

Impact Of Socio-Demographic Factors On Entrepreneurial Intentions Among University Students In The Kathmandu Valley, Nepal

Gopal Bahadur Bhandari¹, Amiya Bhaumik², Surendra Neupane³

¹Gopal Bahadur Bhandari

Ph.D. Scholar, Faculty of Business and Accountancy,
Lincoln University College, Malaysia.

(Corresponding author)

gopalbnb@gmail.com

²Amiya Bhaumik

Ph.D., Professor, Founder & President, Lincoln
University College, Malaysia.

³Surendra Neupane

Ph.D., Faculty of Business and Accountancy, Lincoln
University College, Malaysia.m

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ABSTRACT

This engaging study explores how demographic factors shape entrepreneurial intentions among university students in the vibrant Kathmandu Valley of Nepal. Using a self-reported questionnaire, we gathered valuable insights from 20 different educational institutions offering university-level courses. Through purposive sampling, we received 508 completed responses, and with multiple linear regression (MLR) analysis and analysis of variance (ANOVA), we delved into the interplay between various factors.

Our findings are not only insightful but also inspiring! Key elements such as gender, marital status, place of residence, parental education, parent's occupation, and household income play substantial roles in shaping entrepreneurial ambitions. Our analysis suggests that male, unmarried students from urban areas whose parents possess higher education levels and come from wealthier households tend to display stronger entrepreneurial intentions. Conversely, factors like family type, family size, and lower parental education levels have a minimal impact on these aspirations.

These results underscore the importance of developing targeted strategies and policies that reflect the unique socioeconomic contexts of our youth. By further examining these dynamics, we can deepen our understanding of entrepreneurial intentions and foster the development of thriving entrepreneurial ecosystems, not just in Nepal but around the globe. Let us work together to empower the next generation of innovators and creators!

1. INTRODUCTION

This study explores entrepreneurship as the process of creating new ventures, aligning with the definition that "entrepreneurship is the creation of organizations" (Gartner, 1988, p. 26). Numerous scholars highlight the pivotal role of entrepreneurship in fostering economic growth and development (Hessel et al., 2008; Khanka, 2010). The research underscores its contribution to wealth generation, employment creation, technological advancement, and socioeconomic progress in both developed and developing nations (Dana, 1993, 1996; Mojica et al., 2010; Norrman & Bager-Sjogren, 2010; Menzies, 2012).

Socio-demographic factors, such as gender, geographic location, and educational attainment, shape entrepreneurial attitudes and behaviors. These factors are critical in determining opportunities and challenges related to entrepreneurial intentions among university students in Nepal. For instance, gender differences in entrepreneurial aspirations are well-documented, with studies revealing

that men exhibit stronger entrepreneurial intentions than women (Ismail et al., 2009; Peng et al., 2013). Similarly, age, labor experience, and family role models have also been shown to influence entrepreneurial motivations (Matthews & Moser, 1996; Levesque & Minniti, 2006; Minniti & Nardone, 2007).

Entrepreneurial intention, a dynamic area of research (Liñán & Fayolle, 2015), is critical for nurturing future entrepreneurs. As future drivers of economic activity, university students are often the focus of studies on entrepreneurial intention (Wahidmurni et al., 2020). However, while prior research has explored various determinants of entrepreneurial intention, there remains a gap in understanding how socio-demographic variables specifically influence entrepreneurial aspirations, especially in the context of university students (Wang & Wong, 2004).

Existing literature highlights the importance of factors like parental occupations, with evidence suggesting that entrepreneurial parents—especially fathers—can inspire their children to pursue similar paths (Boz & Ergenelli, 2013). However, there is limited investigation into the role of mothers' occupations and other demographic aspects, such as household income or family structure.

