

Entrepreneurship education pedagogy: Teacher-Student centered paradox

Journal:	<i>Education + Training</i>
Manuscript ID	ET-07-2017-0106.R2
Manuscript Type:	Research Paper
Keywords:	entrepreneurship education, pedagogy, culture

Entrepreneurship education pedagogy: Teacher-Student centered paradox

ABSTRACT

Purpose: The study aims to answer the research question: “How do different pedagogies used in teaching entrepreneurship education influence individual skill development, which then in turn translates into the likelihood of entrepreneurial intention?”

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

Findings: Both pedagogical approaches had a positive effect on the development of the learning outcomes. However, the students who learned using the teacher-centered approach statistically developed a higher level of objective and subjective learning outcomes compared to the students that learned using the student-centered approach. The findings also suggest that the relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention is mediated by learned skills.

Originality: The quasi-experimental design greatly improves the ability to make accurate claims about the impact of entrepreneurial education on entrepreneurship-related outcomes. Further, the study uses the implementation intention strategy in measuring the entrepreneurial intention. Thus, this study provides strongly support for the view that implementation intention improves predictive validity of the behavioural intention within the framework of Theory Planned Behaviour by setting out in advance when, where and how the goal will be achieved.

Keyword: entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurial intention, pedagogy

1. Introduction

The effectiveness of the entrepreneurship education has been measured through entrepreneurial behavior (Rauch and Hulsink, 2015, Souitaris et al., 2007), or through entrepreneurial intention constructs such as attitude, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms, and self-efficacy (Fayolle and Gailly, 2015, Izquierdo and Buelens, 2011, Piperopoulos and Dimov, 2015, Othman and Ishak, 2009). A systematic review of the impact on entrepreneurship education in higher education shows that there are a number of benefits for students. For example, this education will help an individual to bring about personal change (attitude, knowledge, skills, feasibility, and entrepreneurial intention), and also help with business-start-up (Nabi et al., 2017, Othman et al., 2012).

Nevertheless, a few studies have indicated that entrepreneurship education could also achieve negative outcomes. For instance, Oosterbeek, van Praag and Ijsselstein (2010) have reported that the development of entrepreneurial skills is insignificant, and the entrepreneurial intention turns into negative outcomes. Scholars argue that the contradictory findings may be due to methodological rigors or statistical artefacts (Martin et al., 2013, Rideout and Gray, 2013). Issues such as a lack of external validity, no validity or reliability tests, and inadequate sample sizes have decreased the quality of the studies. Furthermore, most of the entrepreneurship education studies have not demonstrated either the comparative studies or longitudinal studies, thus little knowledge exists regarding how well entrepreneurship education can impact on personal attributes, especially behavior intention.

The current study aims to understand the delivery method that can increase the benefits of entrepreneurship education in higher education. The study aims to answer the research question: "How do different pedagogies used in teaching entrepreneurship education influence individual skill development, which then in turn translates into the likelihood of entrepreneurial intention?" Our study contributes theoretically and methodologically in many

1
2
3 ways. First, the current study extends our knowledge regarding the impact of
4
5 entrepreneurship education. The effectiveness of entrepreneurship education is not only
6
7 about ‘what’ the educators deliver (the content), but also about ‘how’ programs are delivered
8
9 (Sawang et al., 2016). Our contribution is distinguishable from prior research, which has
10
11 focused on the intensity of entrepreneurship education (Bae et al., 2014, Fayolle and Gailly,
12
13 2015), in that it looks at the pedagogical approaches of how the entrepreneurial contents are
14
15 delivered.

16
17
18 Second, the current study is methodologically designed to improve greatly the ability
19
20 to make accurate claims about the impact of entrepreneurial education on entrepreneurship-
21
22 related outcomes. Most of the entrepreneurial education literature suffers from
23
24 methodological limitations (Lorz et al., 2013, Martin et al., 2013). For instance, they only
25
26 focus on ex-post studies (Bakotić and Kružić, 2010, Piperopoulos and Dimov, 2015, Rae and
27
28 Ruth Woodier-Harris, 2013) and have lacked proper control groups (Radu and Loué, 2008,
29
30 Von Graevenitz et al., 2010). To address this problem, this study uses a quasi-experimental
31
32 design in which both of these elements (pre- and post-intervention) are included, as well as a
33
34 control group.
35
36

37 **2. Teaching-Studying-Learning process: Didactic and experiential approaches**

38
39
40 The common teaching style in higher education focuses on didactic teaching styles.
41
42 This method is teacher-centric, educators are seen as transmitters of knowledge, and there is
43
44 an emphasis placed on getting the “right answer”. The didactic approach uses the static
45
46 learning materials such as notes, power point slides, and textbooks. Students are sometimes
47
48 assigned additional readings (for example, from newspapers, websites and online learning
49
50 platform) to enhance their understanding of certain topics.
51
52

53 The didactic approach has been criticized for not being overly effective in developing
54
55 entrepreneurial skills, knowledge, and behavior (Yu Cheng et al., 2009), but it is effective at
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 conveying a lot of information in a short period (Barber, 2007). In particular, the teacher-
4
5 centered approach is effective in providing theoretical background and foundations in the
6
7 particular subject matter to large undergraduate classes. Therefore, by learning using a
8
9 teacher-centered approach, the students typically develop a stronger understanding of the
10
11 benefit of entrepreneurial activity rather than an understanding of how to be an entrepreneur
12
13 (Hytti and O'gorman, 2004).
14

15
16 Unlike the didactic approach which is teacher-centred, experiential learning is
17
18 student-centred. According to Kolb (1984), the experiential learning model is a learning
19
20 process by which knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Kolb's
21
22 concept refers to two different ways in which an individual acquires information in the world,
23
24 either through direct experience or through a recreation of experiences (Corbett, 2005).
25
26 Drawing from Kolb's experiential learning model, the quality of learning can be enhanced by
27
28 direct experience that is meaningful to the learner with guided reflection and analysis
29
30 (Postareff et al., 2008).
31
32

33 **3. Teacher versus student centred approaches**

34
35
36 The teacher-centred approach uses the structured and static learning materials such as
37
38 notes, PowerPoint slides, and textbooks. Educators are seen as transmitters of knowledge, and
39
40 there is an emphasis placed on getting the 'right answer'. Students are sometimes assigned
41
42 additional readings (for example, from newspapers, websites and online learning platform) to
43
44 enhance their understanding of certain topics. As a result, there is less interaction between
45
46 educators and students in the classroom, thus allowing the students to act as passive learners.
47
48

