



Determinants of Entrepreneurship Intention Among Graduate Students in Kathmandu Valley

Aasha Kiran Chapain

South Asian Institute of Management, Pokhara University

Article Info.

Email

aashachapain9@gmail.com

Article History

Received: March 12, 2026

First Revised: April 11, 2026

Second Revised: May 25, 2026

Accepted: July 10, 2026

Cite

Chapain, A. K. (2026). Determinants of entrepreneurship intention among graduate students in Kathmandu valley. *SAIM Journal of Social Science and Technology*, 3(1), 61–74. <https://doi.org/10.70320/sacm.2026.v03i01.005>

Abstract

Purpose: This study examines the determinants of entrepreneurial intention among university students in Kathmandu Valley by applying Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB).

Methodology: An explanatory research design was adopted. Primary data were collected through a structured questionnaire from 405 university students enrolled in various academic institutions in Kathmandu Valley using non-probability convenience sampling. The data were analyzed using Microsoft Excel and SmartPLS 4 to assess the measurement model and examine the structural relationships among the study variables.

Findings: The findings reveal that attitude toward entrepreneurship and perceived behavioral control significantly influence students' entrepreneurial intention. The study also identifies major barriers, including limited access to capital, fear of failure, inadequate mentorship, and regulatory constraints. Furthermore, the findings highlight gaps in institutional support and the limited integration of practical, experience-based entrepreneurship education within university curricula.

Implications: Universities should strengthen entrepreneurship education through market-oriented, experiential, and skill-based programs. Supportive institutional environments, mentorship, and opportunities to develop confidence, ambition, and entrepreneurial competence may enhance students' entrepreneurial intention and promote future entrepreneurial behavior.

Keywords: entrepreneurial intention, theory of planned behavior, entrepreneurship education, university students, perceived behavioral control, Kathmandu valley

Introduction

Entrepreneurship drives economic development, improves living standards, creates employment opportunities, and reduces inequality and poverty (Kuratko, 2017; World Bank, 2020). The importance

of fostering entrepreneurial spirit among university students has gained global recognition, as higher education, technological learning, and creative thinking can transform economic and social systems (Fayolle & Gailly, 2015).

In Nepal, university enrollment has increased significantly over the past two decades (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology [MoEST], 2020), prompting government and universities to launch initiatives including business skills training, startup centers, and innovation hubs. However, few initiatives translate into actual business creation, as aspiring entrepreneurs face challenges including limited credit access, inadequate mentoring, bureaucratic hurdles, and societal pressure toward conventional careers. Meanwhile, cultural diversity, digital expansion, tourism potential, and grassroots creativity offer substantial entrepreneurial opportunities (National Planning Commission, 2020).

Entrepreneurial intention has emerged as a crucial framework for understanding when students plan to become entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurial education enhances students' attitudes and self-perceived control, increasing entrepreneurial intention (Nowiński et al., 2017). Experiential learning through incubators, simulations, and internships builds entrepreneurial confidence (Rauch & Hulsink, 2015). Students with higher self-efficacy, innovativeness, and internal locus of control demonstrate stronger entrepreneurial intentions (Fayolle & Liñán, 2014; Sánchez & Sahuquillo, 2018).

The digital revolution has further influenced startup intentions globally, with digital tools, e-commerce, and social media reducing market entry barriers (Nabi et al., 2017). Younger generations' technological experience enables confidence in digital business methods ranging from e-commerce to freelancing.

Research Objective

This research explores the factors influencing university students in Nepal to start their own businesses, contributing new perspectives on entrepreneurship in emerging economies and providing practical recommendations for educators, policymakers, development organizations, and financial institutions to strengthen Nepal's entrepreneurial ecosystem.

Literature Review

Entrepreneurial Environment in Nepal

Entrepreneurial intention in Nepal have increased because the scarcity of formal job openings has forced Nepalese students to embrace entrepreneurship which serves as their voluntary career path while simultaneously becoming a strategy for developing the national economy. Business school students in Kathmandu showed increased motivation to start ventures when they received practical learning through startup environments combined with university entrepreneurship programs according to Prajapati (2019). Many university curriculum still lack integration of entrepreneurial skills such as critical thinking, opportunity recognition, and digital literacy (Paudel & Ranabhat, 2023). Schools tend to teach entrepreneurship as an abstract field of study rather than a useful practical subject. A study conducted by Rai et al. (2021), mentioned that students deriving from entrepreneurial families tend to develop entrepreneurial intentions because they receive both initial educational and emotional backing. The investigation discovered that entrepreneurial thought development in Nepal largely depended on family backing together with cultural endorsement and beneficial feedback from mentoring figures and associates

Undergraduate's Entrepreneurial Intention

University student entrepreneurial intention has recently become a prominent, ongoing youth joblessness and developing economic requirements developed entrepreneurial intention among youths. Students' entrepreneurial aspirations are influenced by cultural traditions together with education systems. According to Roy and Das (2020), students who underwent formal entrepreneurial education developed more intention to become entrepreneurs. However, social structures such as caste, gender roles, and economic class still impact students' access to entrepreneurial resources and opportunities.