This study seeks to address these gaps by examining the influence of demographic and socioeconomic variables—such as gender, age, place of residence, family size, parental occupations, household income, and marital status—on the entrepreneurial intentions of university students in Kathmandu Valley, Nepal. By investigating these factors, the research aims to contribute to the growing body of literature on entrepreneurship and inform policies to support entrepreneurial aspirations among young individuals.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Entrepreneurship plays a crucial role in the creation of new ventures, a perspective encapsulated by Gartner (1988), who defined entrepreneurship as "the creation of organizations" (p. 26). The importance of entrepreneurship in driving economic development is widely recognized in academic research (Hessel et al., 2008; Khanka, 2010). Scholars have emphasized its significant contributions to wealth generation, employment creation, economic growth, technological advancements, and overall socioeconomic development in both developed and developing countries (Dana, 1993, 1996; Mojica et al., 2010; Norrman & Bager-Sjögren, 2010; Menzies, 2012).

Socio-demographic factors encompass the characteristics of individuals, such as gender, geographic location, and academic level, which shape attitudes, behaviors, and opportunities related to entrepreneurship. In the context of Nepal, these factors are particularly relevant for understanding entrepreneurial intentions among university students. Demographic variables such as gender (male, female), geographic location (urban, rural), and academic status (undergraduate, postgraduate) can significantly influence entrepreneurial aspirations and opportunities.

Entrepreneurial intention has emerged as a dynamic field of research. Defined as an individual's inclination to start a business, it is a critical predictor of entrepreneurial behavior (Liñán & Fayolle, 2015). This concept is integral to fostering future entrepreneurs, prompting extensive research on the factors influencing entrepreneurial intentions, particularly among university students. As potential drivers of future economic growth, university graduates are considered crucial for job creation (Wahidmurni et al., 2020).

Several studies have examined demographic influences on entrepreneurial intentions. For instance, gender differences are frequently highlighted in the literature, with males exhibiting stronger entrepreneurial intentions than females (Ismail et al., 2009; Peng et al., 2013). Peng et al. (2013) found that men are more likely to prefer starting their own businesses than women. Similarly, Ismail et al. (2009) noted that women were less likely to pursue business ownership. These findings underscore the role of gender as a significant demographic factor influencing entrepreneurial intentions.

Family background also plays an essential role in shaping entrepreneurial aspirations. For example, Boz and Ergenelli (2013) examined how entrepreneurial parents, particularly fathers, inspire their daughters to pursue entrepreneurship. Conversely, non-entrepreneurial fathers were associated with different career trajectories for their daughters. Interestingly, there is limited research on the influence of mothers' occupations on entrepreneurial intentions, representing an important gap in the literature.

Socioeconomic variables, including family income, place of residence, and parental occupation, are equally significant. Matthews and Moser (1996) highlighted the importance of role models within families, while Levesque and Minniti (2006) identified age and labor experience as factors influencing entrepreneurial behavior. These findings suggest that the interplay between demographic and socioeconomic factors shapes entrepreneurial intentions in diverse ways.

Despite a substantial body of literature, inconsistencies persist regarding the relative influence of demographic and personal factors on entrepreneurial intentions (Wang & Wong, 2004). Limited empirical research has examined how demographic variables like marital status, family size, and household income interact with entrepreneurial aspirations. Al-Amri et al. (2015) also noted a need for comprehensive studies investigating these relationships.

This study aims to address these gaps by exploring the impact of socio-demographic factors on entrepreneurial intentions among management students in Kathmandu Valley, Nepal. Specifically, it examines variables such as gender, age, place

of residence, family type, number of family members, parental occupations, household annual income, and marital status. By analyzing these factors, this research seeks to enhance the understanding of how demographic characteristics influence entrepreneurial aspirations, thereby contributing to the broader field of entrepreneurship studies.