49
50 In contrast, the student-centred approach involves experiential learning by doing.
51
52 Students are engaged in activities, such as starting a micro-business or participating in a pre-
53
54 existing business. They may be challenged to gather data to test new business hypotheses, or
55
56 use business simulations to gain experiential learning.
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The teacher-centred approach is focused on the subject content, thus increasing the
4 student knowledge. The students gain more knowledge and understanding when listening to
5 the lectures explaining important information. This approach to learning is usually related to
6 behaviourism learning because all behaviour is caused by external stimuli (educator), while
7 the learner is essentially passive. Moreover, all behaviour can be explained without the need
8 to consider internal mental process or thinking.
9
10

11
12 In contrast, the student centered approach is focussed on the student's experience and
13 engagement with the content. The approach is experiential and the learner is essentially
14 active. Thus, the learner's mental processes are crucial.
15
16

17 18 **4. Learning outcomes: Objective and subjective measures** 19

20
21 Fretschner and Weber (2013) asserted that entrepreneurship education has two
22 purposes: (i) to determine whether the students should learn to develop entrepreneurial
23 knowledge for the purpose of changing mindsets, attitudes, and entrepreneurial desirability;
24 and (ii) learning to be an entrepreneur by acquiring with various managerial and
25 entrepreneurial skills. This is in line with Matlay's (2008) study, which explored the impact
26 of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial skills, knowledge, and attitude.
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39
40 Even though the self-reported measure is often used in the entrepreneurship education
41 literature, there is a possibility of over-estimation responses, as well as the possibility that
42 there could be recall bias (Rauch and Hulsink, 2015). The current study employs a
43 combination of the subjective (self-reported survey) and objective (marks from exams¹)
44 measures of the skills (managerial and entrepreneurial), which after this will be referring to
45 the objective learning outcomes and subjective learning outcomes.
46
47
48
49
50
51
52

53 54 **5. Learning culture: A Malaysian higher education context**

55
56 ¹ Exams include multiple choices and essay-type question in order to ensure that the students could
57 demonstrate their best objective learning outcomes.
58
59
60

1
2
3 Didactic teaching has been criticized in term of generating rote learning, learning by
4 note taking, and potential boredom as the approach limits student participation and reflection.
5
6 Nonetheless, students from a particular culture may be more accustomed to this approach.
7
8 For example, in Malaysia (a context of this study), the culture of “spoon-feeding” during the
9
10 primary and secondary school and an examination-oriented curriculum in the education
11
12 system, affects the country’s learning culture. The transitions of Malaysians students from
13
14 schools to higher institutions of learning may be difficult because of the structured learning
15
16 environment and the emphasis of surface learning, rote memorization (Chang et al., 2011),
17
18 and dependent learning, rather than deep learning (Maesin et al., 2009). Thus, even though
19
20 they are studying at higher education institutions, they prefer the ‘spoon-feeding’ learning as
21
22 that was the way they were trained in primary school (Keat et al., 2011) . Furthermore, the
23
24 school systems are generally based on examination systems (Wong, 2004). This is a way to
25
26 categorize students’ knowledge and assign students to the right higher learning institution
27
28 (Kahl, 2013). As a result, they will memorize information (rote learning) in order to pass
29
30 examinations.
31
32
33
34
35

36 Furthermore, religion also has a strong impact on transmitted norms, values, beliefs,
37
38 and behaviours (Cohen, 2009). For example, Malaysian students are influenced by a Muslim
39
40 culture about the importance of family, as well as the status of their teachers (Halstead,
41
42 2004). In this culture, students must respect the eldest family member because of their life
43
44 experience and their position within the family unit (Dhami and Sheikh, 2000). The teacher
45
46 possesses a high status in society because they are believed to be knowledgeable. Students
47
48 are taught to respect, obey, listen, and not to challenge their teachers. As a result, students
49
50 follow the teacher’s instructions because they believe that the teacher knows best for them
51
52 and their future. Rao, Moely and Sachs (2000) and Lim (2001) find that the learning theories
53
54 or models developed in Western countries may not be appropriate for the learning cultures of
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Eastern countries. This is also in line with Holtbrügge and Mohr (2010), who found that
4 learning style preference varies according to an individual's cultural values, and could thus
5 impact differently on the students.
6
7

8
9 Drawing from the cultural perspectives, we expect that the teacher-centered approach,
10 despite the criticism toward this approach, will have a stronger impact on learning outcomes.
11 Hence, the hypothesis is proposed as below:
12
13

14
15
16
17
18 *Hypothesis 1: Students who learn through a student-centered approach will develop a higher*
19 *level of (a) subjective and (b) objective learning outcomes, compared to those who learn*
20 *through a teacher-centered approach (between group differences).*
21
22
23
24
25

26 **6. Entrepreneurial intention**

27
28
29 Unlike past entrepreneurship literature that used intention to start-up as measure (e.g.
30 Othman and Mansor, 2012, Samsudin et al., 2016), the current study employs implementation
31 intention theory to measure the entrepreneurial intention. The study focuses on how the
32 development of learning outcomes (skills) will likely influence the students' future career.
33 This is a novel approach for entrepreneurship education study because by implement the
34 implementation intention it helps to reduce the gap between the intended and the actual
35 behaviour, which has being a main criticism of the entrepreneurial intention studies (Ajzen et
36 al., 2009). Formulating the implementation intention by indicating when, where and how it
37 will carry out the intended action can increase the probability to perform the behaviour.
38 Additionally, according to Gollwitzer and Sheeran (2006), people who form implementation
39 intentions are in a good position to recognize opportunities to act and respond to these
40 opportunities swiftly.
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Although the most commonly used theoretical framework in entrepreneurship research
4 is the TPB, there is a belief that utilizing entrepreneurial intention models built on
5 psychological theory can help to examine the development of entrepreneurial behaviour.
6
7 While the literature widely acknowledges the importance of intentions as the first step toward
8 behaviour, there is no direct link established between intentions and actions (Adam &
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Although the most commonly used theoretical framework in entrepreneurship research is the TPB, there is a belief that utilizing entrepreneurial intention models built on psychological theory can help to examine the development of entrepreneurial behaviour. While the literature widely acknowledges the importance of intentions as the first step toward behaviour, there is no direct link established between intentions and actions (Adam & Fayolle, 2015). For instance, based on the TPB theory intentions were found to explain only about 30% of the variance behaviour (Ajzen, 1987). Similarly, Armitage & Conner (2001), reported that the TPB accounted for on average 27% of the variance in behaviour, and 39% in intention. For that reason, there is a need to pay attention to the intention-behaviour relationship by using the concept drawing from socio-psychological literature, which is the implementation intention. Therefore, Gollwitzer (1999) encourages scholars to apply implementation intention theory because individuals who form an implementation intention are more likely to pursue their intentions (Fayolle, 2013).

