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Article abstract

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Determinants of Entrepreneurial Intention Among Students: Perceived Role of the Academic and Socio-Institutional Environment

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ABSTRACT

This article aims to analyze the influence of the academic and socio-institutional environment on the entrepreneurial intention of students in Benin. Using the snowball sampling technique, data collection was carried out based on a questionnaire distributed to a sample of 325 students from public and private universities in Benin. The estimation of the ordered logistic regression model with STATA 13 shows that the entrepreneurial intention of students in Benin is characterized by entrepreneurial education, innovation, and risk propensity. Moreover, unlike government support, variables related to perceived cultural norms and social legitimacy of entrepreneurship negatively moderate the effect of entrepreneurship education on students' entrepreneurial intention in Benin. As a contribution to the literature, this paper shows the crucial role of students' education in the acquisition of entrepreneurial skills that enhance entrepreneurial capacity and lead them to develop skills that help them start businesses.

Key Words: Academic environment; entrepreneurial intention; students

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship is considered one of the drivers of a nation's economic, social, and technological development (Koe, 2016; Liu et al., 2019a,b). It is a pivotal element in economic and social development, particularly in improving the competitiveness of nations, fostering economic growth, and increasing employment opportunities (Carpenter & Wilson, 2022). An economy boosted by entrepreneurship is an economy that experiments with new ideas, products, or processes, which allows it to meet the challenges related to youth unemployment (Harti et al., 2022; Sitepu, 2022). Thus, in the current context marked by unemployment and underemployment, entrepreneurship education has become the leitmotif of the government to address the high unemployment rate (Alimi et al., 2019).

The introduction of entrepreneurship education into higher education programs dates to the mid-1940s with Harvard University (Anosike & Oluwatobi, 2021; Galloway & Brown, 2002). From that point on, the number of academic institutions offering entrepreneurship education has steadily

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increased (Carrier, 2009). Since the education offered in universities mostly influences the career choice of students, universities are investing huge funds to offer quality entrepreneurial education to students (Mbuya & Schachtebeck, 2016). Universities are now seen as the place par excellence where knowledge and entrepreneurial skills are transmitted to young people through the curricula of entrepreneurial training (Hahn et al., 2017; Widodo et al., 2022).

For some authors, a university setting with a positive attitude to entrepreneurship elicits high entrepreneurial intention (Miranda et al., 2017). Roy et al. (2017) postulate that a positive attitude to entrepreneurship reinforced by appropriate entrepreneurial knowledge and the existence of a viable entrepreneurial pipeline significantly influence entrepreneurial intention. Moraes et al.'s (2017) work with non-degree students showed that their entrepreneurial intention is influenced by the academic environment. The entity that offers entrepreneurial trainings as well as its members have an influence on the development of entrepreneurship among learners (Ismail et al., 2015). Engaging in entrepreneurship is therefore considered one of the means to self-employment (Iwu et al., 2021). Israr and Saleem's (2018) studies on motivational factors that can help students to be entrepreneurial clearly showed that there is a positive relationship between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intention. Similarly, in South Africa, Iwu et al. (2021) found that lectures, university teachers' views, and case studies have a great influence on learners' intention to become entrepreneurs. For these authors, it is realized that entrepreneurial education increases entrepreneurial intention, and it raises the level of knowledge and individual skills (Israr & Saleem, 2018).

To properly identify entrepreneurial intention, Urbano and Alvarez (2014) suggest considering contextual factors. For Koubaa and Benabdallah (2017), considering the institutional context as an explanatory variable of the entrepreneurial phenomenon advances academic thinking. According to Lüthje and Franke (2003), the orientations and behaviors of students and recent graduates are influenced by many factors, which are personal and related to their environments. The institutional environment, for example, influences perceptions of desirability and feasibility, the social and cultural environment of the society, and conditions the behavior and decisions made by individuals (Díaz-Casero et al., 2012). Indeed, institutional theory shows that each country has distinct institutional characteristics composed of national culture and social and cultural norms (Benredjem, 2009). Therefore, there is no doubt that entrepreneurial intention is manifested specifically to every environment serving as the channel through which perceptions and attitudes achieve the desired behaviors (Benredjem, 2009).

To our knowledge, most of the scientific work on the subject has been carried out in the context of the Northern countries. In this respect, entrepreneurial intention cannot be considered as universal (Bourguiba, 2008). Despite studies conducted in some African countries, very little is known about how each factor contributes to strengthening entrepreneurial intention in the context of African countries. The relevance of this study lies in the fact that there are less studies on the more specific educational variables (Fayolle, 2004). It is also worth recalling that, as Benredjem (2009) points out, studies on factors related to the environment are not very well developed. In total, researchers' conclusions vary according to the context of study and the theoretical approach used. It is clear, therefore, that studies in the specific context and institutional environment of each country will enable a more in-depth understanding. Faced with the number of university graduates engaged in activities for which they have not received specific training, actors in the African university world are still wondering how to direct their strategies to strengthen the entrepreneurial intention of the students trained. There is often a mismatch between the training offered and the entrepreneurial realities.

Although efforts are still needed, Benin has not remained on the sidelines of the entrepreneurial education challenge (Kaki et al., 2023). There is a trend toward the creation of certain courses of study dedicated to entrepreneurship and the emergence of entrepreneurial incentive programs in public and private universities. At the institutional level, various measures have emerged and succeeded one another since 2000 to encourage entrepreneurship (Magbondé et al., 2023); for example, the National Fund for the Promotion of Business and Youth Employment (FNPEEJ), the business promotion centers (BPCs), the incubation and innovation centers, the National Microfinance Fund (FNM), and many others. However, the unemployment rate according to the International Labour Organization (ILO) is estimated about 2.3% and the highest rates (8.4%) are observed among people with higher education (ILO, 2023). Youth participation in the labor market remains a particular concern (Gninafon, 2019) and the promotion of an entrepreneurial culture remains a challenge in Beninese public universities (Houssou, 2013). Several reforms in higher education have been undertaken in Benin over the past decade to support learners to contribute to the emergence of businesses. Due to mixed and less convincing results, the Vocational Training and Entrepreneurship for Employment Project was launched in 2022 by the Beninese government, with the aim of developing skills to meet the needs of the labor market in priority economic sectors.

Furthermore, the work of Coovi and Noumon (2020) highlights institutional obstacles, the mismatch between

training and employment, the lack of resources and creativity for self-employment, and the lack of courage among young people to embark on the entrepreneurial adventure. Also, it should be noted that there is a limited framework for encouraging young people to create businesses.

Moreover, although several scientific works have focused on the influence of personality traits (Bazkiaei et al., 2020; Murugesan & Jayavelu, 2017; Neneh, 2019; Nungsari et al., 2023) in explaining differences in entrepreneurial intention among Beninese students, the actual effect of institutional factors has not received as much attention (Shahid et al., 2018; Shirokova et al., 2022). Yet, apart from the influence of individual personality traits, the socio-institutional context remains a factor that could better explain why some students in public and private universities in Benin benefiting from entrepreneurial education develop better entrepreneurial intention, while others do not (Fahinde et al., 2022). What are the factors that determine entrepreneurial intention among students in Benin? Does the institutional environment moderate the role between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intention of students in Benin?