3. METHODOLOGY

A cross-sectional research design based on a questionnaire survey was used. Statistical testing was necessary to **determine the significance of variable relationships and to develop a model to generalize the results. The research approach for this study was a quantitative approach used to determine the factors influencing university students' entrepreneurship intention. The distribution of questionnaires to university students was the primary technique used for data collection, followed by in-depth data analysis. The study was carried out in three districts within the Kathmandu Valley of Nepal: Kathmandu, Lalitpur, and Bhaktapur. The study population comprises all university-level students enrolled at various institutions (universities) in the Kathmandu Valley. Since the precise population of students studying in different academic institutions at the university level was yet to be discovered, a representative sample was planned for data collection. A representative sample size of 385 was calculated assuming statistical parameters like population proportion of success of 0.50, a margin of error of 5%, and a Z2 value of 3.841, which represents the standard error associated with a 95% confidence level as per the formula provided by (Israel, 1992). A non-random sampling approach was used to collect information from the targeted population. However, responses from 508 respondents were collected. A self-reported questionnaire was employed to collect data. Data was collected from 20 different educational institutions where university-level courses were taught. Since using the purposive sampling technique, 508 filled responses were collected.**

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Demographic information of respondents:

Table 1: Distribution of gender of respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	255	50.2
Male	253	49.8
Total	508	100

Table 1 illustrates the gender distribution of 508 respondents. Among this group, 50.2% were Female, and the remaining 49.8% were Male.

Table 2: Distribution of age of respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent
below 18 years	2	0.4
18 -21 years	121	23.8
20 - 25 years	258	50.8
26 - 29 years	101	19.9
30 and above	26	5.1
Total	508	100.0

Table 2 presents the age distribution of the respondents. Of the 508 respondents, more than half (50.8%) were 20 to 25 years old. This was followed by 23.8% of respondents aged between 18 and 21 years and 19.9% falling within the range of 26 to 29 years. Additionally, 5.1% of the participants were aged 30 years and above, while 0.4% were below the age of 18.

Table 3: Distribution of marital status of respondents

Marital status	Frequency	Percent
Unmarried	363	71.5
Married	145	28.5
Total	508	100

Table 3 illustrates the distribution of marital status among the 508 respondents. The majority of respondents (71.5%) were "Unmarried," while the remaining (28.5%) were "Married."

Table 4: Distribution of place of birth of respondents

Place of birth	Frequency	Percent
Rural	125	24.6
Urban	383	75.4
Total	508	100.0

Table 4 reveals the distribution of the 508 respondents' place of birth, with 24.6% originating from "Rural" areas and the remaining 75.4% from "urban" areas.

Table 5: Distribution of family types of respondents

Family type	Frequency	Percent
Nuclear	321	63.2
Joint	187	36.8
Total	508	100.0

Table 5 presents the distribution of family types among the 508 respondents. The data shows that the majority of respondents (63.2%) belonged to "Nuclear" families, while the remaining 36.8% were part of "Joint" families.

Table 6: Summary statistics of size of family members**Measures**

Measures	Statistics
No. of family respondents	508
Mean	5.56
Median	5
Std. Deviation	2.056
Minimum	1
Maximum	17

According to Table 6, the average family size was 5.56 members, with a standard deviation of 2.056, indicating some variation. Family sizes range from 1 to 17 members.

Table 7: Distribution of parent's education

Parents education	Frequency	Percent
No education	33	6.5
Primary	112	22
Secondary	135	26.6
Bachelor	144	28.3
Master	84	16.5
Total	508	100

Table 7 reveals the educational background of the respondents' parents. The most common level was a Bachelor's degree, held by 28.3% of parents. Close behind, 26.6% have completed Secondary education, and 22% have a Primary education. Master's degrees were held by 16.5% of parents, while only 6.5% had no formal education.

Table 8: Distribution of parent's occupation

Parents occupation	Frequency	Percent
Business	182	35.8
Government Job	125	24.6
Private Job	108	21.3
Agriculture	93	18.3
Total	508	100

Table 8 highlights the distribution of parents' occupations among respondents. More than one-third (35.8%) have parents in business, followed by 24.6% with parents in government jobs and 21.3% with parents in private sector roles. Lastly, 18.3% of respondents' parents work in agriculture.

