



**Harper Adams
University**

A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at
Harper Adams University

Copyright and moral rights for this thesis and, where applicable, any accompanying data are retained by the author and/or other copyright owners. A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study, without prior permission or charge.

This thesis and the accompanying data cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission in writing from the copyright holder/s. The content of the thesis and accompanying research data (where applicable) must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holder/s.

When referring to this thesis and any accompanying data, full bibliographic details including the author, title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given.



**Chinese entrepreneurial proclivity and the conjectured link with the experience of
foreign sojourns:
an empirical study involving undergraduate students based in Beijing**

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in the Land, Farm and Agribusiness Management Department,
Harper Adams University

By

Tiantian Liu

MA Management and Organizational Analysis (Warwick Business School)

BSc (Hons) International Business Management (Harper Adams University)

Director of studies: Dr Nicola Randall

Supervisors: Dr Paul Adkins (former DoS)
Dr Keith Walley (former DoS)
Professor Geoff Pugh

January 2023

Declaration

I hereby declare that this final PhD thesis is the result of my original work unless where due references and quotation marks have been made in the text. In addition, all the sources in this report have been quoted and acknowledged by means of completed references. The contents and any opinions expressed herein are those of the author and in no way represent those of the Harper Adams University.

Therefore, I certify that there is no material or substance in this thesis, in whole or in part, that has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or another institution.

Tiantian Liu

Abstract

This research set out to investigate whether a sojourn abroad experience can develop the entrepreneurial proclivity of Chinese university students, and whether the sojourn abroad experience positively promotes student's entrepreneurial behaviour and may lead to them to start-up their own business.

This PhD aims to explore the impact that a sojourn abroad experience has on the entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) of current students, and also explore the sojourn abroad impact on entrepreneurial behaviour of graduates. Thus, the research objectives of this study were to (i) examine whether Chinese university students who had the opportunity to study in the UK developed or enhanced their entrepreneurial proclivity through a period of study abroad; (ii) if so, why entrepreneurial proclivity developed or was positively enhanced through the study abroad experience, and (iii) to investigate the entrepreneurial behaviour of returnee entrepreneurs.

This PhD undertook two studies which started with a quantitative study (Study One), using sojourning students as a treatment group and domestic students as a comparison group. Study One made use of an adapted General Enterprising Tendency Test (GET2) to explore the enterprising tendency of the students. Study Two was qualitative and further explored the impact of an overseas sojourn amongst returnee entrepreneurs.

The most important finding of this project is that international education can develop entrepreneurial proclivity, as the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach by means of independent sample t-tests, ANOVA and a Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR) model does show a positive effect on entrepreneurial proclivity from studying abroad, and there are substantial returns to international education in terms of entrepreneurial behavior.

The findings of this PhD make a number of contributions to the current literature in the field of "entrepreneurship" and "international education". Firstly, this is the first study to link the students' foreign sojourn experience with entrepreneurial proclivity in developing countries like China. Secondly, this is the first study to explore enterprising tendency among university students in China using a reliable and validated quantitative scale – the General Measure of Enterprising Tendency (GET2) test. Finally, the research findings support the argument that study abroad enhances an inclination towards entrepreneurship development (entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour).

Key words: entrepreneurial proclivity, enterprising tendency, entrepreneurial intention, entrepreneurial behaviour, entrepreneurship education, international education, study abroad, Transnational education (TNE)

Acknowledgements

This Ph.D. journey has been a truly life-changing experience for me, and it would not have been possible to complete it without the generous support and guidance that I received from many people.

I wish to express my deepest thankfulness to my three Director of Studies (DoS), Dr. Paul Adkins, Dr. Keith Walley and Dr. Nicola Randall (my Administrative DoS through the final stage of this study) for encouraging me to start my research journey into the field of “entrepreneurship” and “international education”, and for their patience, time and support throughout the journey. Their invaluable guidance, advice and support have always been my source of inspiration and without them this study would never have been completed. I wish also to express my special appreciation and thanks to Professor Geoff Pugh, who has been a tremendous support for me. All of my supervisors freely shared their knowledge, wisdom, experience and time with me, and I am incredibly thankful. It has been an honour and privilege to be their Ph.D. student, and to learn from them in many ways. Their invaluable guidance, unconditional support, attention to detail and commitment to research excellence have set an example which I will work hard to mirror in my academic career.

I would like to express my sincere thanks for the comments and advice from Dr Kelly Smith as the external examiner, and Dr Jane Eastham as the internal examiner; as well as to Geoff Underwood and Hairong Mu who acted as reviewers for the specific degree registration report and second year report respectively.

I would like to thank Sandra Turner, the BUA Course Manager in HAU; Professor Feng Tan, the International Programme Director of BUA; Fiona Xu, Senior Lecturer in the International College at BUA; Haiqi Wang, the Harper Adams representative in China, and many others for offering me help with the data collection in both the UK and China – this thesis would have been impossible without their generous support. I am also thankful to all the lecturers, research colleagues and supporting staff in the Land, Farm and Agribusiness Management Department at HAU for their immense help which made my time at HAU so memorable. I am also grateful to Prof. Mark Sanders and Dr. Jun Li, for the stimulating discussions that I had with them at various conferences which sparked some of the best ideas in this thesis. I would like to thank all the students who participated in the survey that underpins Study One of this PhD. I am also indebted to the twelve returnee entrepreneurs in Beijing who kindly participated in the interviews, which made Study Two possible. I hope the research findings will impact the success of their future career positively.

I am very grateful to Anne-Marie Cambiotti for her one-to-one language support, which helped me improve my English grammar and the academic writing in this thesis as well as my critical thinking skills. I am also grateful to Martin Hare, Viv Slann, Stephen Giles, Jane Bennett, Clair Toogood, Kai Ma, Peter Kettlewell and Caroline Kettlewell for their assistance and support throughout my years as a PhD student.

Finally, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my family, for their love, support and encouragement. I would like to thank my parents, Furong Tian and Ziheng Liu, my husband, Yuliang Duan, who supported me in every possible way to complete this work. To my wonderful children, Youjia Duan and Zuojia Duan, without whom this thesis would have been completed three years earlier. Their love, trust and understanding have always been the source of hope and strength that allowed me to see the light at the end of the tunnel.

Tiantian Liu
Harper Adams University
January 2023

Glossary

- **Difference-in-Differences (DID):** DiD is a statistical technique used in econometrics and quantitative research in the social sciences that attempts to mimic an experimental research design using observational study data, by studying the differential effect of a treatment on a “treatment group” versus a “control (comparison) group”.
- **Domestic students:** This term will be used synonymously with home students and local students to refer to students who have spent their time in university only in China and are enrolled with BUA.
- **Enterprising person:** The description of the enterprising person is drawn from what is known about entrepreneurs; the idea being that enterprising people share entrepreneurial characteristics. The most enterprising people set up projects more frequently, set up more innovative projects, and are more growth-oriented which means that they have to be opportunistic and good at utilising human, technological, physical and organisational resources.
- **Enterprising tendency:** Enterprising tendency is defined as an individual’s disposition to become an entrepreneur. It refers to the characteristics that make one person an entrepreneur and another one not an entrepreneur. If a person has high enterprising tendency, they have a strong need for achievement; need for autonomy; internal locus of control; creative and innovative tendencies; and are willing to take calculated risks.
- **Entrepreneurial intention:** An individual’s desire and determination to engage in new venture creation.
- **Entrepreneurial proclivity:** Entrepreneurial proclivity is defined as the combination of a person’s enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention to become an entrepreneur. A person with a proclivity for entrepreneurship will have a natural enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention towards becoming an entrepreneur.

- Entrepreneurial behaviour: Entrepreneurial behaviour is the enterprising human action involved in the generation of value, through the creation or expansion of economic activity, by identifying and exploiting new products, processes or markets.
- Entrepreneurs: A person who seeks to generate value, through the creation or expansion of economic activity, by identifying and exploiting new products, processes or markets.
- Entrepreneurship education: Entrepreneurship education seeks to provide students with the knowledge and skills to successfully engage in entrepreneurial activities in a variety of contexts. It may also encourage entrepreneurial behaviour.
- Gaokao: The National College Entrance Examination, commonly known as Gaokao, is an academic examination held annually in China. This Standardized test is a prerequisite for entrance into almost all higher education institutions at the undergraduate level.
- General Measure of Enterprising Tendency Test (GET2): The General measure of Enterprising Tendency test (GET2) is a measure of enterprising tendency developed for educational use and self-assessment. It measures five entrepreneurial attributes, namely need for achievement, need for autonomy, creative tendency, calculated risk taking and locus of control.
- Graduate entrepreneurs: Graduate entrepreneurs are university students who having completed their studies go on to engage in new venture creation or self-employment.
- Guanxi: Guanxi is a Chinese term meaning "networks" or "connections" that open doors for new business and facilitate deals. A person who has a lot of Guanxi will be in a better position to generate business than someone who lacks it.
- Haigui (returnee): "Haigui" or "sea turtles" is a term popularly used in China for students who leave the home country to gain higher education overseas and then return either immediately after completing their education, or after some years of working overseas.

- Intrapreneur: A manager within a company who promotes innovative product product and/or process development and marketing.
- Mianzi: Mianzi or face, is about the dignity of the person, and in China this is more important than physical appearance.
- Renqing: Renqing means an exchange of favours. It means giving face or showing respect to others according to the person's status and reputation in the society. The closest translation of "Renqing" in English is Human Sentiment.
- Returnee entrepreneur: Returnee entrepreneurs refer to highly skilled people who start their business after spending significant time in a foreign country for education and / or work. Returnee entrepreneurs may make significant contributions to the economy. Various terms have been used in this study to refer to this group, including returnee entrepreneur, (sojourn) graduate entrepreneurs.
- Returnees: Students who return to China after having received higher education abroad and gained degrees at Bachelor level or above.
- Seemingly Unrelated Regressions (SUR): In econometrics, the SUR model is a generalization of a linear regression model that consists of several regression equations, each having its own dependent variable and potentially different sets of exogenous explanatory variables.
- Self-employed: Someone who is self-employed is the owner of a business, an individual who earns a living by working for himself/herself and not as an employee of someone else. While all entrepreneurs are self-employed, not all self-employed individuals are entrepreneurs, some are better categorised as small business owners. The one-person innovative start-up owners are entrepreneurs.
- Small business owner: Small business owners are those who own a business and hire employees, contractors, or both. Entrepreneurs are also business owners, but only the most innovative-driven and growth-oriented of the business owners are entrepreneurs.

- Social entrepreneurs: A social entrepreneur is a person who pursues novel applications that have the potential to solve community-based problems. These individuals are willing to take on the risk and effort to create positive changes in society through their initiatives.
- Sojourn: A sojourn is a temporary relocation of a pre-defined duration, often undertaken for educational purposes, to a foreign country. Various terms have been used to refer to sojourning, such as study abroad and international mobility.
- Sojourner: a person who resides temporarily in a place. In this study, it means undertaken for educational purposes in a foreign country in particular.
- Sojourning students: This term refers to individuals who leave their countries of origin to undertake tertiary study abroad.
- Transnational education (TNE): Transnational education is education delivered in a country other than the country in which the awarding institution is based, e.g., students based in China studying for a degree from a university in the UK.
- Voluntrapreneur: A voluntrapreneur is a person who sets up and leads voluntary projects in the community.

Publications and presentations

Publications

Liu, T., Walley, K., Adkins, P., Pugh, G., Turner, S. and Tan, F. 2018. Motivations and expectations of study abroad: evidence from a study of Chinese undergraduate students on a higher education Trans-National Education (TNE) programme. *The Journal of Academic Development and Education*, (10), pp. 52-67.

Liu, T., Walley, K., Pugh, G. and Adkins, P. 2020. Entrepreneurship education in China: Evidence from a preliminary scoping study of enterprising tendency in Chinese university students. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 12 (2), pp. 305-326.

Presentations

Postgraduate colloquium at Harper Adams University (3rd Dec 2016): First Year Abstracts, 5-minute oral presentation

Postgraduate colloquium at Harper Adams University (2ND Dec 2017): Poster “*Chinese entrepreneurial proclivity and the conjectured link with the experience of foreign sojourns: Evidence from a study involving undergraduate students based in Beijing*” (3rd Place award)

British Academy of Management 32nd Annual Conference, Bristol Business School, University of the West of England, Bristol (4th – 6th Sep 2018): Poster presentation and paper presentation at BAM 2018 Doctoral Symposium

Postgraduate colloquium at Harper Adams University (29th Nov 2018): Oral presentation

Lunch-time research seminar at Harper Adams University (11th Oct 2019): Oral presentation

List of abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of variance
BUA	Beijing University of Agriculture
DID	Difference-in-Differences analysis
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
GET2	General Measure of Enterprising Tendency test version 2
HAU	Harper Adams University
NVivo	Statistical and qualitative data analysis software
SMEs	Small and medium-sized enterprises
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
STATA	Software for Statistics and Data Science
SUR	Seemingly unrelated regressions
TNE	Transnational education
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	II
ABSTRACT	III
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	V
GLOSSARY	VII
PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS.....	XI
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	XII
TABLE OF CONTENTS	XIII
LIST OF TABLES.....	XX
LIST OF FIGURES	XXI
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Research motivation.....	1
1.2 Entrepreneurship in China.....	2
1.3 International education in China	2
1.4 Entrepreneurship and international education in China.....	4
1.5 Entrepreneurial proclivity	6
1.6 Underpinning theory.....	7
1.7 Research objectives and research questions	9
1.8 Research methodology	11
1.9 Structure of the thesis.....	11
1.10 Chapter summary	13
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....	14
2.1 Introduction	14
2.2 Overview of concepts and theories of entrepreneurship	14
2.2.1 Concept and definition of entrepreneurship.....	14
2.2.2 Types of entrepreneurs	15
2.2.3 The definition of Entrepreneurship used in this project.....	15
2.2.4 Entrepreneurial characteristics and traits	18
2.2.5 Demographic factors.....	20

2.2.6 Social factors	22
2.2.7 Environmental factors	25
2.3 Entrepreneurship in China	26
2.3.1 History and development of entrepreneurship in China	27
2.3.2 Who are entrepreneurs in China?	29
2.3.3 Chinese cultural values and entrepreneurship	31
2.3.3.1 Traditional Chinese philosophies	31
2.3.3.2 Chinese culture and its potential influence on entrepreneurship	33
2.3.4 Overview of higher education in China	36
2.3.5 Overview of entrepreneurship education in China	37
2.4 International Education	40
2.4.1 History and development of international education of Chinese students	40
2.4.2 Trans-National Education (TNE)	42
2.4.3 Chinese returnees	45
2.4.4 Returnee entrepreneurs	45
2.5 Chapter Summary	49
CHAPTER 3 DEVELOPING THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	51
3.1 Introduction	51
3.2 Entrepreneurship and the conjectured link with foreign sojourns	51
3.3 Theory of planned behaviour	52
3.4 Personal external development	54
3.5 Enterprising tendency (internal personal characteristics)	54
3.5.1 General measure of enterprising tendency version 2 (GET2) test	56
3.6 Entrepreneurial intention	58
3.7 Entrepreneurial behaviour	60
3.8 Provisional theoretical framework	62
3.9 Extended theoretical framework	64
3.10 Research questions	67
3.11 Chapter summary	67
CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	68
4.1 Introduction	68
4.2 Research philosophy: pragmatism	68
4.3 Research approach: deductive and inductive	71
4.4 The Institutions	72
4.4.1 The BUA/HAU joint programme	73
4.4.2 Entrepreneurial content of the TNE joint programme	75

4.5 Research design: longitudinal research.....	75
4.6 Research plan	77
4.7 Chapter summary	79
CHAPTER 5 STUDY 1 - QUANTITATIVE METHODOLOGY AND METHODS	80
5.1 Introduction	80
5.2 Longitudinal survey and comparative research	80
5.3 Questionnaire design	83
5.3.1 Structured questionnaire.....	83
5.3.2 Design and structure of the questionnaire	85
5.3.3 Translation of the questionnaire.....	87
5.4 Pre-testing of the questionnaire.....	87
5.5 Pilot test of the questionnaire	89
5.6 Data collection	90
5.6.1 Institution selection and questionnaire distribution	90
5.6.2 Population and sampling.....	92
5.7 Quantitative data analysis.....	92
5.7.1 Data preparation	93
5.7.2 Measures.....	93
5.7.3 Statistical approach	94
5.8 Validity and reliability of the quantitative study	97
5.8.1 Validity.....	98
5.8.2 Reliability	100
5.9 Common method bias	101
5.10 Chapter summary	102
CHAPTER 6 STUDY 1 – FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	103
6.1 Introduction	103
6.2 The data analysis process	104
6.2.1 Validity and normality of measurements	106
6.2.1.1 Validity.....	106
6.2.1.2 Normality.....	106
6.2.2 Factor analysis	107
6.3 Estimation strategy.....	107
6.4 Sample description and analysis	109
6.4.1 Respondent profiles.....	109
6.4.2 Entrepreneurship education	113
6.5 The foreign sojourn	114
6.5.1 Regression analysis of the study abroad decision.....	115

6.6 Study abroad and entrepreneurial proclivity	118
6.6.1 Estimation of study abroad effects using independent sample t-statistics	118
6.6.1.1 Entrepreneurial intentions.....	118
6.6.1.2 Enterprising tendency	122
6.6.2 Estimation of study abroad effects using ANOVA	128
6.6.2.1 Entrepreneurial intention.....	128
6.6.2.2 Enterprising tendency	130
6.6.2.3 ANOVA approach to estimating DiD effects: conclusion.....	131
6.6.3 Estimation of study abroad effects using a panel seemingly unrelated regression model	131
6.7 Quantitative data conclusions	138
6.7.1 Strengths and limitations of Study 1: the quantitative survey.....	138
6.7.2 Hypotheses testing and preliminary discussion	140
6.8 Conclusion: an empirically informed model of entrepreneurial proclivity	142
6.9 Chapter summary	143
CHAPTER 7 STUDY 2 - QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY AND METHODS	144
7.1 Introduction	144
7.2 Participants	144
7.3 Data collection: in-depth interviews	145
7.4 Interview design.....	148
7.5 Pilot interviews.....	149
7.6 Interview preparation.....	150
7.6.1 Conducting the interview.....	150
7.7 Qualitative data analysis	151
7.7.1 Preparation of data.....	153
7.7.2 Content analysis	154
7.8 Validity and reliability of the qualitative results.....	158
7.8.1 Credibility (internal validity).....	159
7.8.2 Transferability (external validity)	160
7.8.3 Dependability (reliability).....	160
7.8.4 Confirmability (objectivity)	161
7.9 Interviewer bias	161
7.10 Ethical considerations.....	162
7.11 Reflexivity	164
7.12 Chapter summary	165
CHAPTER 8 STUDY 2 – FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	166
8.1 Introduction	166

8.2 Profile of the returnee entrepreneurs	167
8.3 Study 2 qualitative findings	169
8.3.1 Business demographics	169
8.3.2 Study abroad	170
8.3.2.1 Motivation to study abroad	170
8.3.2.2 Barriers to study abroad	175
8.3.2.3 Most enjoyable aspects of the study abroad experience	180
8.3.2.4 Unenjoyable aspects of the study abroad experience	182
8.3.2.5 Greatest achievement of study abroad	185
8.3.2.6 Learning outcomes of study abroad	187
8.3.3 Entrepreneurship	194
8.3.3.1 Definition of entrepreneurship	195
8.3.3.2 Entrepreneurship education	200
8.3.3.3 Major difference between the Chinese and UK educational systems	202
8.3.3.4 Career plan before studying abroad	208
8.3.3.5 Family business background	209
8.3.3.6 Motivation to start own business	211
8.3.4 Linking entrepreneurship with international education	215
8.3.4.1 The impact of study abroad on enterprising tendency	216
8.3.4.2 The impact of study abroad on entrepreneurial intention	220
8.3.4.3 The impact of study abroad on entrepreneurial behaviour	221
8.3.4.4 Study abroad and the return on investment	229
8.3.4.5 Final remarks	231
8.4 Study 2 qualitative data conclusion	232
8.4.1 Strengths and limitations of the Study 2: qualitative research	232
8.4.2 Summary of qualitative findings	233
8.5 Chapter summary	237
 CHAPTER 9 GENERAL DISCUSSION	 238
9.1 Introduction	238
9.2 The purpose of this project	239
9.3 Discussion of results by research question	240
9.3.1 Research question 1: “Are there any significant differences between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial group studies abroad (at Time 0)?” Addressing this question provides a check on the validity of the DiD approach.	240
9.3.2 Research question 2: “Is there a significant difference between the before and after differences of the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their entrepreneurial proclivity?”	242
9.3.3 Research question 3: “Do study aboard opportunities influence the sojourning student’s potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life after graduation?”	243
9.4 Additional findings	248
9.4.1 Demographic factors	248
9.4.2 Social factors	251
9.4.3 Environmental factors	255
9.4.4 Motivation to study abroad	257
9.4.5 Benefits of study abroad	258
9.5 Chapter conclusion	259

CHAPTER 10 CONCLUSIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE	260
10.1 Introduction	260
10.2 Research questions and objectives revisited	260
10.3 Research design revisited	261
10.4 Research conclusions	263
10.5 Research limitations	267
10.6 Research contributions	269
10.6.1 Theoretical contributions	270
10.6.1.1 “Entrepreneurial proclivity”	270
10.6.1.2 This study contributes to the development of theoretical linkages between international education and entrepreneurship with model building.	271
10.6.2 Empirical contributions	272
10.6.2.1 The adapted General Measure of Enterprising Tendency Test (GET2) in the Chinese context.	273
10.6.2.2 The longitudinal nature of the study	274
10.6.2.3 Use of the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach	275
10.6.3 Practical contributions	277
10.7 Directions for future research	286
10.8 Chapter conclusion	288
REFERENCES	289
APPENDICES	287
Appendix A The TNE programme course structure and the control group course structure	338
Appendix B Questionnaire for Sojourning students	341
Appendix C Questionnaire for Domestic Students (English version)	348
Appendix D Questionnaire for Domestic Students (Chinese version)	353
Appendix E Overview of the Pilot Questionnaire Data Collected	357
Appendix F Adapter GET2 test	366
Appendix G Overview of the Main Study Questionnaire Data Collected (Time 0: October 2017)	367
Appendix H Overview of the Main Study Questionnaire Data Collected (Time 1: June 2018)	375
Appendix I Eigenvalues of the correlation matrix of adapted GET2 test	384
Appendix J The Foreign Sojourn	385

Appendix K Word copy of the Stata “Do” file: denoting “Don’t Know” responses in the GET.....	390
Appendix L Initial message with the BUA IC alumni group in the Wechat	392
Appendix M Interview questions (English version).....	393
Appendix N Interview questions (Chinse version)	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Appendix O Blank copy of the Consent Form	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Appendix P Sample Interview transcript from one returnee entrepreneur (Chinese version)	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Appendix Q Sample Interview transcript from one returnee entrepreneur (English version)	403
Appendix R Participant Information Sheet.....	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Appendix S Coding of interview responses	Error! Bookmark not defined.

List of Tables

Table 1.1 Aim, objectives, research questions and hypotheses of this study.....	10
Table 2.1 Approaches to entrepreneurship	15
Table 2.2 Characteristics of entrepreneurs.....	19
Table 2.3 Entrepreneurship attributes and Chinese cultural values	35
Table 2.4 Current practices and activities in TNE between China and the UK.....	45
Table 3.1 The push and pull factors of entrepreneurial intention.....	59
Table 4.1 Main research paradigms used.....	69
Table 4.2 Research approach associated with each research question	72
Table 5.1 Key characteristics of the treatment group and the comparison group	81
Table 5.2 The conceptual representation of the DID approach	83
Table 5.3 Summary of the development of the survey instrument	86
Table 5.4 Evaluating the effect of study abroad on students' entrepreneurial proclivity.....	97
Table 5.5 Types of validity and their definition.....	99
Table 5.6 Rule of thumb on Cronbach's Alpha	101
Table 6.1 Research process timeline.....	105
Table 6.2 Sample size	105
Table 6.3 Demographic profile of the two groups	110
Table 6.4 Student participation rates in entrepreneurship education (author)	113
Table 6.5 Perceived benefits of entrepreneurship education	113
Table 6.6 Definition of study abroad variables used in regression analysis	116
Table 6.7 Result for determinants of the study abroad decision.....	117
Table 6.8 Entrepreneurial intention among sojourning and domestic students	118
Table 6.9 Two-sample t test with unequal variances on entrepreneurial intention at Time 0	119
Table 6.10 DiD estimate of the effect of study abroad on entrepreneurial intention (Two-sample t test with unequal variances).....	121
Table 6.11 The effect of removing "Don't Know" responses from the measurement of GET	123
Table 6.12 Enterprising tendency for sojourning and domestic students.....	124
Table 6.13 Enterprising tendency among sojourning and domestic students	125
Table 6.14 Two-sample t test with equal variances on enterprising tendency at Time 0	126
Table 6.15 DiD estimate of the effect of study abroad on enterprising tendency (Two-sample t test with unequal variances)	127
Table 6.16 DiD implemented by one-way ANOVA	128
Table 6.17 Underlying OLS regression results	129
Table 6.18 DiD implemented by one-way ANOVA	130
Table 6.19 Underlying OLS regression results	130
Table 6.20 Definition of entrepreneurial proclivity variables used in the SUR model	133
Table 6.21 SUR model of entrepreneurial proclivity	136
Table 7.1 Qualitative sampling techniques	149
Table 7.2 Reliability and validity of the qualitative study	
Table 7.3 Ethical considerations in this study	163
Table 8.1 Profile of the returnee entrepreneurs.....	168
Table 8.2 Factors motivating returnee entrepreneurs to study abroad	171
Table 8.3 Different emphases in cultures of learning between China and the UK	203
Table 8.4 Qualitative data conclusions	234

List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Models used in this research	8
Figure 2.1 Entrepreneurship Venn diagram.....	17
Figure 3.1 Theory of planned behaviour model	53
Figure 3.2 Enterprising tendencies and dimensions	56
Figure 3.3 Provisional theoretical framework for this study	63
Figure 3.4 Extended theoretical framework for this study.....	66
Figure 4.1 Important components of research paradigm	69
Figure 4.2 TNE course outline	74
Figure 4.3 Types of research design	76
Figure 4.4 Research plan.....	78
Figure 5.1 Types of validity	98
Figure 6.1 Determinant factors of study abroad.....	117
Figure 6.2 Entrepreneurial intention in the DiD model.....	121
Figure 6.3 Enterprising tendency in the DiD model	127
Figure 6.4 Results of SUR model on entrepreneurial proclivity	138
Figure 6.5 Empirically informed model of entrepreneurial proclivity	142
Figure 7.1 Methods of qualitative data analysis.....	152
Figure 7.2 Coding process.....	154
Figure 7.3 The working screen in NVivo	156
Figure 7.4 Defining and naming themes.....	157
Figure 7.5 Example of creating thematic map	157
Figure 8.1 The push-pull factors influencing study abroad motivation.....	175
Figure 8.2 Student perceptions of barriers to study abroad.....	176
Figure 8.3 Enjoyable aspects of the study abroad experience	180
Figure 8.4 Unenjoyable aspects of the study abroad experience	183
Figure 8.5 Greatest achievement of study abroad.....	185
Figure 8.6 Learning outcomes of study abroad	188
Figure 8.7 Characteristics of an entrepreneur	195
Figure 8.8 Outcomes of entrepreneurship education	200
Figure 8.9 Hofstede's cultural dimension in China and the UK	202
Figure 8.10 Differences between the education systems of the UK and China.....	204
Figure 8.11 Career plan before studying abroad	208
Figure 8.12 Motivation for starting their own business	211
Figure 8.13 The impact of study abroad on entrepreneurial traits	216
Figure 8.14 The impact of study abroad in creating entrepreneurship strength	222
Figure 8.15 The impact of study abroad on entrepreneurship as weakness	225
Figure 8.16 Return on investment of study abroad.....	229
Figure 8.17 Empirically informed model of entrepreneurship development.....	233
Figure 10.1 Empirically validated model of entrepreneurship development	265
Figure J.1 Motivation – reasons for study abroad.....	385
Figure J.2 Perceived benefits of studying abroad.....	386
Figure J.3 Factors in helping start own business.....	388

Chapter 1 Introduction

This introductory chapter starts with the researcher's own motivation and reasons for undertaking the research and follows with the background of the study. It gives an overview of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship in China and international education, as the focus of the research. It then introduces the research aims and objectives, and proceeds to outline the design of the research methodology. It explains the importance of the research, its contributions to knowledge and the significance of this study. Finally, the chapter provides a brief overview of the structure of this thesis.

1.1 Research motivation

My interest in “entrepreneurship” and “international education” goes back about eleven years. On 14th September 2011, I first arrived in the UK as an undergraduate student and spent a year studying at Harper Adams University (HAU) for the final year of my undergraduate degree, which is part of a Transnational Education (TNE) program operated by HAU and Beijing University of Agriculture (BUA). While studying I have developed an interest in the field of “entrepreneurship” and “small business development”. Since then, I have completed a master's degree in the UK and commenced my PhD at HAU in September 2016. Therefore, I have seen and experienced first-hand the academic, psychological, and sociocultural benefits that study abroad may provide. Over the years I spent in the UK, my perception has been that there are overlaps between the tangible and intangible benefits that study abroad brings, which produce the hard and soft skills for entrepreneurial behaviour. For example, confidence, independence, a high need for achievement, a high need for autonomy, a risk-taking propensity, an internal locus of control, creative tendency, critical thinking and problem-solving ability. Many of these benefits are the same as the traits reported in the entrepreneurship literature.

1.2 Entrepreneurship in China

The last three decades have witnessed increased recognition of entrepreneurship as an important driver of economic growth, productivity, innovation, and employment worldwide (Parker, 2018). The existing research has revealed that the entrepreneur plays an important role in the success of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SMEs) (Zaki and Rashid, 2016). It is widely recognised that entrepreneurship contributes to economic development, competition, innovation, and job creation in economies across the globe. Entrepreneurship is a vital component of the economic and social success of a nation (Karadağ, 2016).

The share of global trade and output that may be attributed to China since the country opened its markets in 1987 has increased rapidly. Today, with a population of 1.4 billion, China has become the dominant business force of the 21st century, having overtaken Japan as the world's second largest economy in terms of nominal Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and the largest economy in the world using Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) (Sznajderska, 2019). It has contributed around 30 per cent of global growth in the past eight years (Yang *et al.*, 2017). Entrepreneurship and innovation are seen as a key aspect of China's growth. However, with the impact of the trade war with the United States (US), China's economy grew by only 6.2 per cent in the second quarter of 2019, which is the lowest figure since records began in March 1992 (CNBC, 2019). According to McKinsey, China needs to progress from investment and export led growth to innovation led growth in order to maintain a 6.5 per cent increase in annual GDP (Zhao, 2019). This explains China's recent initiative known as the "*Mass Entrepreneurship and Innovation by All*" programme, which is a national strategy for economic restructuring (Reshetnikova, 2018). China is witnessing a wave of entrepreneurship and innovation activities unique in its recent history. This is in line with the country's goal of shifting from economic growth through labour-intensive manufacturing to economic growth through innovation (Saunders and Kingsley, 2016).