The “implementation intention” is when the individual anticipates how to respond to a specific situation and promote goal achievement (Adam & Fayolle, 2015). When the implementation intention interact with the goal achievement, the goal intention are more successful (Gollwitzer & Brandstatter, 1997). According to Gollwitzer & Sheeran (2006), individuals who form an implementation intention (i.e. a specific plan detailing where, when, and how the desired behaviour will be performed) have a greater inclination to act on their intentions. The effectiveness of implementation intention has been established by many empirical studies. These include Churchill & Jessop (2011), who tested the link between behaviour and the consumption of fruit and vegetables consumption; and Sniehotta, Scholz, & Schwarzer's (2005) study of physical exercise.

Additionally, the meta-analysis of 94 studies of implementation intentions that was conducted by Gollwitzer & Sheeran (2006) shows that the implementation of intentions was

1
2
3 effective in promoting goal realization. Therefore, this thesis uses the implementation
4
5 intention to measure the entrepreneurial intention. By using the implementation intention, the
6
7 study captures the development of the intention level and enhances the likelihood of goal
8
9 achievement.

10 11 12 **7. Learning Outcomes influence entrepreneurial intention**

13
14
15 It has also been noted that entrepreneurial intention can change over time. Voleryand
16
17 colleagues (2013) argued that the significant effects are often observed directly upon
18
19 completion of an intervention. This suggests that a third point of measurement could indicate
20
21 the effect of stability. For instance, Varamäki, Joensuu and Viljamaa's (2015) study found
22
23 that students' entrepreneurial intention declined, while, Sánchez's (2013) study found that
24
25 students' entrepreneurial intention increased. Therefore, this study measures how subjective
26
27 and objective learning outcomes predict the entrepreneurial intention at Time 1 (immediately
28
29 after the intervention) and at Time 2 (two weeks² after the intervention). The two points of
30
31 time are needed to examine the changes in the entrepreneurial intention over time. Therefore,
32
33 we propose the following hypothesis:
34
35

36
37
38 *Hypothesis 2: The subjective and objective learning outcomes will positively predict the*
39
40 *entrepreneurial intention over time.*
41
42
43
44

45 **8. Learning outcomes as a mediator between the pedagogies and entrepreneurial** 46 47 **intention**

48
49
50 Gibb and Hannon (2006) asserted that well-designed pedagogies could nurture the skills and
51
52 attributes that may be needed by all kinds of organizations and individuals, as well as in a
53
54

55
56 ² Due to some students will be graduated and followed after graduation is limited. Two weeks after course
57 completion, before their final grade released) was feasible.
58
59
60

1
2
3 starting venture. Keogh and Galloway (2004) also suggested that a start-up business project
4 provides an educational experience to the students in that it provides them with
5 encouragement and education to work as entrepreneurs in the future, if they wished to do so.
6
7 Furthermore, this study confirmed that the variation in career intentions, as well as
8 perceptions of entrepreneurship, is affected by entrepreneurship education.
9
10
11
12

13 For these reasons, in order to develop an entrepreneurial career, certain capabilities
14 are required, including skills. It is reasonable to propose that the level of capabilities can be
15 determined by the relationship between how to teach (pedagogy) and the student's career
16 intentions. For instance, the experiential approach is likely to have a greater impact on the
17 development of skills, and thus will likely influence a student's decision to become an
18 entrepreneur (Sherman et al., 2008).
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 Additionally, van Auken and colleagues (2006) found that the interaction and
27 involvement of the role models at two Midwestern universities could influence the
28 understanding of career decisions, and thus have the greatest impact on students' intentions.
29
30 Thus, it was important that educators addressed this development of skills using an
31 appropriate pedagogical approach, as it would contribute not only to skills development, but
32 also to increasing entrepreneurial intention. The current study also proposes that the
33 subjective and objective learning outcomes will positively mediate the relationship between
34 pedagogies and entrepreneurial intention. Thus, the following hypothesis is posited:
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46 *Hypothesis 3: The subjective and objective learning outcomes will mediate the relationship*
47 *between pedagogies and entrepreneurial intention.*
48
49

50 **9. Methodology**

51 **9.1. Participants and procedures**

52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The undergraduate degree of business students (total enrollment of 492 students³) who
4 registered in an entrepreneurship course in the current semester were randomly assigned into
5 “teacher-centered” or “student-centered” classes as the experimental groups. Those students
6
7 who have not yet enrolled in an entrepreneurship course in the current semester and never
8
9 studied an entrepreneurship course before were assigned to the control group.
10
11
12

13
14 The researcher interviewed the educators prior to assigning students into an
15 experimental classroom. Under the same syllabus, two educators voluntarily chose to teach
16 either teacher-focused or student-focused approaches. The educator who preferred the
17 teacher-centred approach used the structured and static learning materials such as notes,
18 PowerPoint slides, and textbooks. The educator transmitted knowledge via lecture format
19 during the class time. Students were assigned additional readings (for example, from
20 newspapers, business cases) to enhance their understanding of certain topics. The students
21 individually prepared answers to those readings and exchanged their thought with the
22 educator during class time.
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 For the student-focused approach, the educator encouraged students to learn materials
34 (and do additional research) prior attending the classroom. During the class time, the
35 educator exposed the student by learning through the process of acquiring skills and expertise
36 by doing things, such as group discussions of relevant topics. The educator used dynamic
37 learning materials, where students are requested to set-up a ‘dummy company’ and use it as
38 their own case study for class discussions.
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46 The number of total participants for the experiment was 308 students (62% response
47 rate⁴), and consisted of two experiment groups: students who randomly assigned to the
48 teacher-centered approach classroom (117 students), and students who randomly assigned to
49
50
51
52
53

54 ³ Data from the university registrar

55 ⁴ The survey was a voluntary basis, therefore we could not reach 100% responses. However, researchers did the class presentation before
56 the data collection, explaining the study context and potential scholar and societal benefits from this study in order to encourage students to
57 participate.
58
59
60

1
2
3 the student-centered approach classroom (86 students). There was also a third group of
4 students, which was the control group (105 students), not attending any entrepreneurship
5 courses. To ensure that students' perception regarding the unit deliver method is aligned with
6 the educators' intention, a manipulation check was conducted. The students were asked after
7 the course completion to rate their course based on 7 questions related to whether or not they
8 perceive that the course is delivered by the teacher-centred approach or the student-centred
9 approach. A researcher also observed the classroom in order to triangulate the manipulation
10 survey as well. All participation involved completing a questionnaire (with Likert scale
11 answers) at four points of time, which were: (1) one week before the course commenced; (2)
12 the first week of the course commencement; (3) one week before the course completion; and
13 (4) two weeks after course completion. Final exams were given only to the experimental
14 groups. Table 1 is a summary of studied participants

15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 1 about here

9.2. Measures

9.2.1. Subjective learning outcomes

The students were asked to rate their management and entrepreneurship related skills⁵, which derived from previous studies (Chandler and Jansen, 1992, Hood and Young, 1993, Lichtenstein and Lyons, 2001, Man et al., 2002, Smith et al., 2006, Morris et al., 2013). The questions used a Likert Scale, with 1 "Not capable at all", and 7 "Very capable".