Table 9: Distribution of annual household income of respondents

Annual Household Income (in NRs)	Frequency	Percent
Below 49999	33	6.5
50000-100000	62	12.2
More than 100000	413	81.3
Total	508	100

Table 9 presents the distribution of respondents' annual household income. The majority (81.3%) reported having incomes "More than 100000," followed by 12.2% falling within the "50000-100000" range. A smaller percentage, 6.5%, reported earning "below 49999" annually.

4.2 Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Normality test

The employment intentions were measured using five different items using a 5-item Likert scale. Based on these items, the mean score of employment intentions was calculated, which was then later used as the dependent variable in regression analysis. A series of tests were conducted to assess the dependent variable's normality. Firstly, a Q-Q plot was used to examine employment intentions' distribution visually. Points on the Normal Q-Q plot indicate the univariate normality of

the dataset. All the data points will fall on the 45-degree reference, which indicates that entrepreneurial intentions closely follow a normal distribution (Figure 2).

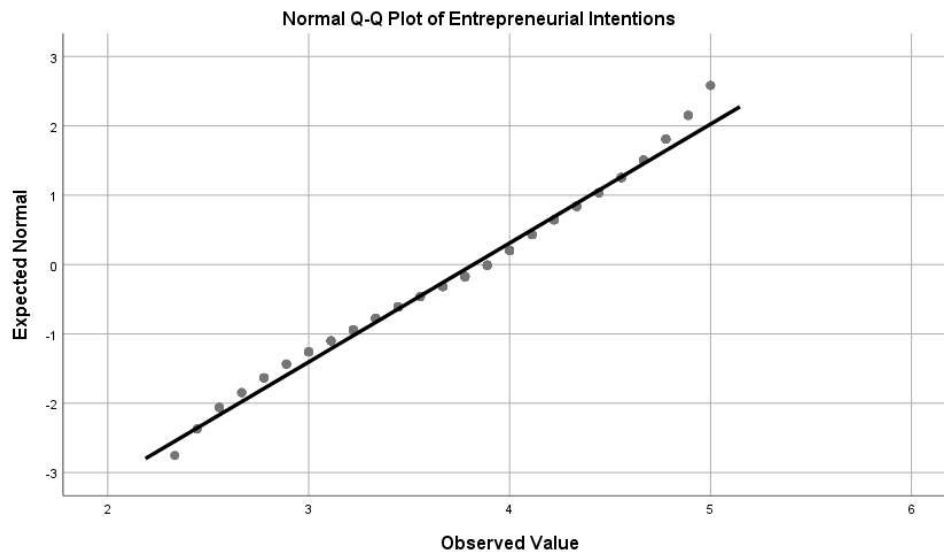


Figure 1: Q-Q plot for the test of normality of Entrepreneurial Intentions

Skewness and Kurtosis of the data were also used to check whether the dependent variable (entrepreneurial intentions) follows a normal distribution. The skewness was found to be -0.349, and the kurtosis was found to be -0.616 (Table 36). This means that our dependent variable is approximately normally distributed. Several researchers have provided information on skewness and Kurtosis. (Matore & Khairani, 2020) have said that if the value lies between -1 and +1, it is considered substantially normal. However, some of the researchers have added that if the value of z-skewness is between -3 and +3 and the value of z-kurtosis lies between -7 and +7, such data is substantially standard (Hu, Bentler, & Kano, 1992).

Table 10: Descriptive statistics of employment intentions

Descriptive				
			Statistic	Std. Error
Employment Intentions	Mean		3.9075	.02750
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.8534	
		Upper Bound	3.9615	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.9242	
	Median		4.0000	
	Variance		.384	
	Std. Deviation		.61987	
	Minimum		2.20	
	Maximum		5.00	

	Range	2.80	
	Interquartile Range	1.00	
	Skewness	-.349	.108
	Kurtosis	-.616	.216

No Auto Correlations of the independent variable

Autocorrelation, also known as serial correlation, can be a significant problem in data analysis if one does not know how to look for it. The Durbin-Watson statistic tests for autocorrelation in the residuals from a statistical model or regression analysis.