To achieve this end, this paper considered three main features that capture the influence of formal (government and regulatory support) and informal (cultural norms, social legitimacy of entrepreneurship) factors. This study adds to the existing literature by noting the complementary effect of government support and the contingent role of socio-cultural factors in determining the influence of entrepreneurial education on student entrepreneurship. Thus, in contrast to previous studies, such as Walter and Block (2016) and Fahinde et al. (2022), which show that informal institutions have a significant and positive effect on entrepreneurial education in relation to student entrepreneurship at both public and private universities, this article finds that only formal institutions (perceived government support) have a significant effect on the decision to become entrepreneurial through entrepreneurial education.

As some authors have pointed out, government policies can facilitate access to funding, create favorable regulatory conditions, and encourage students interested in entrepreneurship (Farrukh et al., 2019). Furthermore, through government support, some universities could open science parks and business incubators as well as implement government programs to provide effective support to students and start-ups. This result suggests that policymakers and universities should further promote entrepreneurial education in socio-cultural contexts that are unfavorable to entrepreneurship.

The remainder of the article is structured into five main parts, namely, the theoretical framework, formulation of study hypotheses, methodology, presentation of results, and discussion.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Entrepreneurship is a polysemous, heterogeneous, and complex concept that cannot be contained in a single, generic term (Shirokova et al., 2022). This particularity gives rise to a multitude of definitions to the extent that each definition emphasizes a particular aspect (Kaushik et al., 2023). For Derkaoui et al. (2021), entrepreneurship can refer to the start-up of a business activity, the creation of value for entrepreneurs and the mobilization of resources to achieve set objectives, and the use of innovation by the entrepreneur to seize business opportunities. In the same vein, Bamba et al. (2021) find that entrepreneurship can be considered as any creation of activity with a social and sustainable purpose, whether for profit or not, thanks to entrepreneurial education, social norms, and participatory governance. In this perspective, Alexandre-Leclair and Redien-Collot (2013) defined entrepreneurship as any process related to the discovery of opportunities to create wealth and jobs (Zhara et al., 2006). For their part, Mair and Martí (2006) present entrepreneurship as the recognition of opportunity guided by a social mission, through the combination of resources intended primarily to explore and exploit opportunities to operate a social transformation or meet unresolved social needs. Bornstein (2007) shows that entrepreneurship promoters through business creation must reach many more people with much less money, so they must be particularly innovative to propose large-scale solutions. He thus considers entrepreneurship to be one of the most creative solutions in the world. Finally, based on the approach centered on the characteristics of the individual, which is also called the trait approach and/or descriptive approach, entrepreneurship can be understood as a definition of the typical profile of the individual. Entrepreneurship according to Basso (2006) consists of the study of the characteristics of individuals, namely, personality traits, personal attributes, as well as value systems allowing the distinction of entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs (Diamane & Koubaa, 2015). In the context of this study, entrepreneurship can be defined as an innovative activity based on a set of opportunities and missions that create value. It allows the creation of employment and contributes to the increase in the standard of living of students.

Identified as one of the key concepts of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial intention is equated with the decision to engage and start an entrepreneurial activity (Contín-Pilart & Larraza-Kintana, 2015). In the academic context and particularly in the student, the entrepreneurial intention is

apprehended as the result of a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations or benefits that he/she hopes for (Neves & Brito, 2020). According to these authors, it is the state of mind and/or the gain hoped for by the individual that pushes him or her to set up a new income-generating activity or to create his or her business (Teixeira et al., 2018). Entrepreneurial intention is therefore perceived as one of the factors that drive the individual or the student to entrepreneurship (Aliyu et al., 2015).

For Quan (2012), there are two key indicators explaining entrepreneurial intention within students. These are impulsive entrepreneurial intention and deliberate entrepreneurial intention. He showed that personal characteristics and cultural background in general contribute to impulsive entrepreneurial intention, which reflects a person's willingness or desire to start up a new business in the future. On the contrary, for deliberate entrepreneurial intention, different types of prior experiences and active involvement in social networks can be more important to potential entrepreneurs via helping them identify and configure various resources needed for subsequent entrepreneurial behavior (Quan, 2012). It gives a particular meaning to the intention, which constitutes a preparation phase of the entrepreneurial process wherein the student needs necessary knowledge about the new entrepreneurial context to analyze and plan (Cruickshank & Dupuis, 2015).

These results are further corroborated by the theoretical model of the planned behavior of Ajzen (1991). The theory postulates that the entrepreneurial intention of a student or an individual is fundamentally determined by three elements: his attitude or behavior to create a business, his perception of social norms related to the creation of business, and the perceived control (Harouna, 2020). To this end, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) showed that an individual's attitude toward starting a business is based on his or her values (innovative ability, risk propensity, exposure to entrepreneurship); professional characteristics (entrepreneurial education, paraacademic activities); and vision of entrepreneurship (Atiya et al., 2019). Social norms, on the contrary, refer to the perceived social pressure that induces, or not, to implement the observed behavior. Finally, the entrepreneurial intention according to Ajzen is the perceived control and defined around the perception that the person has of the difficulties to be overcome to put into practice a studied behavior and a perception of the presence or absence of individual resources and skills necessary to achieve this behavior (Anwar & Saleem, 2019; Tounès, 2006).

Other scholars [Tkachev & Kolvereid (1999) in Russia; Lee Wei Ni et al. (2012) in Malaysia; Saleh (2011) for Lebanese students; Tounès (2003); Boissin et al. (2009), Mouloungui (2012), Sadgui et al. (2016), and Cheurfa et al. (2017) for African university students] have also tried to understand the factors underlying the act of entrepreneurship and have conducted studies to understand the entrepreneurial intention of university students. These different studies inspired by Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behavior have led to the conclusion that the intention or desire to undertake would be explained by the individual and contextual characteristics of the future entrepreneur. Thus, they distinguish between attitudes associated with behavior, subjective norms, and perceptions of behavioral control as emphasized by the theory of planned behavior (1991). Thus, entrepreneurial intention can be modeled as shown in Figure 1. Along this study, entrepreneurial intention is defined as the state of mind that precedes action and directs attention toward a goal such as starting a new entrepreneurial activity. This entrepreneurial desire can be characterized by entrepreneurial attitude, entrepreneurial education, social norms, and perceived control among students.

