 2075.
- McClelland, D. (1968). *The Achieving Society*. Pickle Partners Publishing.
- McClelland, D. C. (1961). *Achieving Society*. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Company.
- Miner, J. B. (2000). Testing a Psychological Typology of Entrepreneurship Using Business Founders. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 36(1), 43-69.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886300361003>
- Minniti, M., & Nardone, C. (2007). Being in Someone Else's Shoes: the Role of Gender in Nascent... *Small Business Economics*, 28(2), 223-238.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11187-006-9017-y>
- Misra, S., & Kumar, E. . (2000). Resourcefulness: A Proximal Conceptualisation of Entrepreneurial Behaviour. *The Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 9(2), 135-154.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/097135570000900201>
- Morales Domínguez, J. F., Vega, L., & López, M. (1996). Discriminación y creencias sobre la discriminación en individualistas y colectivistas. En *Identidad Social: Aproximaciones psicosociales a los grupos ya las relaciones entre grupos* (pp. 379-394). Promolibro.
- Morales Gutiérrez, A. C. (2008). Innovación social: una realidad emergente en los procesos de desarrollo. *Revista de Fomento Social; Cordoba*, (251). Recuperado

a partir de
<https://search.proquest.com/docview/1782244540/abstract/37F8AD6899044B00PQ/1>

- Morales, S., & Gualdrón, T. (2008, noviembre 17). *El emprendedor académico y la decisión de crear Spin off: Un análisis del caso español*. (Ph.D. Thesis). Universitat de València. Recuperado a partir de <https://www.tdx.cat/handle/10803/9669>
- Moriano, J. A. (2005). El perfil psicosocial del emprendedor [The psychosocial profile of the entrepreneur]. *Madrid: Consejo Económico y Social*.
- Moriano León, J. A., Palací Descals, F. J., & Morales Domínguez, J. F. (2006). El perfil psicosocial del emprendedor universitario. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones*, 22(1).
- Morris, M. H. (2014). *Annals of Entrepreneurship Education and Pedagogy _ 2014*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Mosey, S., & Wright, M. (2007). From human capital to social capital: A longitudinal study of technology-based academic entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, 31(6), 909-935.
- Mueller, S. (2011). Increasing entrepreneurial intention: effective entrepreneurship course characteristics. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, 13(1), 55-74. <https://doi.org/10.1504/IJESB.2011.040416>
- Oliveira, B., Moriano, J., Laguia, A., & Soares, V. (2015). *El perfil psicosocial del emprendedor: un estudio desde la perspectiva de género* (Vol. 45).
- Otuya, R., Kibas, P., Gichira, R., & Martin, W. (2013). Entrepreneurship education: Influencing students' entrepreneurial intentions. *International Journal of Innovative Research & Studies*, 2(4), 132-148.

- Pelling, E. L., & White, K. M. (2009). The theory of planned behavior applied to young people's use of social networking web sites. *CyberPsychology & Behavior*, *12*(6), 755-759.
- Peltier, J. W., & Scovotti, C. (2010). Enhancing entrepreneurial marketing education: the student perspective. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, *17*(4), 514-536.
- Peterman, N., & Kennedy, J. (2003). Enterprise Education: Influencing Students' Perceptions of Entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *28*, 129-144. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1540-6520.2003.00035.x>
- Pleitner, H. (2003). Entrepreneurship - Fashion or Driving Force? En D. Enric Genescà i Garrigosa & J. L. José María Veciana Vergés (Eds.), *Entrepreneurship : homage to professor José María Veciana Vergés*. Barcelona: Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona. Recuperado a partir de <https://www.alexandria.unisg.ch/39716/>
- Praag, C. M. V., & Cramer, J. S. (2001). The Roots of Entrepreneurship and Labour Demand: Individual Ability and Low Risk Aversion. *Economica*, *68*(269), 45-62. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-0335.00232>
- Rauch, A., & Frese, M. (2006). Meta-Analysis as a Tool for Developing Entrepreneurship Research and Theory. En *Advances in Entrepreneurship, Firm Emergence and Growth* (Vol. 9, pp. 29-51). Bingley: Emerald (MCB UP). [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1074-7540\(06\)09003-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1074-7540(06)09003-9)
- Rauch, A., & Hulsink, W. (2015). Putting entrepreneurship education where the intention to act lies: An investigation into the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial behavior. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *14*(2), 187-204.