The Durbin-Watson statistic will always have a value ranging between 0 and 4. A value of 2.0 indicates there is no autocorrelation detected in the sample. Values from 0 to less than 2 point to positive autocorrelation, and values from 2 to 4 mean negative autocorrelation (Nerlove & Wallis, 1966). The value of the Durbin-Watson statistic is found to be 1.561, which means that there is a slightly positive autocorrelation (Table 37). As per the rule of thumb, DW test statistic values in the range of 1.5 to 2.5 are relatively routine. However, values outside this range could be a cause for concern (Garson, 2012).

Table 11: Test of Durbin-Watson Statistics

Model Summary ^b					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.701 ^a	.491	.475	.44903	1.561

4.3 Multiple collinearity test

When a multiple regression model has a high level of multicollinearity, it becomes more challenging to accurately estimate the relationship between each independent variable and the dependent variable. Closely related independent variables make it difficult to determine which variable truly influences the dependent variable (Farrar & Glauber, 1967).

Various tests can be conducted to detect multicollinearity and ensure the model is correctly specified and functioning properly. One commonly used tool for this purpose is the variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF helps measure how much an independent variable's behavior (variance) is affected or "inflated" by its correlation with other independent variables.

Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) test

VIF measures the strength of the correlation between the independent variables in regression analysis. This correlation is known as multicollinearity, which can cause problems for regression models. Generally, a VIF above 10 indicates a high correlation and is cause for concern (Salmeron Gomez, Rodriguez Sanchez, García, & Garcia Perez, 2020). The value of VIF is found to be less than 10. As a result, it was concluded that there were no significant multiple relationships among the selected variables (Table 38).

Table 12: Regression coefficient with VIF values

Variables	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		
Gender	0.883	1.133

Marital status	0.809	1.236
Place of residence	0.893	1.12
Family type	0.542	1.845
Number of family members	0.547	1.829
Level of education	0.906	1.103
Primary Level	0.261	3.834
Secondary Level	0.230	4.347
Bachelor Level	0.209	4.782
Master Level	0.202	4.949
Business	0.634	1.578
Private Job	0.721	1.388
Government Job	0.691	1.447
50000-100000	0.377	2.655
More than 100000	0.390	2.561

4.4 ANOVA Table

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was conducted to evaluate the statistical significance of the developed model. As per the results presented in ANOVA Table 13, the p-value was found to be 0.000. It indicates that the model was statistically significant. Additionally, the F-ratio was calculated to be 40.519. As this value is greater than 1, it can be inferred that the developed model was efficient.

Table 13: ANOVA Table

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	95.254	15	6.350	40.519	.000
	Residual	77.107	492	.157		
	Total	172.360	507			

4.5 Model Detection of the Proposed MLR Model Violations

Figure 2 and Figure 3 show that the proposed MLR model's standardized residuals lie close to their corresponding normal scores, which indicates that these residuals were likely to be normally distributed.

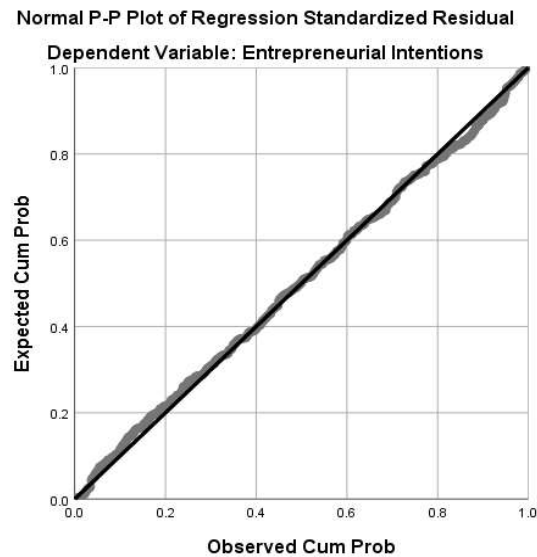


Figure 2: Normal P-P Plot Regression Standardized Residual of Entrepreneurial Intentions