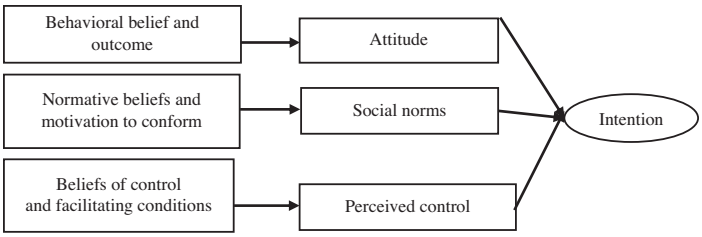

FIGURE 1 The Entrepreneurial Intention. Source: Based on Ajzen's (1991) conceptual framework

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

Several theories and models have been used in the literature to study the entrepreneurial intention of students. Among these theories are the self-determination theory (SDT) and the theory of planned behavior (TPB). Indeed, for Tounès (2022), intention is the result of a long process conditioned by actions and motivation. Motivation allows for the development and transformation of latent entrepreneurial intention into entrepreneurial behavior (Ida Ketut, 2020). Motivation plays an important role in the decision to become an entrepreneur. It is a key factor in the formation of entrepreneurial intention and different levels of attitudes. While the TPB posits that intention predicts human behavior (Ajzen, 1991), where intention indicates the amount of effort a person plans to expend to implement this behavior (Entrialgo & Iglesias, 2016), the SDT postulates that the desire to realize one's potential is innate in every individual. This means that individuals tend to grow and function and, therefore, to move toward activities that satisfy their internal resources for development and optimal functioning. These two theoretical

approaches are crucial for understanding the entrepreneurial intentions of students, in the sense that if the SDT relates to motivation, the TPB does not distinguish between beliefs and the evaluation of behavioral results (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2009). In other words, do people adopt entrepreneurial behavior because they choose to or because they are forced to. Therefore, the SDT of motivation could explain the origins of TPB constructs (Al-Jubari et al., 2019). These two theoretical perspectives were mobilized specifically to not only explain the behavioral traits of students in a specific socio-cultural context, but also the factors that would trigger their entrepreneurial intention.

The Self-Determination Theory

Deci and Ryan (1985) were particularly interested in the sources of motivation that can drive an individual to action. Their study led to the development of SDT stipulating that a person develops entrepreneurial intention according to the type of motivation and the socio-institutional context in which it is anchored (Ross-Plourde et al., 2016). SDT is based on three essential aspects (Al-Jubari et al., 2019). First, SDT argues that people have three psychological needs, namely, autonomy, competence, and relatedness, which are essential nutrients for them to function optimally and develop psychologically (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2002). Second, SDT distinguishes between two types of motivation: intrinsic or extrinsic. Extrinsic motivation involves expecting separable outcomes such as receiving money, pride and prestige, or even avoiding unemployment (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivation reflects personal interest and the pleasure that can come from this behavior. For Deci and Ryan (1985), the most self-determined motivation in an individual is intrinsic motivation. "An intrinsic motivation is considered to be a motivation specific to each individual, which drives him to act because the realization of the action interests him, makes him happy, values him, respects him, gives him meaning" (de Blas, 2021). The third essential aspect of SDT is the social environment, which may or may not be considered supportive. According to Deci and Ryan (2012), "socio-contextual factors that support the satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs will promote autonomous functioning, perseverance, effective performance (especially in heuristic tasks), and well-being".

According to SDT, a person has self-determined motivation when they freely engage in an activity. SDT has the merit of accounting for the influence of the social context on the individual while considering the effect of motivational components on the individual's behaviors (Ross-Plourde et al., 2016). According to this same theory, a person's motivation, may be less self-determined when acting on other external factors (Ida Ketut, 2020). Thus, alongside intrinsic motivation there is also extrinsic motivation. The extrinsic motivation pushes an individual to act under the effect of a lever that is external to him (de Blas, 2021). For this author, the external lever in question can be an economic incentive or also a constraint. Al-Jubari et al. (2019), by looking at university students' entrepreneurial self-determination toward an entrepreneurial career and their entrepreneurial intention, concluded that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations have a positive effect on students' entrepreneurial intention. However, extrinsic motivation is a lesser determinant than intrinsic motivation.

The Theory of Planned Behavior

TPB is a theory developed by Ajzen (1988, 1991). This theory complements the theory of reasoned action developed by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980). The theory of reasoned action does not consider the role of variables that limit individual freedom in the execution of a desired behavior. For Ajzen (1991), the TPB states that the decisions that precede a given behavior are the result of a cognitive and emotional process in which behavior is indirectly influenced by attitude toward the action, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. This variable refers to the favorable or unfavorable evaluation the individual has toward the behavior in question (Tornikoski & Maalaoui, 2012). A person's attitude is often determined by their beliefs (Pidduck et al., 2023). In the field of student entrepreneurship, Tounès (2006) believes that students' attitude toward entrepreneurship is based on their beliefs, professional characteristics, and their vision about entrepreneurship.

The TPB provides a coherent framework that allows for a better understanding and prediction of entrepreneurial intention (Krueger et al., 2000). Coming from social psychology, the TPB assumes that intention is a significant predictor of behavior, while intention itself is a function of behavioral beliefs that link given behavior to certain outcomes. This body of literature also argues that the TPB offers more predictive power in this context than personality traits or demographic characteristics (Krueger et al., 2000), which are common in the literature on professional choices linked to entrepreneurship (Parker, 2011; Su et al., 2021; Urbano et al., 2022). In the entrepreneurial context, the TPB contributes to our understanding of the emergence of entrepreneurial behavior before the start of any observable action, which has notable policy implications, for example, if the aim is to promote entrepreneurial activity by fostering a culture conducive to entrepreneurship. The TPB is considered superior and more influential than other intention models (Carsrud & Brännback, 2011; Liñán &Fayolle, 2015). Its applicability to various fields, including entrepreneurship, is well documented (Abbasianchavari & Moritz, 2021; Carr &

Sequeira, 2007; Krueger & Carsrud, 1993; Lingappa, 2020; Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999). The present article extends this research by introducing psychological constructs to explain students' progress through different levels of entrepreneurial engagement (entrepreneurial behavior) by applying Ajzen's (1991) TPB. Moreover, based on the work of Ajzen (1991), the entrepreneurial intention can also be justified by the subjective norms that designate the perceived social pressures to perform or not to perform a behavior. Thus, the feeling of belonging to a group may push the individual to act according to the norms of the group to reinforce his or her membership in the group or simply to achieve the status of group member (Maâlej, 2013).

Hypothesis Development

Entrepreneurial education and students' entrepreneurial intention

The entrepreneurial challenges of the future call for the youth of the present generation to have a repertoire of quality knowledge, skills, and traits necessary to stimulate and encourage national competitiveness and its positioning in relation to other countries in the world (Ibrahim et al., 2017). It is therefore by design that some authors believe that to address this concern, efforts and investments are needed in the entrepreneurial education sector to strengthen and develop the potential of human capital. As a result, academic institutions generally place par excellence where knowledge and entrepreneurial skills are transmitted to individuals through the curricula of entrepreneurship-focused training (Hahn et al., 2017).

In the literature, the primary means by which academic institutions elicit entrepreneurial intent in learners is through the curriculum. Thus, for these authors entrepreneurial education is akin to any educational program or process that is intended to impart entrepreneurial skills or produce entrepreneurial attitudes (Mustafa et al., 2016). Therefore, academic institutions play a crucial role in the development of entrepreneurial skills that are later manifested in students' entrepreneurial decisions. Many studies have shown a positive relationship between the quality of training and the entrepreneurial intention of students (Casteleiro et al., 2018).