- Robert L. Engle, Nikolay Dimitriadi, Jose V. Gavidia, Christopher Schlaegel, Servane Delanoe, Irene Alvarado, ... Birgitta Wolff. (2010). Entrepreneurial intent: A twelve-country evaluation of Ajzen's model of planned behavior. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, 16(1), 35-57.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/13552551011020063>
- Roberts, E. (1970). How to succeed in a new technology enterprise. *Technology Review*, 23, 23-27.
- Robinson, P.B, & Sexton, E. . (1994). The effect of education and experience on self-employment success. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 9(2), 141-156.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026\(94\)90006-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026(94)90006-X)
- Robinson, Peter B., Stimpson, D. V., Huefner, J. C., & Hunt, H. K. (1991). An Attitude Approach to the Prediction of Entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 15(4), 13-32. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104225879101500405>
- Rodgers, W. M., Conner, M., & Murray, T. C. (2008). Distinguishing among perceived control, perceived difficulty, and self-efficacy as determinants of intentions and behaviours. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 47(4), 607-630.
- Romero, J. A., Arias, G. G.-P., Peinado, M. H., & Ariza, L. R. (2016). *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. Informe GEM España 2016*. Ed. Universidad de Cantabria.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 80(1), 1-28.
- Sánchez Almagro, M. L. (2003). Perfil psicológico del autoempleado.
- Sánchez, E. ., Ordás, C. ., & Suárez, M. (2002). La función empresarial en el nuevo entorno competitivo: características personales y motivacionales. *Alta dirección*, 38, 77-85.

- Sánchez, J. C., Carrizo, A. L., & Yurrebaso, A. (2005). Variables determinantes de la intención emprendedora en el contexto universitario. *Revista de psicología social aplicada*, 15(1), 37-60.
- Sánchez-Escobedo, M. C., Fernández-Portillo, A., Díaz-Casero, J. C., & Hernández-Mogollón, R. (2016). Research in entrepreneurship using GEM data. Approach to the state of affairs in gender studies. *European Journal of Management and Business Economics*, 25(3), 150-160.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.redeen.2016.09.002>
- Sanchis Palacio, J. R., & Redondo Cano, A. (1997). Actitudes hacia la creación de empresas: estudio empírico aplicado a la diplomatura de Relaciones Laborales de la Universitat de València. *CIRIEC-España, Revista de Economía Pública, Social y Cooperativa*, n° 27. Recuperado a partir de http://www.ciriec-revistaeconomia.es/banco/rev27_08.pdf
- Santos, M. H., & Amâncio, L. (2014). Sobreminorias em profissões marcadas pelo género: consequências e reações. *Análise Social*, 700-726.
- Scherer, R. F., Brodzinski, J. D., & Wiebe, F. A. (1990). Entrepreneur career selection and gender: A socialization approach. *Journal of small business management*, 28(2), 37.
- Schumpeter, J. A. (1934). *The schumptr: Theory economic development*. Harvard University Press.
- Schumpeter, J. A. (1963). *Teoría del desenvolvimiento económico*. México: Fondo de Cultura Económica.
- Shane, S. A. (2003). *A General Theory of Entrepreneurship: The Individual-opportunity Nexus*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

- Shapero, A., & Sokol, L. (1982). *The Social Dimensions of Entrepreneurship* (SSRN Scholarly Paper No. ID 1497759). Rochester, NY: Social Science Research Network. Recuperado a partir de <https://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=1497759>
- Shapero, Albert. (1975). *The Displaced, Uncomfortable Entrepreneur* (SSRN Scholarly Paper No. ID 1506368). Rochester, NY: Social Science Research Network. Recuperado a partir de <https://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=1506368>
- Shaver, K. ., & Scott, L. . (1992). Person, Process, Choice: The Psychology of New Venture Creation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 16(2), 23-46. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104225879201600204>
- Stevenson, H. H., & Jarillo, J. C. (1990). A Paradigm of Entrepreneurship: Entrepreneurial Management<Superscript>*/Superscript>. En *Entrepreneurship* (pp. 155-170). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-48543-8_7
- Stewart Jr., W. H., & Roth, P. L. (2001). Risk propensity differences between entrepreneurs and managers: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1), 145-153. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.1.145>
- Stewart, W. ., Watson, W. ., Carland, J. ., & Carland, J. . (1999). A proclivity for entrepreneurship: A comparison of entrepreneurs, small business owners, and corporate managers. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 14(2), 189-214. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026\(97\)00070-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026(97)00070-0)
- Stuart, T. E., Hoang, H., & Hybels, R. C. (1999). Interorganizational Endorsements and the Performance of Entrepreneurial Ventures. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44(2), 315-349. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2666998>
- Timmons, J. A. (1989). *The Entrepreneurial Mind*. Andover, Mass: Brick House Pub Co.