9.2.2. Objective learning outcomes

Students who were randomly assigned into teacher-centered or student-centered classrooms were given assessments including a business case essay and exams (multiple choices and

⁵ Finance, Marketing/Sales, Business law and regulation, Leadership, Communication, Management, recognizing new business opportunity, Business plan, Networking

1
2
3 True or False) to measure the objective learning outcomes. All educators jointly designed the
4
5 assessment ensuring the learning contents were covered in the assessments and moderated by
6
7 the program coordinator.
8

9 9.2.3. Entrepreneurial Intention

10
11 “Implementation intention” is when the individual anticipates how to respond to a specific
12
13 situation and promote goal achievement (Adam and Fayolle, 2015). The question asked was
14
15 “How likely is it that you will pursue a career as an entrepreneur within the next 6 months?”
16
17 This question reflected the “implementation intention” framework, in which a self-regulatory
18
19 strategy in the form of an “if-then” plan is posited as leading to better goal attainment.
20
21
22

23 9.2.4. Control Variables

24
25 These variables were included in the study due to the correlation analysis result: (1) majoring
26
27 course; (2) family background; (3) prior entrepreneurial experience; (4) prior entrepreneurial
28
29 course; (5) personality-agreeableness; (6) personality-emotional; and (7) mastery approach,
30
31 as control variables/covariates in the current study. Educator satisfaction was also included
32
33 (the students were asked to rate overall satisfaction toward the educator and classroom).
34
35

36 9.2.5. Validity and reliability⁶

37
38
39 In this study, besides assessing the content validity through the pilot test, an exploratory
40
41 factor analysis was used to gather information about the interrelationships among a set of
42
43 variables. In psychological research, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) belongs to the most
44
45 extensively statistical technique (Fabrigar, Wegener, Maccallum, & Strahan, 1999). EFA is
46
47 particularly useful to specify the latent structure among the sub-scores in an analysis.
48
49

50 According to O'Connor & Jackson (2007), an exploratory factor analysis is required to
51
52 establish the correct number of factors and assess the unidimensionality of factor loadings.
53
54
55

56 ⁶ Due to space limitation, full details about validity and reliability tests can be obtained from authors
57
58
59
60

For analysing the data (n=308), SPSS Statistics 22.0 was used to conduct an EFA and determine how the 27 items in the given data set load onto factors.

10. Results

Table 2 shows the results of normal distribution of data test. Table 3 show correlation among variables which were moderated⁷. Cronbach's alphas (internal reliability test) are also presented in Table 3 below and suggest a strong relationship amongst the items in each scale for each variable at Time 1 and Time 2.

Table 2 and 3 about here

H1(a) Students who learn through a student-centered approach will develop a higher level of (a) subjective compared to those who learn through a teacher-centered approach (between group differences)

The two-way repeated measures ANCOVA analysis was used to determine the difference between the groups (teacher-centred and student-centred) and within the groups (subjective learning outcomes) over the two points of time based on experiment conditions. Due to only two points of time (pre-test and post-test 1), the Mauchly's Test of Sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been met therefore, a Sphericity Assumed was used. The results show that there was a statistically significant two-way interaction between treatment (group pedagogies) and time on the subjective learning outcomes, $F(3.155, 154.175) = 3.090, p < .05$. Therefore, simple main effects were run. The result showed that the mean of subjective learning outcomes was statistically significantly different over time (Time 0 to Time 1), $F(3.575, 154.175) = 7.002, p < .01$. Table 4a indicates the estimates means for the interaction between groups and times.

Table 4a about here

⁷ The test was performed to examine the absence of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity is a situation where two or more predictor variables in a multiple regression are highly correlated. As a rule of thumb, the value of below 0.3 is considered to be a weak relationship, between 0.3 and 0.7 is moderate, and above 0.7 is a strong relationship. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that no correlation should be above $r = .90$. Therefore, it is important that the dependent variables be moderately correlated with each other.

1
2
3 *H1(b) Students who learn through a student-centered approach will develop a higher level of*
4 *(b) objective learning outcomes, compared to those who learn through a teacher-centered*
5 *approach (between group differences)*
6
7

8
9 An independent T-test was used to compare between two experimental groups (as
10 control did not take any exams). Findings reveal that the teacher-centred approach group (M
11 $= 77.06$, $SD = 12.46$, $N = 117$) scored much higher on the objective learning outcomes
12 compared to the student-centred group ($M = 72.31$, $SD = 8.76$, $N = 86$), $t(201) = 3.208$, $p <$
13 $.01$ (Table 4b) Thus Hypothesis 1 is supported.
14
15
16
17
18

19
20 Table 4b about here
21

22 *H2: The subjective and objective learning outcomes will positively predict the*
23 *entrepreneurial intention over time*
24
25

26
27 The subjective learning outcomes were found to have a significant influence on the
28 entrepreneurial intention at Time 1 for, but not the objective learning outcomes. The R^2
29 change and its significance level show it is predicted a significant change in the DV ($R^2Ch. =$
30 $.283$, $\Delta F(2, 190) = 42.484$, $p < 0.001$). Further, subjective learning outcomes still predict the
31 entrepreneurial intention after two weeks of intervention, but not the objective learning
32 outcomes. The R^2 change and its significance level show it is predicted a significant change
33 in the DV ($R^2Ch. = .179$, $\Delta F(2, 190) = 26.173$, $p < 0.001$). However, the objective learning
34 outcomes failed to predict the entrepreneurial intention in both times (Table 5a). Thus
35 hypothesis 2 is supported for subjective learning outcomes.
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46
47 Table 5a about here
48

49 *H3: The subjective and objective learning outcomes will mediate the relationship between*
50 *pedagogies and entrepreneurial intention*
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

The effect of subjective and objective learning outcomes as mediators was tested using PROCESS Macro⁸. The inspection shows a significant indirect effect of pedagogies through the mediator effects of subjective learning outcomes ($\beta = -.302$, 95% CI from -5.14 to -.089) to entrepreneurial intentions (Y) ($\beta = .705$, 95% CI from .557 to .853). Nonetheless, the pedagogies had an indirect effect on the mediator of objective learning outcomes ($\beta = -4.724$, 95% CI from -7.845 to -1.604), but not to entrepreneurial intentions ($\beta = .007$, 95% CI from -.003 to .017) (Table 5b). The examination on the bootstrap result confirmed that only the subjective learning outcomes mediate the relationship between pedagogies and entrepreneurial intention. The results have been interpreted as significantly positive because the bootstrap confidence interval is entirely above zero for subjective learning outcomes (95% CI from -.378 to -.077), but not for objective learning outcomes (95% CI from -.108 to 0.004). Thus hypothesis 3 is supported for subjective learning outcomes.