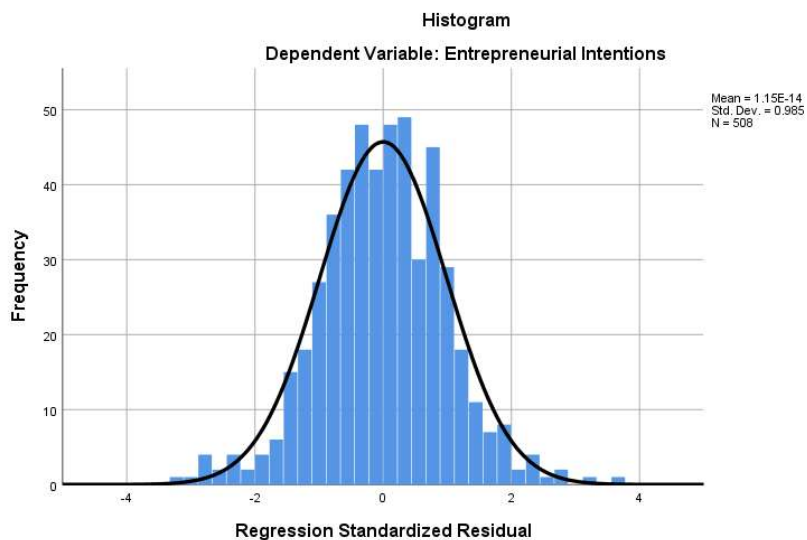


Figure 3: Histogram Plot Regression Standardized Residual

Figure 4 shows the uniform scatter of residuals with no apparent pattern or trend. Also, the residuals were tightly clustered around zero, which indicates that their variance was constant and that the homoscedasticity assumption was likely to hold.

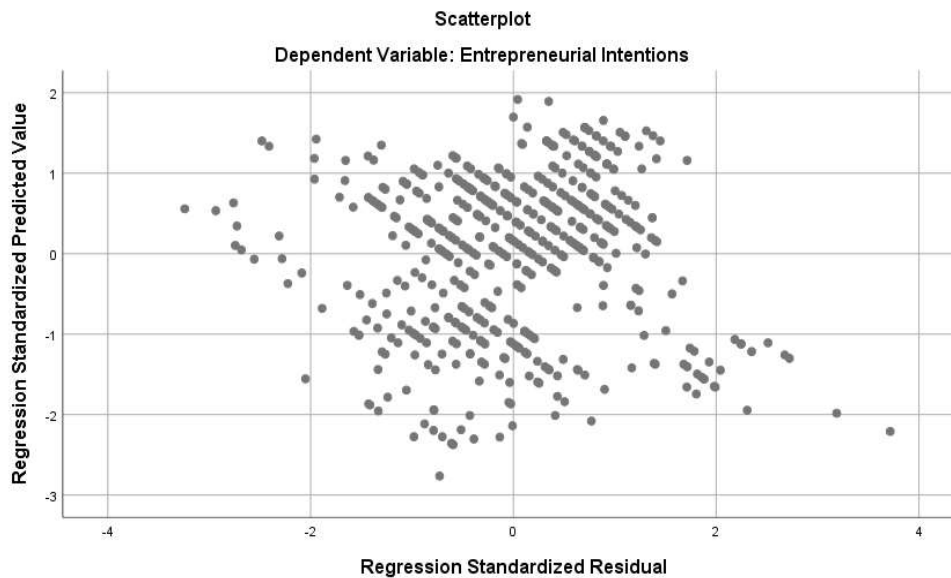


Figure 4: Scatterplot of Regression Standardized Residual

Coefficient of determination (R²)

The coefficient of determination (R²) is a statistical measure that quantifies the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that the independent variables can explain in a regression model. It is a valuable tool for assessing the model's goodness of fit (Chicco, Warrens, & Jurman, 2021).