1.3 International education in China

The number of Chinese students going abroad to study is increasing every year. According to statistics from China's Ministry of Education (MOE, 2018), a total of 5.86 million Chinese studied abroad from 1978 to the end of 2018. Between 2008 and 2018, the number of Chinese who went abroad to study each year had increased from 179,800 to 662,100. In 2018 alone, 662,100 students left China for overseas study, showing great growth (up 8.83 per cent from a year earlier) (Xinhua, 2019) with 90 per cent funding their own studies. Today, China is the largest source of international students and it was estimated that the number of Chinese

students studying abroad would peak at 700,000 to 800,000 in 2020 (China daily, 2019). An annual survey of prospective and returning Chinese students conducted by China's Ministry of Education found that the United States is declining among major study destinations while the UK is becoming more popular (CIPG, 2019). Statistics from the Ministry of Education (Song and Liang, 2019) also highlight that the number of Chinese students returning from abroad reached almost 520,000 in 2018, an increase of 8 per cent over the previous year. A recent report by the China Daily (2019) notes that the "*return rate soon after graduation*" reached 80 per cent in 2018, up from 31 per cent in 2007, and 5 per cent in the late 1980s. More and more students planned to return to work in China, either immediately after graduation or after gaining international work experience.

Most recently, the Chinese Ministry of Education has unveiled its policy with regards to "*opening education to the outside world*" (MOE, 2019). Together with the *One Belt One Road* initiative in 2013, the central government policies focus on the promotion of "*student mobility and mutual recognition of academic degrees*", along with teacher training and study abroad programs (Xu and Liu, 2019). According to the Chinese Ministry of Education (2018), in the future China will support the construction of international branch campuses and the development of joint institutes so as to improve educational standards and opportunities for international exchanges (Yang, 2018).

Consequently, there are several reasons why Chinese students who sojourn and return deserve research attention. Firstly, the sojourning students are expected to be equipped with advanced knowledge, skills, and cultural flexibility from their foreign sojourn experiences. Secondly, there has been a dramatic growth in the number of Chinese Sojourning students since the Chinese open-door policy was implemented and now there is significant growth in the number of Chinese sojourning students returning from abroad. The Chinese sojourning students¹ and returnees² have become a hotly debated social phenomenon in China within in the public domain, but as yet one that has attracted relatively few academic studies. Thirdly, there is increasing recognition of the importance of international education to an economy, and this is especially relevant in China. International education has positive outcomes for all the stakeholders involved, both economically and non-economically, including the students themselves, the higher education institutions in both foreign countries and home countries, the academic staff, and the government.

¹Sojourning students: a common term to describe individuals who leave their countries of origin to undertake tertiary study abroad.

² Returnees: Students who returns to China after received higher education abroad and gained degrees of Bachelor or above over the past few years.

However, there is a lack of research into entrepreneurship and the conjectured link with the experience of foreign sojourns (Wang and Liu, 2016; Miao and Wang, 2017), especially in developing countries like China. This is in part due to the conservative cultural background which makes data collection difficult in China (Carnap, 2022). The lack of research into foreign sojourners' entrepreneurial proclivities and conjectured links with the experience of foreign sojourns has left several gaps in both the theoretical and empirical research fields. This project is intended to contribute to filling these gaps. The gathering of data of sufficient quality would allow this thesis to make a meaningful contribution to knowledge. With respect to the quality of the data, the key characteristics of this project were a focus on Beijing – the capital city of China; having access to a group of Chinese students who were involved in a TNE programme; being able to conduct a longitudinal study (Study 1) to observe the same students before and after they had studied abroad; and gathering data from previous graduates (i.e. returnees) of the same TNE program (Study 2) about their entrepreneurial behaviour.

This project will contribute valuable theoretical insights to the existing body of knowledge in the fields of “entrepreneurship” and “international education”. It will also offer some practical guidance that will help universities develop programmes that will meet the needs of students wishing to engage in entrepreneurship as well as assist returnees to start businesses in China; and, to some extent, returnees in other emerging economies. Finally, it is also hoped to provide some recommendations to the Chinese government and other policy makers to aid the improvement of the macro-economic environment impacting entrepreneurship and to foster better entrepreneurship education in China.

1.4 Entrepreneurship and international education in China

Since the initiation of China's economic reforms and the adoption of the open-door policy in 1978, a significant phenomenon has been noted, which is the emergence of Chinese “sojourners”³. A significant number of students used the opportunity to travel to and study in developed countries such as the United States of America, the United Kingdom, and other European countries (Guo, 2022). Today, Chinese students study in more than 108 countries and regions in the world, covering nearly all disciplines (Du, 2021). China is the biggest student exporting country, accounting for a quarter of the total number of international students in the world (Wei and Hu, 2018). In the era of globalization, international education has developed new trends and characteristics with most students returning to China after graduation. The Chinese returnees are highly skilled, overseas-educated individuals, who receive higher

³ Sojourner: a person who resides temporarily in a place. In this study, it means undertaken for educational purposes in a foreign country in particular.

education mainly in developed countries and return to China as part of their career path (Hao *et al.*, 2016). The main choice for the employment of returnees is to work in large organisations. However, the Chinese returnees now face fierce competition in the domestic job market (Qin *et al.*, 2017) and, as a result, a notable phenomenon has been the emergence of returnee entrepreneurs. An increasing number of Chinese returnees start their own businesses and engage in innovative ventures with the proportion starting a new business now much higher than among domestic graduates (Wang and Bao, 2015). They are sojourners in the developed countries, returning to China to become entrepreneurs by setting up new ventures and making a significant contribution to China's economic and technological development (Liu and Almor, 2016).

Interest in both foreign sojourns and entrepreneurship as areas of study has been on the rise in recent years (Machart, 2017). Foreign sojourns, based on international education, develop the students' academic, psychological and sociocultural skills as well as enhancing their knowledge (Cairns *et al.*, 2017). For example, they may learn soft skills such as risk-taking, open-mindedness and resilience to enhance their global perspective and develop relationship skills; as well as hard skills such as enhanced language ability and cross-cultural communication (Engberg *et al.*, 2016). However, despite Chinese returnees' important influence on the development of China's economy, little is known about Chinese sojourners (Lin, 2016). What work has been completed regarding the phenomenon of sojourn abroad experience has mainly been from the perspectives of sociology and economics, with very little work being in the area of management and business studies (Bao, 2016). Since the Chinese sojourners and returnees have unique characteristics, making significant contributions to China's economy, and representing a major Chinese globalization force (Bai *et al.*, 2017), it is important to understand whether the sojourner students have enhanced enterprising tendencies through the sojourn abroad experience. The increase in the number of Chinese sojourners and returnees, and their importance to the Chinese economy, poses important research questions regarding the impact of the sojourn abroad experience on the development of entrepreneurial intention and behaviour. Thus, the influence of international education on entrepreneurship in China deserves more attention.

1.5 Entrepreneurial proclivity

To the researcher's best knowledge, this current study is first such study to use the term "entrepreneurial proclivity" as the umbrella definition for the concepts of "enterprising tendency" and "entrepreneurial intention". This study defines entrepreneurial proclivity as "*the combination of a person's enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention to become an entrepreneur*".

Enterprising tendency is an individual's natural inclination to pursue an entrepreneurial endeavour. This is dependent on an individual's psychological make-up and is (academically) accepted to be evidenced and by a collection of 'traits' that include: need for achievement, need for autonomy, an internal locus of control, a risk-taking propensity, and a creative tendency.

Entrepreneurial intention is self-evidenced by the responses of the sample group to questions such as: "*Are you, will you demonstrate entrepreneurial activity, now, soon or in the foreseeable future?*" It is driven by "enterprising tendency".

Thus, entrepreneurial proclivity represents the sum of enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention. Enterprising tendency 'drives' the evolution of entrepreneurial intention and, therefore, results in a proclivity to adopt an entrepreneurial life-style. Proclivity, therefore, is the observed behaviour of an individual's, sometimes almost pathological, desire to bring about 'change' in all its various forms. Although observed positive entrepreneurial behaviour may be delayed or even curtailed by 'external environmental' conditions, the personal drive will survive and will surface at a later date.

It may, therefore, be observed that the 'proclivity' of entrepreneurial endeavours, the relentless drive to improve the human condition is the sum of enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention.

The purpose of this project, therefore, is to investigate entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and its conjectured link with the experience of foreign sojourns in the context of China. This project will look more closely at whether the entrepreneurial proclivity of students and graduates is developed by the sojourn abroad experience (Study 1) and will also consider how the sojourn abroad experience influences graduates in acting entrepreneurially in their careers (Study 2). The primary intention of the project is to identify or at least to gain insight into the cause-and-effect relationship, if any,

between the sojourners' foreign experience, entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour.

1.6 Underpinning theory

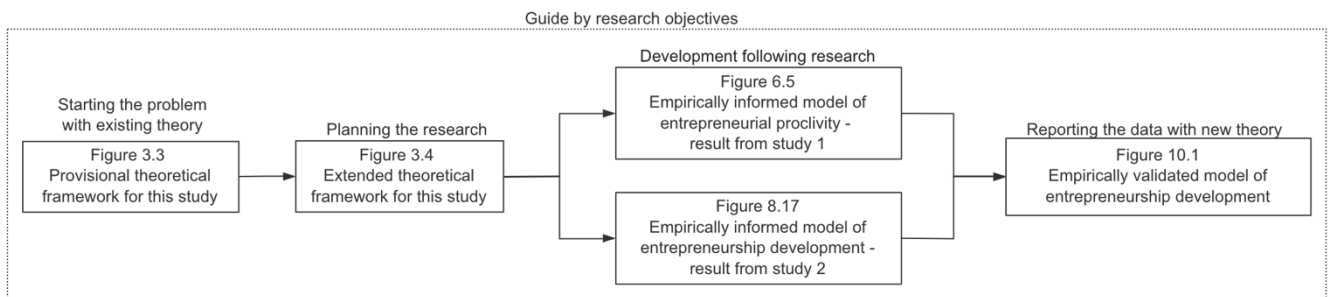
There is limited existing literature on sojourners and returnees in China (Gruenhagen and Davidsson, 2018). The *Extended Theoretical Framework* developed for this study is centred around the identification of gaps in the literature on foreign sojourns, particularly in relation to understanding the entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour of sojourners and the conjectured link with the sojourn abroad experience.

In the context of this study the term sojourners refers to individuals who leave their home country to undertake tertiary study abroad (Miao and Wang, 2017). Various other terms have been used to refer to this sojourner group, including international students and overseas students. To date the student has been the focus of study when investigating the sojourn abroad experience, given the ease of access to this group as a research population (Ma, 2019), as well as the importance of this group in its own right. In this project, the sojourners are Chinese students who have had the opportunity to study in the UK. In addition, returnees in this study are students who return to China after having received higher education abroad and gained bachelor's degrees or above. Furthermore, this project focuses on the students who receive overseas higher education in pursuit of career development but develop entrepreneurial characteristics and return to China, known as returnee entrepreneurs. Thus, this project has two foci: (i) Chinese students who are currently sojourning; and (ii) an older generation of entrepreneurs who have studied abroad and returned.

The *Theory of Planned Behaviour* (TPB) is used for predicting and understanding the intentions of people who engaged in various activities (Ajzen, 1991). According to the TPB (Ajzen, 1985), a person's performance of a specified behaviour is determined by that person's intention to perform the behaviour. The stronger the inclination to engage in the behaviour, the more likely the behaviour will be performed. In this project, that is the students' entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) to engage in entrepreneurial activity as a career. Consequently, the adapted *General Measure of Enterprising Tendency test* (GET2) (Caird, 1991b) will be used in order to measure sojourning students' overall level of enterprising tendency as well as their different entrepreneurial attributes (e.g. need for achievement, need for autonomy, creative tendency, calculated risk-taking and internal locus of control). Entrepreneurial intentions are measured by asking

students to rate their interest in starting their own business on a 5-point Likert scale (Highest Intent = 5, Lowest Intent = 1).

As Figure 1.1 below shows, there are in total five models (i.e., Figure 3.3, Figure 3.4, Figure 6.5, Figure 8.17 and Figure 10.1) that mark various stages in the development of knowledge through the thesis. The first model (Figure 3.3) introduced in Chapter 3 will be referred to as the *Provisional Theoretical Framework* to establish the research questions. The second model (Figure 3.4) presented in Chapter 3 presents the *Extended Theoretical Framework* of this research. The third (Figure 6.5, Chapter 6) and the fourth model (Figure 8.17, Chapter 8) are *Empirically Informed Models* which presents the result from study 1 and study 2 respectively. The final model (Figure 10.1) appears in Chapter 10 and is an *Empirically Validated Model of Entrepreneurship Development*.



(Source: author)

Figure 1.1 Models used in this research

To sum up, this project aims to address gaps in the existing literature on sojourning Chinese students and returnee entrepreneurs by exploring their entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial behaviour.

1.7 Research objectives and research questions

The primary research question addressed by this project is: “*What are the effects of overseas study experiences on the entrepreneurial proclivity and behaviour of Chinese university students?*” Both Study 1 and Study 2 are driven by this research question, and it is intended that the findings contribute improved understanding in the fields of “entrepreneurship” and “international education” by developing an empirically informed model to integrate the concepts of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention), entrepreneurial behaviour and international education.

The full list of research objectives and research questions addressed in this project are presented in Table 1.1 and addressed either by Study 1 - quantitative research (Questions 1 and 2) or by Study 2 - qualitative research (Question 3).

Table 1.1 Aim, objectives, research questions and hypotheses of this study

Aim	Objectives	Research Questions	Hypotheses	Thesis Chapter
<p>To explore the impact that a sojourn abroad experience has on the entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) of current students, and to explore the sojourn abroad impact on the entrepreneurial behaviour of gradates.</p>	<p>I).To examine whether Chinese university students who study in the UK develop or enhance their entrepreneurial proclivity through a period of study abroad.</p>	<p>i. Are there any significant differences between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity before the sojourning group studies abroad (at Time 0)? (This question checks the validity of the difference-in-differences (DiD) approach.)</p>	<p>$H_0 =$ "There is no difference between sojourning and domestic students in entrepreneurial intention at Time 0." $H_0 =$ "There is no difference between sojourning and domestic students in their enterprising tendency at Time 0."</p>	<p>Chapter 6</p>
		<p>ii. Is there a significant difference between the before and after differences of the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their entrepreneurial proclivity?</p>	<p>$H_0:$ "Study abroad has no positive effect on entrepreneurial intention." $H_0:$ "Study abroad has no positive effect on enterprising tendency."</p>	<p>Chapter 6</p>
	<p>II).To investigate the entrepreneurial behaviour of returnee entrepreneurs</p>	<p>iii. Do study abroad opportunities influence the sojourning student's potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life after graduation?</p>		<p>Chapter 8</p>

(Source: author)

1.8 Research methodology

This study makes use of quantitative (Study 1) and qualitative methods (Study 2) to study the effect of foreign sojourn experience on the entrepreneurial proclivity and behaviour of Chinese students who have had the opportunity to study overseas. Study 1 adopts a longitudinal study approach with comparative analysis using a group of sojourning students (sojourning students) as the “treatment” group, and a group of non-sojourning students (domestic students) as the “comparison” group. Quantitative and qualitative methods are used to ensure richness and integrity in terms of the validity and reliability of the findings (Bergman, 2008). This *modus operandi* employs questionnaires and in-depth interviews with semi-structured protocols as the strategy for collecting primary data, while certain themes and variables are derived partly from existing entrepreneurship theory and empirical studies of international education. New themes and understanding also emerge by asking the respondents open-ended questions and by conducting face-to-face interviews about their foreign sojourn experience.

1.9 Structure of the thesis

Including this introductory chapter, the thesis is organised into ten chapters:

Chapter two: Literature Review. This chapter draws on a review of the extant literature of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship in China, and international education.

Chapter three: The theoretical framework. This chapter presents the relevant theories and models, e.g., Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and the General Measure of Enterprising Tendency v2 (GET2) test, which help to introduce the development of entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention). It is postulated that testing of the *Extended Theoretical Framework* offers an original contribution to the field of “entrepreneurship” and “international education”.

Chapter four: Research Methodology. This chapter explains the research methodology. Initially the narrative considers the underpinning research philosophy and the ontological and epistemological positioning of the study. At a more practical level, this chapter then describes and justifies the research design that involves a longitudinal study (Study 1) with comparative analysis involving a questionnaire survey, and Study 2 involving semi-structured in-depth interviews. This investigation focuses on a TNE program run jointly by UK and Chinese universities. An explanation of the treatment group and the comparative group is also provided, and the research process, including the pilot study, is outlined. The narrative provides an

overview of the data collection procedures, the data analysis process, ethical considerations and the reliability and validity of each study.

Chapter five: Study 1 – Quantitative methodology and methods. This chapter discusses the quantitative methodology used in Study 1. This chapter details the survey design, sampling, measurement of constructs and data collection procedures used in this research, with a detailed pre-test and pilot test of the questionnaire. This chapter elaborates on the validity and reliability issues associated with this aspect of the project.

Chapter six: Study 1 – Findings and discussion. This chapter presents the findings from Study 1 and provides a discussion of the statistical methods employed to analyse the quantitative data. This chapter focuses mainly on analysing data to provide answers to research questions 1 and 2 by implementing the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach by means of independent sample t-tests, ANOVA and a Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR) model, which is used to identify changes that happen as the result of study abroad.

Chapter seven: Study 2 – Qualitative methodology and methods. This chapter details the qualitative methodology used in Study 2. This chapter includes explanations and justifications for the research design, the population, and the sampling techniques as well as the depth interviews used to collect the data. This chapter also addresses the trustworthiness of qualitative research and associated ethical issues. This chapter explains the integration of the quantitative study and the qualitative study.

Chapter eight: Study 2 – Findings and discussion. This chapter summarises the findings from Study 2 which sought to answer the “*why did you engage in entrepreneurship*” question from a reflective perspective. It presents and explores the qualitative results that were generated by depth interviews carried out with twelve returnee entrepreneurs. They were interviewed face-to-face in Beijing to give insight into the sojourn abroad experience with respect to the development of entrepreneurial proclivity and behaviour. The findings of the qualitative complement, support, and extend the quantitative findings.

Chapter nine: General discussion. This chapter provides a detailed consideration of the research findings with regard to the existing knowledge identified in the literature and discusses its theoretical and practical implications. The discussion is structured around the three research questions.

Chapter ten: Conclusion and contributions to knowledge. The final chapter draws conclusions from the study and makes recommendations for students, university managers and programme designers as well as for the government and other policy makers. It begins by acknowledging the limitations of this study but then summarizes the main findings and their implications as well as presenting the theoretical, methodological, and practical contributions this research makes to the field of “entrepreneurship” and “international education”. Finally, it offers suggestions for future research.

1.10 Chapter summary

This chapter has introduced the rationale and outline of the present research. The methodology of this study was briefly presented, followed by an overview of the significance of the work. Additionally, an outline of research aims, objectives and research questions and an outline of the entire thesis were presented. The thesis will continue with a review of the literature relating to the concept of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship in China, and international education.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this Chapter is to provide context and background to the thesis. This chapter consist of three sections: entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship in China, and international education. This chapter concludes with a summary and confirms the definition of entrepreneurs, entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial behaviour used in this project.

2.2 Overview of concepts and theories of entrepreneurship

2.2.1 Concept and definition of entrepreneurship

Research has long sought to provide a generic definition of an *entrepreneur*. Variations range from small business owner (Carland *et al.*, 2007), a person who starts a new business where there was none before (Gartner, 1985), an individual who develops a window of opportunity (Shane, 2003) and expands a business to a new level of innovation and growth (Schumpeter and Redvers, 1934), to a person who is self-employed (Parker, 2004). Meanwhile, the term *entrepreneurship* has been used to define a wide range of activities such as creation (Sexton and Bowman-Upton, 1991), founding a business (Bygrave and Hofer, 1992), and adapting and managing a venture (Dollinger, 2008). Many of these definitions are somewhat controversial and there is no generally accepted version of what entrepreneurship is or what an entrepreneur does.

While there is some overlap among the roles and functions of entrepreneur, self-employed, small business owner, volentrepreneur⁴ and intrapreneur⁵ in terms of exhibiting some enterprising characteristics, these concepts are not the same. However, the lack of consensus on a singular definition and disciplinary approach to entrepreneurship in the academic literature, noted by a number of researchers (Cromie, 2000; Ching and Kitahara, 2017; Zenebe *et al.*, 2018; Rahim and Mohtar, 2015; Piperopoulos, 2016), demands clarification of the different terms used to describe people who work for themselves to avoid misinterpretation and confusion (Schaper, 2010).

⁴ A 'Voluntrapreneur' is someone who sets up and manages projects in the community for social or financial reasons, usually for no direct financial reward.

⁵ An 'Intrapreneur' is someone who sets up and runs innovative projects as employees within an existing organisation.

In this project, Piperopolous' (2016) observation that a small business owner/manager is a "tactical re-actor" to a clear and well defined and observed market, while a true entrepreneur is a "strategic venture visionary planner and operator", is deemed an apt distinction. Going forward, it is necessary to look at the different types of entrepreneurs and this will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.2 Types of entrepreneurs

It is difficult to generate a typical image of an entrepreneur, since entrepreneurs come from diverse backgrounds, exhibit different leadership and management styles, and have different levels of motivation. Indeed, the type of entrepreneur that a person is can be determined relative to the structure of the firm (Stam and van Stel, 2011), performance of the venture (Smith and Miner, 1983), managerial practices (Hornaday and Bunker, 1970), degree of innovation (Wright and Westhead, 2016), venture start-up process (Calderon *et al.*, 2017), the entrepreneur's perception of opportunities (McClelland, 1987) and role within an entrepreneurial team (Miller, 1984).

2.2.3 The definition of Entrepreneurship used in this project

In sum, Table 2.1 shows definitions of entrepreneurship that emphasise a broad range of activities.

Table 2.1 Approaches to entrepreneurship

Categories	Characteristics of entrepreneurship	Author
Classical	Innovation and creativity	Schumpeter and Redvers, 1934
	Risk taking	Cantillon, 1755; Mill, 1848; Knight, 1921
	Bearing uncertainty	Cantillon, 1755; Knight, 1921
	Mobilising and financing resources	Smith, 1776; Say, 1845; Marshall, 1920
	Decision maker	Keynes, 1936; Menger, 1871; Mises, 1949
	Profit seeking Identifying and/or creating opportunities	Say, 1845; Cole, 1959 Kirzner, 1973; Leibenstein, 1978; Kirchoff, 1994
Management	Small business owner	Baron, 2006; Etzkowitz, 2003
	Self-employed	Douglas and Shepherd, 2002
	Social entrepreneurship	Mair <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	Voluntrapreneur	Zenovia <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Intrapreneurship	Intrapreneur; An employee leading internal organisational and/ or operational change	Antoncic, 2003

(Source: Author's literature review, 2019)

As Mazzarol and Reboud (2020) suggest, different research projects have examined entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship from different perspectives, for example, personal satisfaction, economic factors, degree of innovation, opportunity recognition, risk bearing propensity, and contextual circumstances. Each perspective brings a particular set of assumptions, and often provides different and somewhat conflicting explanations. Similarly, Chell *et al.* (1991: 1) states that *“the problem of identification of an entrepreneur has been confounded by the fact that there is still no standard, universally accepted definition of entrepreneurs”*. Correspondingly, as Baum and Bird (2010: 6) have also pointed out, *“There are hundreds of definitions of entrepreneur and entrepreneurship”*. Thus, they suggest that researchers should tailor the definition of entrepreneurship to their own research focus, which means that research should begin with the author’s own definition of an entrepreneur.

For the purpose of this study, therefore, an entrepreneur will be defined as *“a person who seeks to generate value, through the creation or expansion of economic activity, by identifying and exploiting new products, processes or markets”*. This definition follows the OECD’s *Oslo Manual* (2005) classification, which considers innovation an essential characteristic of entrepreneurship.

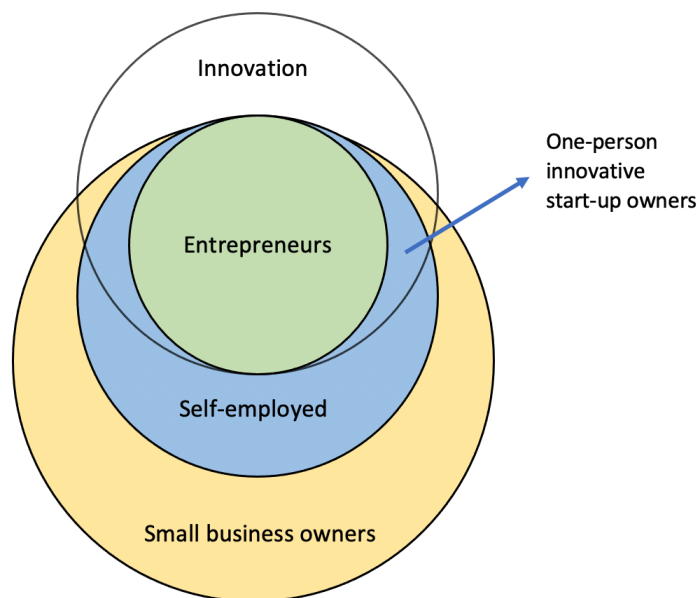
This definition of entrepreneurship is to embrace all aspects of the intentions undertaken by the students who are the focus of this study. Specifically, it takes into account both innovation-driven and growth-oriented entrepreneurship as well as one-person innovative start-up business owners (innovative self-employment). Further,

- (i) this definition of entrepreneurship involves seeing a new opportunity, taking risks, and most importantly embracing innovation;
- (ii) this definition also allows for the process of creating and operating a business activity, ranging across all business sizes from micro, small, and medium up to large-scale business (MSMEs), as well as self-employment (however, the self-employed need to be innovative in order to count as entrepreneurs).

The rationale behind this definition is that even an independent entrepreneur (self-employment), without employees, can innovate, implement new products and processes and grow. This definition is consistent with the two different types of entrepreneurship (known as *Getihu* versus *Siyinqiye*) unique to the Chinese institutional context (Lau and Busenitz, 2001, p. 200). This definition makes a distinction between an entrepreneur and a small business

owner, routine self-employment, a manager and an intrapreneur. This definition guides the selection of the interviewees in the qualitative Study 2.

As there is lack of clarity and some confusion about the roles and actions of entrepreneurs, the literature often uses self-employed, entrepreneurs or small business owners interchangeably despite these terms having different meanings (Townsend, 2018). This current study helps to identify similarities, overlaps, and distinct differences between the different terms used to describe people who work for themselves and so reduces the level of confusion (see Figure 2.1). Innovation would represent a primary factor to differentiate entrepreneurs from other relevant economic actors. All self-employed people are small business owners, whereas small business owners are not necessarily entrepreneurs. While all entrepreneurs are self-employed, not all self-employed individuals are entrepreneurs; some are better categorised as small business owners whose businesses are characterised by – at most – low levels of innovation (shown in Figure 2.1 by the very limited overlap). The self-employed are entrepreneurs when they introduce a new product or service, apply a new method of production or sale, open a new market for products or services already in existence, gain new sources of raw materials, and apply new organizational forms in a new sector. The innovative self-employed have all the main characteristics of an entrepreneur, so one-person innovative start-up owners are entrepreneurs.



(Source: Author)

Figure 2.1 Entrepreneurship Venn diagram

2.2.4 Entrepreneurial characteristics and traits

Individual characteristics and traits have been a popular focus for entrepreneurship researchers and there are a variety of characteristics that are associated with entrepreneurs. According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1977), psychology is the scientific study of behaviour. The personality is generally considered to be a set of behavioural and cognitive characteristics, traits and predispositions that people take with them to different situations, contexts, and interactions with others, and that contribute to differences among individuals. Indeed, researchers (Gartner, 1989) have argued that entrepreneurs share a common type of personality which explains their behaviour. The basic assumptions are that entrepreneurs are in some way different from the general population (Sexton and Bowman, 1985). From the psychological perspective, entrepreneurship is a discipline that seeks to identify the behaviours and characteristics that distinguish entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs.

Table 2.2 summarises the extensive literature since 1775 on the personality traits of entrepreneurs. The focus on "creative tendency" in the literature on personality traits is consistent with the emphasis on innovation as the main defining characteristic of entrepreneurship.

Table 2.2 Characteristics of entrepreneurs

Authors	Date	Risk taking	Need for achievement	Need for autonomy	Internal locus of control	Creative tendency	Self-efficacy	Tolerance of the ambiguous/ uncertain	Self-confidence	Persistence	Decision-making	Independence	Energy	Others
Cantillon	1755	√									√			
Mill	1848	√												
Smiles	1859		√	√			√			√				Self-learning
Weber	1918		√	√										
Schumpeter	1934					√								
Sutton	1954		√	√	√									Flexible
Hartman	1959	√	√	√	√	√								
McClelland	1961	√	√											
Dauids	1963			√			√		√					Passionate
Pickle and Abrahamson	1964						√	√						Communication
Hornaday and Aboud	1971		√	√		√						√		
Gasse	1972		√		√			√						Leadership skills
Timmons	1974	√			√	√			√					
Steinhoff	1978		√							√				Patience
Hollingsworth and Hand	1979			√	√	√	√						√	
Welsh and White	1981	√	√	√					√					Open-minded
Dunkelberg and Cooper	1982							√				√		
Casson	1983	√		√							√			
Miller	1984	√				√					√			Self-respect
Carland	1985		√		√									
Gartner	1989			√		√								
Timmons	1990		√					√		√				Optimistic
Robinson and Sexton	1991		√			√			√					
Koh	1996	√	√		√	√								
Lee and Peterson	2000	√		√		√								Critical thinking
Gibb	2002	√	√	√	√	√			√					Hard work
Ibrahim and Soufani	2005	√		√	√	√		√		√				
Casson <i>et al.</i>	2008	√		√		√					√	√		Brave
Raab <i>et al.</i>	2011	√	√	√	√	√								Problem-solving
Gurol and Atsan	2012	√		√	√	√			√					
Dimov	2013	√	√	√	√	√								Emotional stability
Rodica <i>et al.</i>	2016	√	√		√	√	√							
Kerr <i>et al.</i>	2018	√	√	√	√	√								Analytical ability
Sene <i>et al.</i>	2019	√	√	√	√	√	√					√		Human relations ability

(Source: Author's literature review, 2019)

In order to better understand the entrepreneurship phenomenon, studying individuals' entrepreneurial behaviour based on socio-cognitive models is considered a suitable approach to analyse new venture creation (Ambad and Damit, 2016). Therefore, this section selectively reviews the available empirical evidence on the determinants of the decision to become an entrepreneur. These determinants have been categorized as: (i) the demographic characteristics of individuals that make them more inclined to engage in entrepreneurial activity; (ii) the social factors to which individuals are exposed; and (iii) the environmental factors including institutional, cultural and contextual factors of the area where an individual lives that may affect entrepreneurial activity, and consequently, the decision to become an entrepreneur.