A study by Hassan et al. (2020), demonstrated that students from families with entrepreneurial roots show higher probabilities of developing entrepreneurial self-efficacy and intent. Family businesses operate as unstructured training facilities that provide students first-hand knowledge about business practices together with decision-making systems and risk mitigation methods. The approval of family members and peers and community members impacts student's entrepreneurial intentions substantially according to Ali et al. (2011).

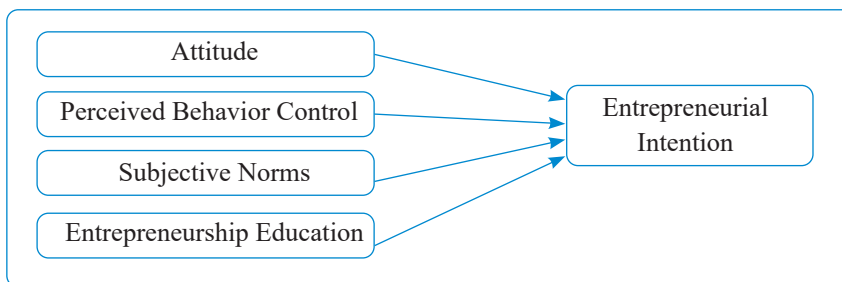
Involvement of Women in Entrepreneurship

Women's participation in entrepreneurship has increased considerably in recent years, contributing to economic development, employment generation, and women's empowerment, particularly in developing countries (Vamvaka et al., 2020). Access to financial services, entrepreneurial training, and mentoring enhances women's business skills and confidence, enabling them to establish and sustain enterprises more effectively. However, women continue to face challenges such as limited access to finance, restricted mobility, weak business networks, and socio-cultural barriers (Huq et al., 2017). Family and community support also play a significant role in shaping women's entrepreneurial intentions and business participation (Ali et al., 2011).

In Nepal, entrepreneurial success is influenced by access to finance, education, training, innovation, and supportive government policies (Mishra, 2024a). Agripreneurship offers significant opportunities for women; however, inadequate infrastructure, limited market access, and insufficient financial services continue to constrain its growth (Mishra, 2024b). Furthermore, low public investment in agriculture highlights the need for stronger policy support and increased government funding to promote entrepreneurship (Mishra, 2024c). Technological innovations associated with Industry 4.0 and virtual farming can further enhance entrepreneurial productivity and create new business opportunities (Mishra et al., 2022). Recent evidence also indicates that entrepreneurial skills and training significantly improve women's entrepreneurial intentions, while entrepreneurship contributes to women's economic empowerment, financial independence, and improved decision-making capacity (Mishra et al., 2024; Mishra, 2025). Overall, strengthening financial inclusion, entrepreneurial education, technological adoption, and institutional support is essential for increasing women's participation in entrepreneurship and promoting sustainable economic development.

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework



Relationship Between Variables

Attitude and Entrepreneurial Intention

Ajzen (1991) stated that attitude toward behavior is the level of favorability or

disfavorability a person feels about a certain kind of behavior. Attitude in entrepreneurship means how a student feels when considering starting a business. Having a positive mindset could come

from people seeing entrepreneurship as a way to be independent, achieve financial goals and create new ideas (Krueger et al., 2000). According to earlier research, students who view entrepreneurship as a desirable and promising career desire to start their own businesses more (Liñán & Chen, 2009).

H1 Attitude toward entrepreneurship positively impacts entrepreneurial intention.

Perceived Behavioral Control

A person's confidence in themselves to perform a behavior is called perceived behavioral control which relates to the concept of self-efficacy (Ajzen, 1991). For entrepreneurship, this refers to a student's trust in themselves to spot opportunities, gather the required resources and oversee the business (Zhao et al., 2005). Having high perceived behavioral control mostly leads to a stronger desire to become an entrepreneur, because this equips students to take action and follow through with their business ideas.

H2 Perceived behavioral control positively impacts entrepreneurial intention.

Subjective Norms

Subjective norm means the feeling that people have about whether to perform or avoid a certain behavior due to social norms (Ajzen, 1991). In research on entrepreneurship, this means looking at how being influenced by parents, peers, teachers and society can drive a person to start their own business (Kolvereid, 1996). If students sense that those around them endorse entrepreneurship, they are probably to consider being entrepreneurs. Alternatively, not wanting to go against social expectations about jobs can decrease a person's interest in entrepreneurship.

H3 Subjective norms positively impacts entrepreneurial intention.

Entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurship education aims to equip students with knowledge, skill and attitudes necessary for launching and managing a business. It also helps form an entrepreneurial attitude,

builds people's confidence and increases their feeling of control over their actions (Fayolle & Gailly, 2015). Having access to structured entrepreneurship learning programs can help students in Nepal become ready and eager to participate in entrepreneurial activities (Subedi & Bhandari, 2024).