The value of the coefficient of determination (R²) was found to be 0.481; this means that out of the total variation in Entrepreneurial Intentions, 48.1% of the variation has been explained by the studied independent variables, and the remaining due to unknown factors and random errors (Table 40).

Table 14: Model Summary

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.701	.491	.475	.44903	1.561

4.6 Variables in Equation

The equation of best fit relating the variables influencing entrepreneurial intentions was proposed using the regression analysis as follows:

From the Table 15, the model for the entrepreneurial intentions is,

Entrepreneurial Intentions = $2.992 + 0.153 * \text{Male} - 0.205 * \text{Married} + 0.177 * \text{Urban} + 0.392 * \text{Master Level} + 0.717 * \text{Business} + 0.615 * \text{Private Job} + 0.707 * \text{Government Job} + 0.190 * 50000 \text{ } 100000 + 0.257 * \text{More than } 100000$

Table 15: Variables in Equation

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	B		
1	Constant	2.992	0.139		21.470	0.000
	Gender (Reference Category: Female)					

Male	0.153	0.042	0.124	3.615	0.000
Marital status (Reference category: Unmarried)					
Married	-0.205	0.049	-0.150	-4.184	0.000
Place of residence (Reference category: Rural)					
Urban	0.177	0.049	0.123	3.624	0.000
Family type (Reference category: Nuclear)					
Joint	0.047	0.056	0.037	0.836	0.404
Number of family members	0.020	0.013	0.066	1.523	0.128
Education (Reference category: No education)					
Primary Level	0.057	0.110	0.038	0.520	0.603
Secondary Level	0.021	0.109	0.015	0.191	0.849
Bachelor Level	0.157	0.109	0.119	1.441	0.150
Master Level	0.392	0.111	0.298	3.532	0.000
Occupation (Reference Category: Agriculture)					
Business	0.717	0.053	0.546	13.513	0.000
Private Job	0.615	0.063	0.367	9.690	0.000
Government Job	0.707	0.062	0.443	11.451	0.000
Household income (Reference category: Below 49999)					
50000-100000	0.190	0.083	0.120	2.286	0.023
More than 100000	0.257	0.097	0.136	2.640	0.009

*Significant at 0.05, ** Significant at 0.01

4.7 Interpretation of Regression Coefficients

Intercept: The constant (intercept) of 2.992 indicates the baseline level of entrepreneurial intention when all the independent variables are zero. The p-value of 0.000 confirms that this constant is statistically significant. It underscores a strong baseline propensity for entrepreneurial intention among students with the reference characteristics.

Gender: The regression analysis indicates that gender significantly influences entrepreneurial intentions, using females as the reference category. The coefficient (B) for males is 0.153, suggesting that being Male is associated with a higher likelihood of entrepreneurial intentions. The p-value is 0.000, which shows that this effect is statistically significant. It confirms that males are significantly more inclined towards entrepreneurship compared to females.

Marital Status: The regression analysis examines how marital status influences entrepreneurial intentions, using "Unmarried" as the reference category. The coefficient (B) for being married is -0.205, revealing a significant negative association with entrepreneurial intentions compared to being unmarried. This negative impact is statistically robust, with a highly significant p-value of 0.000. These results imply that marital status strongly influences the likelihood of pursuing

entrepreneurial ventures, suggesting that married individuals exhibit lower entrepreneurial intentions than their unmarried counterparts.

Place of Residence: The regression analysis examines the place of residence's impact on entrepreneurial intentions, where "Rural" is the reference category. The coefficient (B) for residing in an urban area is 0.177, indicating a positive association with entrepreneurial intentions compared to living in a rural area. This positive effect is statistically significant, with a p-value of 0.000, suggesting a strong relationship. These findings suggest that place of residence significantly influences entrepreneurial motivation, with urban residents showing a higher propensity towards entrepreneurship intention than those in rural areas.