Table 5b about here

11. Discussion

The first hypothesis aimed to analyse the relationship between the pedagogical approaches (teacher-centred versus student-centred) and the subjective and objective learning outcomes. The results are informative. The researcher found that both pedagogical approaches (teacher-centred versus student-centred) had a positive effect on the development of subjective and objective learning outcomes. Nonetheless, the students who learned under the teacher-centred approach developed higher levels of subjective learning outcomes (at sig. $p < .001$) and objective learning outcomes (at sig. level $p < .01$). In other words, students who learned under the teacher-centred approach improved significantly on their subjective and objective learning outcomes, compared with the students who learned under the student-centred approach.

⁸ The PROCESS Macro is a plugin command used together with the SPSS. The PROCESS introduced the concepts of the relative indirect, direct, and total effect in the mediation analysis.

1
2
3 This study's findings contradicted previous studies that had highlighted the
4 effectiveness of the student-centred approach in teaching entrepreneurship education
5 (Tynjälä, 1998; Rasmussen & Sørheim, 2006), and counter the western-based studies that
6 have suggested that the teacher-centred approaches failed to develop skills (Cheng et al.,
7 2009; Ismail & Ahmad, 2013). A review of previous literature acknowledged that most of
8 the studies that examined the impact of student-centred pedagogy in entrepreneurship
9 education were conducted in Western regions. The way that students learn in Malaysia
10 (which is an 'Eastern' country) might be different to how students learn in Western countries,
11 and this may be due to Malaysia's learning culture as previously discussed in section 5:
12 Learning culture: A Malaysian higher education context.

13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24 Based on the previous literature, entrepreneurship education appears to have
25 succeeded in encouraging students to embark on entrepreneurial careers. Thus, the second
26 hypothesis predicted that the subjective and objective learning outcomes would positively
27 predict the entrepreneurial intention over time. The multiple regressions result demonstrated
28 that the subjective learning outcomes were good predictors of entrepreneurial intention at
29 Time 1 ($R^2 = .368$) and Time 2 ($R^2 = .314$), but not the objective learning outcomes. This
30 study is in line with Liñán (2008) and Lope Pihie & Abdullah Sani (2009), who affirmed that
31 if students believe that they had improved on their learning outcomes, they would likely
32 develop the intention to start a business. Given the insignificant result for objective learning
33 outcomes, this finding also acknowledges that receiving a good grade in entrepreneurship
34 education does not mean that students are more likely want to choose an entrepreneurial
35 career.

36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50 The results also suggest the stability of entrepreneurial intention over time, at the
51 post-test 1(Time 1) and post-test 2(Time 2). Entrepreneurial intentions proved to be
52 significant for both times. Nonetheless, this may be due to a short period of time-lag between
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 the Time 1 and Time 2, which is only two weeks. Therefore, the entrepreneurial intention still
4 remains. This can be explained by Ajzen's (1987) theory, which suggests that a stronger
5 relationship between intention and behaviour will be achieved when the time interval
6 between the two measures is closer.
7
8
9

10
11 Based on the third hypothesis, the study explored how the subjective and objective
12 learning outcomes mediate the relationship between the pedagogical approaches and
13 entrepreneurial intention. The study supported previous research that had shown that the
14 pedagogical approach influences the entrepreneurial intention (Crane, 2014; Kassean et al.,
15 2015; Varamäki, Joensuu, & Viljamaa, 2015). The study's findings have several implications
16 for students and educators. First, they support studies by Fischer & Schoar (2014) and
17 Seymour et al. (2002), which showed that training can influence the skills, and increase the
18 possibility of performing the related behaviour. Thus, educators can focus on developing the
19 subjective and objective learning outcomes through entrepreneurship education, as this will
20 influence the students' entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, the findings show that the teacher-
21 centred approach has been effective for Malaysia students. Yet these findings also
22 demonstrate that the student-centred approach helped develop student subjective and
23 objective learning outcomes.
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 Additionally, to make sure that the student-centred approach is more effective in
40 learning, students should engage in the activities. For instance, the cooperative approach will
41 not enable students to be productive if group members do not contribute to the discussion, or
42 if they only allow some people to dominate the group discussion. Therefore, students should
43 be taught the social skills and be motivated to use them in the classroom (Johnson & Johnson,
44 1989).
45
46
47
48
49
50

51
52 Although the current study found that only subjective learning outcomes mediate the
53 relationship between pedagogical approaches and entrepreneurial intention, the result still
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 contributes to our understanding of the direct relationship from pedagogical approaches
4 towards the subjective learning outcomes, and in turn, the entrepreneurial intention. The
5 results also suggest that the differences in levels of attitude towards entrepreneurial careers
6 are associated with variability in the relationship between subjective learning outcomes and
7 entrepreneurial intention. Therefore, the relationship between subjective learning outcomes
8 and entrepreneurial intention appears to be stronger among students who are developing more
9 subjective learning outcomes.
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17

18 Our findings also shed some lights to the rising issues on the entrepreneurship
19 pedagogy in the global context. There is a growing trend developed nations towards a
20 practice-based approach to entrepreneurship education (Brush, Neck and Greene, 2015) and
21 “the integration of the entrepreneurship university and entrepreneurial ecosystems” (Maritz,
22 Jones and Schwetzer, 2015 p 1023), which reflects a trend towards student-centred learning.
23 This research challenges this trend by studying students in a different culture, where the
24 teacher’s authority is highly accepted (Keat et al., 2011).
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 These results have several implications for entrepreneurship education pedagogy. First,
34 the culture of the student needs to be considered. Students from cultural backgrounds where
35 teacher-centred education is the norm, or where there is high respect for the teacher’s
36 authority are likely to have a greater impact on entrepreneurship intention using the teacher-
37 centred pedagogic approaches. This means that research results from Western countries may
38 not apply in other cultures. More research is needed to further test these results. Secondly,
39 subjective, as opposed to objective measures of student learning have greater predictive
40 power for entrepreneurial intentions in this context. This means that learning about
41 entrepreneurship may not translate into greater entrepreneurial intentions and could explain
42 some previous results. Finally, subjective learning outcomes mediate the relationship between
43 the entrepreneurship pedagogy and entrepreneurial intention. This means that the focus is on
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 the development of subjective learning outcomes. This result should be tested in other
4
5 cultures to see if it maintains.
6