2.2.5 Demographic factors

According to Lanero *et al.*, (2016), demographic factors can affect entrepreneurial activity and thus potential entrepreneurs. Demographic factors influencing entrepreneurship development include age, gender, household income, parents' education level, and parents' occupations.

- **Age**

Research regarding the impact of age on entrepreneurship is inconclusive but the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM, 2018) suggests that age has a strong and positive correlation with the development of entrepreneurship. According to Staniewski (2016), the ideal age to start a new venture is between 22 and 45. He suggests that starting a business too early could limit the capabilities of the entrepreneur. Before aged 22, someone is still involved with training and education as well as acquiring work experience. They may have not acquired sufficient entrepreneurial experience. Conversely, Przepiorka (2017) argues that the average age for those starting a new business venture in the UK is 33 - 35. Starting a business too late, for example aged 45 and above, would mean that the entrepreneur could lack energy and youthful flexibility. However, Fachinger and Frankus's (2017) research on mature entrepreneurs (50+ years) in the UK suggest that the businesses created and operated by mature entrepreneurs have a longer life span and are often more successful than those managed by younger entrepreneurs.

- **Gender**

The relationship between gender and entrepreneurship has been widely investigated (Arshad *et al.*, 2016; Miranda, 2017). Despite the significant increase in the number of women entrepreneurs in recent years, empirical evidence suggests that women own significantly fewer businesses than men (Sánchez-Escobedo, 2016). The GEM (2018) reviewed entrepreneurial activities in more than 70 countries, and the results showed that the ratio of women to men in entrepreneurship was low, reflecting the low participation rate of women. According to McKay (2001), women entrepreneurs were more likely than men to have regarded their parents as an inspiration and useful advisors to their entrepreneurial career, while male entrepreneurs sometimes wished to seek independence from their family or even wished to compete with their parents.

Most studies ((Ufuk and Özgen, 2001; Hoe *et al.*, 2012; Agarwal and Lenka, 2016; Sangolagi and Alagawadi, 2016) show that women entrepreneurs are more likely to be involved in the service or retail trade sectors, as experience and knowledge in these areas is often limited, making them more qualified to participate. Often, the need for part-time work has an impact on their decisions.

- **Household income**

Household income has been identified as another factor impacting entrepreneurial development (van der Zwan, 2016). Hörisch *et al.* (2019) revealed that people from high-income households are more likely to start their own business because their family could provide them with the necessary financial support, and they are more likely to see entrepreneurial growth opportunities because of their social status. Conversely, Turkina and Thai (2015) reported no significant effects of high household income on new business start-ups. Indeed, low-income families report that they are more likely to start a business out of frustration with their position, which pushes them to start new ventures. This view is supported by Matos (2018) who suggests that children from high socio-economic status backgrounds have a lower probability to convert their cognitive ability into a career in entrepreneurship.

- **Parents education level**

The family can also influence entrepreneurship development via parental education, especially the mothers, as educated parents are more open-minded in terms of their children's future career options, and they are able to provide a more detailed picture of their children's

career choices (Pouratashi, 2015). However, Wadhwa (2009) argues that a poor family background and lack of formal education can create desperation to survive, which can also a motivation for new venture creation.

- **Parents occupation**

According to Pablo-Lerchundi *et al.* (2015), the most important influence on whether or not a young person demonstrates an enterprising proclivity and starts-up their own business is their parents' occupation. Indeed, the family can serve to encourage entrepreneurship in a variety of ways. In research conducted by Suartha and Suprpti (2016), a student whose parents, especially their father, are self-employed, or who have acted entrepreneurially, demonstrated the highest preference for self-employment. This is, quite possibly, because the family is providing a role model for the children to follow. More importantly, the family is the key element in Chinese business social networks as the central person in the network is often a member of the entrepreneur's family, which is fundamentally different from western cultures (Qin and Deng, 2016).

In addition, Xiong (2019) acknowledges the influence of hometown, domestic environment and neighbourhood effects as determinants of entrepreneurship.

2.2.6 Social factors

The main social factors influencing entrepreneurship, are role models, general as well as entrepreneurship education, previous experience, and networks and resources.

- **Role model**

A role model is a common reference to individuals who set examples to be followed by others and who may stimulate or inspire others to make certain career decisions and achieve certain goals (Austin and Nauta, 2016). Many entrepreneurs claim that their business start-up decision and the development of their businesses have been influenced by others who may be considered role models (Wartiovaara *et al.*, 2019). These others are often entrepreneurs themselves and may range from family members, to famous people in the media, and to peer groups in the workplace (Entrialgo and Iglesias, 2017). As noted by Zozimo *et al.* (2017), role models can be entrepreneurs who are not known to the individual on a personal basis, such as Steve Jobs, Jack Ma, or Bill Gates. Alternatively, the relationship can be more personal, the role model can belong to the individual's direct environment, such as family or friends to

which they have strong ties, or peer groups, networks, employers or colleagues with whom they have only weak ties. Lafortune *et al.*, (2018) found a strong connection between the presence of role models and the emergence of entrepreneurs. Indeed, Lafortune *et al* (2018) specifically note “*the role of prior entrepreneurial exposure in the entrepreneurial process*” and Zapkau *et al.* (2017) argue that role models not only provide living evidence that certain goals are achievable, but also provide individuals with practical support and advice as mentors.

- **General education**

This section addresses the concept of “general education” as an important influence on entrepreneurship (Berglund and Verduyn, 2018), while “entrepreneurial education” specifically will be dealt with separately in the next section. General education, which focuses on the overall development of students, adds to the entrepreneur’s formal knowledge and key skills and abilities, as well as developing key personal qualities such as self-confidence, self-discipline and self-motivation (Davies, 2002). Several studies (Nabi, 2017; Lipset, 2018) have shown that having general education before starting a new business was related to the overall performance of the firm. Walter and Block (2016) believe that everyone has an entrepreneurial spirit and that everyone’s ability to be an entrepreneur can be developed through general education. Moreover, Fayolle (2005) argued that educational background is not only important in shaping entrepreneurial intentions but also that it is important for entrepreneurial behaviour. Studies have shown that a new venture’s ability to succeed is largely impacted by the level of education of the entrepreneur involved (Nabi, 2018). This view is supported by Passaro *et al.* (2018) who, in their study investigating “*the impact of higher education on entrepreneurial intention and human capital*”, further found that higher levels of education are associated with higher levels of business growth. Entrepreneurs who had engaged with higher education (e.g., bachelor’s degree or above) exhibited significantly higher performance than those with medium levels of education (e.g., high school degree or equivalent). This is reflected in the knowledge, skills, self-discipline, motivation, self-confidence, and behaviour of entrepreneurs, and supports their decision making regarding identifying market opportunities, studying the market, understanding the business environment and organizing resources for new venture creation. In the same vein, Findler *et al.* (2019) suggest that high levels of education in an entrepreneur increase the likelihood of both a better company growth rate and firm survival. Conversely, less-educated entrepreneurs may face financial or human capital constraints that limit their businesses development. The constraints and disadvantages that the less educated entrepreneurs face include low levels of entrepreneurial knowledge, low levels of awareness of business opportunities, and a lack of management skills.

- **Entrepreneurship education**

Entrepreneurship education is a factor that is cited a lot in the literature as an important potential influence on entrepreneurship (Ghulam *et al.*, 2017). Entrepreneurship education is defined as the process of providing individuals with the concepts and skills to recognise commercial opportunities, and to have the insight, self-esteem, and knowledge to act on them. It is normally an educational program that universities and colleges provide for their students and other individuals to develop entrepreneurial awareness, abilities, and skills (Fayolle and Gailly, 2015). It contributes to the development of human capital (Premand, 2016).

However, Rasmussen and Wright (2015) argue that too much knowledge of entrepreneurship can discourage business start-up. In particular, business students are equipped with the entrepreneurial skills, mind-set and knowledge to engage in entrepreneurial activities; however, knowledge of 'real world' entrepreneurship could discourage them, because they would be aware of the high risk of failure (Rasmussen and Wright, 2015). Consequently, they may prefer to take the safe option of working for an organisation rather than starting their own business.

- **Previous experience**

Previous experiences that may impact entrepreneurship include work and market experience, management experience, and entrepreneurial experience (Schaper, 2016). Previous experience is a foundation for new business start-ups through integration and accumulation of new knowledge and adapting and responding to opportunities in a new situation (Albort-Morant and Oghazi, 2016). Entrepreneurial behaviour is greatly impacted by the ability of an entrepreneur to integrate and learn from experience. Zapkau (2015), in a study that focused on *"the effect of prior entrepreneurial exposure on entrepreneurial intention"*, confirm the importance of having previous work experience before setting up a new venture. Entrepreneurs will learn lessons on how to identify opportunities, reduce inefficiencies and greatly improve their capacity to undertake various tasks through their previous experience. Conversely, according to Atsan (2016), people with little or no work experience have fewer capabilities and may have difficulties developing a business idea. Amankwah-Amoah *et al.* (2018) also found that employment experience is a key component in the successful development of a new business. As noted previously, it is believed that entrepreneurs from entrepreneurial family backgrounds, for example, those whose parents are entrepreneurs, have an advantage through experience of their parent's business or from growing up in an entrepreneurial environment (Bird, 2019). Rider (2019) also suggests that many start-up

businesses are founded by people with work experience. Entrepreneurs who have prior work experience are familiar with work environments and have contacts and networking opportunities that are important for new venture creation (Hansen, 1995).

- **Social networks and resources**

The entrepreneur's social network is a key factor in the entrepreneurial process as it can be a way for an entrepreneur to gain access to resources needed for initiating and operating a new venture (Lee and Tsang, 2001). Social networks are channels through which entrepreneurs gain access to the necessary resources (Anderson *et al.*, 2010). The key to entrepreneurial success is to have the ability to develop and maintain a social network. Organizations try to reduce uncertainty by gaining control over important resources (Neumeier, 2019) and an entrepreneur's social network is a means of achieving this. Very different from the western social network, China has a unique form of networking, called Guanxi⁶, which is based on a network of relationships which operate according to the strictures of Chinese culture (Burt and Burzynska, 2017).

2.2.7 Environmental factors

- **Culture**

Culture is a broad concept that embraces a range of activities, behaviours, events and structures in people's lives (Stuetzer, 2018). Culture has been defined by Hofstede (1998) as an interactive collection of common characteristics that influence a human group's response to its environment. Culture is a collective phenomenon that is shaped by the social environment and a shared history, it distinguishes people in one group from those in another. Cultural differences are the result of national, regional, ethnic, social, religious and class distinctions (Hofstede, 2003).

Some cultures serve to promote entrepreneurship while others do not (Doepke and Zilibotti, 2014: 601). Culture influences entrepreneurship through social norms and value judgements. According to Doney *et al.* (1998), "*the national culture determines the extent to which existing social and cultural norms encourage or discourage individual actions that may lead to new ways of conducting business or economic activities*". They believe that social and cultural

⁶ Guanxi is a Chinese term meaning "networks" or "connections" that open doors for new business and facilitate deals. A person who has a lot of Guanxi will be in a better position to generate business than someone who lacks it.

norms could encourage or discourage individual action that leads to self-employment and the creation of new businesses. Although entrepreneurial behaviour is an individual activity based on individual attitudes and decision making, culture impacts the push-or-pull factors for individuals to act entrepreneurially or not (George and Zahra, 2002). This view is supported by Laskovaia *et al.* (2017) who conducted a comparative study to investigate the impact of culture on entrepreneurship development. Their research suggests that favourable cultural attitudes towards entrepreneurship and a high status for entrepreneurs had an important impact on individuals' intentions to start new businesses. It seems that if society holds entrepreneurship in high regard, then people are motivated to start new ventures. However, Kreiser (2015) cautioned that the understanding of entrepreneurship should always be considered within the cultural context and based on one's own society and one's own norms.

- **Economic and political conditions**

Entrepreneurial intention and behaviours can be influenced by the existing and anticipated economic and political infrastructure of the country (Autio and Fu, 2015). The socio-political environment of a country can be so powerful that it may create or destroy entrepreneurship. An economic environment characterized by high inflation, high unemployment rates and economic instability may discourage the potential entrepreneur from taking action (Ribeiro-Soriano, 2017). Conversely, an environment characterized by a supportive political environment and market system may boost the development of new business start-ups (Bjørnskov and Foss, 2016).

2.3 Entrepreneurship in China

The past three decades have witnessed remarkable development in China, and the Chinese economy has grown to become the second largest economy in the world (Yang, 2016) (when measured in current US dollars). During this period, economic reforms have encouraged entrepreneurship and the emergence of new small businesses, which is widely recognised as having made a significant contribution to this economic development. There is a unique institutional and cultural background behind the Chinese economy and entrepreneurship in China (Guo *et al.*, 2016). This section will outline the development of entrepreneurship in China from three perspectives. The section that follows will consider the unique characteristics of entrepreneurship in China and the general profile of Chinese entrepreneurs. The relationship between Chinese culture and entrepreneurship is then evaluated relative to other cultures using Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Finally, this chapter provides an overview of higher education and entrepreneurship education, and its contribution to entrepreneurship in China.

2.3.1 History and development of entrepreneurship in China

Historically, China used to have a less-developed economy compared with the West and poor institutional support for entrepreneurs (Ahlstrom and Ding, 2014). After the Chinese Communist Party's (CCP) victory in 1949, entrepreneurship was limited and severely restricted for the next three decades. The CCP, under the leadership of Zedong Mao, destroyed private entrepreneurship during the 1950s, which is the period of the Three-anti Campaign (1951) and the Five-anti Campaign (1952).⁷ The ten years of the Chinese Cultural Revolution from 1966 to 1976 further inhibited entrepreneurship (Yang and Li, 2008). The Cultural Revolution can be said to have temporarily ended several thousand years of private economy and entrepreneurship in China.

It was not until 1977 that the private economy could start operating again. In 1978, with the end of the Maoist period, China started to reform and open-up to the world under the new leadership of Xiaoping Deng (Yang, 2004). Chinese people were again allowed to set up their own businesses, and since then the development of Chinese entrepreneurship has seen enormous growth. Since the start of the Chinese economic reform and the adoption of an open-door policy, China has transformed from a “centrally planned economy” to a “socialist market economy”. The changes have resulted in the emergence of huge numbers of entrepreneurs and venture businesses, and entrepreneurship has made great progress during this transitional period (Pistrui, 2001). The re-emergence of entrepreneurship occurred in three phases (Phan *et al.*, 2010). At the beginning of the transition in the 1980s (Phase 1), the entrepreneurs focused on building informal social networks (known as Guanxi) in order to survive by securing the funding sources, mainly family and friends, needed when starting a new venture (Naudé and Rossouw, 2010). The new enterprises often took the form of individual household businesses (known as Getihu) and collectively owned town-and-village enterprises (known as Xiangzhenqiye) (Schaper, 2010) while market regulation was regarded as being underdeveloped. The second stage of the transition occurred in the 1990s (Phase 2) and here the entrepreneurs tried to build competitive advantage through cost reduction with key funding sources now being mainly bank loans and stock exchange listings. Market regulations were established with the socialist market economy system being formally recognised in 1992 (Kshetri, 2007). The third stage of development commenced in the first 10 years of the 21st century (Phase 3), when the entrepreneurs, many of whom were well-educated overseas returnees, focused on innovation and new product development as they

⁷ The Three-anti Campaign (1951) and Five-anti Campaign (1952) were reform movements originally instigated by Zedong Mao a few years after the founding of the People's Republic of China in an effort to rid Chinese cities of corruption and enemies of the state. The result turned into a series of campaigns that consolidated Mao's power base by targeting political opponents and capitalists, especially wealthy capitalists.

started to recognize the importance of innovation and long-term competitive advantage (Obschonka, 2018). The returnee entrepreneurs actively developed new products, services and technology to establish internet-based businesses. Their funding sources were normally bank loans or venture capital (Bruton *et al.*, 2018).

After three decades of sustained market transition and domestic entrepreneurial reform, private business in China is booming. According to the China Statistical Yearbook 2018 (Stats, 2018), private enterprises contribute more than half of China's taxation, 60 per cent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 70 per cent of technological innovation and new products, 80 per cent of urban employment and 90 per cent of new jobs. According to the McKinsey on China Report (2018), entrepreneurs are now the primary source of China's economic growth. Contemporary Chinese entrepreneurs display high levels of skill in entrepreneurship and management, and they are making a significant contribution toward the economic development of China. Younger Chinese start-ups paid most attention to creating products that filled a gap and targeted the global market (Bruton *et al.*, 2019). Today, some (e.g. Lin, 2019) argue that entrepreneurial development in China is entering a golden age. After Premier Li Keqiang called for "*Mass entrepreneurship and innovation by all*" and made it the leading agenda of China's national economic strategy at the World Economic Forum held in Davos in September 2014, the Chinese central government has viewed mass entrepreneurship and innovation as a new engine for China's economic restructuring and growth (Tong *et al.*, 2019). According to the National Development and Reform Commission (NDRC) of China (Chinaorg, 2019), the central government will channel more energy into mass entrepreneurship and innovation in order to (i) create jobs with an improved business environment; (ii) create more finance and upgraded incubator facilities; (iii) invest more in advanced technology, research and innovation, and knowledge transfer, in order to boost market vitality; and (iv) promote entrepreneurship education. As a consequence, Chinese universities have begun to take action to provide a more entrepreneurship-friendly environment (Zhu, 2019).

Although entrepreneurship is a major plank of economic development in China, the 2018/2019 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor China Report puts China's entrepreneurship into perspective by ranking China 52nd out of the 54 countries worldwide, assessed in terms of perceived capabilities to start a venture. Moreover, China also ranked 37th out of the 54 countries in terms of entrepreneurial spirit that provides a measure of individuals' intentions to start a business when presented with an opportunity (GEM, 2019). China ranked 22nd among the 54 countries examined by the "early-stage start-up index". Furthermore, while China's entrepreneurial environment has seen improvement since the "*mass entrepreneurship and innovation*" policy was introduced in 2014 – for example, in government policies, economic

growth, creation of new jobs, social and cultural norms – China is still classified as an *efficiency-driven economy*, not an *innovation-driven economy* (Wei *et al.*, 2019). China's business environment still needs improvement if it is to become innovation orientated. Development of entrepreneurship in China remains slow and the support system is still far from mature in terms of providing high-quality financial services for start-ups (Sun, 2019), consistent regional policy and support for entrepreneurial activities and finance (Qin *et al.*, 2019), financial incentives (Li *et al.*, 2019) and, especially, in terms of entrepreneurial education and training (Chu and Wen, 2019). It would appear, therefore, that there is still considerable potential for the Chinese government to improve the environment for entrepreneurship and for Chinese universities to provide more and better training for would be entrepreneurs.

2.3.2 Who are entrepreneurs in China?

In the Chinese context, entrepreneurial activity is generally categorized into two types. The first type is self-employed, called *Getihu* in Chinese, which is an economic entity based on a family or an individual possessing a certain amount of capital, operating independently and responsible for its own profits and losses (Dickson, 2003). Normally this type of enterprise hires only one or two full-time employees and maybe several temporary workers. The second type is private business, which is called *Siyinqiye* (Tsang, 1996). Enterprises with individually owned assets and more than seven employees may register as a *Siyinqiye*. *Siyinqiye* are allowed more relaxed conditions regarding the source of registered capital. For example, shareholders can be non-family members of the entrepreneur, but they are required to hold a certain amount of registered capital, which increases the start-up costs. In addition, the size of the organisation is usually smaller in *Getihu* than in *Siyinqiye*. The introduction of the new organisational forms of private enterprises, namely *Getihu* and *Siyinqiye*, was a milestone in China's economic transition and was important for the development of entrepreneurship in China (Burt, 2019).

The profile of Chinese entrepreneurs has three key components (Liu and Almor, 2016). First, Chinese entrepreneurs have integrated innovation with localization. They reinvent an existing business idea to meet the demands of Chinese consumers. Chinese entrepreneurs often start with western-inspired products that fill local market needs with careful localization (Sorenson, 2017). Secondly, Chinese markets remain relatively closed to the rest of the world because of Chinese culture whereas Chinese entrepreneurs have a deep knowledge of Chinese culture and can identify needs within the Chinese economy. Finally, Chinese entrepreneurs carefully consider the role of government intervention. To avoid unpredictable policy changes,

entrepreneurs tend to follow China's five-year plans, which outline the government's strategic directions for the country (Feng *et al.*, 2015).

China has become an increasingly entrepreneurial society (Volovelsky and Dana, 2019). China's new entrepreneurs tend to be younger and well-educated, with an average age of 31 and nearly 44 per cent in the 25–34 age group (Huang *et al.*, 2016). According to new findings from the *National Entrepreneurship Research Centre of Tsinghua University* (Hazelkorn *et al.*, 2018) the post-1980s generation has become the driving force for entrepreneurship in China. The study showed that the post-1980s generation in China is the most active group of entrepreneurs. Both the Chinese post-1980s generation and the post-1990s generation regard entrepreneurship as a good career choice, and their entrepreneurial motivation is to seek opportunities rather than just survive (Atherton and Newman, 2017). This study also found that 31.1 per cent of the post-90s generation who set up a business said they had managed to set up their own business within three years of graduation. This result is largely consistent with findings from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) 2019 report (Hart *et al.*, 2020) which found that China has a high proportion of young entrepreneurs, with 57 per cent between 18 and 34 and less than one-quarter falling into the older 45-64 category.

Education levels are also an important characteristic of entrepreneurs in China (Jensen *et al.*, 2016). The survey conducted by the *Centre for China and Globalization* in 2018 (CCG, 2018) shows that bachelor degree holders account for nearly 32 per cent of the total number of entrepreneurs, college diploma or equivalent for about 27 per cent, secondary school about 27 per cent, below secondary school 9 per cent, while master's degree and above account for the remaining 4.4 per cent. About 80 per cent of Chinese entrepreneurs have prior work experience. Another important phenomenon is the role of overseas returnee entrepreneurs, who are usually highly educated individuals, such as scientists and engineers, trained in developed countries who return to China to start technology ventures (Turner and Acker, 2017).

Entrepreneurship in China has had a relatively late start but has experienced rapid development. Following a series of support measures introduced by the Chinese government, statistics show there is an increase in newly registered companies. According to the GEM (2019) report, 10.6 per cent of the adult population (aged from 18 to 64) of China are entrepreneurs including self-employed professionals, freelancers, or small business owners. Working with limited resources and against intense competition, these individuals have played a major role in the country's extraordinary growth (Cinar *et al.*, 2018). However, the GEM (2019) report indicates that only 9 per cent of Chinese entrepreneurs have successfully

obtained a loan from banks or financial institutions while most of them, finding it hard to get a loan, are using their family savings. Javalgi *et al.*, (2018) argued that entrepreneurs in China tend to be more risk-taking, innovative and proactive than managers in state-owned enterprises in responding to the changing institutional environment. Additionally, being female, older or a member of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) all significantly reduce the probability of becoming an entrepreneur (Huang *et al.*, 2019).

2.3.3 Chinese cultural values and entrepreneurship

The idea of establishing a new business is often based on the perceptions of one's family, friends or teachers, and, more importantly, the national culture (Hayton *et al.*, 2002). A culture that encourages people to establish a new business and become an entrepreneur would promote the establishment of more businesses (Zahra *et al.*, 2004). If the cultural values match the general framework of entrepreneurship, such as being one's own boss, control over one's own destiny, individualism, and valuing a high need for achievement, it means that entrepreneurship is being substantially supported in that cultural context (George and Zahra, 2002).

2.3.3.1 Traditional Chinese philosophies

Anyone hoping to understand China and Chinese entrepreneurial behaviour in the present day must examine China's long cultural history, which provides the back-drop to today's behavioural patterns (Ma and Tsui, 2015). Chinese culture is strongly influenced by Confucian and Daoist principles, which are the two-leading ethic-legal and philosophical traditions (Hofstede and Bond, 1988). Confucianism is not a religion; rather, it is a philosophy or theory of social relations, providing a set of guidelines for individual human behaviours. Confucianism is basically the behavioural or moral principles regarding human relationships, social structures, human behaviour and work ethics. Traditional Confucian values impact on the personal values and identity of Chinese people and may influence potential entrepreneurs (Bond and Hofstede, 1989). Confucianism stresses hierarchical interpersonal relationships (Liu, 2009), while Daoism concentrates more attention on harmony, including harmony between human beings and nature, harmony in society, and harmony within individual human beings (Cen and Jun, 2014). It is important to understand the common values associated with Chinese culture, as these values strongly reflect Chinese traditional philosophies, which have been highly influential in entrepreneurship activities in China (Hansen, 2000). The following section will discuss the five main values, including: (i) Respect for age and hierarchical position;

(ii) Concern for Mianzi (face) and harmony; (iii) Group orientation and collectivism; (iv) the importance and role of Guanxi (social network) and (v) the Doctrine of the mean (golden mean).

First, in China, respect for age and hierarchical position is important in a group, especially an organisation and broader society. This is indicated by the power-distance and reward-promotion system (Greenfield, 2016).

Second, Mianzi, or face, and harmony play a critical role in Chinese social life. One possible explanation is that face is recognition of one's social status. It indicates the maintenance of one's own dignity through the respect of others (Warner, 2016). The Chinese style of communication is often indirect and modest in order to minimise the loss of face and maintain harmonious relationships (Unger, 2016). Thus, "Geimianzi" (Give face) is a way to preserve the dignity of an individual, while being in harmony is the ideal situation for a group, an organisation or even a society as a whole, which makes it difficult to challenge or criticise others. The importance of face means giving respect and obligation to the ones who have higher social status. Losing face, when serious enough, can affect one's position in a Guanxi network (Filiari *et al.*, 2019). The maintenance of stability and harmony as a goal are a greater priority than efficiency or productivity.

Third, China is a collective society and is characterised by collectivist, rather than individualist perspectives. Chinese society regards the concept of family as the most fundamental and most important component of society (Siu-Lun, 2017). Individuals do not exist as a separate unit. This is fundamentally different from the Western view of individualism, which sees people as independent and autonomous and is reflected in personal choice and personal achievement (Hua and Nathan, 2016). Due to the beliefs associated with communism and socialism in China, if necessary, individual interest should be sacrificed in favour of collective interests (Hu *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, group orientation and collectivism are a deeply embedded feature of Chinese culture in contrast to the individualism of Western culture.

Fourth, Guanxi, which is comparable to personal relationships and social connections in Western culture, plays a significant role in Chinese society (Davies, 2017). Guanxi is "a network of personally defined reciprocal bonds" mainly based on social interaction and the exchange of social resources between two individuals. Historically, Guanxi was seen as a social means to overcome political, economic and governmental obstacles to enterprise. Luo and Guo (2015) suggest that Guanxi and the closely associated Mianzi (face) are the most important cultural characteristics for doing business in China. Guanxi networks operate primarily through the family and are based largely on personal trust (Luo and Guo, 2015).

Once Guanxi is recognized between two people, each can ask a favour of the other and the debt will be repaid sometime in the future. Guanxi is based on mutual trust, interest, loyalty and benefit between the favour exchanging parties (Bian, 2017). It is believed that Chinese businesses are heavily reliant on the Guanxi networks of their owners and employees. Guanxi has a significant impact on doing business in China in terms of the exchange of information, negotiations, planning and decision-making processes. The network members provide information, resources, social support and help to find customers, suppliers and investors. Guanxi could provide distinctive competitive advantages for entrepreneurs by making production possible, reducing the level of risk, and increasing the expected net returns (Zhan, 2018). Guanxi is an important factor in entrepreneurial success. Therefore, it may be observed that “Who you know” is more useful in China than “what you know”.

Finally, in China, the idea of the “*Middle Way or Golden Mean*” is central to both the Confucianist and Daoist philosophies (Chai *et al.*, 2018). In Chinese culture, everything is considered to have two extremes. The Golden Rule refers to the natural balance and harmony that exists between these extremes. The Confucianists elaborated the idea in one of their classic sayings, “*The Doctrine of Mean*”. For the Daoist, the saying is “*reversal is the movement of Dao*”, which means that when anything comes to its extreme, a reversal to the other extreme takes place (Fang, 2018).

To sum up, Chinese values include respect for seniority and hierarchical position, meaning that older people and those of higher social rank receive more respect and favours (Lam *et al.*, 1994). Chinese people are concerned about maintaining harmonious relationships with their family and community and giving Mianzi (dignity) to other people (Lu and Chen, 2011). The importance of collectivism means thinking and behaving within accepted social norms and avoiding hurting others in the same social environment (Wang *et al.*, 2005). The doctrine of the mean requires people to keep good relationships within social groups (Luo, 2009).

2.3.3.2 Chinese culture and its potential influence on entrepreneurship

As discussed in the previous chapter, the intention to, and motivation for becoming an entrepreneur depends on many factors, including personality, career preference, work experience, and culture, as well as family members, relatives, personal contacts, and role models.

In China, family and government play a central role in people's lives, and these two factors have a significant impact on individuals' career choices. In addition, the idea of establishing a

new business is based on the culture of society, the influence and inspiration from family, friends and teachers (Shi *et al.*, 2015). A culture that appreciates a person establishing a new business and becoming an entrepreneur would positively support the establishment of a start-up business. In the traditional Chinese hierarchy of careers, those who are engaged in business transactions occupy the lower tier, after scholars, managers and industrialists, as Confucius believed the ideal person is a scholar not a successful entrepreneur (Fu *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, Confucianism encourages continuous self-improvement, hard work and diligence. Chinese people focus largely on success, defined mainly by wealth and social status (Huang and Gove, 2015). Taking the initiative and innovating is disruptive to the existing order and regarded as a threat to social harmony. Another fundamental difference between Chinese cultural values and entrepreneurial attributes concerns business or profitmaking activities (Wang *et al.*, 2018). Traditional Chinese culture has devalued the importance of commercial activities, with entrepreneurs traditionally being placed at the bottom of the Chinese social hierarchy, after government workers, teachers, doctors, lawyers and workers (Zhai, 2017).

Although, some entrepreneurial attributes are congruent with Chinese cultural values (See Table 2.3) many of the most important are not. For example, need for autonomy, need for achievement, internal locus of control, innovative and creative tendencies, and risk-taking propensity are either missing or contradict Chinese cultural values. As Obschonka (2018) argued in a study on “*Confucian traits, entrepreneurial personality, and entrepreneurship in China*”, Confucian values such as harmony, compliance, respect for authority and emotional control are not compatible with common entrepreneurial characteristics. There can be an inconsistency between traditional Chinese Confucian cultural values and the entrepreneurial personality (Morris and Schindehutte, 2005), such as being conservative vs a positive response to change; obligation to one’s family, group and nation vs high belief in control of one’s own life; hierarchical relationships based on status and observing this order vs taking the initiative and leadership; preference for harmony vs creative thinking (Siu and Lo, 2013). The Chinese cultural values of Guanxi (e.g., Networking in the West is an actively ongoing strategy to be assiduously pursued while Guanxi is the slowly developing, naturally occurring connections of kith and kin), Mianzi (meaning respect for someone’s personal profile and status) and Renqing (exchange of favours) may challenge important entrepreneurial attributes (Wang *et al.*, 2012), such as internal locus of control, creative thinking and innovativeness, risk-taking propensity, independence from others, tolerance for ambiguity, and recognition of achievement (Au and Kwan, 2009), which fundamentally differ from cultural value systems found in the West (Wah, 2001).