H4 Entrepreneurship education positively impacts entrepreneurial intention.

Methodology

This research employs an explanatory research design to examine the various determinants that shape entrepreneurial intention among university students in Nepal. Statistical technique (SEM) is used to access relationships between variables for better analysis at a time. The study area for this study is the Kathmandu Valley. Since Kathmandu is the capital of Nepal and one of the most densely populated regions, a study on the entrepreneurial intention of undergraduates in this region provides more adequate and realistic findings. The study employs non-probability sampling technique in which the samples are selected based on the researcher's judgment, convenience, or accessibility rather than random selection. To meet the various objectives of the study structured questionnaire was created. The questionnaire was divided into three parts: Demographic, descriptive and likert type questionnaire. 5 point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree) was used to measure perception of respondents. Data were from 405 respondents are taken for wider acceptability. Both online and offline data collection techniques benefit greatly. Google forms are used to collect data and Excel and Smart Pls are used for descriptive and inferential analysis.

Results and Discussion

Graduates Perception Toward Entrepreneurship

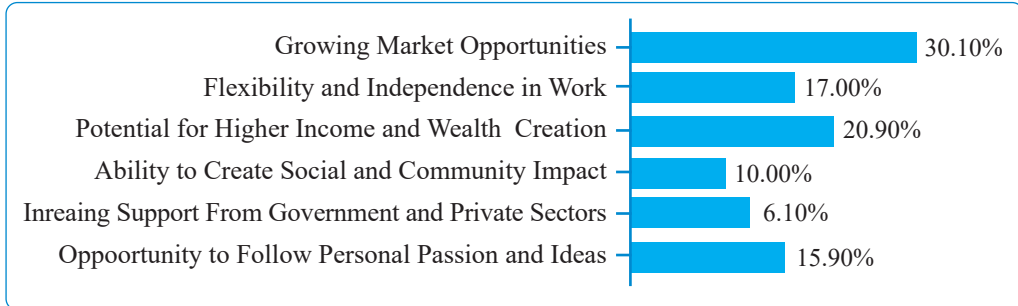
The results of the survey shown that most of the respondents i.e. 70.9% showed interest in being entrepreneurs amongst graduate students. The survey shows that 30.1% respondents are interest in being entrepreneurs to be independent and

their own boss, closely followed by 29.9% who are driven by passion of personal interests, others i.e. 12.4% projected to financial gain through a

probable rise of income, 9.5% projected to the ability to give to society, and the ability to acquire new skills or provide employment to other people.

Figure 2

Viability of Entrepreneurship as a Career Option



In a similar way in this survey 73.6% of respondents have the perception of entrepreneurship as a viable career in Nepal, having different justifications, the most prominent factor is the perception of growing market opportunities, cited by 30.1%, indicating that many individuals are encouraged to pursue entrepreneurship due to the expanding demand and untapped potential in different sectors. The second most influential factor is the potential for higher income and wealth creation, mentioned by 20.9% of respondents, reflecting strong financial motivations among aspiring entrepreneurs. This is followed by the desire for flexibility and independence in work, selected by 17%, and the opportunity to follow personal passions and ideas, chosen by 15.9%, both of which highlight the importance of autonomy and personal fulfillment in entrepreneurial pursuits. Additionally, 10% are driven by the desire to create

social and community impact. The least influential factor is the increasing support from government and private sectors, noted by only 6.10%.

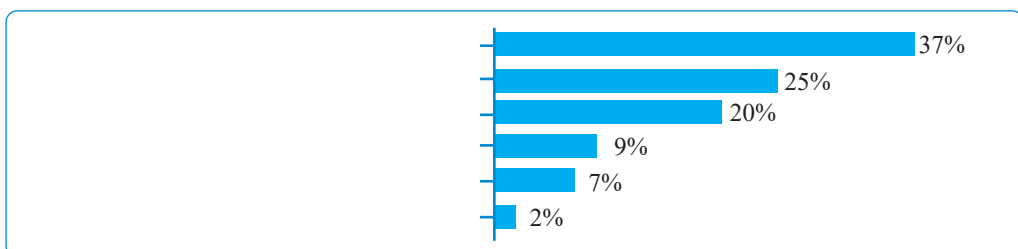
Challenges in Pursuing Entrepreneurship

This section contains challenges faced by graduates while pursuing entrepreneurship. Survey results imply that most of the university students i.e. 76.8% have experienced difficulties in their plans to become business entrepreneurs implying that having a high interest in entrepreneurship.

The most critical challenge that emerged was the shortage of capital or funding, cited by 37.5% reiterated the unabated financial constraint issue. This was followed by the absence of the mentor or guidance i.e. 25.2%, meaning there is need to have greater institutional support including advisory networks and incubation programs.