7 8 **12. Limitations and future studies** 9

10 The first limitation concern in this study regards examining the difference between
11
12 pedagogical approaches (teacher-centered versus student-centered) and the development of
13
14 objective learning outcomes. The result, even though interesting (because it only partially
15
16 supports the hypothesis proposed), should be interpreted cautiously, for three reasons. First,
17
18 the subjective learning outcomes were measured using self-reported questionnaires. Students
19
20 might over-rate their capabilities in the managerial and entrepreneurial skills (which are
21
22 referred to as the learning outcomes in this study) based on how they perceived themselves as
23
24 capable, which is a very subjective question. Second, although the objective measure was
25
26 used to complement the subjective measure, there are still some issues of concern. The
27
28 objective learning outcomes was measured using exams and a business case essay, which
29
30 seem to align more with the teacher-centered themes, rather than student-centered themes.
31
32 Although the current study aims to capture knowledge through the exams and essay, future
33
34 research could employ reflective essay or learning dairies, examining how and what students
35
36 learn. Third, due to the nature of sample limitation, short time lag (two weeks) was used.
37
38 Future research could investigate the effect of pedagogical approaches using a longitudinal
39
40 study (e.g., six months, one year), because it can measure changes over time, thus giving an
41
42 insight in terms of the stability of students' skills and entrepreneurial intention. Furthermore,
43
44 this study has encourages future scholars to replicate our model, researching a larger sample,
45
46 involving more higher education students from other cultures, universities and regions.
47
48
49
50

51 **13. Conclusion** 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

1
2
3 Entrepreneurship education has been found to influence the current behaviour and future
4 intentions of learners. The study has been designed to help researchers reach a better
5 understanding of how the selection of pedagogical approaches in teaching entrepreneurship
6 education impacts the subjective and objective learning outcomes and entrepreneurial
7 intentions of students. Furthermore, to encourage more young people to become
8 entrepreneurs, it is important to instil an entrepreneurial mindset and attitude towards
9 entrepreneur career at the university level.
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

14. Reference

- Adam, A. F. & Fayolle, A. 2015. Bridging the entrepreneurial intention–behaviour gap: the role of commitment and implementation intention. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp.36-54.
- Ajzen, I., Czasch, C. & Flood, M. G. 2009. From intentions to behavior: Implementation intention, commitment, and conscientiousness. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 39, No. 6, pp.1356-1372.
- Bae, T. J., Qian, S., Miao, C. & Fiet, J. O. 2014. The relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intentions: A meta-analytic review. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, Vol. 38, No. 2, pp.217-254.
- Bakotić, D. & Kružić, D. 2010. Students' perceptions and intentions towards entrepreneurship: the empirical findings from Croatia. *The Business Review, Cambridge*, Vol. 14, No. 2, pp.209-215.
- Barber, M. 2007. Reassessing Pedagogy in a Fast Forward Age. *International journal of Learning*, Vol. 13, No. 9, pp.143-149.
- Chandler, G. N. & Jansen, E. 1992. The founder's self-assessed competence and venture performance. *Journal of Business venturing*, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp.223-236.
- Chang, L., Mak, M. C., Li, T., Wu, B. P., Chen, B. B. & Lu, H. J. 2011. Cultural adaptations to environmental variability: An evolutionary account of East–West differences. *Educational Psychology Review*, Vol. 23, No. 1, pp.99-129.
- Cohen, A. B. 2009. Many forms of culture. *American psychologist*, Vol. 64, No. 3, pp.194-204.
- Corbett, A. C. 2005. Experiential learning within the process of opportunity identification and exploitation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, Vol. 29, No. 4, pp.473-491.
- Dhami, S. & Sheikh, A. 2000. The Muslim family: predicament and promise. *Western Journal of Medicine*, Vol. 173, No. 5, pp.352-356.
- Fayolle, A. & Gailly, B. 2015. The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial attitudes and intention: Hysteresis and persistence. *Journal of Small Business Management*, Vol. 53, No. 1, pp.75-93.
- Fretschner, M. & Weber, S. 2013. Measuring and understanding the effects of entrepreneurial awareness education. *Journal of Small Business Management*, Vol. 51, No. 3, pp.410-428.
- Gibb, A. & Hannon, P. 2006. Towards the entrepreneurial university. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*, Vol. 4, No. 1, pp.73-110.
- Gollwitzer, P. M. & Sheeran, P. 2006. Implementation intentions and goal achievement: A meta-analysis of effects and processes. In: ZANNA, M. P. (ed.) *Advances in experimental social psychology*. New York: Academic Press.
- Halstead, M. 2004. An Islamic concept of education. *Comparative education*, Vol. 40, No. 4, pp.517-529.
- Holtbrügge, D. & Mohr, A. T. 2010. Cultural determinants of learning style preferences. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, Vol. 9, No. 4, pp.622-637.
- Hood, J. N. & Young, J. E. 1993. Entrepreneurship's requisite areas of development: A survey of top executives in successful entrepreneurial firms. *Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp.115-135.
- Hytti, U. & O'gorman, C. 2004. What is “enterprise education”? An analysis of the objectives and methods of enterprise education programmes in four European countries. *Education+ Training*, Vol. 46, No. 1, pp.11-23.