Table 2.3 Entrepreneurship attributes and Chinese cultural values

Entrepreneurship attributes	Chinese cultural values
Entrepreneurial attributes that are incongruent with Chinese cultural values	
Initiative	Achieve harmony relationships with family members, relatives and friends
Networking	Guanxi is more than just networking. It's friendship to facilitate entrepreneurial success
Focus on the individual's ability to find profitable opportunities	Focus on the people who possess control on the financial assets or specific human capital for market entry and gaining access
What you know	Who you know
Positive response to change	Being conservative
High belief in control of one's own life	Obligation to one's family and nation
Risk taking	Golden mean, following the middle way
Entrepreneurial attributes that are congruent with Chinese cultural values	
Hard work	Hard work
Determination	Persistence
Entrepreneurial attributes that are neither congruent nor incongruent with Chinese cultural values	
Creativity and innovativeness	-

(Source: adapted from Wang, 2012 ; Li and Matlay, 2006)

Confucian culture also has a significant impact on Chinese economic life (Chand and Ghorbani, 2011). Entrepreneurial activities are strongly linked to political attitudes and government policy in China. Chinese entrepreneurs are very sensitive to politics and always look to government officials for direction and security (Gerke and Menkhoff, 2003). Innovation and new venture creation typically require a decentralized economy with respect to decision-making, wide access to financing, and flexible organizational controls (Mills, 2019), which run somewhat contrary to China's increasingly centralized and personalized leadership. Moreover, the weak Chinese intellectual property regime remains a major obstacle to domestic investment in research and development (Herrmann-Pillath *et al.*, 2019).

It can be concluded that Confucian values are basically not supportive of entrepreneurship. However, this does not suggest that Chinese values are totally irrelevant to, or not useful for, entrepreneurial development. Chinese culture has some advantages in enhancing entrepreneurship, such as family involvement and financial support, the importance of relationships, trust and social harmony, and achievement-oriented education. As Vuong (2018) states in the study "*Behavioural insights from the interaction of Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism*", apart from Confucianism, there are other values, from Taoism and Buddhism, in Chinese culture. The emphases of these three ideologies are quite different, and these three sets of values are not always consistent with each other, but they all exist and affect Chinese people (Mollier, 2008). They are philosophical beliefs and not religions, so the foundation of Chinese culture has made the Chinese people intensely practical, pragmatic and adaptive. Chinese people have for a significant propensity for absorbing all things that are good and

beneficial (Billioud, 2016). Chinese are good at doing business in a pragmatic fashion and adapting to new environments. These values of interpersonal relations, social and family orientation and work attitude hold the key to understanding the development of entrepreneurship in China.

2.3.4 Overview of higher education in China

Entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour are influenced significantly by the education system that in China may be considered traditional and somewhat inflexible. The system is encapsulated in the National College Entrance Examination, commonly known as the Gaokao, which emphasizes repetition and memorization over critical thinking. The Gaokao determines students' major and career options (Huang, 2003). Due to the restrictive learning methods and time-consuming test preparation, it weakens students' innovative abilities and creativity (Yang, 2018). It is contrary to the free-thinking, risk-taking, creative nature of an entrepreneur.

The history of modern higher education in China is considerably shorter than the history of higher education in the West and other developed countries (Kang, 2004). However, since ancient times, people in China had the tradition of respecting teachers and education. Two thousand years ago, Confucius (551 – 479 BC), the well-known Chinese thinker and educator, initiated private schools and advocated free teaching and learning (Mok, 2009). In 1966, the Cultural Revolution (1966 - 1976) terminated all formal education and left an entire generation uneducated. The Cultural Revolution has to be one of the biggest disruptions to education in the modern world. More than one million schools and China's 43 universities at the time were made to stop classes in 1966. Schools reopened only in 1969, and colleges in 1970. A total of 107 million school students and 534,000 college students were impacted. Ten years after the Revolution, in 1977, the National College Entrance Examination (Gaokao) was resumed and universities opened again (Wu and Zheng, 2008). With the government launching the open-door policy in 1978, China's education system speeded up its own reform and development.

China's economic reforms have provided a basis for higher education reforms. The continuous reform has occurred in three phases: (i) 1993 – 2002, when the Outline for Education Reform and Development in China was issued; (ii) 2003 – 2007, when the Action Plan for Invigorating Education was issued; and (iii) 2010 – 2020, when the Outline for Medium- and Long-term Education Reform and Development was issued (Price, 2017). The reforms have guided the expansion of the mass higher education system and the development of internationally

recognised universities and has established the legal framework within which the higher education system operates. This period has also seen the implementation of quality assurance systems, the introduction of market mechanisms, and an increased interest in international cooperation in higher education (Gu *et al.*, 2018).

Students in China gain access to higher education through the Gaokao, which is normally taken in their last year of secondary school. The Chinese higher education sector comprises over 2,000 institutions, known as regular institutions, which recruit students from a national quota for higher education (Chen and Macfarlane, 2015). The recruitment process is hierarchical and sequential, and degree-awarding institutions are divided into three tiers, Tier 1, Tier 2 and Tier 3, depending on their quality and public recognition (Liu and Su, 2016).

2.3.5 Overview of entrepreneurship education in China

Recently, the Chinese government has recognized the benefits of entrepreneurship as a source of innovation and change as well as being a key driving force behind productivity and economic competitiveness (Lin and Xu, 2017). According to the “*Outline of China's National Plan for Medium- and Long-term Education Reform and Development*” (2010-2020) (Dou, 2019), among the major tasks listed are the reform of entrepreneurship training and development, increased effort in regard to innovation and entrepreneurship, and prioritisation of entrepreneurship education. According to the policy, a new innovation and entrepreneurship education system will be established in 2020, highlighting the integration of classroom training, independent learning, practice and guidance (Lu, 2016).

China is, however, still at a nascent stage in entrepreneurship education compared to developed countries (Chen *et al.*, 2018). Initially, entrepreneurship education in China emerged from management education and selective Master of Business Administration (MBA) modules (Zhu *et al.*, 2017). The first MBA program in China was launched in Tsinghua University in 1991, which is relatively late in a global context, as the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration established its first MBA program in 1908 (Li and Li, 2015). It was not until April 2002 that the Chinese Ministry of Education started entrepreneurship education pilot courses at nine colleges and universities, while the first entrepreneurship education in the world took place in 1927 when the University of Michigan (U.S) offered the first entrepreneurship education course *Small Business Management*, comprised of modules such as *Family Business* and *New Enterprises* (Nabi, 2017) .

Although entrepreneurship education in China had a relatively late start it has developed rapidly (Nieuwenhuizen, 2016). It has already experienced four stages of development, starting with (i) the extracurricular activities stage (student business plan competitions), when Tsinghua University started the first business plan competition as the earliest entrepreneurship education attempt in China in 1998 (Cui *et al.*, 2019). Then (ii) the entrepreneurship education pilot programmes stage involving nine universities – namely Tsinghua University, Renmin University of China, Beijing Aeronautics and Astronautics University, Shanghai Jiangtong University, Nanjing University of Economics, Wuhan University, Xian Jiaotong University, Northwest University and Heilongjiang University – who provided basic entrepreneurship education pilot programmes in 2002 that had been initiated by the Ministry of Education in China (Matlay, 2016). Then (iii) the promotion stage was the “Know about your business” (KAB) pilot entrepreneurship education programme launched by the International Labour Organisation to raise entrepreneurial awareness and enhance entrepreneurial competence and capabilities of undergraduate students in China (Bakar *et al.*, 2015). Then (iv) the advocated stage began in 2012 with the Ministry of Education in China promoting the popularity of entrepreneurship education as an essential requirement in higher education. All colleges and universities are now required to offer courses on entrepreneurship and make them part of their curriculum (OECD, 2019). The Ministry of Education required universities to provide entrepreneurship courses lasting no less than 32 hours for two credits (Kim *et al.*, 2019) and now entrepreneurship education has become mandatory for universities. Indeed, China has recently launched a “*Mass Entrepreneurship and Innovation*” campaign and invested heavily in universities (DRC, 2019). Many universities incorporate entrepreneurship education into their development plan through setting-up innovation and entrepreneurship research centres, science and technology zones, university science parks, start-up incubator units, entrepreneurship demonstration centres, vocational school training bases, and various research and development centres, which can provide students with an environment that fosters creativity (X. Li, 2019).

Currently, there are three main modes of entrepreneurship education in China. The first one is the combination of classroom and practical activities, which typically takes the form of lectures, student business plan competitions, entrepreneurial projects, and social organization activities (S. Lin, 2019). The second mode is the establishment of research centres, university science parks, and innovation and entrepreneurship incubator units (Gao, 2017). The third mode is through occasional part-time work placements and work-related internships to promote students' awareness of entrepreneurship, improve students' entrepreneurial knowledge and cultivate their entrepreneurial qualities and skills (Chang, 2018).

However, the entrepreneurship education and training currently utilized in Chinese universities is still limited and in its infancy (Wu and Chia-Hung, 2018). The weak links in entrepreneurship education in Chinese universities are primarily reflected in four areas. First, according to a recent survey on entrepreneurship and student start-ups by Renmin University of China, China lacks a mature, independent, practical and systematic entrepreneurship education approach (Shi, 2019). Most institutions have unclear goals in terms of innovation and entrepreneurship education due to constraints imposed on the programmes by the strictures associated with the traditional education system that still remains in operation in most universities (Lin, 2018). Second, as noted by Tang (2014) in a study on entrepreneurship education in four universities and including 350 undergraduate students in Sichuan, China, current entrepreneurship education in Chinese universities does not promote an entrepreneurial mindset, entrepreneurial interests and expectations among students. Students' understanding of innovation and entrepreneurship is not enough as they connect entrepreneurship education only with successful entrepreneurs instead of entrepreneurial spirit and competences (Matlay, 2019). Third, the lack of competent teachers in many universities makes it impossible to guide students to a proper understanding of innovation and entrepreneurship education. Many teachers can offer support from only a theoretical perspective with no real-life experience (Fu, 2019). Fourth, Chinese university entrepreneurship education does not fully satisfy students' needs (Bao, 2015). There is a shortage of support mechanisms for entrepreneurship education. Students usually start with a new product or service concept, but don't understand the process of starting a new business, including team building, marketing and financing (Yang and Zhou, 2018).

The institutional landscape in China is different from developed countries and this has had a dramatic effect on entrepreneurship in China (Ding, 2017). Chinese entrepreneurship education is influenced by the Chinese political situation and system and it has financial backing from the government (Du *et al.*, 2018). Chinese entrepreneurship education is subject to a government “top-down” approach for allocating funds and resources for entrepreneurship education, while the Western countries use a more “bottom-up” approach with universities actively seeking funds from government and industry to create entrepreneurship programs according to their individual needs, time and situation (Zhao, 2019).

As the Chinese Premier Keqiang Li said at the Summer meeting of the G7 at Davos in September 2018 (Xinhuanet, 2019): “... *the central government and higher education institutions should create an environment for college and high school graduates, people studying overseas, and migrant workers returning to the countryside to participate in innovation, so as to create jobs and wealth and fulfil their value.*” Good entrepreneurship

education can bring entrepreneurial success, help promote entrepreneurial culture, and stimulate entrepreneurship (Weiming *et al.*, 2016). Recognising the weaknesses of entrepreneurship education in China, the Government needs to raise the status of entrepreneurship education and encourage students to be more innovative and creative.

2.4 International Education

2.4.1 History and development of international education of Chinese students

There are generally thought to have been five waves of Chinese studying abroad (Gungwu, 2007; Choudaha, 2017). (i) The first wave was between 1854 – 1900; at that time, the imperial Qing government developed a 15-year plan to send out young Chinese male students for overseas education (La Fargue, 1987). Starting from 1873, groups of students were sent to the US with an average age of 12. However, this overseas education plan was terminated by the Chinese government after 10 years of implementation (Worthy, 1965). Although the total number of this generation of students was small, below 200 in total, many of the graduates played a key role in the development of modern China in terms of transportation, communications, government and higher education as variously the first designer of the Chinese railway, the first Republic's premier, the first Chinese university president of Peking University, and the first founder of the Western Returned Scholars Association (WRSA) (Ching-hwang, 1998). (ii) The second wave was between 1900 – 1927. Many students studied in Japan, Europe and Russia, and this group launched the New Culture Movement in China. Many academics in modern Chinese literature as well as Chinese political leaders came from this generation (Ryan and Slethaug, 2010). The first president of the Kuomintang (KMT), which was a Chinese political party that ruled China from 1927 - 1948, and of the Communist Party of China (CCP), came from this generation (Liu, 2012). (iii) The third wave was between 1927 – 1949. This generation of sojourning students studied mainly in Europe and the US. This group generated many Chinese scientists, educationalists, artists, state leaders and politicians (Xiao-hong, 2010). They led the development of China's nuclear bomb and space industries and worked in the newly established universities in China. (iv) The fourth wave was between 1949 – 1978. Since the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949, the economy of China used to be highly centralised and tightly controlled by the Communist Party, and few people had access to international education (Ge, 2011). Those who had a chance to study abroad were restricted to the Soviet Union and some other eastern European socialist countries. However, as a result of the Cultural Revolution in China between 1966 and 1976, communication with the outside world was minimal and international education was interrupted (Chen, 2008). There were almost no students who could study overseas and those

who had studied overseas were severely criticized and punished. (v) The fifth wave started in 1978 and continues to the present day. Since 1978, Chinese international education has become an emerging global phenomenon (Zhang *et al.*, 2011). In 1978, the Chinese government announced economic reforms and the open-door policy, which opened China to the rest of the world. After this reform, China developed a market economy with Chinese characteristics. Apart from the growth of the economy, the Chinese government also extended the open-door policy into the field of education (Hayhoe, 2016). Students and scholars studying abroad have seen rapid developments. The Chinese students have received higher education in developed countries, such as the USA, UK, Canada, Australia, Japan and other European countries (Boisot and Meyer, 2008). Communication with the outside world has increased. China has sent more students overseas than any other country in the world. According to the Ministry of Education in China, a total of 5.86 million Chinese students studied abroad from 1978 to the end of 2018. More than 4.32 million completed their studies, and more than 3.65 million chose to return to China after completing their studies (Chao *et al.*, 2019).

Today, Chinese students travel to more than 108 countries and regions all over the world and study almost all disciplines (Lin, 2019). According to statistics from China's Ministry of Education (MOE, 2022) up to 2019, the number of Chinese students studying abroad had been increasing. In 2019, about 703,500 Chinese students left China to study overseas. This is an increase of 6.25% compared to the previous year, making China the world's largest source of international students. According to estimates, the figure for 2020 has been reduced by approximately half due to the coronavirus pandemic. Moreover, in 2019, of the students studying abroad, 33.48 per cent do so after graduating from high school in China, 47.31 per cent of student's study abroad after graduating from university in China, and 5.59 per cent of students went abroad after master's study in China. The UK is the most popular destination for high school and undergraduate students from China with 106,530 attending university in the UK in 2017/18. Most of the students funded their studies themselves, accounting for 90 per cent of the total students and 59.16 per cent are female (China daily, 2019). The average age of undergraduate students is 24.04 years old, 26.56 years for a master's degree and 32.09 years for a doctoral degree. There are also trends evident in the degrees undertaken by Chinese students (CEAIE, 2019), with engineering and business management the most popular degrees chosen by students. Further, subjects relating to business management, trade, corporate management and finance have increased in popularity as development in China has created more demand for professionals in these fields (CEE, 2019).

One possible explanation for growth in the numbers of Chinese students studying abroad is that the cost of studying abroad has become increasingly more affordable due to the booming economy in China (Cebolla-Boado *et al.*, 2018). Another possible reason is related to China's graduate unemployment rate. According to the Chinese Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security, unemployment has become a serious social issue in China in recent years. Indeed, 4.30 per cent of the Chinese workforce was unemployed in December 2009 and such a high figure has caused students to look for ways to differentiate themselves in the job market (Chen, 2018). Indeed, now many Chinese students choose to go overseas in order to increase their chances of employment after graduation.

The internationalisation of higher education is an important element of the current Chinese higher education system (Wu, 2019). It serves various purposes for the country as a whole as well as for the individual students. At the country level, it creates a core group of specialists and experts, who will play a key role in the modernization of the country. Returnees bring with them advanced knowledge and technologies as well as ideas that improve the traditional Chinese education system (J. Li, 2019). At the student level, the experience of overseas study broadens peoples' perspectives as well as improving their language and technical skills and so improves peoples career and life opportunities (Zhu and Li, 2018).

2.4.2 Trans-National Education (TNE)

Higher education institutions get involved in internationalisation in different ways, from student exchange programmes to cross-border collaborative arrangements (Kosmützky and Putty, 2016). Recently, there has been significant growth in the number of students studying in their home country with foreign higher education institutions operating outside their country, a format that is referred to as Trans-National Education (TNE) (Banner, 2016). The market for TNE has doubled in size since 2000 and continues to grow steadily. TNE has become a market driven activity that promotes multiculturalism, diversity and internationalization among students (Wilkins, 2016).

According to the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) in the UK, Trans-National Education (TNE) is defined as *“the provision of education by one country in another country, and in the present context it refers to the provision of higher education programmes in China that lead to the awards of UK universities or colleges”*. This form of education has dramatically changed in scope and scale over the last decade (Walley *et al.*, 2017). Higher education institutions in China now offer a multitude of transnational education programmes

through a diverse and complex range of delivery modes including overseas campuses, franchising, dual and joint awards, flying faculty, and distance learning (Knight, 2016).

TNE embraces a wide range of modes (Robert and Yu, 2018) including: (i) the joint-venture institution; (ii) the secondary college, which is a separate institution that is affiliated to the Chinese partner; (iii) the double campus where students start their programme with the Chinese partner, but then are required to transfer to the foreign institution to complete their programme with the foreign partner; (iv) the joint programme in which students generally complete their entire programme with the Chinese partner; (v) the distance-learning programme, in which the students study programme materials, either alone or with the assistance of a support centre; and (vi) the advanced professional programme, which is a postgraduate programme offered on a part-time basis to managers in employment (He, 2016).

Since the 1970s, the number of students studying abroad has increased considerably worldwide (Keevers *et al.*, 2019). In 2017, approximately five million higher education students were enrolled in studies outside their home country (Wilkins, 2018). The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has estimated that the total number of international students will reach eight million by 2025 (Healey and Michael, 2015).

Having recognised the inherent weaknesses in their own higher education system and also in response to globalisation, higher education institutions in China increasingly recognise the value of building partnerships with foreign institutions and one of the main mechanisms for this transformation is TNE (Phan, 2016). Cooperation between Chinese educational institutions and other foreign countries started in the 1990s and has developed considerably over the past three decades. These educational joint ventures have become a major part of China's higher education system (Ahamer, 2015). To standardise this kind of transnational cooperation, the State Council of the Chinese Government authorized the "*Regulations of the People's Republic of China on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools*" in 2003. These regulations acknowledge that high-quality cooperation in the field of higher education and vocational education have economic, political and cultural benefits for both institutions and students (Qi, 2015). In 2010, the Chinese government published the '*National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020)*', which shows that the Chinese government will encourage its schools and institutions to conduct international cooperation in various ways (Heffernan *et al.*, 2018). Premier Keqiang Li has also put TNE in the list of priority areas and industries for China. The trend for Chinese students to study abroad has developed over several decades but most recently received fresh impetus when the Chinese government adopted the *Belt and Road initiative*, which encourages collaboration

between Chinese and foreign higher education institutions (Hu and Willis, 2017). China is currently the largest exporter of international students with 15.2 per cent of all students enrolled in higher education outside their home country (Cockayne, 2018). China is supporting TNE as a means of capacity-building, especially with regard to the development of the current education system and the development of teaching and research staff (Zhang and Heydon, 2016).

China operates a system whereby the Ministry of Education 'authorises' TNE programmes. Both partners would normally be degree-awarding institutions (Zhang and Heydon, 2016). A common arrangement is offering a double degree, in which two separate degrees are awarded by the respective partner institutions. Chinese students within the higher education quota are eligible for such a double degree, and both degrees have full recognition in China (Shams, 2017). Off-quota Chinese students are not eligible to be awarded the Chinese degree, so may only be awarded the degree of the foreign institution. There are now more than 1,000 TNE programmes formally registered with the Chinese Ministry of Education. 800 of these programmes are based on undergraduate courses and 25 per cent of these involve UK universities (Tang and Tang, 2019). Indeed, today 55 per cent of Chinese students studying in the UK start their studies in a TNE program so it would appear that the UK has become a preferred partner for Chinese institutions (de Souza-Daw, 2019). The UK attracts many Chinese students because of the good-quality education and a stable political relationship with China. Higher education in the UK is associated with developing intelligence, abstract thinking, curiosity, problem solving, critical thinking, discipline, motivation and self-confidence (Gu and Schweisfurth, 2015). There are a variety of forms of transnational education (See Table 2.4), but, both for recruitment and educational reasons, articulation programmes at undergraduate level are one of the most common forms of collaboration between China and the UK (Zhuang and Tang, 2012). These are programmes whereby Chinese students, recruited through the Gaokao, study in a Chinese institution for one to three years, then progress to a partner institution in the UK to complete their studies (Hu *et al.*, 2019). This is the type of programme investigated in this thesis because of its common use and because of ease of access to sample groups.

Table 2.4 Current practices and activities in TNE between China and the UK

Programmes	Modalities	Qualifications
Franchising	An institution in the UK (the franchiser) grants a Chinese university the right to deliver the franchiser's educational programmes in China or other countries. Students undertake the entire programme in China or a third country	Awarded by the franchiser in the UK
Twinning Degrees	An arrangement where an institution in the UK collaborates with another institution in China allowing students studying at the latter institution to transfer their course credits to the institution in the UK.	Awarded by the institution in the UK
Programme Articulations	Students undertake part of a British qualification in China and then transfer to the British institution with 'advanced standing' in terms of study credits and credit transfer to complete the qualification at the British institution in the UK	Awarded by the institution in the UK or joint/double degrees from both institutions.
Branch Campus	A subsidiary/satellite campus is established by a British education institution in China to deliver its own education programmes, via joint venture partnerships with local Chinese partners	Awarded by the institution in the UK. (graduation certificates are normally awarded by the joint venture)

(Source: Adapted from Tu, 2019)

2.4.3 Chinese returnees

With the increase in the numbers of sojourning students and returnees the latter group are now commonly recognised as a new social phenomenon (Ma, 2019). Scholars from different disciplines have paid increasing attention to the importance of returnees, people who have studied in other countries (typically in developed countries), and then returned to their home countries after graduation (normally developing or emerging economies) (Li *et al.*, 2018). "Haigui" is the Chinese term given to Chinese returnees, indicating those Chinese students who have returned to China after having studied abroad for years (Zhu, 2018). This is a very popular term in China today as the number of returnees has increased rapidly over the past 30 years, and they have emerged to become a significant group in China. With the fast pace of economic growth in China, more and more Chinese students are returning to China to work for existing organisations or to start their own businesses.

2.4.4 Returnee entrepreneurs

Over the past three decades, an increasing number of Chinese returnees have been involved in starting up businesses or becoming entrepreneurs (Qin *et al.*, 2017). A possible explanation for this might be that the combination of new knowledge, skills and attitudes learned abroad together with obstacles to satisfying employment create, respectively, "pull" and "push" factors inclining returnees towards entrepreneurship. They are pursuing new business developments

and running start-up businesses. With China opening up to the outside world, the Chinese returnee entrepreneurs have become a major force in enterprise and globalization in China (Armanios *et al.*, 2017).

Bruton *et al.* (2018) argue that returnee entrepreneurs (i) often take advantage of the cutting-edge technology that they encountered while studying abroad in their business and (ii) contribute to creativity and professional skills in the Chinese market. Even if it is not the latest worldwide technology, it is at least new to China (Wang and Liu, 2016). Local entrepreneurs, by comparison, rely more on social connections and personal networks (Guanxi) than on innovative practices. The returnee entrepreneurs have created businesses in many sectors including new technologies, the Internet, telecommunications, media and education (Lin, 2015). According to NASDAQ Data (NASDAQ, 2015), out of the 30 Chinese companies listed on the NASDAQ in 2015, only one did not have any returnees among its senior leadership or management group, and around one-third of the Chinese companies listed on the NASDAQ were led by returnee entrepreneurs.

In addition, 48 per cent of returnee entrepreneurs started their business in 2017 compared to 18 per cent of returnees starting their business in 2016, 9 per cent in 2015, and 25 per cent before 2015 respectively (CCG, 2019). Moreover, the top three industries in which returnee entrepreneurs operate are (i) information transmission, software and information technology services, (ii) wholesale and retail (15 per cent), and (iii) education, accommodation and catering (11 per cent). The top two industries are dominated by male entrepreneurs while in the third it is females that dominate. When asked about their motives for starting their own business, 30 per cent of returnee entrepreneurs agreed that *“the subject I learn from study abroad is closely related to the entrepreneurial industry”*; 24 per cent agreed that they *“share the same entrepreneurial philosophy with the main business partner”*; 17 per cent agreed that *“the current industry is a hot industry for entrepreneurship in China”*; 11 per cent agreed that *it is to do with “family business background”*; and 6 per cent agreed that it is associated with *“related technical patents, national or local development plans matching”* or *“personal interest”*. Women entrepreneurs were more concerned that their business was relevant to the subject they studied while abroad, current trends in the industry, and the family business background. The main sources of funds for returnee entrepreneurs were *“personal savings”* and *“friends, family, and relatives’ loans or grants”*, which accounted for 72 per cent and 31 per cent respectively. Only 6 per cent of returnees had secured bank loans and an even smaller proportion (4 per cent) had sought venture capital. Female entrepreneurs were more dependent on personal savings and loans or grants from family and friends, while male entrepreneurs prefer to attract investment.

Furthermore, according to the “*Report on employment and entrepreneurship of Chinese returnees 2018*” (CCG, 2019), the main difficulty encountered in the process of returnee entrepreneurship is high operating costs (56 per cent), which indicates that China’s main comparative advantage (low-costs) is being eroded because of years of rapidly rising wages. China is losing its edge in some labour-intensive sectors (Yang *et al.*, 2010). The proportion reporting insufficient understanding of the domestic market is 38 per cent, and the proportion reporting financing difficulties is 37 per cent. Related entrepreneurial services are not in place (27 per cent), government related policies are not well matched (21 per cent), technical achievements are difficult to capitalize (13 per cent), domestic R&D level is not supported (8 per cent), and corporate internationalization is difficult (6 per cent) are also major concerns. Returnee entrepreneurs have also ranked the sources of support needed for the start-up phase. They need market development support (41 per cent), entrepreneurial support (35 per cent), financial services and professional support (34 per cent), followed by human resources services (20 per cent), patent protection (15 per cent), technology research and development (14 per cent), legal support (11 per cent), consulting management services (8 per cent), tax incentives (8 per cent), technology transfer (7 per cent) and other supporting policies (3 per cent).

In order to encourage overseas educated graduates back to China, the Chinese government has introduced a series of preferential policies many of which are intended to boost entrepreneurship (Mayer *et al.*, 2015). Chinese central and local governments as well as enterprises and institutions have all come up with supportive policies for returnee entrepreneurs (Liu, 2019). For example, by developing enterprise parks specifically for those returned from overseas studies to start their own business and providing funds for returnee entrepreneurs to start their own businesses (Hemmer *et al.*, 2019). At the end of 2008, the central government in China initiated “*The recruitment program of global experts*”, also known as “*the thousand talents plan*” (1000plan, 2019). It is currently being carried out through six subprojects, which include: (i) the recruitment program for innovative talents; (ii) the recruitment program for entrepreneurs; (iii) the recruitment program for young professionals; (iv) the innovative talents recruitment program; (v) the recruitment program for foreign experts; (vi) the recruitment program for top-notch talents and teams. From 2008 to 2015, the program has introduced 5,208 high level talent projects from overseas, funded 307 returnee entrepreneurs in high-tech enterprises, and invested 70 million Chinese yuan in total (Zhou, 2017).

The Chinese government also offers incentives to returnee entrepreneurs to start businesses in larger cities, which they would not have been able to access without their international education (Zheng, 2018). By 2018, the Chinese government had set up more than 350 venture parks throughout China for Chinese returnee entrepreneurs with more than 100 located in Beijing. More than one thousand returnee entrepreneurs move to Beijing every year for business and personal development (Wu and Ma, 2018). Returnee entrepreneurs will be provided with grants and incentives such as free or discounted offices, tax-free cars, grant funding and certain tax exemptions for starting their own businesses. By 2018, there were 27,000 companies founded by Chinese returnee entrepreneurs and 79,000 returnees working in 350 enterprise parks around the country (Liu and Huang, 2018). The start-ups established by the returnees are focused on new biological and pharmaceutical engineering, new generation information technology, trade, wholesale and retail, high-end equipment manufacturing, creative cultural industries, energy conservation and the environmental protection industry. They are entering new industries such as the Internet, new energy, robotics and big data, which is different to the past when most returnee entrepreneurs chose to start their business in the finance and science sectors (Tripathy and Pandey, 2019). The new ventures not only bring in advanced technology and skills but also create more job opportunities for domestic graduates.

Some researchers (Estrin *et al.*, 2019), however, have argued that there is a gap between the skills and knowledge acquired by returnee entrepreneurs and the capacity of local human capital. The link between Chinese universities, research institutes, and industries is generally weak (Xing *et al.*, 2018); also, research programs are connected with government funding bodies vertically, rather than horizontally, and this means that cooperation between research and industry is less effective.

Indeed, Chinese returnee entrepreneurs have distinct advantages and disadvantages compared with their local counterparts (Jiang and Shen, 2019). Advantages include the government's policy, which created a positive external environment, language and cross-culture communications skills, global perspectives, more adaptability and independence, and critical thinking capability (Zweig, 2019). Disadvantages include the lack of opportunity to witness the latest local changes and a lack of updated local knowledge and local networks (Guanxi) (Fang, 2019). In recent years an increasing number of returnees have been returning to China to fulfil their entrepreneurial ambitions (Fuller, 2019). More and more returnees see China as a land of opportunities for starting their own business as the central government's policy aims to encourage innovation and entrepreneurship. Returnee entrepreneurs are positively influencing the Chinese globalization process (Huang *et al.*, 2019).