In other words, when educational support is available to students, they show higher entrepreneurial intention. From this perspective, a university setting with a positive attitude toward entrepreneurship elicits high entrepreneurial intention (Miranda et al., 2017). In addition, to make students aware of the entrepreneurial path, several research studies (Johannisson, 1991) indicate that entrepreneurship education programs (EEPs) must be disseminated in the curriculum and a positive image of entrepreneurs must be created within the universities. Similarly, the study results of Boissin et al. (2009) confirm these findings. Theoretically, any entrepreneurial act is preceded, based on TPB (Ajzen, 1991), by the entrepreneurial intention of students, which is based on three essential elements (student attitudes, social norms, and the control they believe they have over the situation). In addition, several social, psychological, and economic determinants can influence the entrepreneurial intentions of students. Thus, SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2002) is fundamental for accounting for student behaviors and understanding the motives underlying entrepreneurial intentions and behaviors.

Furthermore, some authors point out that entrepreneurship training reinforces students' professional beliefs in a way that is favorable to business creation. Participation in a global project, creativity, self-actualization, power, responsibility, autonomy, interest in work, and challenge are all perceived as more likely consequences of starting a business by students who have received any type of entrepreneurship training. Varela and Jimenez (2001), in a longitudinal study, recorded the highest levels of entrepreneurial intention and awareness toward an entrepreneurial career for students at universities that offered entrepreneurship education. Considering that entrepreneurial education would have a positive impact on entrepreneurial intention, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H1: There is a positive relationship between entrepreneurial education and students' entrepreneurial intention.

Innovation and students' entrepreneurial intention

Nowadays, entrepreneurship plays a pivotal role in economic and social development, particularly because of its ability to improve the competitiveness of nations, promote economic growth, and increase employment opportunities (Carpenter & Wilson, 2022).

In recent decades, the role of universities has expanded beyond the production and dissemination of knowledge to also include the stimulation of entrepreneurial behavior and the promotion of the creation of new businesses (Bergmann et al., 2016). Universities are therefore increasingly committed to providing entrepreneurial training, encouraging entrepreneurship, and contributing to economic and social well-being (Budyldina, 2018). The concept of an entrepreneurial university involves diverse perspectives, but there is consensus on the importance of supporting the training of entrepreneurs and an environment conducive to innovation and entrepreneurship (Bergmann et al., 2016). There is evidence that by providing training and support, universities can directly influence individuals' perceptions of their self-efficacy and their intention to start a new business (Bergmann et al., 2016).

At some universities, there are entrepreneurship courses, new business incubation opportunities, entrepreneurial challenges, business plan competitions, interactions with role model entrepreneurs, and awards for ideas innovative businesses (Duval-Couetil, 2013; Motta & Galina, 2023). There are also several mechanisms such as entrepreneurship courses, executive training structures, business incubators, start-up accelerators, or even an atmosphere of support for businesses, networking with managers and bankers and social support reinforcing the creativity and innovative spirit of learners (Laouiti et al., 2022; Olarewaju et al., 2023; Pfeifer et al., 2016; Wegner et al., 2020).

In addition, the SDT and TPB are predictive models of innovation. If the TPB allows us to understand the choice of students to choose entrepreneurship as a career, that relating to self-determination focuses on the debate between human nature to grow (called inherent tendencies to growth) and internalization and the integration of behaviors that are originally controlled by external forces (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Undertaking an interesting activity and performing a self-determined behavior provides the person with a feeling of satisfaction and pleasure while performing the activity. This theoretical perspective allows us to understand the motivation of university students to start a business in two categories (intrinsic, extrinsic) and to predict the behavioral characteristics in relation to business opportunities, processes of organizational emergence, value creation, innovation, and internal transformation process (Fayolle, 2008; Thoudam et al., 2023).

For some authors, training in universities allows students to acquire knowledge about entrepreneurship, but also produces graduates with the mindset, creativity, and skills necessary to identify and create opportunities and develop companies (Alshebami et al., 2022). Teachers provide students with a situation in which they can explore resources and ideas in innovative ways (Hamidi et al., 2008; Mason & Arshe, 2023). Teacher creativity improves students' openness, hierarchical thinking, autonomy, and explanatory behavior (Shi et al., 2020). Teachers with an entrepreneurial mindset improve their students' critical thinking skills, reduce their anxiety and stress, develop their problem-solving skills, increase their alertness, and prepare them for the competitive entrepreneurial world (Alshebami et al., 2022). This means that the creativity and innovation of teachers will make entrepreneurial education effective and will in turn promote students' intentions toward entrepreneurship. Considering that innovation would have a positive impact on entrepreneurial intention, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H2: There is a positive relationship between innovation and entrepreneurial intention of students.

Risk propensity and entrepreneurial intention

The notion of risk is inherent to entrepreneurial ideas and one of the key competencies of entrepreneurs is their ability to assume it, which depends on their perceptions (Hernandez & Marco, 2006). In the field of entrepreneurship, Dickson and Giglierano (1986) and Biraglia and Kadile (2017) position themselves as the forerunners of the original conceptualization of entrepreneurial risk perception, which obviously departs from the traditional basic and utility theory models. In this basic model, entrepreneurial risk has two components: the risk of failure (sinking-the-boat risk) and the risk of missing an opportunity (missing-the-boat risk). By analyzing the principles of business creation developed by Venkataraman (2002), risk analysis provides insight into the propensity to create a firm and succeed. According to one of the principles of the business creation process, the risk of the entrepreneur's failure increases the chances of success of his or her new business but decreases the probability of creating it. Building on the work of Dickson and Giglierano (1986), Mullins and Forlani (2005) developed a model of entrepreneurial risk in which risk can be equated with chance and more specifically with the possibility of significant loss (Biraglia & Kadile, 2017). It is important to mention that from the SDT, it is possible to identify and understand exemplary behavioral characteristics on the part of self-determined students. These characteristics may be perseverance in the face of obstacles, remarkable performance, efficiency, and psychological well-being on the part of intrinsically motivated students, self-confidence, and, above all, risk tolerance. In other words, for Deci and Ryan (2008), people who are intrinsically motivated perform better and are less at risk of anxiety and depression. Considering that risk propensity would have a positive impact on entrepreneurial intention, we formulate the hypothesis that:

H3: There is a positive relationship between risk propensity and entrepreneurial intention.

Moderating effect of socio-institutional context on the relationship between entrepreneurial education and students' entrepreneurial intention

The SDT and TPB used integrate contextual and personal variables and prove to be more complete in explaining the process which leads to the development of entrepreneurial intention. For SDT, student motivation considers not only personal factors (such as entrepreneurial skills, previous experiences, locus of control, abilities, and self-determination) but also and above all contextual factors that exert a significant influence on students' motivation and entrepreneurial activities and determine the success of the entrepreneur (Arango-Botero et al., 2020; Naktiyok et al., 2010; Newman

et al., 2019; Ross-Plourde et al., 2016). Indeed, this theory explains how the social context influences the person's motivational behavior and their intention. According to the SDT, social context factors come together in interactions between individuals and translate into social support and feedback (positive or negative). Social support is an element of the social context; it can be perceived as positive, by promoting autonomy, or negative, when it is perceived as controlling (Debabeche, 2015).