- 1
2
3 Izquierdo, E. & Buelens, M. 2011. Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions: the
4 influence of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and attitudes. *International Journal of*
5 *Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, Vol. 13, No. 1, pp.75-91.
- 6 Kahl, C. 2013. A Deeper Lecturer and Student View of a Sustainable Learning Requirement
7 in Tertiary Education in Malaysia. *International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary*
8 *Subjects in Education*, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp.1144-1152.
- 9 Keat, O. Y., Selvarajah, C. & Meyer, D. 2011. Inclination towards entrepreneurship among
10 university students: An empirical study of Malaysian university students.
11 *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, Vol. 2, No. 4, pp.206-221.
- 12 Keogh, W. & Galloway, L. 2004. Teaching enterprise in vocational disciplines: reflecting on
13 positive experience. *Management Decision*, Vol. 42, No. 3/4, pp.531-541.
- 14 Kolb, D. A. 1984. *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and*
15 *development*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice Hall.
- 16 Lichtenstein, G. A. & Lyons, T. S. 2001. The entrepreneurial development system:
17 Transforming business talent and community economies. *Economic Development*
18 *Quarterly*, Vol. 15, No. 1, pp.3-20.
- 19 Lim, L. 2001. Work-related values of Malays and Chinese Malaysians. *International Journal*
20 *of Cross Cultural Management*, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp.209-226.
- 21 Lorz, M., Mueller, S. & Volery, T. 2013. Entrepreneurship education: a systematic review of
22 the methods in impact studies. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, Vol. 21, No. 02,
23 pp.123-151.
- 24 Maesin, A., Mansor, M., Shafie, L. A. & Nayan, S. 2009. A study of collaborative learning
25 among Malaysian undergraduates. *Asian Social Science*, Vol. 5, No. 7, pp.70-76.
- 26 Man, T. W., Lau, T. & Chan, K. 2002. The competitiveness of small and medium enterprises:
27 A conceptualization with focus on entrepreneurial competencies. *Journal of business*
28 *venturing*, Vol. 17, No. 2, pp.123-142.
- 29 Martin, B. C., McNally, J. J. & Kay, M. J. 2013. Examining the formation of human capital in
30 entrepreneurship: A meta-analysis of entrepreneurship education outcomes. *Journal*
31 *of Business Venturing*, Vol. 28, No. 2, pp.211-224.
- 32 Matlay, H. 2008. The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial outcomes.
33 *Journal of small business and enterprise development*, Vol. 15, No. 2, pp.382-396.
- 34 Morris, M. H., Webb, J. W., Fu, J. & Singhal, S. 2013. A Competency-Based Perspective on
35 Entrepreneurship Education: Conceptual and Empirical Insights. *Journal of Small*
36 *Business Management*, Vol. 51, No. 3, pp.352-369.
- 37 Nabi, G., Liñán, F., Fayolle, A., Krueger, N. & Walmsley, A. 2017. The impact of
38 entrepreneurship education in higher education: A systematic review and research
39 agenda. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, Vol. 16, No. 2, pp.277-299.
- 40 Oosterbeek, H., Van Praag, M. & Ijsselstein, A. 2010. The impact of entrepreneurship
41 education on entrepreneurship skills and motivation. *European economic review*, Vol.
42 54, No. 3, pp.442-454.
- 43 Othman, N., Hashim, N. & Ab Wahid, H. 2012. Readiness towards entrepreneurship
44 education: Students and Malaysian universities. *Education+ Training*, Vol. 54, No.
45 8/9, pp.697-708.
- 46 Othman, N. & Mansor, M. 2012. Entrepreneurial intentions among polytechnic students in
47 Malaysia. *International Business Management*, Vol. 6, No. 4, pp.517-526.
- 48 Othman, N. H. & Ishak, S. B. 2009. Attitude towards choosing a career in entrepreneurship
49 amongst graduates. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp.419-434.
- 50 Piperopoulos, P. & Dimov, D. 2015. Burst bubbles or build steam? Entrepreneurship
51 education, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of*
52 *Small Business Management*, Vol. 53, No. 4, pp.970-985.
- 53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Postareff, L., Lindblom-Ylänne, S. & Nevgi, A. 2008. A follow-up study of the effect of
4 pedagogical training on teaching in higher education. *Higher Education*, Vol. 56, No.
5 1, pp.29-43.
- 6 Radu, M. & Loué, C. 2008. Motivational impact of role models as moderated by "ideal" vs."
7 ought self-guides" identifications. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, Vol. 16, No. 04,
8 pp.441-465.
- 9 Rae, D. & Ruth Woodier-Harris, N. 2013. How does enterprise and entrepreneurship
10 education influence postgraduate students' career intentions in the New Era economy?
11 *Education+ Training*, Vol. 55, No. 8/9, pp.926-948.
- 12 Rao, N., Moely, B. E. & Sachs, J. 2000. Motivational beliefs, study strategies, and
13 mathematics attainment in high-and low-achieving Chinese secondary school
14 students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp.287-316.
- 15 Rauch, A. & Hulsink, W. 2015. Putting entrepreneurship education where the intention to act
16 lies: An investigation into the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial
17 behavior. *Academy of management learning & education*, Vol. 14, No. 2, pp.187-204.
- 18 Rideout, E. C. & Gray, D. O. 2013. Does entrepreneurship education really work? A review
19 and methodological critique of the empirical literature on the effects of university-
20 based entrepreneurship education. *Journal of Small Business Management*, Vol. 51,
21 No. 3, pp.329-351.
- 22 Samsudin, N., Ab Jalil, N., Ab Wahid, H., Yahaya, R. & Jizat, J. E. M. 2016. Students'
23 Readiness, Motivation and Attitude towards Entrepreneurship. *International Business*,
24 Vol. 9, No. 1, pp.50-57.
- 25 Sánchez, J. C. 2013. The impact of an entrepreneurship education program on entrepreneurial
26 competencies and intention. *Journal of Small Business Management*, Vol. 51, No. 3,
27 pp.447-465.
- 28 Sawang, S., Parker, R. & Hine, D. 2016. How Small Business Advisory Program Delivery
29 Methods (Collective Learning, Tailored, and Practice-Based Approaches) Affect
30 Learning and Innovation. *Journal of Small Business Management*, Vol. 54, No. 1,
31 pp.244-261.
- 32 Sherman, P. S., Sebora, T. & Digman, L. A. 2008. Experiential entrepreneurship in the
33 classroom: effects of teaching methods on entrepreneurial career choice intentions.
34 *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*, Vol. 11, No., pp.29-42.
- 35 Smith, W. L., Schallenkamp, K. & Eichholz, D. E. 2006. Entrepreneurial skills assessment:
36 an exploratory study. *International Journal of Management and Enterprise*
37 *Development*, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp.179-201.
- 38 Souitaris, V., Zerbinati, S. & Al-Laham, A. 2007. Do entrepreneurship programmes raise
39 entrepreneurial intention of science and engineering students? The effect of learning,
40 inspiration and resources. *Journal of Business venturing*, Vol. 22, No. 4, pp.566-591.
- 41 Van Auken, H., Fry, F. L. & Stephens, P. 2006. The influence of role models on
42 entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of developmental Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 11, No.
43 02, pp.157-167.
- 44 Varamäki, E., Joensuu, S., Tornikoski, E. & Viljamaa, A. 2015. The development of
45 entrepreneurial potential among higher education students. *Journal of Small Business*
46 *and Enterprise Development*, Vol. 22, No. 3, pp.563-589.
- 47 Volery, T., Müller, S., Oser, F., Naepflin, C. & Rey, N. 2013. The impact of entrepreneurship
48 education on human capital at upper-secondary level. *Journal of Small Business*
49 *Management*, Vol. 51, No. 3, pp.429-446.
- 50 Von Graevenitz, G., Harhoff, D. & Weber, R. 2010. The effects of entrepreneurship
51 education. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, Vol. 76, No. 1, pp.90-112.
- 52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Wong, J. K.-K. 2004. Are the Learning Styles of Asian International Students Culturally or Contextually Based? *International Education Journal*, Vol. 4, No. 4, pp.154-166.
Yu Cheng, M., Sei Chan, W. & Mahmood, A. 2009. The effectiveness of entrepreneurship education in Malaysia. *Education+ Training*, Vol. 51, No. 7, pp.555-566.