Type of Family: The regression analysis explores family type and its impact on entrepreneurial intentions, with "Nuclear" taken as the reference category, and observed that the coefficient (B) for the alternative family type is 0.047. It suggests a slight positive association with entrepreneurial intentions compared to nuclear families. However, the finding is not statistically significant, indicated by a p-value of 0.404, which exceeds the typical threshold of 0.05. Any observed difference in entrepreneurial intentions based on family type may likely be due to random variation rather than a meaningful relationship. Therefore, based on this analysis, there is insufficient evidence to support a significant influence of family type on entrepreneurial intentions.

Family size: The coefficient (B) for the number of family members is 0.020, indicating a positive association with entrepreneurial intentions. However, this effect is not statistically significant, with a p-value of 0.128, which is above the typical threshold of 0.05. It suggests that the relationship between the number of family members and entrepreneurial intentions could likely occur by chance rather than reflecting a meaningful influence. Therefore, based on this analysis, there is insufficient evidence to conclude that the number of family members significantly affects entrepreneurial intentions.

Level of Education: The regression analysis evaluates the impact of parents' education levels on the entrepreneurial intentions of their children, with "No education" as the reference category. The findings reveal that having parents with a master's level education significantly boosts their children's likelihood of entrepreneurial intention, as indicated by a beta value of 3.532 and a statistically significant p-value of 0.000. It suggests a strong positive effect. Conversely, parental education at the primary and secondary levels shows negligible and statistically insignificant effects on entrepreneurial intention, with a beta value of 0.520 and 0.191 and high p-values of 0.603 and 0.849, respectively. Parents with a bachelor's level education have no statistically significant influence, with a beta value of 1.441 and a p-value of 0.150. Therefore, higher parental education, especially at the master's level, significantly enhances the likelihood of entrepreneurial intentions in their children.

Parents Occupation: In the regression analysis, "Agriculture" is the reference category, revealing significant associations between different occupational groups and their impact on entrepreneurial intentions. The beta values (B) indicate these associations' direction and strength. Specifically, individuals in business ($B = 0.717$, $p < 0.001$), private sector jobs ($B = 0.615$, $p < 0.001$), and government jobs ($B = 0.707$, $p < 0.001$) all exhibit positive coefficients. They demonstrate higher entrepreneurial intentions than those in agricultural occupations. These findings underscore the importance of occupation in shaping entrepreneurial intentions.

Household Income: The regression analysis examines the relationship between household income and entrepreneurial intentions, using "Below 49999" as the reference category. Individuals within the income range of 50000-100000 show a positive beta coefficient ($B = 0.190$, $p = 0.023$), indicating a significant association with higher entrepreneurial intentions compared to those with a household income below 49999. Similarly, individuals with household incomes exceeding 100000 also demonstrate a positive beta coefficient ($B = 0.257$, $p = 0.009$), suggesting a significant increase in entrepreneurial intentions compared to the reference category of below 49999. These findings highlight that higher household incomes, especially in the 50000-100000 and above 100000, are linked to a greater likelihood of pursuing entrepreneurial intentions. Therefore, household income plays a vital role in influencing entrepreneurial aspirations.

5. CONCLUSION

The study examining the impact of demographic factors on entrepreneurial intentions among university students in Kathmandu Valley, Nepal, reveals several important findings. Key determinants influencing entrepreneurial aspirations include gender, marital status, place of residence, parental education, parent's occupation, and household income. Specifically, being male, unmarried, residing in urban areas, having parents with higher education, and coming from households with higher incomes are associated with a stronger inclination toward entrepreneurship. In contrast, family type, family size, and lower parental education levels have minimal or non-significant effects on entrepreneurial intentions. These insights underscore the importance of developing tailored strategies and policies that effectively consider socioeconomic contexts to nurture entrepreneurial ambitions among youth. While this research provides valuable information, it has limitations. Future studies could address these limitations by exploring additional factors, such as

cultural influences and educational experiences. A more comprehensive examination of these aspects can enhance our understanding of entrepreneurial intentions and better support the development of strong entrepreneurial ecosystems worldwide.

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