Furthermore, the influence of the socio-institutional context on entrepreneurial activities varies from country to country. The socio-institutional specifics of each country can be either supportive or unsupportive of entrepreneurial development (Walter & Block, 2016). As a result, similar EEPs do not necessarily generate the same effects in different socio-institutional contexts. For example, entrepreneurial education is less important in an environment where the functioning of formal institutions is not conducive to the development of entrepreneurial activities. The effect of entrepreneurial education on students' entrepreneurial intention should therefore be stronger in contexts where the functioning of formal institutions is hostile to entrepreneurial development (Walter & Block, 2016).

On the contrary, in a context characterized by entrepreneurial-friendly regulations and the existence of government support programs for entrepreneurs (funding funds, administrative facilitation agencies, business incubators), entrepreneurial education programs are less necessary for the development of entrepreneurial intention among students. Indeed, government incentives can lead to the formation of entrepreneurial intent even in the absence of entrepreneurial education programs (Walter & Block, 2016). In such an environment, entrepreneurial education programs are a last resort to equip students with skills that can enhance their entrepreneurial self-efficacy and lead them to find feasible

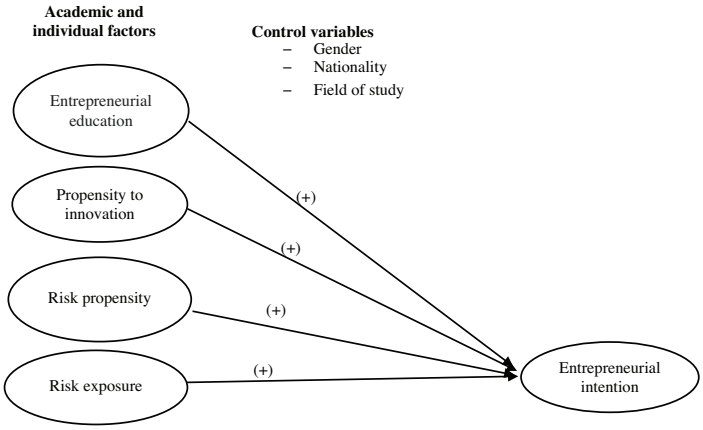

FIGURE 2 Conceptual Model Relating to the Link Between Academic Environment and Entrepreneurial Intention of Students in Benin. Source: Based on the literature review

entrepreneurship despite institutional barriers (Boukamcha, 2015; Gielnik et al., 2017; Pfeifer et al., 2016). From all the above, hypothesis H4 is formulated as follows:

> *H4: The greater (positive) the student's perception of the socio-institutional environment, the stronger the relationship between entrepreneurial education and their entrepreneurial intention.*

Figure 2 summarizes all the hypotheses developed as part of this research.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

The present study focuses specifically on undergraduates from Benin's various public and private universities, since they are relatively more concerned with career choice that must come from the match between their majors and the needs of the job market. In other words, these students are in a transitional stage between university and the labor market. The questionnaire used for data collection was designed using Survey Monkey. A pre-test with two versions of the questionnaire on a group of 90 students was carried out to ensure that the questions were well understood by the respondents and to make the necessary rewordings. After this validation step, the actual data collection was conducted using questionnaire self-administration. A non-probabilistic approach (convenience sample) was used for this purpose, as is often the case in entrepreneurship studies (Nowiński et al., 2019). To limit the biases associated with this sampling method, an effort to obtain a high number of participants, as suggested by Coviello and Jones (2004), was made. Indeed, according to Coviello and Jones (2004), despite the low generalizability that non-probability samples induce, they generate quality data when there are many participants and a high response rate.

Sampling

The sample unit in this study is the student (at the end of the first and second cycles) enrolled in one of the public and private universities in Benin. The minimum sample size was determined using Rea and Parker's (2014) formula as follows:

$$x = \frac{t_p^2 (1-p) x N x p}{t_p^2 x p (1-p) + (N-1) y^2},$$

where x is the sample size, N is the total number of students, p is the proportion of students with an entrepreneurial idea (from an exploratory phase initiated, it was found that out

of 100 students, 75 have an entrepreneurial idea, i.e., p=0.75 in all public and private universities), and tp is the value associated with a given sampling confidence interval. For this study, tp is equal to 1.96 for a 95% confidence interval. That is, the probability that the sample of respondents has an influence on the survey results is 95%. In addition, the commonly used confidence interval is 95% and y is the margin of sampling error (5%). A margin of error of 5% is commonly considered sufficient and it is not recommended to choose a margin greater than 10%.

Based on the previous formula, the data from Table 2, and taking a 5% margin of error with a 95% confidence interval, our minimum sample size yield is 264. The sample size was increased to 325. Indeed, as the sample size increases the estimations of the different parameters become more reliable.

Study Model

The ordinal logistic regression corresponding to the endogenous variable studied was used to identify the influence of the socio-cultural and academic environment on the entrepreneurial intention of students in Benin. An ordinary logistic regression was used to determine the probability factors that predict whether the students have an intention to start business (Bouichou et al., 2021). The contribution of each variable to the explanation of the "entrepreneurial intention" phenomenon was judged, respectively, from the t-student statistic ($t \geq 1.96$) and the probability value ($p \leq 0.05$). The explanatory power of the model was measured by the adjusted coefficient of determination (R-squared), while the assessment of the overall quality of the model was obtained using the Fisher statistic ($p \leq 0.05$). For the processing and analysis of our data, we opted for SPSS version 23.0 and STATA version 13 software.

Assuming Y to be a variable of interest with J ordered and independent terms, we compute as follows:

$$\text{Prob}(Y_i = m), \forall m \in \{1,\ldots\ldots,J\}; i, \in \{1,\ldots\ldots,n\} \quad (1)$$

We want to explain this probability using a series of explanatory variables as:

$$\text{Suppose } X = (X_1, \ldots\ldots, X_p) \text{ and of a vector of parameters } \beta = t_{(\beta_0,\ldots\ldots\ldots,\beta_p)} \quad (2)$$

Although Y has been observed, there actually exists an unobservable variable Y* whose domain of definition is R such that:

$$Y_i = m \text{ si } Y_i^* \in [T_{m-1}, T_m] \quad (3)$$

We assume that:

$$\begin{cases} Y_i^* = t_{Xi}\beta + \varepsilon_i \\ Y_i^* = \beta_o + \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j X_{ij} + \varepsilon_i \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