Figure 3

Challenges Expected When Starting a Business



Also, 19.5% of students felt fear of failure, which shows psychological obstacles preventing them to take a risk. A combination of institutional, personal and socio-cultural constraints was noted in such matters as lack of experience or skills i.e. 8.9%, 7.2% regulatory or bureaucratic difficulty, and 1.7% social or family disapproval. Furthermore, the main barriers to entrepreneurship in Kathmandu were lack of finance (46.7%), inadequate support systems (22.5%), and market uncertainty or risk (22.2%), highlighting the importance of institutional support and market conditions.

Measurement Model Assessment

The researcher evaluated Cronbach's alpha (CA), composite reliability and average variance

extracted (AVE) in order to establish the validity and reliability of the measurements of the study.

The reliability analysis results where the Cronbach's alpha and Composite reliability requirements are satisfied CA, CR ≥ 0.7 in table Table 1 and AVE ≥ 0.5 confirms internal consistency among variables. In order to test for convergent validity, suggesting that a latent variable meets the criterion for convergent validity when its AVE value is 0.50 or higher, thus explaining more than half of the variance of its indicators (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Factor loading thresholds must be higher than 0.7 for established models (Henseler et.al., 2015). However, they can be as low as 0.6 in exploratory settings, especially when new constructs are being developed.

Table 1

Reliability and Convergent Validity

Construct	Item	Cross Loading	CA	CR	AVE
Attitude	AT_1	0.954	0.960	0.969	0.863
	AT_2	0.913			
	AT_3	0.926			
	AT_4	0.912			
	AT_5	0.938			
Perceived Behavioral Control	PBC_1	0.951	0.964	0.972	0.875
	PBC_2	0.934			
	PBC_3	0.937			
	PBC_4	0.920			
	PBC_5	0.935			
Subjective Norms	SN_1	0.946	0.965	0.973	0.876
	SN_2	0.928			
	SN_3	0.939			
	SN_4	0.931			
	SN_5	0.936			
Entrepreneurship Education	EE_1	0.953	0.964	0.972	0.874
	EE_2	0.939			
	EE_3	0.930			

Construct	Item	Cross Loading	CA	CR	AVE
Entrepreneurial Intention	EE_4	0.921			
	EE_5	0.930			
	EI_1	0.927	0.853	0.908	0.694
	EI_2	0.939			
	EI_3	0.929			

The heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) correlation, the Fornell and Larcker criterion, and the indicator's cross-loading can all be used to assess discriminant validity. Chin (1998), emphasized to evaluate cross-loadings an indicator should load most strongly on the construct it is meant to measure, and this loading should be substantially

higher than its loadings on other constructs. In Fornell-Larcker criterion the square root of the AVE for each construct is greater than its correlations with other latent constructs (Ab et al., 2017). HTMT values nearly 0.97 generally indicate sufficient discriminant validity especially in exploratory studies (Gold et al., 2001).

Table 2

Cross-Loading

Indicato	A	EE	EI	PBC	SN	UE
A1	0.954	0.818	0.845	0.885	0.861	0.271
A2	0.913	0.772	0.801	0.828	0.81	0.489
A3	0.926	0.811	0.784	0.839	0.834	
A4	0.912	0.778	0.787	0.821	0.801	
A5	0.938	0.803	0.797	0.854	0.852	
EE1	0.827	0.951	0.783	0.864	0.851	
EE2	0.791	0.934	0.762	0.826	0.809	
EE3	0.79	0.937	0.772	0.842	0.821	
EE4	0.789	0.92	0.77	0.83	0.814	
EE5	0.812	0.935	0.794	0.859	0.827	
EI1	0.851	0.81	0.946	0.875	0.802	
EI2	0.792	0.761	0.928	0.818	0.751	
EI3	0.801	0.776	0.939	0.834	0.751	
EI4	0.786	0.738	0.931	0.828	0.755	
EI5	0.815	0.798	0.936	0.856	0.784	
PBC1	0.88	0.84	0.865	0.953	0.838	
PBC2	0.857	0.852	0.85	0.939	0.843	

	A	EE	EI	PBC	SN	UE
PBC3	0.848	0.852	0.827	0.93	0.828	
PBC4	0.828	0.837	0.822	0.921	0.822	
PBC5	0.842	0.839	0.842	0.93	0.821	
SN1	0.853	0.833	0.782	0.853	0.927	
SN2	0.836	0.82	0.773	0.843	0.939	
SN3	0.814	0.819	0.745	0.809	0.929	
SN4	0.818	0.807	0.75	0.796	0.915	
SN5	0.155	0.085	0.121	0.1	0.169	