Education + Training

Table 1: Demographic and Descriptive Statistics

Demographic Variables	Teacher-centered		Student-centered		Control	
	(N = 117)		(N = 86)		(N = 105)	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	20.13	.483	19.69	.690	19.27	.724
Gender	.30	.460	.35	.479	.23	.422
Majoring Course	.58	.495	.65	.479	.52	.502
Family with business background	.28	.452	.30	.462	.10	.308
Prior entrepreneurial experience	.43	.497	.44	.500	.19	.395
Prior entrepreneurial education	.25	.434	.17	.382	.02	.137
Personality- Extraversion	4.2009	.85616	4.2965	.89567	4.3524	.86581
Personality- Agreeableness	4.4573	.92748	4.6744	.89366	4.3381	.88659
Personality- Conscientiousness	4.1410	.97124	4.3314	.87653	4.3190	.89368
Personality- Emotional	4.6496	.89362	4.6221	.74729	4.6143	.86951
Personality- Openness	4.5214	1.06146	4.6744	.88040	4.4571	.91493
Goal mastery approach	5.4786	.99845	5.3798	1.09325	5.0794	1.19697

Table 2: Descriptive for reviewing the means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, standard errors, and Shapiro-Wilk's for Subjective learning outcomes and Entrepreneurial Intention at Pre-test (Time 0) and Post-test (Time 1 and Time 2) for the three groups.

GROUP	Teacher-centered approach Group						
	Mean	SD	Skewness	SE	Kurtosis	SE	Shapiro-Wilk
Pre-test Subjective learning outcomes	4.90	.067	.029	.224	-.661	.444	.270
Post-test 1 Subjective learning outcomes	5.31	.078	.210	.224	-.465	.444	.024
Post-test 2 Subjective learning outcomes	5.31	.062	.192	.224	-.056	.444	.325
Pre-test Entrepreneurial Intention	4.97	.973	-.132	.224	-.275	.444	.248
Post-test 1 Entrepreneurial Intention	5.00	.904	.267	.224	-.101	.444	.012
Post-test 2 Entrepreneurial Intention	5.10	.952	-.453	.224	1.474	.444	.004
GROUP	Student-centered approach Group						
	Mean	SD	Skewness	SE	Kurtosis	SE	Shapiro-Wilk
Pre-test Subjective learning outcomes	4.82	.900	.029	.260	-.465	.514	.117
Post-test 1 Subjective learning outcomes	4.97	.082	.071	.260	-.346	.514	.094
Post-test 2 Subjective learning outcomes	5.14	.084	-.087	.260	-.744	.514	.054
Pre-test Entrepreneurial Intention	4.85	.970	-.012	.260	-.363	.514	.332
Post-test 1 Entrepreneurial Intention	4.90	1.004	.077	.260	-.711	.514	.058
Post-test 2 Entrepreneurial Intention	5.03	.870	.070	.260	-.763	.514	.021
GROUP	Control Group						
	Mean	SD	Skewness	SE	Kurtosis	SE	Shapiro-Wilk
Pre-test Subjective learning outcomes	4.59	.089	-.135	.236	-.373	.467	.420
Post-test 1 Subjective learning outcomes	4.66	.079	.077	.236	-.209	.467	.686
Post-test 2 Subjective learning outcomes	4.90	.072	.297	.236	-.301	.467	.056
Pre-test Entrepreneurial Intention	4.67	.825	.422	.236	-.486	.467	.005
Post-test 1 Entrepreneurial Intention	4.74	.927	-.322	.236	.497	.467	.004
Post-test 2 Entrepreneurial Intention	4.80	.774	.161	.236	.622	.467	.011

Table 3: Means, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients among the Independent and Dependent Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	Alpha	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Time 1														
1. Entrepreneurial Intention	4.89	.94	.845											
2. Subjective learning outcomes	4.99	.85	.925	.596**										
3. Objective learning outcomes	75.05	11.2	-	.102	.049									
4. Attitude towards entrepreneurial career	5.07	.84	.839	.539**	.647**	.076								
5. Perceived control over entrepreneurial career	4.90	.93	.742	.273**	.293**	.026	.294**							
6. Social acceptance of entrepreneurial career	16.9	17.2	.915	.655**	.669**	.112	.691**	.336**						
Time 2														
7. Entrepreneurial Intention	4.98	.88	.784	.308**	.230**	.119	.307**	.125*	.338**					
8. Subjective learning outcomes	5.12	.74	.900	.203**	.348**	.221**	.372**	.106	.258**	.561**				
9. Attitude towards entrepreneurial career	5.16	.84	.809	.199**	.284**	.189**	.391**	.074	.296**	.525**	.588**			
10. Perceived control over entrepreneurial career	4.88	1.00	.790	.080	.131*	.005	.122*	.245**	.117*	.322**	.265**	.265**		
11. Social acceptance of entrepreneurial career	18.2	16.8	.928	.242**	.291**	.131	.410**	.047	.323**	.547**	.584**	.734**	.194**	

** $p < .01$, * $p < .005$

Table 4a: Estimates means, standard error, and confidence interval for interaction between groups and time for subjective learning outcome

Groups	Time	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	0	4.614 ^a	.083	4.450	4.778
	1	4.679 ^a	.083	4.516	4.841
Teacher-centered	0	4.889 ^a	.077	4.737	5.041
	1	5.294 ^a	.076	5.144	5.445
Student-centered	0	4.802 ^a	.089	4.627	4.977
	1	4.958 ^a	.088	4.785	5.132

^a = covariates appearing in the model

Table 4b: Results of Independent T-tests of objective learning outcome on Pedagogical Approaches

Outcome	Group						95% CI for Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	Teacher-centered			Student-centered					
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n			
Objective learning outcome	77.06	12.46	117	72.31	8.76	86	1.65668 - 7.84362	3.028 ^{**}	201

^{**} $p < 0.01$

Table 5a: A summary of multiple regression analysis for predicting the entrepreneurial intention from the subjective and objective learning outcomes at Time 1 and Time 2

Learning Outcomes	Entrepreneurial Intention (Time 1)	Entrepreneurial Intention (Time 2)
	β	β
Subjective learning outcome	.676 ^{***}	.616 ^{***}
Objective learning outcome	.006	.001
R^2	.368	.349
F	9.221 ^{***}	8.478 ^{***}

Note ^{***} $p < 0.001$; β = unstandardized regression coefficient

Table 5b: Coefficient beta, Confidence Interval and Indirect effect for the Pedagogical Approaches and Entrepreneurial Intention through the subjective and objective learning outcomes

	Subjective learning outcomes	Objective learning outcomes	Entrepreneurial Intention
Group	-.302 ^{**}	-4.724 ^{**}	.152
	95% CI (-.514 to -.089)	95% CI (-7.845 to -1.604)	95% CI (-.079 to .384)
Subjective learning outcomes			.705 ^{***} 95% CI (.557 to .853)
Objective learning outcomes			.007 95% CI (-.003 to .017)