If Y_i^* comes from a distribution with known distribution function F; we have:

$$\begin{cases} \text{Prob}(Y_i = m) = \text{Prob}(T_{m-1} \leq Y_i^* \leq T_m) \\ \qquad = \text{Prob}(T_{m-1} - t_{Xi}\beta \leq \varepsilon_i \leq T_m - t_{Xi}\beta) \\ \text{Prob}(Y_i = m) = F(T_m - t_{Xi}\beta) - F(T_{m-1} - t_{Xi}\beta) \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

Concretely we have:

$$\begin{cases} \text{Prob}(Y_i = 1) = F(T_1 - t_{Xi}\beta) - F(T_0 - t_{Xi}\beta) \text{ for } m = 1 \\ \text{Prob}(Y_i = m) = F(T_m - t_{Xi}\beta) - F(T_{m-1} - t_{Xi}\beta) \\ \quad \text{for } 2 \leq m \leq J - 1 \\ \text{Prob}(Y_i = m) = 1 - F(T_{J-1} - t_{Xi}\beta) \text{ for } m = J \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{When: } F(z) = \Phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{z} \text{esp}\left(\frac{-t^2}{2}\right) dt$$
$$\text{then the model is an ordered logit:} \quad (7)$$

When:

$$F(z) = T(z) = \frac{\exp(z)}{1 + \exp(z)} \text{ then the model is an ordered logit} \quad (8)$$

Depending on the nature of the distribution of F, which can be normal or logistic, the estimation of equation (6) is done by an ordered probit model (7) or an ordered logit model (8). The latter model was chosen in this study for the following three reasons:

- The explained variable (scale from 1 to 6) used in our study is ordinal.
- When the explanatory variables are not normally distributed, the estimators of the logit model are more robust than those obtained by discriminant analysis.
- The ordered logit models allow for simple calculations. Furthermore, Gourieroux and Monfort (1989), using the Monte Carlo method, shows that the parameter estimates and their accuracies obtained by probit models are generally little different from logit models.

TABLE 1 Description of Study Variables

Labels	Nature	Modalities (Scale)
Dependent variable		
Entrepreneurial intention (6 items)	Discontinued	1-7
Control variables		
Propensity to innovation (PI)	Discontinued	1-7
Risk propensity (PR)	Discontinued	1-7
Internal locus of control (ILC)	Discontinued	1-7
Gender	Discontinued	F = 1; H = 0
Exposure to entrepreneurship (EXPENTRE)	Discontinued	If Yes = 1; If No = 0
Area of study (EG)	Discontinued	If Yes = 1; If No = 0
Variables of interest		
Entrepreneurship education (EE)	Discontinued	1-7
Perceived government support (PGS)	Discontinued	1-7
Perceived cultural norms (PCN)	Discontinued	1-7
Social legitimacy of entrepreneurship (ESL)	Discontinued	1-7
Interacting or moderating variables		
Perceived government support × EE (SGEE)	Discontinue	1-7
Perceived cultural norms × EE (NCPEE)	Discontinue	1-7
Social legitimacy of entrepreneurship × EE (LSEE)	Discontinue	1-7

Source: Conceived by the authors based on their investigations

The search model can be written as:

$$A_i^*(\text{entrep Intentiton}) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 PIi + \alpha_2 PRi + \alpha_3 LCIi + \alpha_4 Genderi + \alpha_5 EXPENTREi + \alpha_6 EGi + +\beta_1 EEi + \beta_2 SGPi + \beta_3 NCPi + \beta_4 LSEt + \gamma_1 SGEEi + \gamma_2 NCPEEi + \gamma_3 LSEEi + \mu i \quad (9)$$

The coefficients α, β, and γ of the variables are to be estimated to directly have the elasticity of the socio-institutional and academic environment factors on entrepreneurial intention. The variables in the model are described in Table 1.

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Exploratory Study of the Different Study Variables

Table 2 shows the different tests carried out on the reliability of measurement: the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) test and the Bartlett test. Indeed, the factorial analysis is the factor used to judge the quality of the measure (Evrard et al., 2003). The reliability of a measurement instrument represents its capacity to reproduce similar results if it is administered several times to the same population (Roussel, 1996). According to this author, a Cronbach's α between 0.6 and 0.8 is acceptable for an exploratory study. However, Evrard et al. (1997) consider that a Cronbach's α is acceptable when it is between 0.6 and 0.7. For Nunnally (1978), a Cronbach's α coefficient greater than 0.70 indicates a good internal consistency of the scales. According to the results obtained from the different tests carried out on variables such as entrepreneurial education, perceived cultural norms, social legitimacy of entrepreneurship, perceived governance support, internal locus of control, and propensity for innovation and propensity for risk, we note a Cronbach's α greater than 0.6. Therefore, the statements or study items adequately explain the phenomena of "entrepreneurial education; perceived cultural norms; social legitimacy of entrepreneurship; perceived

TABLE 2 Summary of the Exploratory Study of Study Variables

Items	Initial Eigenvalues				Cronbach's α	KMO and Bartlett's Test	Extraction	Component (One)	Number of Selected Factors
Entrepreneurship education									
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %		KMO	0.713	Extraction	Component	
EE1	2.172	54.301	54.301	*0.712*	Approx. chi-square	255.206	0.516 (1.000)	0.718	**1**
EE2	0.743	18.577	72.877				0.690 (1.000)	0.831	
EE3	0.660	16.508	89.385		df	6	0.431 (1.000)	0.656	
EE4	0.425	10.615	100.000		Sig.	0.000	0.536 (1.000)	0.732	
Perceived cultural norms									
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %		KMO	0.702	Extraction	Component	
NCP1	2.172	54.301	54.301	*0.706*	Approx. chi-square	236.769	0.467 (1.000)	0.684	**1**
NCP2	0.743	18.577	72.877				0.607 (1.000)	0.779	
NCP3	0.660	16.508	89.385		df	6	0.511 (1.000)	0.715	
NCP4	0.425	10.615	100.000				0.544 (1.000)	0.738	
					Probability	0.000			
Social legitimacy of entrepreneurship									
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %		KMO	0.692	Extraction	Component	
LSE1	2.280	56.999	56.999	*0.748*	Approx. chi-square	319.914	0.656 (1.000)	0.810	**1**
LSE2	0.819	20.472	77.471				0.641 (1.000)	0.801	
LSE3	0.524	13.104	90.575		df	6	0.550 (1.000)	0.742	
LSE4	0.377	9.425	100.000				0.432 (1.000)	0.657	
					Probability	0.000			
Perceived government support									
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %		KMO	0.642	Extraction	Component	
SGP1	1.861	46.520	46.520	*0.605*	Approx. chi-square	178.622	0.519 (1.000)	0.721	**1**
SGP2	0.988	24.691	71.211				0.643 (1.000)	0.802	
SGP3	0.714	17.854	89.066		df	6	0.324 (1.000)	0.569	
SGP4	0.437	10.934	100.000				0.374 (1.000)	0.611	
					Probability	0.000			

TABLE 2 (continued)