Table 3

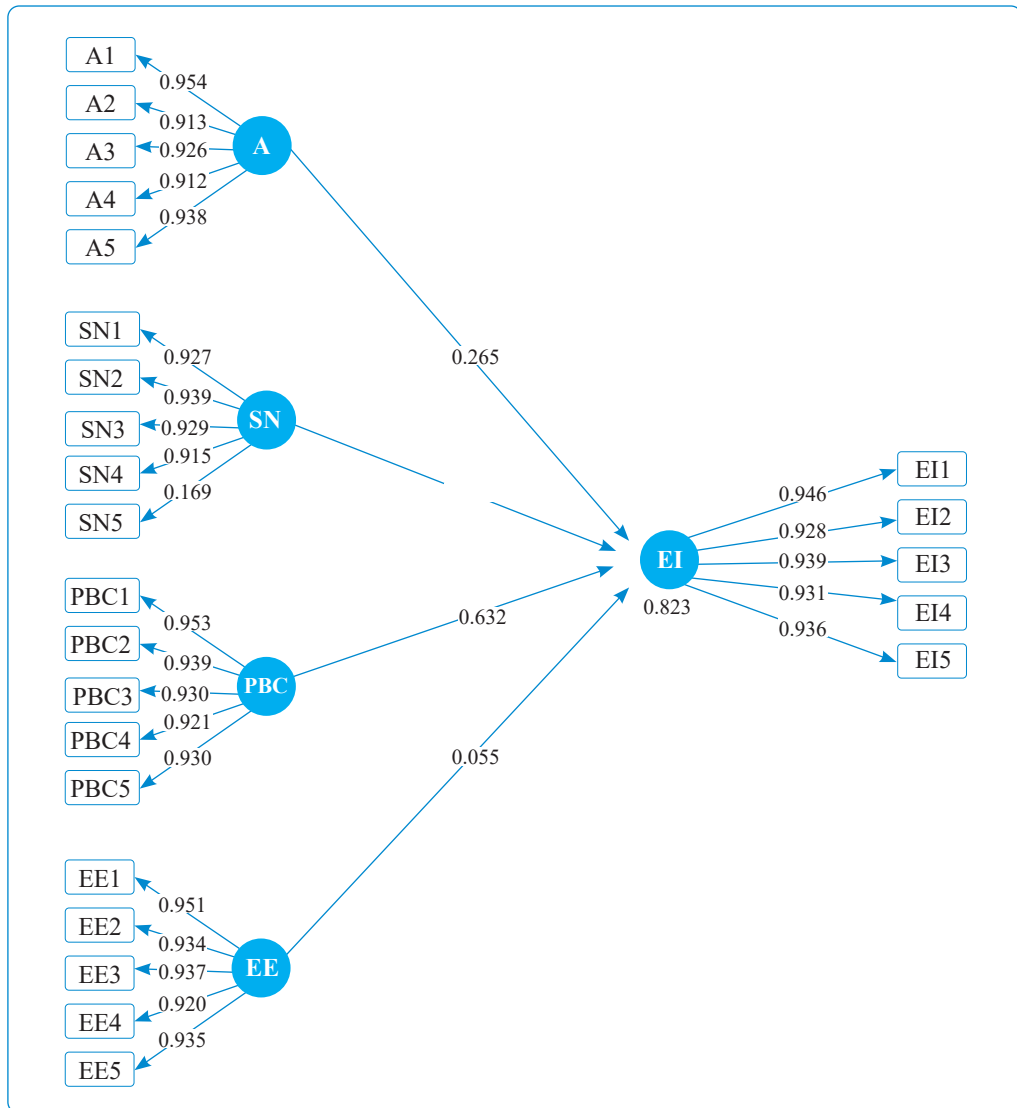
The Fornell-Larcker Criterion and HTMT Ratio

Fornell-Larcker Criterion						Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio				
Construct	A	EE	EI	PBC	SN	A	EE	EI	PBC	SN
A	0.929									
EE	0.857	0.935				0.891				
EI	0.865	0.83	0.936			0.898	0.860			
PBC	0.911	0.903	0.9	0.935		0.946	0.936	0.933		
SN	0.896	0.881	0.822	0.888	0.833	0.968	0.935	0.881	0.946	

Structural Model

After the assessment of the measurement model, analysis of structural model was carried out using bootstrapping technique with 10,000 sub-samples. The structural model illustrates the relationships between Attitude toward Entrepreneurship, Subjective Norm, Perceived Behavioral Control, Entrepreneurship Education, and Entrepreneurial Intention. The R squared value of 0.823 indicates that 82.3 percent of the variance in entrepreneurial intention among university students is jointly explained by the four independent variables. The standardized path coefficient for Perceived Behavioral Control to Entrepreneurial Intention is 0.632, meaning that a one unit increase in perceived behavioral control is associated with a 0.632 unit increase in entrepreneurial intention. This indicates a strong and positive relationship, highlighting that students who believe they have the ability and resources to become entrepreneurs are more likely to intend to start a business. The path coefficient for Attitude

toward Entrepreneurship is 0.265, also showing a positive relationship, suggesting that students with favorable views of entrepreneurship are more inclined to pursue it. Interestingly, the path coefficient for Subjective Norm is -0.026, which is negative and negligible, implying that perceived social pressure does not significantly influence entrepreneurial intention in this context. The path coefficient for Entrepreneurship Education is 0.055, indicating a weak positive effect, meaning that while entrepreneurial education may enhance intention to some extent, its direct impact is limited. In summary, the model confirms that Perceived Behavioral Control and Attitude toward Entrepreneurship have the strongest positive effects on entrepreneurial intention, while Subjective Norm and Entrepreneurship Education play minor roles. The satisfactory factor loadings and high explained variance of 0.823 support the reliability and validity of the constructs and the structural model.