More recently, the China-US trade war has alarmed the Chinese government, as currently the Chinese economy lacks the capacity to undertake innovation (Lin and Plechero, 2019). As a result, the central government has initiated policies to attract Chinese returnees through boosting investment in science and technology as well as providing incentives for high-skilled entrepreneurs (Bai *et al.*, 2019). In general, China's current preferential policies, together with China's huge market, have created many opportunities for overseas educated graduates to open their own businesses in China. Consequently, this has led to an increase in the number of overseas Chinese students returning home and starting their own business after graduation (He *et al.*, 2019). They have their own competitive advantages in term of knowledge, innovation and creative thinking, their international perspective, their cross-cultural competences, their experience in the global environment and knowledge of customs rules (Yan, 2018). The contribution of returnee entrepreneurs not only includes their potential boost to the Chinese economy, but also includes their capability to bring new technology, introduce western culture, ideas and values, fresh ideas, new advanced management concepts and styles, new ways of financing, and international business practices to China through the creation of new ventures, which are important for the development of entrepreneurship in China (Lin *et al.*, 2018).

2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter sought to review the literature on entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship in China, and international education.

Literature reviews are, in effect, secondary research and like all other forms of research are subject to inherent limitations. Indeed, the main limitations of secondary research are that the data obtained does not exactly address the issues, because the studies on which it is based had aims and objectives that are different to those of the current study and that the accuracy and relevance of the data has been reduced by the passing of time (Jabareen, 2009). On the other hand, however, secondary research can extend the researcher's knowledge and understanding of a subject (Fendt and Sachs, 2008) as well as being used to establish a *framework* that can be tested via primary research (Schmitt *et al.*, 2018) which is the case in respect of this study.

Having reviewed the literature on entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship in China, and international education it is apparent that few studies have explored the general profiles of students going abroad, their entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial and entrepreneurial behaviour in later life.

Specifically, there is no study looking at the effect of the sojourn abroad experience on the entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour of Chinese university students. It is, however, possible to use the existing literature to create a *framework* to assist with structuring the analysis, interpreting the findings, and explaining the contribution made by this study and this will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 3 Developing the Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

The chapter begins by looking at the relationship between entrepreneurship and international education, the relationship is then considered through the lens of the *Theory of Planned Behaviour*. The narrative then introduces the *General measure of Enterprising Tendency* (GET) test which also contributes to the design of the *Provisional Theoretical Framework*. Finally, an *Extended Theoretical Framework* is proposed along with a series of corresponding research questions and hypotheses, which will enable aspects of the model to be subsequently tested.

3.2 Entrepreneurship and the conjectured link with foreign sojourns

The literature review underpinning this study provided some useful information regarding the relationship between entrepreneurship and international education and it is clear that both entrepreneurship and international education play an important role in a nation's economy and its society. However, there were two areas where the literature was deficient, and which might usefully be the focus of primary research.

The first area which might usefully be researched is that of the foreign sojourn and the conjectured link with entrepreneurial proclivity. The literature suggests that the psychological capital of entrepreneurs is very similar to that of students who sojourn for international education in terms of character traits. Independence, innovative and creative tendencies, internal locus of control, need for achievement, need for autonomy, openness and risk-taking propensity are personality traits associated with both entrepreneurs and students with international educational experience (Whalen, 2015). In addition, while it is well recognised that entrepreneurs are calculated risk-takers, studying and living abroad is full of uncertainty, and sojourning students need to be prepared to take risks in unfamiliar situations.

Further, the literature suggests that the socio-economic factors such as family background, parental education level, and household income are known to have an impact on entrepreneurship and the decision to become an entrepreneur (van der Zwan, 2016). Similarly, students from wealthier, better-educated parents are more likely to sojourn abroad and receive financial support to make studying abroad financially viable (Awang, 2018). Indeed, they are also more likely to have previous experience of travelling abroad for holidays, summer camps and courses (Luo and Jamieson-Drake, 2015). The first key question is "*What are the effects*

of overseas study experiences on the entrepreneurial proclivity and behaviour of Chinese university students?”

The second area that might usefully be researched, is that of the *cause-and-effect* issue with regard to the sojourn for international education and the conjectured link with entrepreneurial proclivity. The research that has focused on international education and entrepreneurial proclivity is limited and subject to some criticism. According to Wang *et al.* (2011), the area is weak because to date there have been few studies that have adopted a longitudinal approach to enable before and after “international education” treatment and comparison groups to ascertain the impact of the sojourn. Additionally little previous research focuses on developing countries like China. The second key question then is *“Does the foreign sojourn help develop entrepreneurial proclivity or is it the other way around, i.e., are students with entrepreneurial proclivity more likely to engage in foreign sojourns?”*

In order to address these key questions, the discussion will now consider the key theories which might serve as a lens through which to view the issues.

3.3 Theory of planned behaviour

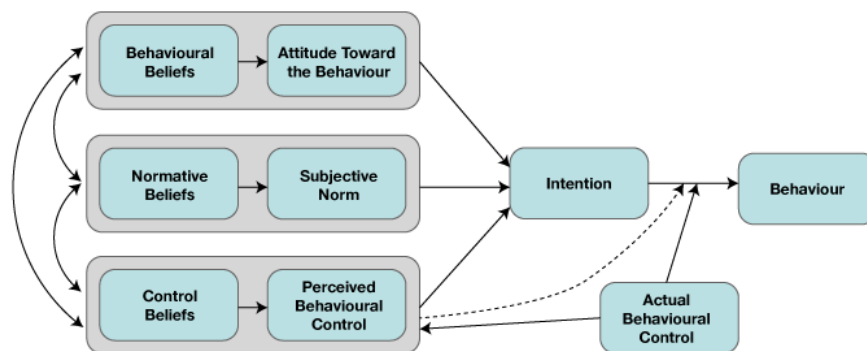
The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) is a social cognitive theory used to explain human intention and behaviour (Ajzen and Driver, 1992). TPB is summarised in Figure 3.1. It aims to explain “behaviour” in terms of “intention”. Intention can be directly predicted by three key components – attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control – or indirectly predicted by relevant beliefs regarding these three components, which are behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs.

Ajzen (1991) defined the three components and relevant beliefs of TPB as follows. First, “Attitude toward the behaviour” can be defined as human or behavioural beliefs about something. These antecedents will generate positive or negative, good or bad, and pleasant or unpleasant attitudes toward a behaviour. “Behavioural beliefs” can estimate the “Attitude toward the behaviour”, which refers to the likely consequence of a behaviour (Ajzen, 2002).

Secondly, the “Subjective norm” is defined as perceived social pressure by individuals or groups to perform or not to perform the behaviour. The “Subjective norm” refers to influence from significant people such as role models, parents, friends and relatives (Ajzen, 1991). The “Normative beliefs” refer to perceived expectations of the referent individual or group to perform behaviour. “Normative beliefs” are about the normative expectations of other people,

which may take the form of perceived social expectations or social norms. Furthermore, when it comes to performing behaviour, how people are motivated to comply with these referents' expectations must be considered (Ajzen, 1991).

Thirdly, the "Perceived behavioural control" refers to perceived human capability to perform the behaviour; this can substitute for "Actual behavioural control", which may advance or reduce performance of the behaviour. "Control beliefs" reflect "Perceived behavioural control" (Ajzen, 1991) which refers to any aspect of capacity and autonomy which ease or prevent performance of the behaviour.



(Source: adapted from Ajzen, 2002)

Figure 3.1 Theory of planned behaviour model

The TPB is based on the foundational idea that human behaviour is planned and is preceded by intention toward that behaviour. According to the TPB (Ajzen, 1985 and 2020), a person's performance of a specified behaviour is determined by that person's intention to perform the behaviour. Intention is thus assumed to be the antecedent of behaviour. Generally, the stronger the intention to engage in a behaviour, the more likely the person will perform the behaviour. TPB is not without its critics such as Sniehotta *et al.* (2014) who argue that the theory ignores the impact of individual background factors, such as personality and demography that may influence the beliefs people have. On balance, however, TPB is a simple and compelling means of linking intentions to behaviour and, as such, remains a popular means of understanding and predicting people's tendency to engage in various activities which, in the context of this study, explains entrepreneurship as a product of the sojourning students' intention to engage in entrepreneurial activity.

According to the TPB, engaging in entrepreneurship is intentional and, therefore, the intention of launching a new business will be influenced by how personal values and attitudes have been shaped over time. The actual behaviour is eventually influenced by intentions. When the

behaviour under consideration refers to entrepreneurial behaviours, personal attitude towards starting a business refers to individuals' positive or negative feelings about the perceived costs or benefits of being an entrepreneur and whether being an entrepreneur is related to enjoyable behaviours.

3.4 Personal external development

Personal external development is the mechanism that promotes enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention. Personal external development relates to activities such as network building, recognition of windows of opportunities and cultural diversity recognition (Swan *et al.*, 1999). This is consistent with the *Theory of the Social Investment Principle* (Roberts *et al.*, 2005), which argued that even though personality is seen as partially determined by genetics, it also depends on experiences. Indeed, an individual's external development may explain individual differences in personality development, which may be associated with an individual's self-selection to change, rather than passively accepting age-related changes. According to Hutteman *et al.*, (2014), personal external development includes relevant life events, for example, work, study, marriage, family, change of social roles, which require subsequent behavioural changes that have been found to relate to personality development. Hence, sojourning abroad, also referred to as a life event, might catalyse the process in which an individual personality develops over time.

3.5 Enterprising tendency (internal personal characteristics)

Although enterprising tendency is the sum of a person's internal entrepreneurial characteristics and traits, it does not necessarily mean an intention to be entrepreneurial. There are various inhibitors, promoters and catalysts in the development of entrepreneurial intention. Many individuals may theoretically have a desire, and, indeed, the enterprising tendency (internal personal characteristics) to become entrepreneurs, yet, in practice, not all individuals with a given degree of such personality traits will necessarily ever intend to set up a new firm. In other words, not all individuals develop an entrepreneurial intention. The description of the enterprising person is based upon what is known about entrepreneurs, the idea being that the enterprising person exhibits entrepreneurial characteristics and traits (Caird, 2013). An enterprising tendency is defined as the tendency to start up and manage projects. Enterprising tendency may be expressed by starting a business, operating as an intrapreneur within an organisation, or setting up community ventures as a social entrepreneur (Stormer *et al.*, 1999) or volentrepreneur. Yet, the ability to express enterprising tendency may depend on the changing constraints and contexts in a person's life and career. Enterprising

tendency may also change in response to challenges faced at different key phases of life and career development (Cromie and Callaghan, 1997). For the purpose of this study, enterprising tendency is defined as *“the internal personal characteristics that make one person an entrepreneur and another one not an entrepreneur”*.

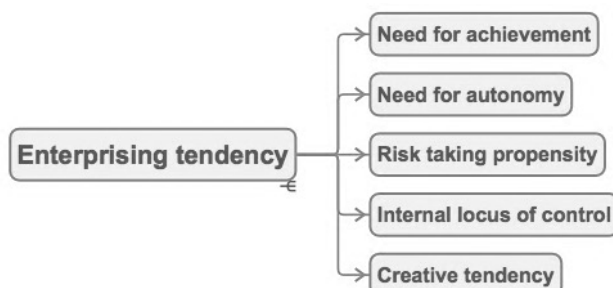
There are different types of entrepreneurs, distinguished by their motivation and type of business, e.g., nascent entrepreneur, innovation-driven entrepreneur, growth-oriented entrepreneur or lifestyle entrepreneur and so on, but they share similar entrepreneurial characteristics (enterprising tendency). Highly enterprising people set up projects more frequently; set up more innovative projects; and are more growth-oriented, which means that they have to be opportunistic and good at utilising human, technological, physical and organisational resources (Holienka and Holienkova, 2014). Additionally, highly enterprising people tend to become entrepreneurs and are more innovative in their behaviour (Ha, 2017). According to Caird (1990), a person who is highly enterprising has the following qualities: (i) a strong need for achievement; (ii) a need for autonomy and to be in charge; (iii) have an internal locus of control and believe that they possess or can gain the qualities to be successful; (iv) are creative or innovative and seek opportunities and use resources to achieve plans; (v) and are willing to take a calculated risk. Indeed, having an enterprising tendency is important for a potential entrepreneur. An entrepreneur may have all the necessary functional business knowledge, but he or she may fail if they do not have the required tendency towards entrepreneurial characteristics. Likewise, not all individuals with a given degree of enterprising tendency (internal personal characteristics) will have the competence to successfully start a business. Someone with high enterprising tendency still needs to develop the entrepreneurial skills, knowledge and experience to be able to start a business. Although enterprising tendency is important for the entrepreneur, starting a new business also requires them to possess business knowledge and skills in product development, feasibility analysis, marketing, finance, human resource management and organizational management.

In addition to defining enterprising tendency, Caird (2013) has also developed an instrument – the General Enterprising Tendency v2 test (GET2) - to measure the level of the key characteristics together with the overall enterprising tendency. Thus, this study adopted Caird's GET2 instrument to investigate the enterprising tendency (internal personal characteristics) of the participants.

3.5.1 General measure of enterprising tendency version 2 (GET2) test

Over the past 30 years, there has been considerable worldwide interest in the General Measure of Enterprising Tendency (GET) test that Dr Sally Caird and Mr Cliff Johnson first designed and tested in 1989 at the University of Durham in the UK (Caird, 1991a). A revised version of the GET test was developed and published in a book on entrepreneurship and innovation edited by Professor Mazzarol of the University of Western Australia and this has been found to be one of the best tests available for measuring entrepreneurial intention (Caird, 2013c; Acharya and Chandral, 2019; Abhayarathne and Kodithuwakku, 2018). Caird (2006) defines enterprising tendency as “*the extent to which an individual has a tendency to set up and run projects*”. It can be understood as the set of psychological characteristics associated with his/her tendency to set up and manage projects. The enterprising person is defined by Caird (1991) as “*someone with a tendency to start up a business and manage the projects*”.

The basic premise of the test is that enterprising people share entrepreneurial characteristics and exhibit high levels of enterprising tendency (Caird, 2006). It measures five entrepreneurial attributes, namely need for achievement, need for autonomy, creative tendency, calculated risk taking and internal locus of control (see Figure 3.2). The test was originally developed from an extensive literature review and an analysis of psychological tests of these selected characteristics (Caird, 2013). The test is comprehensive, accessible, and easy to administer and score. The GET2 test has been widely used with an average of 2000 users per month and the test has been adopted by over 80 institutions and organisations in over 30 countries (Dada *et al.*, 2015). The test has criterion and convergent validity, good internal consistency, and was tested with entrepreneurs and other occupational groups, which established construct validity and reliability. It has been extensively validated and recommended by academics as being both reliable and internally consistent (Abhayarathne and Kodithuwakku, 2018).



(Source: adapted from Caird, 2013)

Figure 3.2 Enterprising tendencies and dimensions

Puustinen and Rouet (2009) suggest that non-experts are right to consider using a ready-made test for assessments and, as the aim of this study is to find out what is the effect of overseas study opportunities on the entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) of Chinese students who have the opportunity to study in the UK, the GET2 Test is a good means to measure student's enterprising tendency. Specifically, the test was used to determine whether there are any differences between domestic students who study wholly in China and sojourning students before and after they study abroad.

- **Reliability and validity**

The GET2 Test was selected for use in this study because it had been pre-validated by a number of different researchers in the past (Ha, 2017). Although Caird (2012) acknowledges that the GET2 test has been used mainly in education to stimulate discussion and personal reflection concerning enterprise, in recent years the GET2 test has generated considerable interest amongst researchers working in higher educational institutions and universities. The GET2 test has been widely used for educational purposes with students, school pupils and participants on enterprise training courses (Abhayarathne and Kodithuwakku, 2018). Acharya and Chandra (2019) suggest that the GET2 test is an eminently suitable instrument for assessing enterprising tendency as it is comprehensive and accessible as well as being easy to administer and score.

Numerous researchers have published papers based on results obtained by using the GET2 test on different populations and the general consensus is that the GET2 test has criterion and convergent validity as well as good internal consistency. For example, Caird (1991b) performed a study with business owners, managers, teachers, nurses, civil servants and lecturers. Stormer *et al.* (1999) used the GET test on a sample of new and successful business owners. Mazzarol (2007) studied Australian MBA students' enterprising tendency using the GET2 test. Kirby and Ibrahim (2011) generated comparative data obtained with the GET2 test from Egyptian and British management students. Sethu, (2012) conducted research on students studying engineering, hotel management, management, pharmacology and medicine at Manipal University in Karnataka. Demirci (2013) conducted a comparative study between Canadian and Turkish students enrolled on business management courses. Ishiguro (2015) made use of the GET2 test in a study of Japanese high-school students. Jayapriya *et al.* (2019) used the GET2 test in the Indian weaving industry. Erogul (2019) conducted a study based on the GET2 test to construct female entrepreneurial identity in Turkey. However, an extensive review of the literature as well as personal communication with Dr Sally Caird suggests that to date no studies have been conducted using the GET test in China. There is

a research gap that has not been addressed so far in the Chinese context; thus, this study intends to address this issue by using GET to measure the enterprising tendency of Chinese university students.

3.6 Entrepreneurial intention

Entrepreneurial intention is an important variable for predicting an individual's entrepreneurial behaviour. Entrepreneurial intention and the intention to act entrepreneurially at some point in the future is the step before entrepreneurial behaviour. However, as with many other entrepreneurial concepts there is no one accepted definition of entrepreneurial intention (Fini *et al.*, 2009). Bird (1988) classically defines entrepreneurial intention as a state of mind that directs and guides the behaviour of an entrepreneur to develop and implement a new business concept. The entrepreneurial intention of a person is a mental orientation such as a desire, wish or hope influencing his/her choice to engage in entrepreneurship. More recently, Matlay *et al.* (2014) defined entrepreneurial intention as a personal orientation that might lead to venture creation. It is considered a personal orientation towards owning a business or becoming self-employed in the future. Similarly, Ibrahim and Masud (2016: 230) define entrepreneurial intention as "*the intention to start a new business*". The decision to become an entrepreneur and create a new business is a conscious decision that requires time, considerable planning and a high degree of cognitive processing. Given these different definitions, this study simply defines entrepreneurial intention as "*an individual's desire and determination to engage in new venture creation*".

Various researchers (e.g. Dawson and Henley, 2012; Ismail *et al.*, 2012) have shown that the intention to establish a new enterprise is a product of both "push" and "pull" factors. (See Table 3.1) The push factors generally refer to negative influences such as unemployment or loss of employment that force people to become entrepreneurs (Zainuddin and Ismail, 2011). Some individuals are pushed towards entrepreneurship due to negative developments in their career plans or dissatisfaction with existing working conditions. In addition, entrepreneurial intentions can be caused by subjective reasons such as the expectation of parents, family and relatives, and from other important people close to the entrepreneur (Hughes, 2003). This category of entrepreneur is referred to as being "necessity" entrepreneurs. On the other hand, the pull factors refer to more positive influences; for example, the identification of a business opportunity, personal ambition, creativity, the availability of government support in certain sectors, and someone, possibly a family member, who may act as a role model (Kumar, 2007). In addition, a desire for independence, self-efficacy, self-achievement, desire for wealth, social status and power, flexibility, improved quality of working conditions, self-esteem, and the

chance to prove oneself, are also reasons that encourage people to consider entrepreneurship as a career option (Virick *et al.*, 2015). This category of entrepreneur is referred to as an “opportunity” entrepreneur.

Table 3.1 The push and pull factors of entrepreneurial intention

	Pull factors	Sources
Internal (personality)	Need of autonomy	Khuong and An, 2016; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2016
	Risk taking propensity	Koe, 2016
	Innovativeness	Hatak <i>et al.</i> , 2015
	Internal locus of control	Brunel <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	Need for achievement	Soomro and Shah, 2015
	Self-fulfilment	Botsaris and Vamvaka, 2016
	Pursue personal interest	Farashah, 2015
External (environmental)	Improve financial situation	Liñán and Fayolle, 2015
	Influence of family or role models	Fellnhöfer and Mueller, 2018
	Government policy	Zgheib, 2018
	Market opportunity	Dalborg and Wincent, 2015
	Political stability	Devece, <i>et al.</i> , 2016
	Good economic environment	Weller <i>et al.</i> , 2016
	Entrepreneurial culture	Patrick <i>et al.</i> , 2016
	Push factors	Sources
Internal (personality)	Lack of job satisfaction	Chandra and Mathur, 2019
	Unemployment	Herdjiono <i>et al.</i> , 2018
	Insufficient income	Bernoster <i>et al.</i> , 2018
	Glass ceiling	Virick <i>et al.</i> , 2015
External (environmental)	Family pressure	Ojiaku <i>et al.</i> , 2018
	Difficult economic conditions	Mkubukeli and Cronje, 2018

(Source: Author’s literature review, 2019)

The establishment of new enterprises is moderated and mediated by personal circumstances, such as parental background and education level, individual perceptions of new business opportunities, as well as by broader environmental factors at both individual and national institutional levels. Individuals with entrepreneurial intention are to be distinguished from those who merely have enterprising tendency. People who have entrepreneurial intention may start a new business at some stage in the future, and they have not rejected the idea of becoming entrepreneurs. Those who have enterprising tendency but who do not possess entrepreneurial intention may either not yet have consciously considered setting up a new business, or, alternatively, may have considered the possibility, but for various reasons (e.g., inhibitors like insufficient personal external development; or lack of opportunity for personal external development), rejected the idea.

As Ajzen’s (2002) Theory of Planned Behaviour suggests, intention is a direct antecedent of real behaviour, and the stronger the intention for behaviour, the more likely that the individual will engage in the actual behaviour. The TPB has been used to study the relationship between

entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour. The TPB suggests that intentions are the best predictors of behaviour. Indeed, Turker and Selcuk (2009) claims that intentions are the single best predictor of most planned behaviour, including entrepreneurial behaviour. The decision to become an entrepreneur and create a new business is a careful and conscious decision that requires time, considerable planning and a high degree of cognitive processing (Obschonka, 2018). Thus, research confirms that intentions play an important role in the decision to start a new business.

3.7 Entrepreneurial behaviour

Entrepreneurial intention may lead to four behavioural outcomes, which are entrepreneurship (innovation), routine self-employment (development), entrepreneurship within an organisation (intrapreneurship), and small business ownership (leadership). This project cannot assume that all those starting a business or moving into self-employment are necessarily acting in an entrepreneurial or innovative manner. Innovation entrepreneurship involves new, novel products, services or ways of processing, producing, and delivering, which may produce a “Schumpeterian Shock” in an industry – this behavioural outcome may lead to quick growth in both revenue and employment (Toms *et al.*, 2020). In the case of a restaurant, service could be revolutionized by novel plates, ways of ordering, serving, delivering, etc; and rapid organizational growth may be achieved through franchising (Morris *et al.*, 2010). As opposed to innovation entrepreneurship, there are also routine self-employment, intrapreneurship and small business ownership. Unlike innovation entrepreneurship where new ideas are applied to a business, routine self-employment copies the existing business model, products and services (Folta *et al.*, 2010); intrapreneurship is the act of behaving like an entrepreneur while working within a large organization, where people use entrepreneurial skills without incurring the risks associated with those activities; and the small business owner is simply an individual who owns a business entity in an attempt to profit from the successful operation of the company (Dennis Jr and Fernald Jr, 2001).

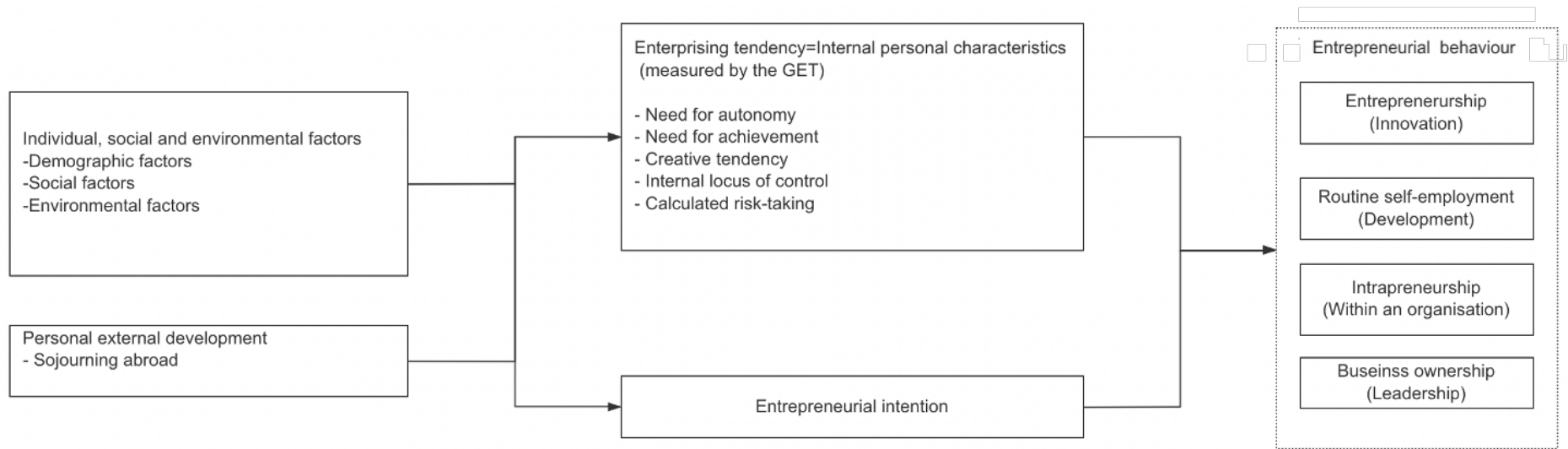
Furthermore, a number of scholars have suggested that entrepreneurial behaviour involves the activities associated with creating new organizations rather than with maintaining the operations of established ones. For example, Collins *et al.* (2004) define entrepreneurial behaviour as the actions taken by the entrepreneur to reach desired goals. It includes all conscious behaviour performed in the process of opportunity search, opportunity recognition, new organisation creation, and product and service launch and growth. Correspondingly, Welter and Smallbone (2011) define entrepreneurial behaviour as the collection of functions, activities and actions involved in the creation of a new organisation. It is related to tasks that

are under the control of the entrepreneur, such as decision making, goal-setting and making strategies. As such, entrepreneurial behaviour is visible and quantifiable. More recently, Audretsch and Link (2019) define entrepreneurial behaviour as a set of entrepreneurial activities concerned with setting up and running an innovative business in entrepreneurial settings with the purpose of generating profit and growth. For them it involves three distinct activities: (i) the identification of a new business opportunity; (ii) the establishment of a new venture to exploit that opportunity; and (iii) the management of the new venture to make it grow over time.

Drawing on the above arguments, the following definition of entrepreneurial behaviour is proposed, “*entrepreneurial behaviour is the enterprising human action involved in the generation of value, through the creation or expansion of economic activity, by identifying and exploiting new products, processes or markets*”. Research on entrepreneurial behaviour suggests that an individuals’ behaviour with respect to new firm creation is mainly the result of social norms and economic constraints and is dependent on a country’s contextual conditions (Gartner and Carter, 2003). These contextual conditions consist of a set of external conditions such as the availability of financing, education, labour markets, and quality of existing infrastructure (Moore, 1986). Entrepreneurial behaviour is determined by the environment as well as by individual capacity and motivation to deal with the environment (Ko and Butler, 2007). Entrepreneurial behaviour, however, is also influenced by the inherent characteristics or psychological traits of the person such as a need for achievement, need for autonomy, internal locus of control, tolerance for risk, creative tendency and previous experiences (Bird and Schjoedt, 2009). Entrepreneurial behaviour is different between people (DeJong *et al.*, 2015), because the individual varies with respect to entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial ability (Welter, 2005). Indeed, someone with entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) with the right background would not necessarily be identified as an entrepreneur. An individual needs to also act entrepreneurially in order to be considered an entrepreneur (Littunen, 2000).

3.8 Provisional theoretical framework

Instead of a single factor, a set of factors is responsible for generating entrepreneurship. Thus, entrepreneurship is a function of a series of individual traits as well as economic, political, legal, social, cultural, psychological, technological environmental factors. As Figure 3.3 shows, this *Provisional Theoretical Framework* provides a general representation of relationships among individual, social and environmental factors, personal external development, enterprising tendency, entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behaviour. This *Provisional Theoretical Framework* is developed from the existing theoretical literature, and it serves as the structure on which to base the current research study. Furthermore, this *Provisional Theoretical Framework* connects the research to existing knowledge and guides the development of the *Extended Theoretical Framework* (Figure 3.4), which will be discussed in the next section.



(Source: author)

Figure 3.3 Provisional theoretical framework for this study

3.9 Extended theoretical framework

This current study is one of the first studies to use the term “entrepreneurial proclivity” as the umbrella definition for the concept of “enterprising tendency” and “entrepreneurial intention”. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, this study defines entrepreneurial proclivity as “*the combination of a person’s enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention to become an entrepreneur*”. Again, enterprising tendency is defined as “*the internal personal characteristics that make one person an entrepreneur and another one not an entrepreneur*”. Entrepreneurial intention is defined as “*an individual’s desire and determination to engage in a new venture*”. Indeed, entrepreneurial proclivity is the step before entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurial proclivity is the direct predictor of entrepreneurial behaviour. Thus, an individual needs to have a personal background and characteristics that encourage entrepreneurship, a cultural environment that creates a disposition toward entrepreneurship, knowledge of entrepreneurship in order to generate enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention. Thus, in order to be an entrepreneur, it is not enough to simply possess certain aspects of enterprising tendency, the person needs to have enterprising tendency with entrepreneurial intention, and to behave in an entrepreneurial way, in order to become an entrepreneur. Some people may possess entrepreneurial characteristics, and have the potential to be entrepreneurs, but they may not actually behave entrepreneurially because of various external factors, e.g., lack of business experience, the challenge of raising start-up capital, red tape, a poor economic environment or an innate fear of failure.