Items	Initial Eigenvalues				Cronbach's α	KMO and Bartlett's Test	Extraction	Component (One)	Number of Selected Factors
Internal locus of control									
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %		KMO	0.733	Extraction	Component	
LCI1	2.316	57.902	57.902	*0.757*	Approx. chi-square	309.714	0.591 (1.000)	0.769	**1**
LCI2	0.671	16.777	74.679				0.566 (1.000)	0.752	
LCI3	0.617	15.417	90.096		df	6	0.677 (1.000)	0.823	
LCI4	0.396	9.904	100.000				0.483 (1.000)	0.695	
					Probability	0.000			
Propensity to innovation									
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %		KMO	0.733	Extraction	Component	
PI1	2.316	57.902	57.902	*0.757*	Approx. chi-square	309.714	0.591 (1.000)	0.769	**1**
PI2	0.671	16.777	74.679				0.566 (1.000)	0.752	
PI3	0.617	15.417	90.096		df	6	0.677 (1.000)	0.823	
PI4	0.396	9.904	100.000				0.483 (1.000)	0.695	
					Probability	0.000			
Risk propensity									
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %		KMO	0.835	Extraction	Component	
PR1	3.043	76.075	76.075	*0.894*	Approx. chi-square	784.834	0.659 (1.000)	0.812	**1**
PR2	0.437	10.919	86.994				0.793 (1.000)	0.890	
PR3	0.305	7.620	94.614		df	6	0.765 (1.000)	0.875	
PR4	0.215	5.386	100.000				0.826 (1.000)	0.909	
					Probability	0.000			
Entrepreneurial intention									
IE1	4.470	74.497	74.497		KMO	0.921	0.653 (1.000)	0.808	**1**
IE2	0.440	7.329	81.826	*0.931*	Approx. chi-square	1471.877	0.768 (1.000)	0.876	
IE3	0.352	5.869	87.695		df	15	0.793 (1.000)	0.891	
IE4	0.272	4.528	92.223				0.775 (1.000)	0.881	
IE5	0.241	4.014	96.237		Probability	0.000	0.753 (1.000)	0.868	
IE6	0.226	3.763	100.000				0.727 (1.000)	0.853	

KMO, Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin

Source: Output from data analysis

governance support; internal locus of control; propensity to innovation, risk propensity, and entrepreneurial intention." Indeed, 0.712%, 0.706%, 0.748%, 0.605%, 0.757%, 0.894%, and 0.931% of the, respectively, observed fluctuations of the different study phenomena are explained by the statements considered in this study, showing an alignment of the items with the different phenomena studied.

Furthermore, according to the literature, it is recommended to check by the KMO test whether the data are suitable. A variable relevant to the analysis should have a KMO greater than 0.5 (Kasier, 1974). In this study, the KMO index indicates that the data are factorable in each case with the respective KMO greater than 0.6, well above the 0.5 threshold. In addition, a principal component analysis (PCA) is run on different study items. The exploratory factor analysis shows that there is a good representation of the items and that the extracted component represents its attributes well with commonalities higher than 0.4, except for the items SGP3 and SGP4, which have a commonality lower than 0.4. The factorial contributions of the items are high and higher than 0.6, except for the item SGP3. Finally, it appears that the different study phenomena are one-dimensional. The extracted factor has an eigenvalue higher than 1 in all the observed cases and restores, respectively, 54.301%, 54.301%, 56.999%, 46.520%, 57.902%, 76.075%, 57.902%, and 74.497% of the total variance explained.

Test of the Study Hypotheses

The different hypotheses formulated were tested using the ordered logistic regression to estimate the dual influence of the academic and socio-institutional environment on the entrepreneurial intention of students in Benin. The results of the different estimated models are presented in Table 3. Model 1 is our baseline specification and includes only the control variables. Model 2 considers both the control variables and the independent variables of interest. In models 3-6, we estimated the moderating effect of different socio-institutional variables on the relationship between entrepreneurial education and students' entrepreneurial intention.

The results indicate that entrepreneurial education has a significant and positive effect on entrepreneurial intention at the 1% threshold. In other words, the greater the entrepreneurial education, the higher the entrepreneurial intention of the student. These results are similar to those obtained by Roy et al. (2017), who showed that a positive attitude toward entrepreneurship is strongly correlated with appropriate entrepreneurial knowledge and the existence of viable entrepreneurial pathways. In the same vein, Moraes et al.'s (2017) work with non-degree students showed that their entrepreneurial intention is influenced by the university environment and their entrepreneurial education. Thus, the university environment appears to be the construct that most influences entrepreneurial intention to the extent that the more the university environment promotes the development of entrepreneurial behavior in the student, the greater their intention (Moraes et al., 2017; Rodriguez & Lieber, 2020). These analytical results supported by these theoretical findings indicate that hypothesis H1 regarding the effect of entrepreneurial education on students' entrepreneurial intention is confirmed. Furthermore, at the level of moderation analyses, the results reveal that perceived cultural norms and social legitimacy of entrepreneurship significantly and negatively moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial education and students' entrepreneurial intention (models 4-6).

Regarding the control variables, the results show that innovation propensity and internal locus of control have a positive effect on entrepreneurial intention. In other words, innovativeness and risk-taking ability are personality traits that contribute to the development of entrepreneurial intention among students (Adjout & Boumoula, 2020). Thus, students with higher innovation capacity and high risk-taking ability are more likely to move from entrepreneurial intention to higher levels of entrepreneurial engagement (Arranz et al., 2017; Anwar et al., 2021).

The hypotheses stating "There is a positive relationship between innovation and entrepreneurial intention" and "There is a positive relationship between risk propensity and entrepreneurial intention" are therefore confirmed. On the contrary, gender, exposure to entrepreneurship, and field of study do not have a significant effect on students' entrepreneurial intention. Table 3 summarizes the estimates of the ordered regression model.

DISCUSSION

Based on Ajzen's TPB, the estimation of the ordered logistic regression model was performed and it showed the existence of a positive relationship between entrepreneurial education and students' entrepreneurial intention (Anwar et al., 2021; Arranz et al., 2017). These findings come to show the crucial role of students' education in acquiring entrepreneurial skills that enhance their perceived entrepreneurial self-efficacy and lead them to find entrepreneurship feasible. For some authors (Martínez-Gregorio et al., 2021), entrepreneurial education increases the perceived feasibility of entrepreneurship and motivates students to develop entrepreneurial intention. Similarly, through awareness, entrepreneurial education contributes to changing students' mindset by altering their beliefs about the benefits associated with entrepreneurship. The more students become aware of these benefits, the more desirable they find entrepreneurship and develop the