Figure 4*Structural Model*

Hypothesis Testing

For hypothesis testing, the t-value, p-value, and confidence interval were examined. A relationship is considered significant if the t-value exceeds 1.96; otherwise, it is not significant (Amri et al., 2021). The t-values were calculated using SmartPLS 4, with the t-value indicating the importance of the path coefficients as described by Chin (1998). According to Amri et al. (2021),

a p-value below 0.050 indicates a statistically significant relationship, whereas a p-value above 0.050 indicates no significance. Additionally, a path coefficient is regarded as significant at the 5% level if zero does not fall within the 95% confidence interval. The percentile method is commonly employed to construct these confidence intervals (Aguirre-Urreta & Rönkkö, 2018).

Table 4*Hypothesis Testing*

H	Relationship	Sample Mean (M)	SD	P Values	CI		Decision
					2.50%	97.50%	
H1	A → EI	0.268	0.079	0.001	0.111	0.421	Significant
H2	EE → EI	0.059	0.079	0.488	-0.089	0.219	Insignificant
H3	PBC → EI	0.625	0.079	0.001	0.47	0.778	Significant
H4	SN → EI	-0.026	0.084	0.758	-0.186	0.138	Insignificant

From the table, p-value is less than 0.05 and β -coefficient lies within the confidence interval of 95% for all hypothesis that conclude is significant relationship between variables of all hypothesis. Therefore, all of the stated hypothesis are significant except for H2 and H4.

This study examined the determinants of entrepreneurial intention among university students in Kathmandu Valley based on the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). Specifically, it investigated the influence of attitude toward entrepreneurship, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms, and entrepreneurship education on students' entrepreneurial intention.

The findings support Hypothesis 1, indicating that attitude toward entrepreneurship has a positive and significant influence on entrepreneurial intention. Students with favorable attitudes toward entrepreneurship are more likely to express intentions to establish their own businesses. This finding suggests that individuals who perceive entrepreneurship as desirable, rewarding, and beneficial are more inclined to pursue entrepreneurial careers. The result is consistent with Botsaris and Vamvaka (2014), who identified attitude as one of the strongest predictors of entrepreneurial intention.

Similarly, Hypothesis 3 was supported, demonstrating that perceived behavioral control (PBC) has a significant positive effect on entrepreneurial intention. Students who believe they possess the necessary knowledge, skills, confidence, and resources to start a business

exhibit stronger entrepreneurial intentions. This finding indicates that entrepreneurial self-efficacy enhances students' confidence in undertaking entrepreneurial activities. The result is consistent with Vamvaka et al. (2020), who reported that perceived behavioral control is a strong predictor of entrepreneurial intention because individuals are more likely to engage in entrepreneurship when they perceive themselves as capable of overcoming business-related challenges.

In contrast, entrepreneurship education did not have a statistically significant effect on entrepreneurial intention. This finding differs from Mohamad et al. (2015), who reported that exposure to formal and informal entrepreneurship education enhances graduates' entrepreneurial potential. The insignificant relationship observed in the present study may indicate that entrepreneurship education offered by universities is predominantly theoretical and provides limited practical exposure, experiential learning, business incubation, or industry engagement. Consequently, entrepreneurship education alone may not be sufficient to foster entrepreneurial intention unless it is supported by practical training, mentorship, and real-world entrepreneurial experiences.

Furthermore, subjective norms were found to have an insignificant and slightly negative influence on entrepreneurial intention. This finding suggests that perceived social pressure from family members, friends, or mentors does not substantially influence students' decisions to pursue entrepreneurship. Rather, students appear to rely more on their personal attitudes and perceived

capabilities than on external social expectations when considering entrepreneurial careers. This finding contrasts with Liñán and Chen (2009), who reported a positive relationship between subjective norms and entrepreneurial intention. The difference may reflect cultural, educational, or socioeconomic characteristics specific to the Nepalese context, where entrepreneurial decisions are increasingly driven by individual aspirations and self-confidence rather than social influence.

Overall, the findings indicate that psychological factors, particularly attitude toward entrepreneurship and perceived behavioral control, are stronger determinants of entrepreneurial intention than entrepreneurship education and subjective norms among university students in Kathmandu Valley. These results suggest that higher education institutions should complement theoretical entrepreneurship courses with experiential learning opportunities, business incubation programs, mentoring, and practical entrepreneurial activities to strengthen students' entrepreneurial confidence and intentions.