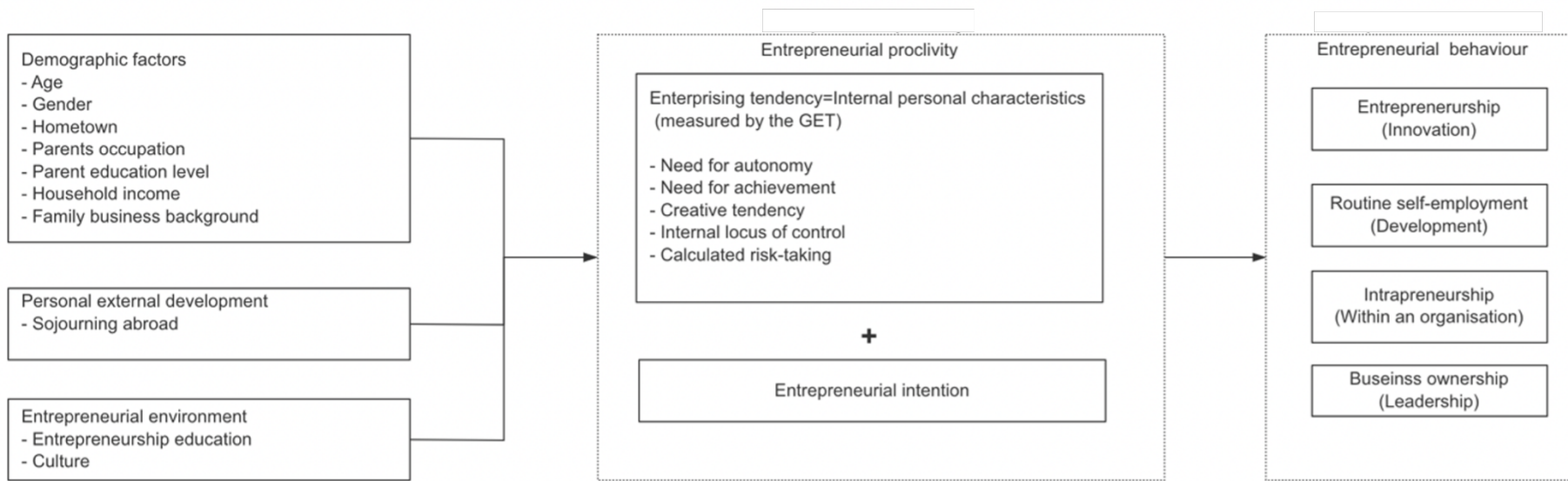
Therefore, the *Extended Theoretical Framework* goes a step further than the *Provisional Theoretical Framework* by incorporating “entrepreneurial proclivity” and serving as the basis for the *Research Plan* (Figure 4.4, Chapter 4). The *Extended Theoretical Framework* provides the roadmap, direction, questions to be addressed and paradigm for the research project.

The aim of the *Extended Theoretical Framework* developed and presented in this section is to integrate and visualise the theories, concepts, and variables identified via the literature review (Brunswik, 1952). The *Extended Theoretical Framework* used in this project is presented in Figure 3.4. Specifically, the *Extended Theoretical Framework* shows the research questions as well as the “dependent” and “independent” factors that this study intends to investigate. By creating the *Extended Theoretical Framework*, the researcher can now ask questions regarding “entrepreneurial proclivity” (dependent variable) and associated factors, e.g., study abroad, age, gender, hometown, family business, household income, entrepreneurial education, parents’ education level, parents’ occupation, etc. (independent

variables). The importance of this *Extended Theoretical Framework* is to ensure the research covers all relevant variables and any irrelevant variables can be excluded.

Entrepreneurial proclivity is, therefore, the antecedent to and direct predictor of entrepreneurial behaviour. Thus, an individual's background, cultural environment, and knowledge must benefit entrepreneurship in order to generate enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention. The lines of causation between the concepts discussed in this chapter are denoted by the two unbroken directional arrows.

When entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) is exposed to a catalyst, such as the opportunity to study abroad, this may stimulate entrepreneurial behaviour. The rationale behind this is that the individual's personality and intention can change over time and be influenced through international education and a changed environment. A range of new life experiences, such as living in different countries and cities, traveling outside the home country, trying new and different foods, meeting new people from different cultures, and exposure to foreign culture, can all contribute to cognitive diversity and exposure to new perspectives, which when combined with entrepreneurial characteristics, can serve as a catalyst and lead an individual to act entrepreneurially.



(Source: author)

Figure 3.4 Extended theoretical framework for this study

3.10 Research questions

The primary aim of this project is to determine “*What are the effects of overseas study experiences on the entrepreneurial proclivity and behaviour of Chinese university students?*”

After reviewing the literature, producing the *Extended Theoretical Framework*, and considering the primary aim of this project, it was possible to generate three detailed research questions.

Research question 1: Are there any significant differences between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial group studies abroad (at Time 0)? Addressing this question provides a check on the validity of the DiD approach to addressing Research Question 2.

Research question 2: Is there a significant difference between the before and after differences of the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their entrepreneurial proclivity?

Research question 3: Do study abroad opportunities influence the sojourning students’ potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life after graduation?

3.11 Chapter summary

This chapter sought to draw the two distinct areas of entrepreneurship and international education together and to look at the relationship between the two. This was achieved by using the TPB model as well as various concepts, variables identified via the literature, and the constructs underpinning the GET2 test to develop an *Extended Theoretical Framework*. The literature review revealed a number of similarities between individuals who engage in international education and entrepreneurship. It was then argued that entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) can be influenced by entrepreneurship education, a changed environment or a different cultural setting. Ultimately, the primary aim for the project was presented as well as three subsequent research questions that will be addressed using the empirical data gathered in the study reported in this thesis.

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

Having conducted an extensive literature review and developed an *Extended Theoretical Framework*, the next stage of this study is to provide a detailed explanation of how the research was conducted, and how the data was processed and analysed. Thus, the purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the research methodology adopted in this study in order to address the research questions identified.

The chapter clarifies the research paradigm and the philosophical positioning of this research. It also includes an explanation of the ontological and epistemological positioning of the study and how these guided the research design and the methodology for data collection and analysis. This is followed by an overview of the research approach, research strategy, and research design. It is important to assess the quality of the data to ensure that the data and the subsequent analysis are robust, so the validity and reliability of the research measures and constructs are also carefully discussed and assessed. These tasks are addressed later in the thesis, i.e., when implement the quantitative and qualitative methods in, respectively, Study 1 and Study 2.

4.2 Research philosophy: pragmatism

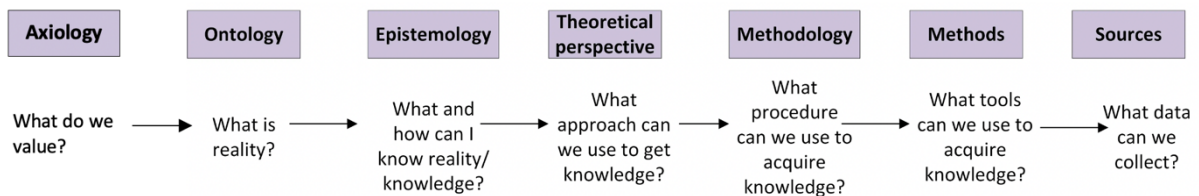
According to Crossan (2003), research philosophy is the first thing that any researcher needs to consider before conducting research. Research philosophy refers to scientific practice based on assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge (Holden and Lynch, 2004). The philosophy that a researcher adopts has a significant impact on the design of research, as well as how the researcher understands the research subjects. It, therefore, serves as the basis of the research and impacts the choice of research strategy, formulation of the problem, data collection, processing, and analysis. Awareness of the philosophical position can increase the quality of the study (Hammersley, 1993). The paradigms that this project draws upon are positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Main research paradigms used

Research Paradigms	Key points	Approaches
Positivism	Objective world inquiry for facts conceived in terms of specified correlations and associations among variables.	Experimental and quantitative methods to test and verify hypotheses.
Interpretivism/constructivism	Relies upon both the trained researcher and the human subject as the instruments to measure some phenomena, and typically involves both observation and interviews.	To understand social members' definition of a situation.
Pragmatism	Deconstructive paradigm focusses on what works in relation to the research investigation and recognises the research's value which play a significant role in the analysis of the findings.	Pragmatic researcher believes what to study and investigate are deemed to be important.

(Source: adapted from Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004)

Paradigms can be defined as theories about how the world works, the character of people, and what it is feasible to know. Paradigms offer a way of categorising complex world views (Knobe and Nichols, 2013). An indigenous research paradigm is a set of beliefs about the world, and about gaining knowledge that guide the actions as to how research will be conducted. Those beliefs consist of axiology, ontology, epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology, methods and sources. Indeed, when considering paradigms, there are a few important questions to ask as Figure 4.1 below shows.



(Source: adapted from Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004)

Figure 4.1 Important components of research paradigm

To demonstrate, Axiology is engaged with assessment of the role of the researcher's own values in all stages of the research process. Axiology primarily refers to the aims of the research. It focuses on what the researcher values in the research, it clarifies if the researcher is trying to explain or predict the world or is only seeking to understand it. The values affect how the researcher conducts the research and what the researcher values in the research findings (Vivilaki and Johnson, 2008). Ontology raises basic questions about the nature of reality and what is to be known. Epistemology is concerned with how we know the world. It refers to how individuals understand and work with reality. It is based on the assumption that reality is objective and external to the individual (Killam, 2013). A theoretical perspective is a structural framework, explanation, or tool that has been tested and evaluated over time. It is a set of assumptions about reality that inform the questions the researcher asks (Kerry and

Kerry, 2010). Methodology focuses on how the researcher gains knowledge about the world. It indicates which research methods are considered appropriate for collecting empirical data (Al-Saadi, 2014).

The thesis adopts a definition of Pragmatism as being “*An approach that evaluates theories or beliefs in terms of the success of their practical application*”; i.e., “if it works it is fine”. Accordingly, “*Pragmatism carries an everyday meaning as being practical, paying attention to the particular context in which you find yourself and not being weighed down by doctrine or ideology. Thus, in terms (Dewey, 1922 / 2007, 1931 / 1982; James, 1904 / 2007; Rorty, 1982) of philosophy of social research pragmatism has been associated with the flexibility to see the merits of both quantitative and qualitative methods and is adaptive to whatever one is researching*”. As the research underpinning this thesis uses different methods and so draws upon the different philosophical approaches underlying these methods, the overall approach, is pragmatism.

Pragmatism was chosen as the research paradigm underpinning this study because (i) reality is part objective and part socially constructed, (ii) there is a paucity of research on the topic, (iii) there is no obviously preferred approach to this research, so that (iv) an open pragmatic approach using multi-methods research is the most appropriate. To be more specific, this project takes the view that there is no absolute “truth”, and that reality is part objective and part socially constructed, depending on the type of questions and context. Consequently, in the context of this project, the selection of the research philosophy that guided this research was based on the research topic, research questions and the research objectives. The main aim of this project is “to explore the impact that a sojourn abroad experience has on the entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) of current students, and also explore the sojourn abroad impact on the entrepreneurial behaviour of graduates.” Firstly, the objective of the research is to investigate the effect of study abroad on the entrepreneurial proclivity of Chinese university students. There is a shortage of research examining this relationship. Research to date has not yet determined the effect and the influence of study abroad on entrepreneurial development. Secondly, most studies of enterprising tendency are conducted in developed countries, limiting the transferability of prior research findings in developing countries like China. Against this background, with few directly relevant studies and thus no dominant approach to research in this area of study, both quantitative research and qualitative research were required. Pragmatism was therefore chosen as the research paradigm to underpin this study based on the nature of the research questions. As Saunders, (2015:130) highlighted, “*Pragmatists recognise that there are many different ways of interpreting the world and undertaking research, that no single point of view*

can ever give the entire picture and that there may be multiple realities". Within a pragmatism framework, both qualitative and quantitative methodologies are appropriate, and suitable for satisfying the research objectives of this study.

4.3 Research approach: deductive and inductive

Research approaches are plans and procedures for conducting research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. Informing the decision relating to research approach should be the philosophical assumptions the researcher brings to the study, research designs, and specific methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation.

There are two major types of research approach, which are based on deductive and inductive reasoning. The deductive approach is a study in which an *Extended Theoretical Framework* is developed, and then tested by empirical observation. When adopting a deductive approach, quantitative techniques are used to collect, analyse and summarize data (Bernard and Bernard, 2013). Conversely, according to the inductive approach, theory is developed from the results of empirical study. A researcher first gathers and analyses data, and then constructs a theory to explain the findings. With an inductive approach, data collection makes use of qualitative techniques (Lawson, 2005).

The selection of a research approach is based on the nature of the research problem being addressed, and the researchers' personal experiences. The research questions and the research objectives associated with this research determined that it is both inductive and deductive in nature (see Table 4.2 below). There is little or no existing research available concerning the relationship between international education and entrepreneurial proclivity in developing countries like China. In the first instance, Study 1 seeks to gain insights into the study abroad effect on Chinese university students who study in the UK in terms of their entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention). In this part of the project, deductive reasoning has been used to develop null hypotheses based on the *Extended Theoretical Framework* (Figure 3.4 Chapter 3). Then, quantitative data is gathered to test those hypotheses, and statistical methods based on probability theory are used to accept or reject the hypotheses. Conversely, deductive reasoning allows the researcher to test new ideas. In Study 2, the project makes use of inductive research, as it gathers and presents qualitative data using in-depth interviews with returnee entrepreneurs in order to gain additional insight into the impact of sojourning on entrepreneurial behaviour. The data analysis involves the extraction of key points from transcribed text, which are marked as codes, the

codes are then grouped into similar concepts in order to make the extensive data more comprehensible, and inductive reasoning allows the researcher to create new ideas. The use of both inductive and deductive reasoning will give a better understanding of the research topic and yield more complete evidence in terms of both depth and breadth.

Table 4.2 Research approach associated with each research question

Research questions	Methods	Approach	Justification
1. Are there any significant differences between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial group studies abroad (at Time 0)? Addressing this question provides a check on the validity of the DiD approach.	Study 1 Quantitative	Deductive	This could show any differences between students who will go abroad and domestic students in entrepreneurial proclivity before going abroad (Time 0). This could show whether the foreign sojourn experience shaped the sojourning student's entrepreneurial proclivity, or if their entrepreneurial proclivity influences their decision to travel to go aboard to study in the first instance.
2. Is there a significant difference between the before and after differences of the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their entrepreneurial proclivity?	Study 1 Quantitative	Deductive	This could show if the change in entrepreneurial proclivity is because of foreign experience.
3. Do study aboard opportunities influence the sojourning student's potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life after graduation?	Study 2 Qualitative	Inductive	The follow up interviews with returnee entrepreneurs will provide a more in-depth view on how the sojourn abroad experience influences the graduates in acting entrepreneurially in their careers.

(Source: author)

4.4 The Institutions

This study is based on the programme jointly operated by Beijing University of Agriculture (BUA) and Harper Adams University (HAU). The narrative will now provide further detail of the two institutions, as well as the joint programme itself, to serve as background to the study.

Beijing University of Agriculture (BUA) is an agri-food science university based in the city of Beijing, China. BUA was founded in 1956 as Hebei Tongzhou Agricultural School (BUA, 2019). It was renamed as Beijing Agricultural School in 1958. In 1961, the school moved to its current premises in Changping, Beijing. In 1965, it was renamed as the Beijing University of Agriculture. During the Chinese ten-year cultural revolution period, its operations were suspended. In 1978, the university was relaunched under the same name. It was granted degree-awarding status by the Chinese Ministry of Education in 1998. The university comprises thirteen departments, one of which is the International College, and offers

bachelor's degrees in 22 disciplines as well as 8 postgraduate degrees. The partnership between BUA and Harper Adams University (HAU) was established in December 2003. In addition to its partnership with HAU, BUA has links with universities and higher education colleges in Japan, the USA, Australia and Kazakhstan. The International College (IC) is located on the main BUA campus in Beijing, and it manages international collaboration with HAU (ICBUA, 2019).

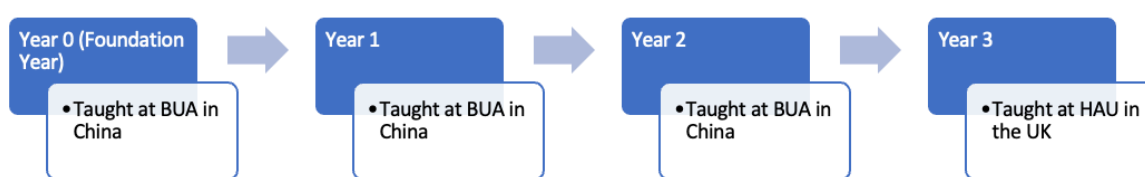
Harper Adams University (HAU) was founded in 1901 as Harper Adams Agricultural College. It obtained degree-awarding powers for taught degrees in 1996 and for research degrees in 2006. It is organised into five academic departments; each contributes to an integrated modular scheme for undergraduate and taught postgraduate courses. Located in Shropshire, in the West Midlands of England, HAU has approximately 2,500 students enrolled on courses leading to undergraduate or postgraduate awards (HAU, 2019).

This section provides contextual detail that will help readers to decide on the extent to which the results reported in this thesis apply in other contexts. Accordingly, this section is crucial for gauging the external validity of this research.

4.4.1 The BUA/HAU joint programme

The joint UK-China undergraduate degree programme between HAU and BUA is based on two degree courses, namely: BSc/BSc (Hons) International Business Management; and BSc/BSc (Hons) Food Quality with Retail Management (QAA, 2012). Through the joint programme, the students can study international business and food quality and retailing in a multi-cultural environment. The courses are approved by the Chinese Ministry of Education as a Chinese-foreign cooperation programme. The partnership also has the support of the Beijing Municipal Government, the British Embassy in Beijing and prospective employers (QAA, 2019). It is a four-year programme where the first three years comprise a foundation year followed by years one and two of the degree at BUA (see Figure 4.2 below). This part of the programme includes intensive English language study in the foundation year, and the following two years of the degree are taught in English with teaching support from HAU in the form of lectures and tutorials delivered by HAU flying faculty (Walley *et al.*, 2017). In order to complete the foundation year successfully, the students need to achieve a standard equivalent to International English Language Testing System (IELTS) 5.5 and are assessed through a test devised and marked by HAU. The final year of the degree is taught by HAU in the UK. In order to progress to the final year and transfer to HAU, students are again assessed in English language through a specific language module based on a requirement of IELTS 6.5. Students

who meet all the normal entry criteria for HAU relating to academic attainment, language proficiency and visa requirements may transfer to HAU. Students who do not meet the entry requirements will complete their studies on other courses at BUA (QAA, 2012). The Chinese students who are recruited through the quota system, having reached the required standard in the higher education entrance examination (Gaokao), may qualify for the double degree from both BUA and HAU when they complete the four-years of study. However, a small number of students are admitted off-quota via other routes, for example, by transfer from other BUA courses in other colleges, or on completion of the foundation year at the International College (IC) but have not taken the Gaokao, these students are only enrolled for a HAU degree (Walley *et al.*, 2017).



(Source: adapted from Walley *et al.*, 2017)

Figure 4.2 TNE course outline

In preparation for the final year of study in the UK, students are given presentations about UK life and the life that they will experience in the UK. On arrival, there is an induction programme at HAU incorporating information sessions, social, geographical and cultural orientation events, as well as assistance with opening bank accounts, registration with the police and a GP.

BUA and HAU have a similar strategic approach to internationalisation and promote student cultural exchange. Course management arrangements combined with strong relationships between the staff on both sides of the partnership, provide a secure framework for the jointly delivered courses in terms of operations, quality assurance and longer-term strategy. Links between the partners operate efficiently at both institutional and programme level and are maintained through well-established formal mechanisms including annual partnership review meetings which deal with institutional, financial and course-related matters; course committees and assessment boards; informal communication channels and regular staff visits between the two institutions; meetings between staff and students; and a programme of teaching observations.

The joint programme usually meets its annual recruitment targets. There are several reasons why it is popular with Chinese students and their parents, but a particularly attractive component is the opportunity to study abroad. The students know from their first day they enrol with IC BUA that, as long as they perform well, they will go to the UK in the latter stages

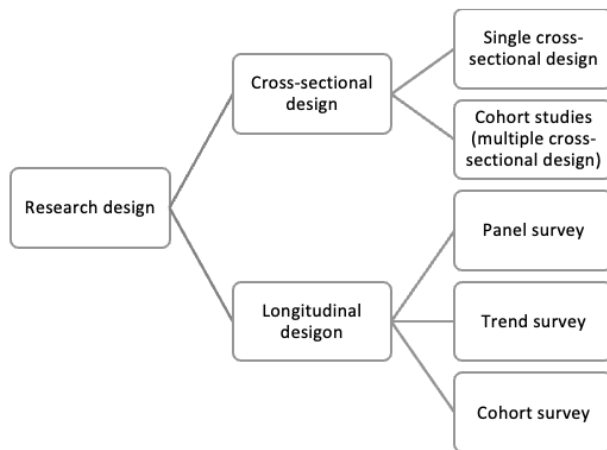
of their studies. In addition, the TNE programme reduces perceived risk in three ways. First, BUA is one of China's key universities, so parents feel confident about sending their children abroad through a programme guaranteed by a well-established Chinese university. Second, the TNE programme is approved by the Chinese Ministry of Education and has a licence which is accessible on the internet for parents to check. Finally, after three years' study in China, the students go abroad with a group of classmates who they know very well, and which reassures the parents about their children's safety. Compared with receiving the whole undergraduate education abroad, this 3+1 programme also costs significantly less. Parents also believe that their children will be more mature psychologically after three years' university study in China and so better prepared for study abroad.

4.4.2 Entrepreneurial content of the TNE joint programme

The TNE programme course structures and the control group course structure are presented in Appendix A. Explicit entrepreneurship education is limited to one module in each course, but the skills and knowledge associated with entrepreneurship are taught in many of the modules across all three courses and so the amount of entrepreneurial education received by the sojourning students and the domestic students is both fairly comprehensive and comparable.

4.5 Research design: longitudinal research

According to Creswell (2009:7), research design is the "*overall plan for relating the conceptual research problem to relevant and practicable empirical research*". The research design refers to a plan or overall structure of how the researcher intends to conduct the research and provide an answer to the problem (Bryman, 2016). It refers to the framework for collecting, analysing and interpreting data. Figure 4.3 shows an overview of the different research designs, namely cross-sectional studies, where the study will collect data from one specific sample only once; and longitudinal studies, where the study will collect data from the same sample at more than one time period and reveal changes that take place over time. The choice of research design reflects the priority given to each dimension of the research process.



(Source: author)

Figure 4.3 Types of research design

The overall aim of this project is to determine whether Chinese university students who have the chance to study in the UK develop entrepreneurial proclivity through the period of study abroad, and also consider the impact such sojourn experiences have on the entrepreneurial behaviour of returnee entrepreneurs. Study 1, the quantitative dimension of this project, consists of two waves of data collection from the same students, and it is designed to measure changes in entrepreneurial proclivity, which required research over a period of time and the use of a longitudinal design with a panel of respondents.

A panel study (Study 1) is a special type of longitudinal study in which the same units of analysis are followed at specified intervals over a period of time (Pritchard *et al.*, 2007). A key feature of a panel study is repeated measurements of the same sample at different points in time.

The longitudinal design with panel survey (Study 1) can answer questions about cause and effect and hence provide a basis for explanatory theory. By questioning respondents over a series of points in time, the researcher can learn about the order in which events occur. It is a research design that focuses on social change and relationships at the individual or micro-level (Williams, 2007). Longitudinal studies provide unique insight that might not be possible using other forms of research (Van de Ven and Huber, 1990). As Huber (1995) points out, one of the major advantages of a real time longitudinal study is that it allows for high levels of validity, by helping to find patterns that may occur over a period of time, but would not be observed over short periods, as long-term relationships cannot be discovered in a short-term research project. Researchers can look at how specific variables may change at different points, changes can be tracked so that cause and effect relationships can be discovered, and the researcher may also explore some of the reasons why these changes take place

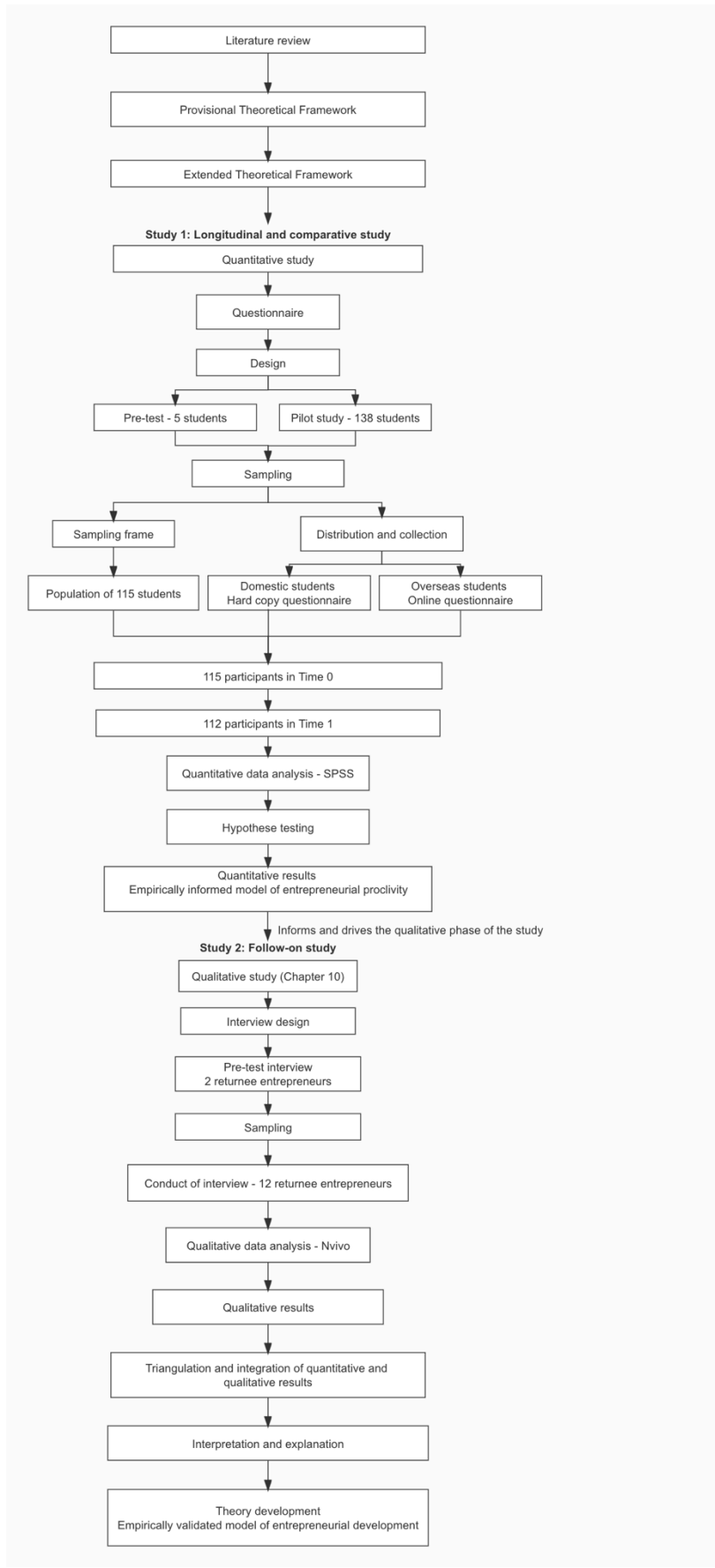
(Magnusson *et al.*, 1994). However, there are also disadvantages and difficulties with longitudinal studies, such as being very time consuming to obtain, most likely more costly than other forms of research, and participants tend to drop out over time (Leonard-Barton, 1995). In general, as White and Arzi (2005) note in their paper “*Longitudinal studies: designs, validity, practicality, and value*”, longitudinal studies can be expensive and difficult to carry out, but the information obtained from such research can be very valuable.

Study 1 is quantitative in nature and focuses on the Chinese students from IC BUA who sojourn abroad as part of their studies and spend their last year in undergraduate education at HAU in the UK (the treatment group). These students will be surveyed twice, before they go aboard (Time 0), and again at the end of the year that they spend abroad (Time 1). Surveying the students twice like this will permit comparative analysis to identify changes in entrepreneurial proclivity. Further, by also surveying a group of non-sojourning Chinese students from the “*School of Business and Management*” at BUA who are registered on a similar course – *International Business Management* (the comparison group), it will be possible to conduct further comparative analysis to establish whether differences identified within the sojourning group are due to the sojourn or might occur as a result of continued study or aging. This will be determined using the Difference-in-Differences method for identifying causal effects that is outlined in *Chapter 6 Study 1 – Findings and Discussion*.

Study 2 is qualitative in nature and focuses on returnees – a separate group – who have graduated from the TNE joint programme and have now started-up their own business and become entrepreneurs. The main aim of Study 2 is to provide insight into the role that the overseas sojourn played in assisting the students to set-up their own businesses. For example, to understand “how” and “why” any changes in entrepreneurial proclivity have happened; how the foreign experience has impacted on a student’s entrepreneurial behaviour; and how the foreign experience helped with the entrepreneurial performance of the returnee entrepreneurs.

4.6 Research plan

Figure 4.4 below presents the *Research Plan* that will be followed in this project. The previous *Extended Theoretic Framework* (Figure 3.4 Chapter 3) was used to clarify the issues to be researched and so serves as the structure for this *Research Plan*. This figure clearly illustrates the structure of the research and the steps taken to address the research objectives. It is used as a guide to identify what is important or significant and to help co-ordinate and be more focused in the scope of the study. It serves the final stage of theory development indicated in the Figure 4.4 and it also serves as the basis for the *Empirically Informed Model*, which will be developed to summarize the findings of the quantitative study (Figure 6.5 Chapter 6) and of the qualitative study (Figure 8.17 Chapter 8).



(Source: author)

Figure 4.4 Research plan

4.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed all aspects of the projects research philosophy, research approaches, time horizon and techniques and procedures. This study adopts pragmatism as the research philosophy, uses inductive and deductive research approaches, takes a longitudinal study time horizon for Study 1, and makes use of both surveys and depth interviews as the data collection methods.

Study 1 is based on quantitative surveys and data analysis and was followed by Study 2, which used qualitative depth interviews and analysis to further explain the initial quantitative results. A final discussion involved the integration or linking of data from the two separate strands of research. This approach was adopted for model testing and an in-depth understanding of the research problems in the Chinese context. The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and results provide a general picture of the research problem, i.e., examine whether Chinese university students who have the chance to study in the UK develop entrepreneurial proclivity through a period of study abroad, while the qualitative data and its analysis will refine and explain these statistical results by exploring participants' views in more depth. The quantitative and qualitative methods are integrated at the beginning of the qualitative study, by developing interview questions based on the results of the quantitative study. Additionally, the results of the two studies will be integrated in greater detail during the discussion of the outcomes of the whole project.

The next chapter will present a detailed discussion of the research methods adopted for Study 1 (quantitative study), including the research design, sampling, measurement of constructs and development of the research instrument (questionnaire).

Chapter 5 Study 1 - Quantitative Methodology and Methods

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the quantitative methodology used in Study 1. First, the chapter outlines the research design, sampling techniques and sizes, measurement of constructs, and data collection procedures used. Second, a detailed pre-test and pilot test of the questionnaire is explained. Third, the chapter elaborates on the validity and reliability issues associated with this aspect of the research.

5.2 Longitudinal survey and comparative research

The research design for this quantitative study (Study 1) involves a longitudinal survey with comparative analysis. A longitudinal survey collects data at different points in time from the same sample of respondents (Cook and Ware, 1983). The main advantage of longitudinal data is that it can use individual students fixed effects to control for unobserved individual student characteristics. The unobserved individual student characteristics include the characteristics of students that the researcher cannot directly observe, e.g., the individual effort and motivation, the level of parental support, and so on. The fixed effect controls for all unobserved individual characteristics, so long as these are constant over time, or at least slow moving. The ability to include individual fixed effects in quantitative models is the most important advantage of longitudinal data.