TABLE 3 Results of the Estimation of the Ordered Logistic Regression Model

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Control variables						
PI	0.0397***	0.0477***	0.0894***	0.0478***	0.0387***	0.0277***
PR	0.5889***	0.58866***	0.6627***	0.5846***	0.5851***	0.7120***
LCI	0.0778956	0.0831373	0.1035478	0.1761762	0.1071956	0.28642***
Gender (female)	−0.0901085	−0.0968474	−0.2423024	−0.1507268	−0.1461695	−0.3334293
EXPENTRE	0.2423643	0.2223396	0.3756596	0.2692719	0.1590856	0.284263
EG	−0.1255245	−0.1212072	0.243496	−0.1136956	−0.3324545	−0.2773656
Variable d'intérêt						
EE		0.01328**	0.4588**	0.13413**	0.54212**	0.47716**
SGP		0.05443**	0.43302**	0.12154**	0.09483**	0.85255**
NCP		−0.05409**	−0.07986**	−2.4291**	−0.06290**	−2.4501***
LSE		−0.0182**	−0.0677**	−0.0359**	−0.7279**	−0.5640**
Interaction variables						
SGP × EE (SGEE)			2.79736*			3.2064**
NCP × EE (NCPEE)				−15.56149**		−15.110**
LSE × EE (LSEE)					−4.719635**	−0.306668**
Statistics F	65.45	66.82	100.87	126.42	107.96	220.80
Prob(F)	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
N	325	325	325	325	325	325

EE, entrepreneurship education; EG, area of study; EXPENTRE, exposure to entrepreneurship; LCI, internal locus of control; LSE, social legitimacy of entrepreneurship; NCP, perceived cultural norms; PI, propensity to innovation; PR, risk propensity; SGP, perceived government support

* = Significant at 10%; ** = Significant at 5%; *** = Significant at 1%

Source: Authors (2022)

intention to become an entrepreneur (Fitzsimmons & Douglas, 2011).

The results of the estimations of the ordered logistic regression model showed that the variable propensity for innovation has a positive and significant influence on the entrepreneurial intention at the 1% threshold. These results support those obtained by Prahalad (1990, p. 26), who showed that the stake in any creation of company lies in the valorization of these resources and, thus, in innovation. To achieve this, skills and practices are required, which are then defined as "the company's ability to leverage its resources (tangible and intangible) by combining them". In the same sense, Ozaralli and Rivenburgh (2016; Wernerfelt, 1984) have shown that innovation is an important precursor to entrepreneurship. The entrepreneurial intentions of a potential entrepreneur can be strengthened if the entrepreneur is able to recognize more opportunities to undertake.

Thus, innovation has been shown to be related to the creation of new businesses through the generation of ideas and opportunity identification (Biraglia & Kadile, 2017). The analytical results also showed that the risk propensity variable has a positive and significant influence on entrepreneurial intention. In other words, the greater the risk-taking ability, the higher the entrepreneurial intention among students. These results corroborate those of Fayolle et al. (2008), Gasse and Tremblay (2004), Keh et al. (2002), and Parrocchetti (2012), for whom risk perception has an influence on the decision to create. Thus, abounding in the same direction,

Parrocchetti (2012) shows that entrepreneurship scholars have argued that creating a business stem from risky conduct. In the same sense, Gasse and Tremblay (2004) points out that the intention to create a business is a function of the entrepreneur's perception of the risks and rewards involved, as well as his or her knowledge of sources of financing, individuals, and organizations that could help and advise him or her (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). By the same logic, Syed et al. (2020) have shown that risk is an inherent dimension of the decision to become an entrepreneur. For these authors, the higher the risk capacity, the more strategies the student develops to achieve his or her goal of starting a business. In contrast to government support, the perceived cultural norms and social legitimacy of entrepreneurship variables negatively moderate the effect of entrepreneurship education on students' entrepreneurial intention. In other words, the more positive the students' perceptions of cultural norms and social legitimacy of entrepreneurship, the weaker the relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention. These results confirm those obtained by Walter and Block (2016), who showed that the influence of education on entrepreneurship is lower in cultural environments where entrepreneurs enjoy a good public image. Thus, the social legitimacy of entrepreneurship can be equated with what Walter and Block (2016) call "public image of entrepreneurs" in that entrepreneurs who enjoy a good public image are also seen as legitimate and vice versa (Kibler & Kautonen, 2016; Kibler et al., 2014). Under these conditions, even in the absence of EEPs, normative pressures and perceived cognitive support within the community can lead students to develop the intention to become entrepreneurs.

CONCLUSION

In Benin, entrepreneurship has been the subject of academic and practical teaching for several years. Of course, not all the characteristics of the entrepreneur can be taught. However, many of the skills required in the entrepreneurial process can be taught (Stevenson et al., 2002). Krueger and Brazeal (1993) argue that entrepreneurial skills can be taught, and that individuals can be trained to be more self-reliant and to encourage initiative (Soussi & Fadili, 2018). To this end, promoting entrepreneurship in Beninese public universities is a development and educational imperative. The study therefore proposes a strategic approach by which Benin's public universities promote entrepreneurial culture. To do so, the academic characteristics and the socio-cultural context that should frame the process of entrepreneurship creation were highlighted on one hand; on the other hand, the influence of some moderating variables for realization of the promotion of entrepreneurship within the public universities of Benin was determined. The study problem within a theoretical framework widely applied in study in the field of entrepreneurship was posed. Based on Ajzen's TPB (1991), a sectoral analysis was conducted to determine the indicators necessary to explain the object of study (Adjout & Boumoula, 2020).

This study contributes to the literature from both a theoretical and practical perspective. From a theoretical perspective, it allows us to understand how the academic environment and the socio-institutional context influence students' entrepreneurial intention. This theoretical framework allowed us to highlight the moderating effect of government support and the contingent role of the socio-cultural context in the influence of entrepreneurial education on students' entrepreneurial intention. Furthermore, this work shows that the more supportive the government policies are to entrepreneurship, the stronger the positive relationship between entrepreneurial education and students' entrepreneurial intention. In contrast, the more supportive the socio-cultural environment is of entrepreneurship, the less related the students' entrepreneurial intention is to entrepreneurial education.

While this study offers insights into study on entrepreneurship education as it relates to entrepreneurial intention, there are some limitations that are worth noting. From a theoretical standpoint, even though the intentional phase has been widely accepted as a key stage in the entrepreneurial process, it must be noted that entrepreneurial situations may be part of a logic in which opportunities or exceptional events surpass entrepreneurial intentions.

Methodologically, the results are based on a sample of university students only. As a result, this sample excludes several profiles. It would therefore be interesting to verify whether the relationships established a hold within broader perimeters. Also, this study did not measure actual entrepreneurial behavior, but rather entrepreneurial intention. Although intention is important, it does not necessarily guarantee that the behavior will be acted upon. As avenues for future study, it would be interesting to extend the study beyond the university environment to other populations with varied profiles. In this regard, the possibility of differentiation in terms of attitudes and beliefs toward entrepreneurship should be verified in the case where the sample is composed of individuals with professional training or without any qualifications, with previous professional experience, or married individuals with dependent children. It would also be desirable to consider studying the post-intention phase, i.e., the actual creation phase. In addition, since the data used to conduct the analyses are based primarily on the respondents' perceptions, interpretation and generalization of the results should be done with caution. In addition, the study only considered one country, which also limits the possibilities of

generalization. Finally, given that intention does not always turn into action, it would also be interesting to analyze the effect of these different academic and institutional factors on students' transition from entrepreneurial intention to actual engagement in action. Future studies could take this aspect into account.

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