Conclusion

This study examined the determinants of entrepreneurial intention among university students in Kathmandu Valley using the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). The findings reveal that attitude toward entrepreneurship and perceived behavioral control are significant positive predictors of entrepreneurial intention, indicating that students who possess favorable perceptions of entrepreneurship and confidence in their entrepreneurial abilities are more likely to pursue entrepreneurial careers. In contrast, subjective norms and entrepreneurship education were not found to have a statistically significant influence on entrepreneurial intention. These findings suggest that personal motivation, self-confidence, and perceived capability are more influential than social expectations or existing entrepreneurship education programs in shaping students' entrepreneurial intentions.

The study also identified several barriers that discourage students from pursuing entrepreneurship, including limited access to finance, inadequate mentorship, insufficient practical entrepreneurship training, fear of failure, and regulatory challenges. Furthermore, students perceived existing entrepreneurship education as largely theoretical with limited opportunities for experiential learning and business incubation. These findings highlight the need to strengthen Nepal's entrepreneurial ecosystem by bridging the gap between academic knowledge and practical entrepreneurial experience.

Overall, this study contributes to the entrepreneurship literature by validating the applicability of the Theory of Planned Behavior in the Nepalese higher education context. The findings provide useful evidence for universities, policymakers, and entrepreneurship support organizations in designing effective interventions that promote youth entrepreneurship, innovation, and self-employment, thereby contributing to economic growth and employment generation in Nepal.

Implications of the Study

The findings have important implications for higher education institutions, policymakers, and entrepreneurship development agencies. For universities, the results suggest the need to redesign entrepreneurship education by integrating experiential learning, business simulations, startup incubation, mentorship programs, internships, and industry collaboration into academic curricula. Practical learning opportunities can strengthen students' entrepreneurial skills, self-efficacy, and business readiness beyond theoretical knowledge.

From a policy perspective, government agencies should establish a supportive entrepreneurial ecosystem by improving access to startup financing, simplifying regulatory procedures, expanding business incubation services, and providing technical and legal support

for student entrepreneurs. Although subjective norms were not found to significantly influence entrepreneurial intention, awareness campaigns, entrepreneurial role models, and community engagement initiatives can help foster a positive entrepreneurial culture and encourage young people to consider entrepreneurship as a viable career option.

For entrepreneurship support organizations, collaboration with universities through mentoring, networking events, innovation competitions, and startup accelerators can enhance students' entrepreneurial confidence and practical exposure. Collectively, these educational, institutional, and policy interventions can strengthen entrepreneurial intention among university students and support the development of a vibrant entrepreneurial ecosystem capable of addressing youth unemployment and promoting sustainable economic development in Nepal.

References

- Aguirre-Urreta, M. I., & Rönkkö, M. (2018). Statistical inference with PLSc using bootstrap confidence intervals. *MIS Quarterly*, 42(3), 1001–1020. <https://doi.org/10.25300/MISQ/2018/13587>
- 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)
- Ali, I., Topping, K. J., & Tariq, R. H. (2011). Entrepreneurial attributes among postgraduate students of a Pakistani university. *Education+Training*, 53(5), 475–490. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00400911111147704>
- Amri, W. A. A., Asbari, M., Gazali, G., Novitasari, D., & Purwanto, A. (2021). The effect of religiosity and service quality on job satisfaction: A case study of MSME employees. *International Journal of Social and Management Studies*, 2(1), 53–63. <https://doi.org/10.5555/ijosmas.v2i1.7>
- Botsaris, C., & Vamvaka, V. (2016). Attitude toward entrepreneurship: Structure, prediction from behavioral beliefs, and relation to entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of the Knowledge Economy*, 7(2), 433–460. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13132-014-0227-2>
- Chin, W. W. (1998). Commentary: Issues and opinion on structural equation modeling. *MIS Quarterly*, 22(1), vii–xvi. <https://doi.org/10.2307/249674>
- Fayolle, A., & Gailly, B. (2015). The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial attitudes and intention: Hysteresis and persistence. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 53(1), 75–93. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jsbm.12065>
- Fayolle, A., & Liñán, F. (2014). The future of research on entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Research*, 67(5), 663–666. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.11.024>
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39–50. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3151312>
- Gold, A. H., Malhotra, A., & Segars, A. H. (2001). Knowledge management: An organizational capabilities perspective. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18(1), 185–214. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07421222.2001.11045669>
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43(1), 115–135. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8>
- Hassan, A., Saleem, I., Anwar, I., & Hussain, S. A. (2020). Entrepreneurial intention of Indian university students: The role of opportunity recognition and entrepreneurship education. *Education+Training*, 62(7/8), 843–861. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-02-2020-0033>