In this longitudinal study (Study 1), the target group of Chinese students (Graduating Class of 2018, n=54) were officially enrolled in the TNE programme through the Gaokao at second tier standard (559 score in Beijing, scored on a scale of 750 points) at BUA in September 2014, where they then spent three years studying the syllabus of the core modules imported from HAU, as well as the compulsory modules required by the Chinese Ministry of Education (September 2014 – September 2017). These same students sojourned to HAU in September 2017 to start their final years' undergraduate study (September 2017 – July 2018). After successfully finishing a total of four years' study, they were awarded two undergraduate degrees, one from each university. At the start of this PhD in September 2016, 12 cohorts had passed through the joint programme totalling more than 570 students.

In any research design that involves comparing two groups of subjects who have been exposed to different “treatments”, there is an underlying assumption that the treatment group and the comparison group are essentially equal before the introduction of the “treatment”

variable (Cantrell, 2011). Control is a fundamental characteristic of this type of study and comparison groups are essential. Comparison groups are selected from a group of persons whose experience corresponds with the treatment group, except that they do not receive the same “treatment” (Cox *et al.*, 2009). In this study, the treatment group involves the BAU students who have had the opportunity to study overseas through the TNE programme. The comparison group comprise a group of BUA students who studied a similar undergraduate course but did not study abroad and so studied only in Beijing (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Key characteristics of the treatment group and the comparison group

Graduating Class of 2018	Treatment group: sojourning students	Comparison group: domestic students
Admission requirement	559 points on a scale of 750 points	556 points on a scale of 750 points
Tuition Fee	RMB 36,000 per year	RMB 4,200 per year
Duration of the degree	4 years (3 years on Chinese campus and 1 year in the UK)	4 years on Chinese campus
Course	International business management/ Food quality with retail management	Business
Language of module delivery	English and Chinese	Chinese
Teaching staff	Chinese and UK teachers	Chinese teachers

(Source: Author, summarised from BUA, 2019)

It needs to be noted, however, that ideally, the treatment and comparison groups must be as similar as possible in every respect except for study abroad. In medical research, the groups are randomly allocated which, in a very large sample, should ensure that there are no systematic differences between the two groups (Johnson *et al.*, 2009). In social science, including business studies, the researcher can only observe pre-determined, existing groups, for example students staying at home and students studying abroad in the context of this study. It is possible to argue that the problem in the selection process is that self-selection might be related to the outcomes the researcher wants to explain (Schenker and Rumrill, 2004). In the context of this study, for example, students might self-select to study abroad because they are entrepreneurial, or students might self-select to study abroad because they see themselves as entrepreneurial. In either case, there is a problem of endogeneity. In other words, it may not be study abroad that explains entrepreneurial proclivity but entrepreneurial proclivity that determines study abroad. Hence, the only way the researcher can guard against this, and ensure the validity of the research, is by conducting a pilot study of both groups before one group experiences the “treatment”.

As a result, accurate information about both groups before one group goes abroad was gathered during a pilot study. This allowed the researcher to determine whether there are any systematic differences between the domestic students who study wholly in China and the students who went abroad in terms of inherent entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention). If the two groups are about the same with respect to key characteristics, then this should prove the validity of the research. However, if there are systematic differences, then these will be accounted for in the analysis. For example, if the treatment group is 10 per cent more entrepreneurial (on some measure) at both Time 0 (before the sojourn) and at Time 1 (after the sojourn), then nothing has changed with study abroad. As a result, potential endogeneity, or in other words, selection bias will be carefully accounted for in the analysis to ensure the validity of the results. The results of the pilot study are presented in Appendix E.

Generally, the setting was ideal and the time suitable for conducting the longitudinal study. Table 5.2 demonstrates the conceptual representation of the longitudinal survey design. Each arrow in the diagram has a unique identifier (marked as a, b, d, mapping out the comparisons that will be studied in this chapter.

- If the study abroad experience has an effect, this will be apparent in systematic differences between “before and after” changes for (i) sojourning students, comparing cells A and C (Arrow b); and (ii) domestic students, comparing cells B and D (Arrow d). This method of identifying causal effects is the “Difference-in-Differences (DID)” approach. For example, if the difference between C and A (β_0) is different (with statistical significance) from the difference between D and B (β_3) then this difference between the two differences is evidence of a systematic treatment effect.
- However, if there is a statistically significant difference between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) *before* the initial group studies abroad, this will be apparent in a systematic difference between cells A and B (Arrow a). Such a pre-existing difference would weaken the validity of attributing any difference between the differences A-C (Arrow b) and B-D (Arrow d) to the effect of the treatment. Hence, part of DiD analysis is to check the difference A-B (Arrow a).⁸

⁸ Ideally, DiD analysis should check not only for any pre-existing difference A-B (Arrow a) but also for pre-existing trends in the data from the treatment and comparison groups. However, the time constraints of this PhD project did not permit more than two stages of data gathering and thus precluded the extended historical data needed to check for pre-existing trends.

Table 5.2 The conceptual representation of the DID approach

Entrepreneurial proclivity (Mean score)	Time 0 (Sep 2017)	Time 1 (July 2018)	Difference
Sojourning students	A	C	C-A (β_0)
Domestic students	B	D	D-B (β_3)
Difference	A-B (β_1)	C-D (β_2)	D-I-D

(Source: author)

Both the sojourning student group (Graduating Class of 2018) and the domestic student group completed a questionnaire at two points in time. The sojourning student group completed the same questionnaire when they (i) first arrived in the UK (at Time 0), and (ii) after nine months of study, but before they returned to China (at Time 1). The domestic student group were also surveyed twice: (i) first when they had just entered into their final year (at Time 0); and (ii) again at the end of their final year (at Time 1). The longitudinal study will help determine whether the foreign sojourners' experience shaped the students' entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) to become an entrepreneur, or if their entrepreneurial proclivity influenced their decision to travel abroad to study. The advantage of having a comparison group is that it acts as a base measure to facilitate the inference of cause and effect.

5.3 Questionnaire design

An overview of the questionnaire design process is presented in this section in regard to the choice of quantitative research methods (5.3.1); design and structure of the questionnaire (5.3.2); and translation of the questionnaire (5.3.3).

5.3.1 Structured questionnaire

Quantitative methods generate data that can be statistically measured and analysed and used to examine relationships and variables so as to test the research objectives (Nardi, 2018). Compared with qualitative methods, quantitative methods use scientific procedures and so, compared with qualitative methods, they are considered to be objective. Surveys that make use of a questionnaire are the most common type of quantitative method in the social sciences for generating primary data (Visser *et al.*, 2000). A questionnaire is a research instrument that gathers information by asking participants to respond personally to a series of predetermined questions. The advantages of using a questionnaire are that it is a quick, inexpensive and

easy way to collect data from a group of people. It can be used to compare and contrast data from other research studies and it can be used to measure change (Fowler Jr, 2013). However, the disadvantages of using a questionnaire include difficulty in capturing respondents feelings and emotions, a lack of personalization, and participants who have different interpretations of the questions (Krosnick, 1999). The success of a questionnaire largely depends on careful design, consideration of the questionnaire's contents, and its structure (Singleton, 1988).

To achieve the objectives of this study, a structured questionnaire was developed based on the *Extended Theoretical Framework* (Figure 3.4 Chapter 3) of this study, which clearly shows the research questions and the “dependent” and “independent” variables. Thus, the primary goal of the questionnaire was to capture all the information needed to address the main aim: “to explore the impact that a sojourn abroad experience has on the entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) of current students, and also explore the sojourn abroad impact on the entrepreneurial behaviour of graduates”. The questionnaire was based on the GET2 research instrument that was adapted in light of the literature review and the perceived need for a shortened version that would capture the main effects but could be applied more quickly because of the classroom setting in which it would be used. The questionnaire was composed of a series of multiple choice, scaled, and open-ended questions, that were presented in three sections based on the *Extended Theoretical Framework* (Figure 3.4 Chapter 3): (i) International education experience, (ii) entrepreneurship (e.g., entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurship education) and (iii) demographic information (e.g., age, gender, hometown, parents’ occupation, parent’s education level, household income and family business background). The questionnaire contained 24 questions in total. The international education section and demographic information section were designed by focusing on the constructs and variables that emerged from the literature review while the entrepreneurship section was based on the GET2 test that focused on enterprising tendency. The layout and sequence of the questions were designed to facilitate ease of response. The questionnaire design took specific account of Chinese culture. The design of the questionnaire was based on the inclusion of useable, explanatory, and sufficient variables to allow the researcher to establish statistical relationships between the variables, test hypotheses and finally to address the research questions and objectives. A copy of the questionnaire for sojourning students (English version) can be found in Appendix B; a copy of the questionnaire for domestic students (English version) can be found in Appendix C; a copy of the questionnaire for domestic students (Chinese version) can be found in Appendix D.

5.3.2 Design and structure of the questionnaire

The questionnaire starts with an introduction stating who the researcher is and why the research is being conducted. The introduction gives an assurance that the information obtained will be kept confidential, which encourages participants to complete the questionnaire (Bradburn, 1979). The questions were designed to be precise, simple and comprehensive as well as avoiding ambiguous, leading and presumptuous questions. Clear instructions were also provided for each question. Some of the statements were expressed positively and some negatively in order to encourage respondents to think about their answer and encourage more honest and accurate answers (Brace, 2018).

Five types of response questions were used in this questionnaire: (i) dichotomous questions; (ii) nominal questions; (iii) Likert scale questions; (iv) ordinal questions; and (v) open-ended questions (Lietz, 2010). The dichotomous questions included Yes or No, Male or Female type answers. The nominal questions took the format of single choice closed-ended questions and multiple choice closed-ended questions. Likert scales were included as a means of determining the strength of particular attitudes. The main advantage of Likert scale questions are that they offer a high likelihood of responses that accurately reflects respondent opinion (Burns *et al.*, 2000). With respect to the number of scale points, Bradburn *et al.* (2004) indicate that opinions can be captured best with five-point scales and that an increase in the number of scale points does not improve the reliability of the ratings but it could cause confusion for the respondents. Thus, a five-point Likert scale was used in this questionnaire. Ordinal questions that asked participants to rank order their preferences were also used as were some open-end questions, which gave the respondents an opportunity to provide opinions that were not captured elsewhere in the questionnaire.

The ordering of the questions is also an important aspect of the design process for a questionnaire (Churchill *et al.*, 1996). The questionnaire began with less complex and less sensitive questions and progressed to opinion-based questions. The opening questions are generic and intended to put the respondent at ease and get the ball rolling (McDaniel and Gates, 2013). As Meadows (2003) advocated, wherever possible, sensitive questions, as well as positively assessed and negatively assessed questions are not clustered together, as doing so could potentially reduce the response rate and the validity of the answers. Important questions were intentionally placed in earlier parts of the questionnaire just in case the respondents leave the later parts blank (Stone, 1993). Some of the important questions were asked twice in different formats to allow for cross-referencing and to ensure internal validity.

The questionnaire in this study consisted of three sections (see Table 5.3). The first section (A) is the international education section. In this section, the respondents' foreign experience, motivation to study abroad, short term and long-term career plan, and social network are explored. Seven questions are dedicated to assessing the effects of overseas study opportunities. The second section (B) focuses on entrepreneurship. This section included questions related to entrepreneurship education, family business background, and entrepreneurial proclivity (entrepreneurial intention and enterprising tendency). The third section (C) sought to gather demographic information. This section collected personal information including age, gender, hometown, household income, parent's occupation and parents' education level. This section is important since variance can be checked for all demographic variables that impact entrepreneurial proclivities. These demographic factors were measured with mainly closed multiple choice single response questions. Finally, a note was added at the end of the questionnaire to thank the respondents for their cooperation.

Table 5.3 Summary of the development of the survey instrument

24 Questions	Likert-scale/ information
Section A: International education (Q1 - Q7)	
1. Motivation to study abroad	11 choices of answer
2. Social network while in the UK	7 choices of answer
3. Intention to return to China	6 choices of answer
4. Short term career plan	4 choices of answer
5. Factors determining short term career plan	five-point Likert scale
6. Factors influencing the long-term career plan	five-point Likert scale
7. Benefits of study abroad	five-point Likert scale
Section B: Entrepreneurship (Q8 - Q14)	
8. Long term career plan	5 choices of answer
9. Family business background	Yes/No
9a. Family background as an influence on career plan	Yes/No
10. Entrepreneurship education	Yes/No
11. Entrepreneurial intention	five-point Likert scale
12. Overseas study and entrepreneurial intention	five-point Likert scale
13. Overseas study and entrepreneurial development	five-point Likert scale
14. Enterprising tendency	five-point Likert scale with "don't know"
Section C: Demographic information (Q15 - Q24)	
15. Gender	Male/Female
16. Age	Number
17. Hometown	Open questions
18. Degree programme	2 choices of answer
19. Household income	11 choices of answer
20. Father's occupation	Open questions
21. Mother's occupation	Open questions
22. Parent's occupations influence on career decision	Yes/No
23. Mother's educational level	7 choices of answer
24. Father's educational level	7 choices of answer

(Source: author)

Some minor variations were made to accommodate the fact that the questionnaire was used with the two group of students, the sojourning students and the domestic students. For instance, Section A concerning international education was not relevant to the non-sojourning

students and so was omitted from the questionnaire for the comparison group. It should also be noted that the format in which the questionnaire was presented to the two groups of students was different. Initially, it was intended to use an online format (using Google Forms) with both groups of students but, while this was the format used with the students who sojourned, practical difficulties with the IT meant that the questionnaire had to be distributed to the non-sojourning students in a paper format.

5.3.3 Translation of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was initially written in English. The sojourning group completed the English version of the questionnaire. Since the comparison group are domestic students who study wholly in Beijing, China, they completed the questionnaire in Chinese. Thus, it was necessary to translate the questionnaire into Chinese. Once translated it was reviewed by a Chinese professor and a Chinese businessman living in Beijing to ensure that the meaning of each question was consistent with the English version, and then, as a final check, it was back translated into English.

Once translated, the design of the questionnaire had to be reconsidered to accommodate changes that came with the use of the Chinese language. It is important that the majority of respondents understand the questions and have the knowledge to answer them (Harkness *et al.*, 2004). Even slight wording differences can confuse respondents and lead to the wrong interpretation of the question. Effort was made to avoid private and sensitive questions (Su and Parham, 2002). The terminology needs to be understandable, and the questionnaire needs to be friendly and as easy to fill in as possible (Del Greco *et al.*, 1987). The questionnaire had to reflect Chinese culture and common practices, and also had to precisely communicate and deliver the meaning of the original questions written in English. The Chinese version of questionnaire for domestic students is presented in Appendix D.

5.4 Pre-testing of the questionnaire

It is important to carry out a pre-test because it is likely that problems cannot always be predicted, and account must be taken of issues that may arise during the application of the questionnaire. This helps the researcher to obtain better results. Without a pre-test, time, cost and credibility could be compromised if any serious problems are identified with the questionnaire in the main study. In this case, the questionnaire would have to be recreated and all information gathered would be lost. Goode and Hatt (1972) argue that no amount of

thought, no matter how logical the mind or how brilliant the understanding, can replace a careful empirical verification. It is important to know how the data collection instrument behaves in a real situation through a pre-test.

According to Hartley *et al.* (1970), pre-tests can be performed even in the initial stages, when the instrument is still in development, when the researcher can carry the test out through a personal interview. Each part of the procedure must be designed and implemented exactly as it would be in the context of live data collection. The questionnaire should be presented in a final format and the sample (although smaller) should be obtained according to the same plan that will generate the final sample. The results of the pre-test are then tabulated so that the limitations of the instrument are known.

Pre-testing is a very important step in survey research. It is necessary to ensure that errors that are associated with survey research are reduced (Reynolds *et al.*, 1993). It helps to improve the quality of data significantly. Pre-testing can help the researcher to identify questions that don't make sense to participants, or spot problems with the questionnaire that might lead to biased answers (Faux, 2010). The aim of the pre-testing was to establish construct reliability and to ensure that items and instructions are clear and understandable, which assists the study in achieving appropriate responses (McLafferty, 2003).

After creating the questionnaire, the researcher and the supervisory team double-checked it for spelling errors and had other colleagues read and check it. Pre-testing was also done with five Chinese students who were studying abroad but not on the BUA TNE program. This pre-testing took place in February 2017 and was observed by the researcher. Places where the respondents hesitated or made mistakes were noted. Hesitations are an indication that the survey questions and layout are not clear enough and so these areas were reviewed, and where necessary revised. After the pre-test, the respondents were asked a series of questions regarding the survey. Such a procedure can also help detect problems with the questionnaire design leading to ambiguity of words, misinterpretation of questions, inability to answer a question, and sensitive questions, as well as the process of administering the survey. It also provides an opportunity to give feedback to the researcher to ensure objectivity in data collection (Perneger, 2015). This initial pre-testing phase took place one month prior to the pilot study (preliminary study) and several months before the data collection for the main study began. This pre-testing was useful in assuring the reliability and validity of the data collection instrument and the analytic techniques to be used in the later stages of the study.

5.5 Pilot test of the questionnaire

Pilot testing is establishing if the research instrument will work in the main project by trialling it on a small number of people identified as a pilot population (Ellis and Levy, 2010). The purpose of using a pilot test is to make sure that the questions will be understood by all respondents in the same way. In other words, pilot testing will reduce the error or weaknesses of the questions before use in the main study. This also helps the researcher to estimate the length of time that it will take to complete the questionnaire and inform the actual respondents accordingly.

There are several ways to establish the extent to which respondents understand the questionnaires. This can include retrospective interviews which ask respondents about timing whilst paying attention to difficult questions and asking them for feedback about the survey. This approach takes account of cultural sensitivity and gathers feedback on the nature of the research instrument. Feedback can also be obtained via debriefing to understand patterns of feedback and to use the data to revise the research instruments or measurement strategies.

Once a questionnaire has been developed, each question and the questionnaire as a whole must be evaluated rigorously before being finally administered to the respondents (Goodman *et al.*, 1998). Before starting the main study and testing the research hypotheses on the main sample, it is important to pilot the survey and test it on a smaller scale, especially when the research is longitudinal and quantitative measures are used in the test (Chaudhuri *et al.*, 2006). The researcher needs to make sure the chosen methods are suitable, valid, reliable and effective, as well as being free from problems or errors. This evaluation phase is called a pilot study (Hassan *et al.*, 2006). There are several reasons for doing a pilot study, which include (i) improving the data collection routine involved in the research; (ii) checking the appropriateness of the standards; (iii) generating additional knowledge that might not be available without testing; (iv) correcting errors before the survey is used on the main sample to gather real data; and (v) testing for comprehension, clarity, ambiguity and difficulty of response (Van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2002). The most critical functions of a pilot study, however, are that it helps to ensure the validity of the study design and its ability to capture the required data, it establishes the reliability of the measuring instruments to be used in testing the hypotheses of the main research, and it confirms the practicability of the questionnaire design (Van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001).

The pilot study for this project was carried out in March 2017 and it involved a group of the BUA students who were on the joint TNE programme who were studying at HAU (Graduating

Class of 2017 who arrived in the UK in September 2016) and a group of non-sojourning students who were in their final year of study at BUA. The *Overview of the Pilot Questionnaire Data Collected* can be found in Appendix E. In addition to completing the questionnaire the students were also asked to provide feedback on their experience of completing the questionnaire so that issues could be addressed. The purpose of the pilot study was to establish the feasibility of the approach for future waves of the main longitudinal study. The pilot study also helped further check whether the survey questions were understood while the open questions provided the researcher with new ideas that may not have been considered before (Little *et al.*, 2015). The pilot study did identify a small number of issues with the questionnaire that subsequently led to some minor modifications. A preliminary analysis of the data generated by the pilot study was also conducted to check on feasibility, but this did not show-up any issues. In this instance the pilot study not only informed the design of the main longitudinal study, but it also helped to inform the design of the follow up depth interviews conducted in Study 2. The data from this preliminary scoping study was also used to generate two papers: “*Motivations and expectations of study abroad: evidence from a study of Chinese undergraduate students on a higher education Trans-National Education (TNE) programme*”, which was published in the *Journal of Academic Development and Education*;⁹ and “*Entrepreneurship education in China: evidence from a preliminary scoping study of enterprising tendency in Chinese university students*”, which was published in the *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*.¹⁰

5.6 Data collection

This section provides a detailed overview of the data collection process adopted for this quantitative study, including institution selection and questionnaire distribution (5.6.1), and population and sampling (5.6.2).

5.6.1 Institution selection and questionnaire distribution

The aim of data collection is gathering useful information to answer research questions. It involves locating the site and identifying the individuals to study as well as gaining access to

⁹ Liu, T., Walley, K., Adkins, P., Pugh, G., Turner, S. and Tan, F. 2018. Motivations and expectations of study abroad: evidence from a study of Chinese undergraduate students on a higher education Trans-National Education (TNE) programme. *The Journal of Academic Development and Education*, (10), pp. 52-67.

¹⁰ Liu, T., Walley, K., Pugh, G. and Adkins, P. 2020. Entrepreneurship education in China: Evidence from a preliminary scoping study of enterprising tendency in Chinese university students. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 12 (2), pp. 305-326

participants who will be willing to provide the necessary information (Marshall, 2005). As Bush and White (1985) noted, whether a researcher can achieve access is highly dependent on how the researcher approaches potential respondents, and the best approach is to gain access to the target subjects through personal contacts. The researcher must select a reachable but representative sample and adopt the most cost-effective approach in gathering the data (Kazi and Khalid, 2012). Culture means that Chinese people are not willing to let other people know too much about themselves unless they know who they are talking to. In the Chinese context, who you know is often more important than what you know (Fan, 2000). In this instance, therefore, the choice of research location and target sample was determined by accessibility and feasibility, the type of research design, the cost involved, time constraints and the achievement of an acceptable response rate.

Choosing the TNE program between BUA and HAU, it was possible to target an appropriate sample of students. There are several reasons for choosing BUA, an institution located in Beijing, China. First, after reviewing the existing literature on entrepreneurship and international education, it was apparent that, as a subject, entrepreneurial proclivity is under researched in developing countries like China. It appears that no research has been conducted focusing on the Chinese sojourning students and returnees in terms of their entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial behaviour. This is one of the first studies to investigate the effects of study abroad on the entrepreneurial proclivity of Chinese university students. China is the third largest country in the world with the world's largest population and it is now one of the world's major economic powers with a high growth rate (Songling *et al.*, 2019). For more than 700 years, Beijing has served as the capital of China and the principal seat of government (Cheng, 2019). Beijing is also the political and economic centre of China. It has the highest concentration of sojourning students and returnees in the country (Meng, 2019). Therefore, Beijing, China was chosen as the target location for the study. Second, Beijing is the researcher's hometown and the researcher graduated from the TNE program run by BUA and HAU (Graduating Class of 2012). More importantly, the supervisory team had links with the TNE program that assisted the researcher to set up this research project and also provided much insightful background information about the TNE programme, policy and students' developmental issues. This helped overcome any obstacles to undertaking this research particularly with respect to accessibility, cultural and linguistic barriers. The TNE programme was familiar to the researcher, and it was relatively easy for the researcher to access. Therefore, after careful consideration of the timeframe, in terms of the time available for the PhD and for the data collection, and the finances available to carry out the research, it

appeared reasonable to focus on the TNE program between BUA and HAU. From a technical perspective, the sample appeared to be both useful and feasible.

5.6.2 Population and sampling

A population is all the elements that meet the sample criteria for inclusion in a study and they should be clearly and accurately defined (Patten, 2016). The sample that provides the information is very important to the representativeness of the research (McDaniel and Gates, 2013). Ideally, the survey should have been completed by all the Chinese students who have studied overseas but this is clearly not possible. It is unfeasible to study entire populations because of time and cost constraints. Due to the nature of the current study, and in particular the numbers involved and the absence of a contact database it is not possible to generate a list of all the Chinese students who have studied overseas. As a result, data collection for this study adopted a convenience sampling approach and focused on Chinese students from BUA. The population identified for this study were 54 Chinese students who studied overseas at HAU and 61 domestic Chinese students (Graduating Class of 2018). In effect, the sample of Chinese students who studied overseas constitutes the entire group of BUA students who studied in the UK in the academic year 2017/18.

It must be acknowledged that the limited sample size of those participating in this study allows only restricted generalisation of the findings, but it does provide a starting point for further research. It cannot be claimed that the student sample is completely representative of all university students in China, but the sample is both useful and feasible. The sample is well balanced with both male and female respondents. Moreover, the sample reflects the preponderance of female business students that is a characteristic of business programmes in China generally. So, the sample does approximate to the profile of the broader population of business students in terms of gender. For future research, it is acknowledged that it would be useful to carry out a larger study involving a bigger sample drawn from a range of different universities in China and studying different subjects.

5.7 Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data refers to numerical data which can be analysed using various univariate, bivariate and multivariate techniques (Bryman and Cramer, 2009). In order to analyse the quantitative data, the IBM SPSS Statistics version 25 software and the Stata Statistics Software Version 15 were used. The software implement statistical and econometric

techniques that allow the discovery of differences and relationships in data (Cramer, 2003). In this research, the process of analysing the quantitative data involved four major steps: (i) cleaning and organizing the data for analysis (data preparation); (ii) describing the data (descriptive analysis); (iii) testing hypotheses and models (inferential analysis); and (iv) examining relationships among multiple variables. All of these steps will be discussed in detail in the sections that follow.

5.7.1 Data preparation

Data preparation consists of (i) editing the data; (ii) coding the data; (iii) capturing the data and (iv) cleaning the data (Sapsford and Jupp, 1996). Editing the data ensures that the questionnaire has been filled out properly and completely. It may include discarding incomplete responses that have missing data and identifying potential errors in data collection (Seale and Kelly, 2004). Coding the data uses numerals to enable the responses to be grouped into a limited number of classes or categories. This involves identifying, classifying and assigning a numeric or character symbol to data (Phakiti, 2010). In this study, pre-coding and post-coding were used in coding the data. Pre-coding was used for the closed-ended questions, multiple choice questions, and scale questions, because the answers to these questions could be anticipated before the questionnaires were distributed. However, for the open-ended questions, the post-coding technique had to be used after the questionnaires were received, because the answers could not be anticipated in advance. Data entry and capture are the tasks involved in the direct input of coded data into the software that will ultimately allow the researcher to analyse and transform the raw data into useful information (Fielding, 2001). In this study, the data from the completed questionnaires, both online questionnaires using Google Forms and paper questionnaires, was exported and manually entered into Microsoft Excel, and then exported into SPSS and/or Stata. Data cleaning is the error checking process conducted after data entry and before data analysis to identify ambiguities as well as coding and data capture errors (Park, 2011).

5.7.2 Measures

A quantitative study may seek to attain data concerning several types of variable, including dependent variables, independent variables, and control variables (Watson, 2015).

- **Dependent variables**

Dependent variables are the focus for the study and are dependent on the independent variable(s) (Cohen *et al.*, 2013). The effects of international education on entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) of Chinese students are the focus of this study and the assessments made centred around these issues. Thus, the dependent variable in this study is entrepreneurial proclivity as determined by enterprising tendency (measured by GET) and entrepreneurial intention.

- **Independent variables**

Independent variables are the variables that are assumed to have a direct effect on the dependent variable. Independent variables are variables that are selected by researchers and whose effects are measured and compared. The independent variables predict or forecast the values of the dependent variable in the model (Holton and Burnett, 2005). Indeed, research is often undertaken with the express purpose of looking for the combination of independent variables that have the greatest effect on the dependent variables (Taheri, 2015). In this study, the independent variables of interest are the measures of international education and entrepreneurship education.

- **Control variables**

The term demographics refers to particular characteristics of a population. Demographic variables are, by definition, also independent variables, but they may also serve to control for influences on the dependent variables that otherwise may be mistakenly attributed to the independent variables of interest. Demographic information provides data regarding research participants and is necessary for the determination of whether the individuals in a particular study are a representative sample of the target population (Watson, 1998). The demographic variables in this study included age, gender, hometown, household income, father's occupation, mother's occupation, father's education level, mother's education level and family business.

5.7.3 Statistical approach

Data analysis in quantitative research refers to the process of breaking down the collected data into essential parts with the aim of answering the research questions (Maxim, 1999). Statistical analysis seeks to determine whether the results are due to chance and concludes

whether relationships in the data set are statistically significant or insignificant (Finlay and Agresti, 1986).

- **Factor analysis**

Several independent variables conveying much the same information may be related to the same dependent variable. To reduce the independent variables to a single factor variable, requires both that the independent variables are individually correlated with the dependent variable and that independent variables are highly correlated to each other (Child, 1990). Factor analysis ensures that both of the conditions are fulfilled and provides standard diagnostic tests to check these conditions.

Factor analysis, in the form of confirmatory factor analysis, was also used in this study to check the validity and reliability of the constructs of the questionnaire. Factor analysis is used to reduce the number of variables and to detect structure in the relationship between variables, and to discover the underlying constructs that explain variance (Thompson, 2004). Cronbach's alpha was also used for checking internal consistency (Kline, 2014).

- **Descriptive analysis**

Descriptive statistics are the first stage of analysis and are used to examine how data or individuals were distributed in relation to a single variable. Descriptive analysis refers to the transformation of raw data into a form that provides basic information to describe a set of factors that are easy to understand and interpret (Mertens *et al.*, 2017). Descriptive statistics provide information about central tendency expressed as the mean, median, and mode; as well as the spread of the data in terms of the variance, standard deviation, range and interquartile range. Descriptive statistics describe data by investigating the distribution of scores for each variable and determine whether the scores on different variables are inter-related (Albers, 2017). An initial analysis of the data collected in this study was undertaken using descriptive statistics to describe the characteristics of the sample.

- **Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach**

The Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach is used in this current study to estimate the effect of study abroad on students' entrepreneurial proclivity. DiD is not a statistical technique but an approach to identifying and measuring treatment effects. It can be implemented in

different ways. Independent sample t-tests applied directly to the observed data, ANOVA and SUR are three statistical or econometric approaches to implementing DiD analysis.

The DiD approach is a quasi-experimental statistical research technique that researchers use to study causal relationships in quantitative research in the social sciences. By studying the differential effect of a treatment on a 'treatment group' versus a 'comparison group', it calculates the effect of a treatment (i.e., study abroad effect in this study) on an outcome (i.e., students' entrepreneurial proclivity – captured by enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention – in this study) by comparing the average change over time in the outcome variable for the treatment group (i.e., sojourning group in this study) to the average change over time for the comparison group (i.e., domestic group in this study).

As can be seen in Table 5.4 below, the current study will compare the before and after difference for the sojourning group with the before and after difference for the domestic group. That is to say, if study abroad has an effect on entrepreneurial proclivity, this will be apparent in systematic differences between the "before and after" changes for treatment and comparison group students. To this end, the DiD approach compares cells (A) and (C) for sojourning students, and cells (B) and (D) for domestic students. The effect of the study abroad will be calculated as $(C-A) - (D-B)$, which is

(sojourning students' average score for entrepreneurial proclivity after study abroad - sojourning students' average score of entrepreneurial proclivity before study abroad)

minus

(domestic students' average score of entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial group study abroad - domestic students' average score of entrepreneurial proclivity after the same period of time);

In other words, the difference between the difference $(C-A)$ and the difference $(D-B)$; hence, Difference-in-Differences (DiD). This enables a test of the main null hypothesis:

H_0 : "Study abroad has no positive effect on entrepreneurial proclivity scores".