- Timmons, J. A., & Spinelli, S. (2009). *New Venture Creation: Entrepreneurship for the 21st Century*. McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Varela, R. (1998). *Innovación empresarial: un nuevo enfoque de desarrollo (Libro, 1998) [WorldCat.org]*. Cali : Universidad Icesi.
- Villalonga, B., & Amit, R. (2004). How do family ownership, control and management affect firm value? *Journal of Financial Economics*, 80(2), 385-417.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfineco.2004.12.005>
- Vossenbergh, S. (2013). Women Entrepreneurship Promotion in Developing Countries: What explains the gender gap in entrepreneurship and how to close it. *Maastricht School of Management Working Paper Series*, 8, 1-27.
- Walberg, H. J., & Tsai, S.-L. (1983). Matthew effects in education. *American Educational Research Journal*, 20(3), 359-373.
- Zhang, Y., Duysters, G., & Cloudt, M. (2014). The role of entrepreneurship education as a predictor of university students' entrepreneurial intention. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 10(3), 623-641.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11365-012-0246-z>
- Zhao, H., Seibert, S. E., & Hills, G. E. (2005). The mediating role of self-efficacy in the development of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of applied psychology*, 90(6), 1265.

8. ANNEXES

- Annexe 1



ACTITUDES E INTENCIÓN EMPRENDEDORA DE LOS ESTUDIANTES UNIVERSITARIOS

Por favor, conteste a todas las preguntas. Toda la información obtenida será tratada de forma confidencial y global para la realización de un Trabajo Final de Grado.

DATOS DE CLASIFICACIÓN

1. Grado que está cursando: _____
2. Curso (3º ó 4º curso): _____
3. ¿Ha cursado la asignatura Iniciativa Empresarial?
4. ¿Ha recibido algún tipo de formación orientado al emprendimiento fuera del grado? _____
5. En caso afirmativo, en la anterior cuestión, especifique el nombre del curso _____ y las horas realizadas _____

ACTITUD PERSONAL

Por favor, indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes cuestiones siendo 1 (completamente en desacuerdo) y 5 (totalmente de acuerdo)

	1 Completamente en desacuerdo	2 En desacuerdo	3 Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo	4 De acuerdo	5 Completamente de acuerdo
6. Ser emprendedor implica más ventajas que desventajas para mí.					1 2 3 4 5
7. Una carrera como emprendedor es atractiva para mí.					1 2 3 4 5
8. Si tuviera la oportunidad y los recursos, me gustaría poner en marcha una empresa.					1 2 3 4 5
9. Ser emprendedor implicaría una gran satisfacción para mí.					1 2 3 4 5
10. Entre varias opciones, preferiría ser emprendedor.					1 2 3 4 5

NORMA SUBJETIVA

Si decidiera crear una empresa, ¿en qué medida las personas más cercanas aprobarían esta decisión? Indicar desde 1 (total desaprobación) hasta 5 (total aprobación)

	1 Desaprobación total	2 Cierta desaprobación	3 Ni desaprobación ni aprobación	4 Cierta aprobación	5 Total aprobación
11. Su familia más cercana					1 2 3 4 5
12. Sus amigos					1 2 3 4 5
13. Sus colegas de trabajo o de estudio					1 2 3 4 5

CUESTIONARIO ACTITUDES E INTENCIÓN EMPRENDEDORA

CONTROL CONDUCTUAL PERCIBIDO

¿En qué medida está de acuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones con respecto a su capacidad empresarial? Valórelas de 1 (total desacuerdo) a 5 (totalmente de acuerdo).

	1 Completamente en desacuerdo	2 En desacuerdo	3 Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo	4 De acuerdo	5 Completamente de acuerdo
14. Comenzar una empresa y mantenerla funcionando sería fácil para mí.					1 2 3 4 5
15. Estoy preparado para comenzar una empresa viable.					1 2 3 4 5
16. Puedo controlar el proceso de creación de una nueva empresa.					1 2 3 4 5
17. Conozco los detalles prácticos necesarios para comenzar una empresa.					1 2 3 4 5
18. Sé cómo desarrollar un proyecto emprendedor					1 2 3 4 5
19. Si tratara de comenzar una empresa, tendría una gran probabilidad de tener éxito.					1 2 3 4 5

INTENCIÓN EMPRENDEDORA

Indique su nivel de acuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones de 1 (total desacuerdo) a 5 (totalmente de acuerdo)

	1 Completamente en desacuerdo	2 En desacuerdo	3 Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo	4 De acuerdo	5 Completamente de acuerdo
20. Estoy listo para hacer cualquier cosa para ser un emprendedor.					1 2 3 4 5
21. Mi objetivo profesional es convertirme en emprendedor.					1 2 3 4 5
22. Haré todo lo posible para comenzar y dirigir mi propia empresa.					1 2 3 4 5
23. Estoy decidido a crear una empresa en el futuro.					1 2 3 4 5
24. He pensado seriamente en comenzar una empresa.					1 2 3 4 5
25. Tengo la firme intención de comenzar una empresa algún día.					1 2 3 4 5

Género (Masc./Fem.) _____ Edad _____

Experiencia laboral (Si/No) _____ Duración experiencia laboral (en meses) _____