- Huq, S. M. M., Huque, S. M. R., & Rana, M. B. (2017). Entrepreneurship education and university students' entrepreneurial intentions in Bangladesh. In *Entrepreneurship* (pp. 221–246). IGI Global.
- Kolvereid, L. (1996). Prediction of employment status choice intentions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 21(1), 47–57.
- Krueger, N. F., Jr., Reilly, M. D., & Carsrud, A. L. (2000). Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15(5–6), 411–432. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026\(98\)00033-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026(98)00033-0)
- Liñán, F., & Chen, Y.-W. (2009). Development and cross-cultural application of a specific instrument to measure entrepreneurial intentions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(3), 593–617. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2009.00318.x>
- Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. (2020). *Annual educational statistics of Nepal 2020*. Government of Nepal.
- Mishra, A. K. (2024a). Exploring entrepreneurial success factors in Nepal. New Perspective: *Journal of Business and Economics*, 7(1), 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.3126/npjbe.v7i1.70019>
- Mishra, A. K. (2024b). Fostering local economic development through agripreneurship in Nepal. *SAIM Journal of Social Science and Technology*, 1(1), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.70320/sacm.2024.v01i01.001>
- Mishra, A. K. (2024c). Government investment in agriculture and policy recommendations. SPSwag: *SudurPashchim Wisdom of Academic Gentry Journal*, 1(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.11056826>
- Mishra, A. K., Nepal, A., & Aithal, P. S. (2022). Industry 4.0 concept for Nepal: Operating virtual farming industry. In *Proceedings on future trends in ICCT and its applications in IT, management, and education* (pp. 31–35). <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7215189>
- Mishra, S. (2025). Women empowerment entrepreneurship. *GS Through WOW: Wisdom of Worthy Research Journal*, 4(2), 75–89. <https://doi.org/10.62078/grks.2025.v04i02.007>
- Mishra, S., Adhikari, S. R., & Karki, S. (2024). Women's entrepreneurial intentions: A case from Madhesh based on skill. New Perspective: *Journal of Business and Economics*, 7(1), 93–107. <https://doi.org/10.3126/npjbe.v7i1.70063>
- Mohamad, N., Lim, H. E., Yusof, N., & Soon, J. J. (2015). Estimating the effect of entrepreneur education on graduates' intention to be entrepreneurs. *Education+Training*, 57(8/9), 874–890. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-03-2014-0030>
- Nabi, G., Walmsley, A., Liñán, F., Akhtar, I., & Neame, C. (2018). Does entrepreneurship education in the first year of higher education develop entrepreneurial intentions? The role of learning and inspiration. *Studies in Higher Education*, 43(3), 452–467. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2016.1177716>
- National Planning Commission. (2020). *The fifteenth plan* (Fiscal Year 2019/20–2023/24). Government of Nepal.
- Nowiński, W., Haddoud, M. Y., Lančarič, D., Egerová, D., & Czeglédi, C. (2019). The impact of entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurial self-efficacy and gender on entrepreneurial intentions of university students in the Visegrad countries. *Studies in Higher Education*, 44(2), 361–379. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2017.1365359>
- Paudel, B. C., & Ranabhat, D. (2023). Entrepreneurial intention of management students in Pokhara University. *Nepalese Journal of Insurance and Social Security*, 6(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.58665/njiss.37>
- Prajapati, B. (2019). Entrepreneurial intention among business students: The effect of entrepreneurship education. *Westcliff International Journal of Applied Research*, 3(1), 54–67. <https://doi.org/10.47670/wuwigar201931BP>

- Rai, A., Rai, C. K., Adhikari, K., & Karki, M. B. (2021). What motivate youths to start a business: An empirical evidence from Eastern Nepal. *Journal of Management*, 4(1), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.3126/jom.v4i1.38657>
- 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. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amle.2012.0293>
- Roy, R., & Das, N. (2020). A critical comparison of factors affecting science and technology students' entrepreneurial intention: A tale of two genders. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance*, 20(1), 49–77. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10775-019-09393-4>
- Sánchez, J. C., & Sahuquillo, J. (2018). Entrepreneurial intention: The role of gender. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 25(2), 279–293. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jiedeen.2017.04.001>
- Souitaris, V., Zerbinati, S., & Al-Laham, A. (2007). Do entrepreneurship programmes raise entrepreneurial intention of science and engineering students? *The effect of learning, inspiration and resources*. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 22(4), 566–591. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2006.05.002>
- Subedi, D. P., & Bhandari, D. R. (2024). University level curriculum and entrepreneurial intentions among Nepali business students: Examining the mediating role of teaching methods. *Nepalese Journal of Management and Technology*, 2(2), 37–53. <https://doi.org/10.3126/njmt.v2i2.68720>
- Vamvaka, V., Stoforos, C., Palaskas, T., & Botsaris, C. (2020). Attitude toward entrepreneurship, perceived behavioral control, and entrepreneurial intention: Dimensionality, structural relationships, and gender differences. *Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, 9, Article 5. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13731-020-0112-0>
- World Bank. (2020). *Doing business 2020: Comparing business regulation in 190 economies*. World Bank. <https://doi.org/10.1596/978-1-4648-1440-2>
- Zhao, H., Seibert, S. E., & Lumpkin, G. T. (2010). The relationship of personality to entrepreneurial intentions and performance: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Management*, 36(2), 381–404. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309335187>