Evidence: difference in entrepreneurial proclivity scores for sojourning students (β_0) is the same as the difference in entrepreneurial proclivity scores for domestic students (β_3)

Table 5.4 Evaluating the effect of study abroad on students' entrepreneurial proclivity

Entrepreneurial proclivity (Mean score)	Before study abroad Time 0	After study abroad Time 1	Difference
Sojourning students (Treatment group)	A	C	C-A (β_0)
Domestic students (Comparison group)	B	D	D-B (β_3)
Difference	A-B (β_1)	C-D (β_2)	D-I-D

(Source: author)

In contrast to either (i) a time-series estimate of the study abroad effect on entrepreneurial proclivity, which analyzes differences in a single group over time, or (ii) a cross-section estimate of the study abroad effect, which measures the difference between treatment (sojourning) and comparison groups at a single point in time, the DiD approach uses both the time-series and the cross-sectional dimensions of longitudinal data to identify the differences – if any – between the sojourning and domestic group consequent upon study abroad.

The advantage of using the DiD approach is that it completely eliminates individual fixed effects, because individual effects that are constant over time drop out upon differencing (i.e., C-A and D-B). Accordingly, no restrictions need be placed on the distribution of the individual effects. According to Lechner (2011), DiD approaches are applied in situations where certain groups are exposed to a treatment (in this study, study overseas) and others are not. The logic of DiD is best explained with an example based on two groups and two periods. In the first period, none of the groups is exposed to treatment. In the second period, only one of the groups gets exposed to treatment, but not the other.

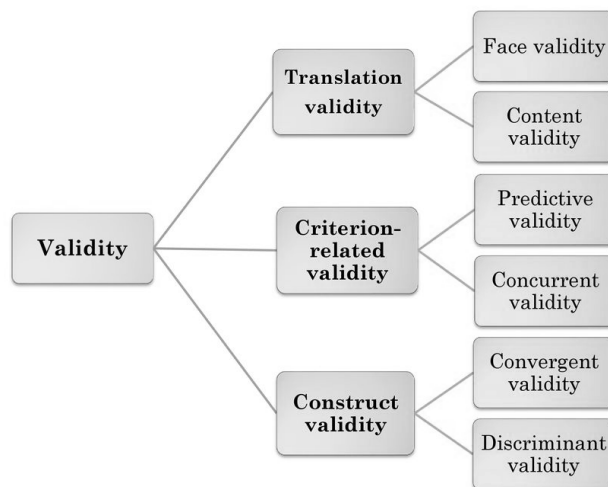
5.8 Validity and reliability of the quantitative study

Validity and reliability have been identified as the two most important generic measures of the success of a research project (Abowitz and Toole, 2009). This study attempts to reduce measurement errors and strengthen the reliability and validity of the study by using structured questionnaires. The questionnaire was structured to ensure consistency and the sample frame was carefully selected to make sure that the data was representative and useful. It was based on an extensive literature review, and on the GET2 test which is a long established and well-constructed survey (Caird, 1991). The GET2 test has been extensively validated and recommended by academics as reliable, it has criterion validity, convergent validity and good internal consistency (Cromie and Callaghan, 1997). In addition, the questionnaire in this study

was pre-tested and piloted and revised in response to feedback received from respondents and experts. The consistency of the measurement was improved. Most of the survey and the data input were carried out by just one person to ensure consistency.

5.8.1 Validity

Validity is defined as the extent to which a concept is accurately measured in a quantitative study (Heale and Twycross, 2015). As Figure 5.1 below shows, there are three types of validity which are translation validity, construct validity and criterion-related validity.



(Source: adapted from Adcock and Collier, 2001)

Figure 5.1 Types of validity

Translation validity refers to the extent to which the instrument adequately measures the concept (Winter, 2000). In other words, validity is a function of how well the elements and measurements of a concept have been delineated. Face validity and content validity are subsets of translation validity. Secondly, criterion-related validity relates to any other instrument that measures the same variable. It is a measure of how well instruments differentiate and predict each criterion variable (Rourke and Anderson, 2004). There are two types of criterion-related validity, which are predictive validity and concurrent validity. Predictive validity means that the instrument should produce high correlations with future criteria. For example, a score of high self-efficacy related to performing a task should predict the likelihood of a participant completing the task. Thirdly, construct validity refers to how well the results used in the proposed measurement fit with the theories for which the test is designed (Lawshe, 1975). According to Markon *et al.*, (2011), there are two types of construct validity which are convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity shows that an instrument is highly correlated with instruments measuring similar variables. Discriminant validity shows that an instrument is poorly correlated to instruments that measure different

variables. For example, there should be a low correlation between an instrument that measures motivation and one that measures self-efficacy.

It is the ability of a scale to measure the intended concepts. Table 5.5 summarises the different types of validity and, because of their relevance, the narrative will now (briefly) consider the three main types of validity (translation validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity) in the context of this study.

Table 5.5 Types of validity and their definition

Validity		Description
Translation validity	Content validity	Measures the concept accurately.
	Face validity	A tool appears to measure what it is supposed to measure
Criterion related validity	Predictive validity	An instrument to differentiate and predict a future criterion.
	Concurrent validity	An instrument to differentiate and predict a criterion variable currently.
Construct validity	Convergent validity	Two instruments measuring the concept correlate highly.
	Discriminant validity	An instrument correlated lowly with a variable supposedly unrelated to this variable.

(Source: adapted from Del Greco *et al.*, 1987; Roberts *et al.*, 2006 and Drost, 2011)

- **Translation validity**

Translation validity seeks to answer the question of whether the current test covers all relevant items needed to answer the research question (Litwin, 1995). Translation validity ensures that the measure includes an adequate and representative set of items which may explain the concept. Translation validity is a function of how well a concept has been defined in terms of its dimensions and elements (Raczkowski *et al.*, 1974). The translation validity of this research was confirmed by the entrepreneurship expert who reviewed the questionnaire before it was pre-tested and piloted. During the pre-testing and the pilot study stage, the respondents were asked to describe any difficulties they had in completing the questionnaire in order to improve the translation validity. Five Chinese students studying overseas took part in the pre-testing and 60 Chinese students studying overseas and 64 domestic students took part in the pilot study.

- **Criterion-related validity**

Criterion-related validity refers to the degree of correlation between the current test and the predetermined standard (Heale and Twycross, 2015). Predetermined standard scores are those that had been obtained by prior studies and have been held to be valid (Drost, 2011).

Criterion-related validity deals with the instrument's ability to measure an item and analyse the data accurately. In this study criterion-related validity was established through the use of variables which had been defined and used previously in the literature. Also, the survey instrument was built on the existing GET2 test, which had previously been extensively tested for reliability and validity. In this study, measurement of entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) is achieved mainly via the use of a very well established five-point Likert-type scale.

- **Construct validity**

Construct validity refers to how well a test measures up to its claims or in other words how well the operational definition of a variable actually reflects the true theoretical meaning of a concept (Lambert, 1996). In order to establish the construct validity of the survey instrument used in this study, a factor analysis was conducted to assess the underlying structure, and the results (see Appendix I) suggested that the research instrument was of an acceptable standard.

5.8.2 Reliability

Reliability relates to the consistency of a measurement instrument and to individual measures. For example, when a person takes a vocabulary test twice, their scores on the two occasions should be very similar, everything else being equal. If this is the case, the test can then be described as reliable. The attributes of reliability are related to homogeneity or internal consistency as well as stability and equivalence (Roberts, Priest and Traynor, 2006). Internal consistency relates to the homogeneity of the items in the measurement of constructs using split-half reliability, item to total correlation, the Cronbach's Alpha and Kuder–Richardson formulas (Davey, Plewa and Struwig, 2011). Stability is established using test-retest and parallel or alternate form reliability testing. Equivalence validity relates to the consistency of responses across numerous users of an instrument.

In this study reliability was established using internal consistency between different measures of the same concept (e.g. of enterprising tendency, see Chapter 6) which can be estimated by using a reliability coefficient such as Cronbach's α (Eisinga *et al.*, 2013). Thus, this research used Cronbach's α to measure internal reliability. Typically, a reliability coefficient of 0.7 or higher is considered to be adequate. The higher the coefficient value, the higher the degree

of reliability and the better the measurement instrument (Cronbach, 1947). The rule of thumb of Cronbach will use a 0 to 1 scale as shown in Table 5.6 below.

Table 5.6 Rule of thumb on Cronbach’s Alpha

Cronbach’s alpha	Degree of Reliability
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$	Good
$0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$	Questionable
$0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

(Source: adapted from Brown 2002)

The original GET2 test comprised 54 dichotomously scaled items and respondents were simply asked to “agree” or “disagree” with those statements. In this study, however, the test was modified to incorporate a 6-point measurement scale for responses based on a traditional Likert scale design, with “1” representing “strongly disagree”, “5” representing “strongly agree” and “0” representing “don’t know”. As Santos (1999) highlighted, when one modifies an instrument in a study, the original validity and reliability may not hold for the new instrument and it becomes necessary to establish validity and reliability during data analysis. In consequence, as the original GET2 instrument had been adapted, Cronbach’s alpha was calculated to conduct a reliability check of the internal consistency of the survey scales. The adapted GET2 scales in the survey were considered reliable ($\alpha=0.849$) as it exceeded the Cronbach’s alpha threshold level of 0.7, which was considered “good” according to the criteria set by Brown (2002).

5.9 Common method bias

Common method bias basically occurs in survey research when all data (independent variables, dependent variables and control variables) are collected using the same method, potentially resulting in the artificial inflation of relationships (Siemsen, Roth and Oliveira, 2010). Most researchers (Kock, 2015; Schwarz, 2017; Jordan and Troth, 2020) agree that common method bias is a potential problem in social science research, because they are one of the main sources of measurement error. Measurement error threatens the validity of the conclusions about the relationships between measures and so it is important to minimize common method bias.

Every effort was undertaken to make sure that as far as possible common method bias was as low as feasibly achievable for this study (Burton-Jones, 2009). This was done by making sure that the participants who took part in the survey were anonymous. Statement ambiguity was minimized by the careful pre-testing and piloting of the questionnaire (Meadows, 2003). Some construct items were reverse coded to mitigate the bias of acquiescence.

5.10 Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed the research design of the quantitative study comprising questionnaire design, questionnaire distribution and collection techniques and procedures, population, and quantitative data analysis. This chapter also highlights the measurement imperatives with regard to validity and reliability, statistical controls, and checks for common method bias. The next chapter will consider the findings from Study 1 and provide an initial interpretation of them in the form of a discussion.

Chapter 6 Study 1 – Findings and Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed overview of the research findings of the Study 1 quantitative surveys and a discussion of the statistical analysis of the data provided by 112 respondents. The major objective of this quantitative study is to establish what, if any, difference does a study abroad experience make to entrepreneurial proclivity (i.e., enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention). The study will further develop the *Extended Theoretical Framework* presented in Chapter 3 Figure 3.4 of entrepreneurial proclivity and study abroad, and how study abroad and selected socio-demographic and economic factors, e.g., gender, age, hometown, household income, family business, entrepreneurship education, parents' education level and parents' occupation, influence entrepreneurial proclivity.

This chapter addresses the following two research questions (RQs):

1. Are there any significant differences between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial group studies abroad (at Time 0)? Addressing this question provides a check on the validity of the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach.
2. Is there a significant difference between the before and after differences of the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their entrepreneurial proclivity? This question implements the DiD approach.

The chapter first considers the descriptive statistics relating to the survey data in order to describe the profile of the respondents. This is followed by a more detailed analysis of the data. RQ1 checks the validity of DiD analysis, by addressing concerns that any treatment effects identified by DiD analysis may reflect pre-existing differences rather than study abroad. RQ2 is addressed by a DiD approach to identifying treatment effects.¹¹ The DiD analysis is

¹¹ The DiD approach to identifying and measuring treatment effects was well established in the social sciences by 2006 at the latest. Moreover, DiD analysis is particularly appropriate when performed on panel or longitudinal data (i.e. with the same individuals in periods before and after some treatment), because this design feature controls for influences from the time-invariant unobserved characteristics of the individuals. According to Athey and Imbens (2006: 431), writing in a journal ranked 4 from 53 in Social Sciences and Mathematical Methods: "Difference-in-differences (DiD) methods for estimating the effect of policy interventions have become very popular in economics. These methods are used in problems with multiple subpopulations – some subject to a policy intervention or treatment and others not – and outcomes that are measured in each group before and after the policy intervention (although not necessarily for the same individuals)." They continue in a footnote: "In other social sciences such methods are also widely used, often under other labels such as the "untreated control group design with independent pretest and posttest samples ...". 20 references to studies in major journals are cited in support of

implemented by three approaches: (i) independent-sample t-tests applied directly to the observed data; (ii) ANOVA; and (iii) Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR), which is believed to be novel in the entrepreneurship literature.¹² Following the analysis, a synopsis of the main findings and preliminary discussion of the findings is presented. Finally, the limitations of the Study 1 quantitative survey are acknowledged. A further discussion of the survey findings is presented in the main discussion chapter (Chapter 9) where they are integrated with the findings from the Depth Interviews conducted in Study 2.

6.2 The data analysis process

The data for the Study 1 quantitative survey was provided by two separate groups of students. One group (the treatment group) was the final year sojourning students in the TNE program, who studied in the UK, and who were asked to complete the questionnaire online using Google Forms. The other group (the comparison group) was the final year domestic students who were on a four-year degree's course, had studied entirely at BUA, and who were asked to complete a hard copy questionnaire under the auspices of a member of the supervisory team. Both groups of students completed the questionnaire at the start of their final year (Time 0) and the end of their final year (Time 1). Table 6.1 below presents an overview of the timeline of the research process.

these contentions. Moreover: "Several recent surveys describe other applications and give an overview of the methodology ...".

¹² SUR analysis represents a point of contact between regression analysis, which is common in economics and the life sciences, and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), which is common in many areas of social science outside of economics. SUR analysis is one amongst several models commonly used by SEM practitioners (e.g., it appears as Example 12 in Stata's reference manual for Structural Equation Modelling – packaged with Stata 17). Recent developments in theory together with a user-written programme for Stata – referenced later in this Chapter – have given practitioners the means to apply SUR models with random effects to panel (longitudinal) data, which is the modelling strategy adopted in this chapter.

Table 6.1 Research process timeline

When	What	Who	How	Where
Jan 2017	Questionnaire design	Researcher	Online questionnaire: Google forms	UK
Feb 2017	Revised by supervision team	Researcher and supervisors		UK
Mar 2017	Questionnaire pre-test	5 sojourning students (HAZU students in International Agri-food & Marketing and Food Chain Management)	Online questionnaire: Google forms	UK
Mar 2017	Pilot study with sojourning students	72 sojourning students (BUA students from TNE program in HAU, class of 2017)	Online questionnaire: Google forms	UK
Mar 2017	Pilot study with domestic students	66 domestic students (BUA students in China, class of 2017)	Hard-copy questionnaire	Beijing, China
April 2017	Analysis of pilot study results	Total 128 responses	SPSS, EXCEL	UK
Oct 2017	Study 1 - longitudinal study with sojourning students (Time 0)	54 sojourning students (BUA students from TNE program in HAU, class of 2018)	Online questionnaire: Google forms	UK
Oct 2017	Study 1 - longitudinal study with domestic students (Time 0)	61 domestic students (BUA students in China, class of 2018)	Hard-copy questionnaire	Beijing, China
June 2018	Study 1 - longitudinal study with sojourning students (Time 1)	54 sojourning students (BUA students from TNE program in HAU, class of 2018)	Online questionnaire: Google forms	UK
June 2018	Study 1 - longitudinal study with domestic students (Time 1)	58 domestic students (BUA students in China, class of 2018)	Hard-copy questionnaire	Beijing, China
July 2018	Analysis of longitudinal study results	Total 227 responses	SPSS, EXCEL, STATA	UK

(Sources: author)

Authorization for the use of the GET2 test was obtained from the test designer and ethical approval was obtained from the HAU and BUA Research Ethics Committee before the research was conducted. Table 6.2 below indicates the number of students who responded to the surveys.

Table 6.2 Sample size

Group	Target sample size	Time 0	Time 1
Overseas students	54	54	54
Domestic students	61	61	58

(Sources: author)

Once the questionnaires had been completed, the data from the online questionnaire were transferred from Google Forms to Microsoft Excel while the data from the paper questionnaire were manually inputted directly into Microsoft Excel by the researcher. Then, the data was screened for errors and, where necessary, cleaned prior to coding. The *Overview of the Main Study Questionnaire Data Collected (Time 0)* can be found in Appendix G and the *Overview of the Main Study Questionnaire Data Collected (Time 1)* can be found in Appendix H. The

data were initially analysed using Excel but subsequently analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 25 and Stata Statistics Software (Stata) version 15. Accordingly, a variety of statistical and econometric approaches could be employed.

6.2.1 Validity and normality of measurements

Further to the discussion in Chapter 5, Study 1 – Quantitative methodology and methods, validity and normality of the survey data are very important for decreasing errors that might arise from measurement problems (Zohrabi, 2013). As a result, following data screening but before any data analysis was undertaken, tests for validity and normality were performed for the adapted GET2 scale employed in the questionnaire.

6.2.1.1 Validity

Validity of measurement can be described as the indication of whether the question has measured what it is supposed to measure in the study (Heale and Twycross, 2015). As discussed in detail in Chapter 5, the research instruments were tested for translation validity, criterion-related validity and construct validity. Validity was ensured through a comprehensive literature review and discussions with entrepreneurial experts and academics. In addition, the questionnaire design was investigated to establish 'fitness for purpose' through a pre-test with six Chinese students and a pilot test with 128 Chinese students.

6.2.1.2 Normality

Normality is an assumption of many inferential statistical analyses and can be assessed by obtaining skewness and kurtosis values (Jarque and Bera, 1980; Kotulski and Sobczyk, 1981). Therefore, before starting a detailed analysis of the survey data, *univariate* skewness and kurtosis tests were conducted to check how well the variables of interest conform to a normal distribution. This preliminary univariate analysis revealed that the enterprising tendency variable (T_Get_rev) does not have the expected values for skewness and kurtosis ($p=0.000$ in both cases), although a quantile plot reveals that these departures reflect outliers (three at either extreme end – i.e., beyond the fifth and 95th percentiles – of the distribution) and that otherwise the observations are normally or very close to normally distributed (StataCorp, 2011: 418). There is no reason to think that these outliers are not reliable data, so this project keeps these in the dataset. In the case of the entrepreneurial intention variable (RevQ11intention) the null hypothesis of no skewness cannot be rejected ($p=0.585$) while the null hypothesis of no excess kurtosis is rejected ($p=0.000$). In Section 6.2.2. (below) this project returns to this issue and reports evidence from tests of *multivariate* normal distribution suggesting that there is not a strong case for rejecting the validity of the normal distribution assumption for the data.

6.2.2 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a data reduction technique that takes a large set of variables and uses variance to look for ways to reduce or summarise the data using a smaller set of factors or components (Child, 1990). This can be used to reduce many relevant variables to a more manageable number before using them in other analyses (e.g., regression analysis). A confirmatory factor analysis based on principal component analysis (PCA) (Watkins, 2018) was employed to assess the basic structure of the adapted GET2 test and to gather information on the interrelationships between the variables.

PCA was carried out on the 25 items of the GET2 scale to check if there were any underlying variables within the enterprising tendency questions designed to capture the five specific constructs of: (i) need for achievement, (ii) need for autonomy, (iii) creative tendency, (iv) risk taking propensity and (v) internal locus of control. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed with the calculation of the KMO statistic. There is rule of thumb criteria for interpreting this statistic: a KMO value between 0.8 and 1 indicates adequate sampling; and a KMO value of less than 0.6 indicates inadequate sampling and that remedial measures should be taken. The result of the KMO test was 0.852, which indicates that the sampling is adequate. The Bartlett test of specificity correlation matrix reached statistical significance ($p=0.00$), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The PCA test revealed the presence of five components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (these results are reported in Appendix I). The results of this analysis support the use of the five factor scales (see Appendix F), as suggested by the original GET2 scale. Thus, it can be concluded that the adapted GET2 test in this study is both valid and reliable.

6.3 Estimation strategy

To test the main hypothesis – that study abroad has a positive effect on entrepreneurial proclivity – the longitudinal data is analysed to identify DiD treatment effects by using three approaches common across the social and life sciences. For example, in the context of medical research, Schober *et al.* (2018: 570) “distinguish 3 classes of commonly used approaches for the analysis of repeatedly measured data:

- The first class uses summary statistics ...
- The second class is historically prevalent and comprises ... ANOVA type of analysis.
- The third class comprises more modern and flexible regression-based techniques that allow for correlated observations ...”

Accordingly, the effects of study abroad on the components of entrepreneurial proclivity is analysed – i.e., entrepreneurial intention and enterprising tendency as follows.

1. To start, difference-in-differences analysis is conducted in two well-established ways, which in the context of two groups (i.e., sojourners and non-sojourners) and two periods (i.e., before and after the sojourners' study abroad) should yield the same results (Wooldridge, 2013: 451; Schober *et al.*, 2018: 570):
 - a. using independent-sample t-tests to compare (i) the mean difference between the sojourners' before to after measures with (ii) the mean difference in the non-sojourners' before and after measures; and
 - b. using one-way ANOVA to determine whether or not there are statistically significant differences between the before and after measures for the two groups.

2. The flexibility of the regression-based approach is then exploited to estimate the treatment effects (if any) by specifying a joint model of entrepreneurial intention and enterprising tendency, which allows (i) the study-abroad effect to be estimated conditional upon potential confounding influences, and (ii) a random effects specification "to control for the variation coming from different subjects", which addresses the problem of repeated responses from the same students giving rise to "non independent measurements" and, hence, potentially biased estimates and invalid inference (Schober *et al.*, 2018: 572 and 574).

In all three approaches, significance levels (p values) indicate whether the variable made a statistically significant contribution to the estimated model. According to Edwards (1985), if the significance level (p-value) is lower than 0.1 (10 per cent), then the variable makes a significant contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable. Conversely, if it is higher than 0.1, then it can be concluded that it does not make a significant contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable. Finally, there is a clear hypothesis supported by theory that study abroad has a positive effect on entrepreneurial proclivity. Accordingly, the test of statistical significance is not a test that some estimated effect size is zero against the alternative that it is non-zero in any direction but is, instead, a test that some effect size is zero against the alternative that it is non-zero *in a particular direction*. In such cases, the significance testing may be conducted as a one-tail rather than as a two-tail test.

6.4 Sample description and analysis

6.4.1 Respondent profiles

For the sojourning group, 54 students responded at both Time 0 and Time 1 of surveying. For the domestic group, 61 students responded at Time 0 while 58 responded at Time 1. Overall, 115 respondents participated in the longitudinal survey with 112 respondents responding to both the Time 0 and Time 1 surveys. Students who participated at Time 0 but not at Time 1 of the study were omitted from the data set, so the analyses that follow are based on the 112 valid cases. Table 6.3 below shows the demographic profile of the respondents.

Table 6.3 Demographic profile of the two groups

Variable	Sojourning students		Domestic students		Father's occupation				
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage					
Course									
IBM	23	42.6	58	100	Employee	6	11.1	13	22.4
FQRM	31	57.4			Manager	14	25.9	3	5.2
Gender					Professional	4	7.4	3	5.2
Male	14	25.9	15	25.9	Entrepreneur	13	24.1	11	19.0
Female	40	74.1	43	74.1	Civil Servant	1	1.9	7	12.1
Age					Military	2	3.7	0	0
20	2	3.7	8	13.8	Technician	1	1.9	2	3.4
21	38	70.4	31	53.4	Worker	6	11.1	4	6.9
22	11	20.4	10	17.2	Teacher	4	7.4	3	5.2
23	2	3.7	5	8.6	Researcher	1	1.9	1	1.7
24	1	1.9	3	5.2	Farmer	1	1.9	9	15.5
25	0	0	1	1.7	Unemployed	1	1.9	2	3.4
Hometown					Mother's occupation				
Beijing	45	83.3	43	74.1	Employee	9	16.7	15	25.9
Hubei	2	3.7	1	1.7	Manager	7	13	3	5.2
Shandong	1	1.7	0	0	Professional	3	5.6	1	1.7
Xinjiang	2	3.7	2	3.4	Entrepreneur	9	16.7	11	19.0
Henan	2	3.7	1	1.7	Civil Servant	3	5.6	6	10.3
Shanxi	1	1.7	4	6.9	Military	1	1.9	0	0
Liaoning	1	1.7	1	1.7	Worker	5	9.3	3	5.2
Anhui	0	0	3	5.2	Teacher	7	13	5	8.6
Hebei	0	0	1	1.7	Farmer	1	1.9	9	15.5
Yunnan	0	0	2	3.4	Unemployed	9	16.7	5	8.6
Family monthly household income					Father's education level				
¥1-¥5,000	4	7.4	8	13.8	Did not go to school at all	1	1.9	1	1.7
¥5,001-¥10,000	10	18.5	19	32.8	Less than high school degree	4	7.4	16	27.6
¥10,001-¥15,000	8	14.8	9	15.5	High school degree or equivalent	9	16.7	16	27.6
¥15,001-¥20,000	9	16.7	10	17.2	Some college but no degree	8	14.8	9	15.5
¥20,001-¥25,000	4	7.4	5	8.6	Bachelor's degree	20	37	14	24.1
¥25,001-¥30,000	6	11.1	4	6.9	Master's degree	11	20.4	2	3.4
¥30,001-¥35,000	3	5.6	1	1.7	PhD degree	1	1.9	0	0
¥35,001-¥40,000	1	1.9	0	0	Mother's education level				
¥40,001-¥45,000	1	1.9	1	1.7	Did not go to school at all	1	1.9	3	5.2
¥45,001-¥50,000	2	3.7	1	1.7	Less than high school degree	5	9.3	18	31.0
¥50,000 or more	6	11.1	0	0	High school degree or equivalent	10	18.5	12	20.7
Family business					Some college but no degree	9	16.7	9	15.5
Yes	18	33.3	34	58.6	Bachelor's degree	22	40.7	14	24.1
No	36	66.7	24	41.4	Master's degree	7	13	2	3.4

(Source: author)

For the sojourning group, 25.9 per cent of the respondents were male, and 74.1 per cent were female. For the domestic student group there were similarly more females than males. These percentages correspond to the fact that more females than males in China enrol on business and management courses and engage in overseas education in the UK. According to statistics from the China College Student Survey (CCSS) from 2010 to 2016, women account for approximately 58.7 per cent of university students in China, and female students were more likely to study subject areas allied to business and administrative studies (representing 64 per cent of students on those courses). The figures also approximate to those of the UK Council for International Student Affairs (UKCISA) who report that, in 2016-17, 66 per cent of Chinese students in the UK were female and just 34 per cent were male (UKCISA, 2018).

At Time 1 of the survey, 70.4 per cent of the sojourning students were aged 21, while 20.4 per cent were aged 22. Most domestic students at Time 1 of the survey were also aged either 21 or 22 years (53.4 per cent and 17.2 per cent respectively). This corresponds to Johnes and Li (2008), who found that the majority of Chinese students in higher education start their undergraduate degrees between 18 and 19 and complete by the age of 22.

83.3 per cent of the sojourning student group and 74.1 per cent of the domestic student group are from Beijing. In terms of approximate total monthly household income, the greatest proportion of the sojourning group (18.5 per cent) reported income of ¥5,001-¥10,000, while 16.7 per cent reported ¥15,001-¥20,000, and 14.8 per cent reported ¥10,001-¥15,000. In comparison, from the domestic group 32.8 per cent reported ¥5,001-¥10,000, while 17.2 per cent reported ¥15,001-¥20,000. Although the modal income categories are similar, the sojourning group tend to be under-represented in the lower and over-represented in the higher categories. However, both groups are typically in the ¥10,001-¥15,000 or higher income families in Beijing and in China. According to the 2020 edition of the National Bureau of Statistics of China, the average monthly household income in Beijing is ¥11,187, so that both the overseas and domestic groups typically come from families with average or above average household income. Moreover, according to the China National Bureau of Statistics, in 2020, the monthly income of urban households in China was approximately ¥3,685. In contrast to the income of urban households, rural households only recorded ¥1,416 in their monthly household income in 2020. Similar to the urban-rural income gap, income inequalities between coastal and western regions in China have become significant. In 2020, households in First Tier cities, e.g., Beijing and Shanghai displayed the highest average monthly income of nearly

¥6,166, while Heilongjiang, a province located in the Northeast of China, had the lowest average monthly household income with ¥2,575.

Respondents were asked an open-ended question about their parent's occupation. The greatest proportion of the sojourning group, 25.9 per cent, had a father who was a manager, while 24.1 per cent reported that their father's occupation was entrepreneur, which included small business owners, entrepreneurs and the self-employed. Most of the sojourning student group reported their mother's occupation as being an employee, entrepreneur or unemployed (all 16.7 per cent). In comparison, 22.4 per cent of the domestic student group reported their father's occupation to be employee, while 19.0 per cent reported it as entrepreneur, and 15.5 per cent reported it as farmer. Similarly, 25.9 per cent of the domestic student group reported their mother's occupation as employee while 20.7 per cent reported it as entrepreneur, and 15.5 per cent reported it as farmer. While there are large differences between the two groups in the reported occupations, fairly similar proportions of the two groups report either fathers (24.1 and 19 per cent respectively) or mothers (16.7 and 19 per cent respectively) as entrepreneurs, while 33.3 per cent of sojourning students and 58.6 per cent of domestic students report a business in their extended family background.

Most of the overseas respondents reported that their parent's highest educational level was bachelor's degree (37 per cent of fathers and 40.7 per cent of the mothers respectively). In comparison, and consistent with the occupational and income differences, the domestic respondents reported the majority of fathers as having the highest educational level of less than high school or as high school or high school degree or equivalent (27.6 in both cases) and 31.0 per cent of mothers as less than high school.

Overall, the typical profile for a sojourning student involved in this study is a woman aged 22, with a manager or entrepreneur as a father, a mother who is either an employee, entrepreneur or unemployed, a household income of an above average income per month, and parents who are educated to bachelor's degree level or above. The typical profile of a domestic student on the other hand is a woman aged 22, whose parents are employees (22.4 per cent for father and 25.9 per cent for mother), has a business in the extended family background (58.6 per cent), with a household income around or above the Beijing average, and parents' who have a high school degree or equivalent. Thus, although there are some differences (e.g., household income and parent's education level) between the two groups, the starting positions of the two groups are fairly similar with respect to key demographic characteristics, in particular with respect to their relative positions within China.

6.4.2 Entrepreneurship education

The questionnaire asked the students: *“Have you studied any small business or entrepreneurship modules in your degree so far?”* The responses are summarised in Table 6.4. Most of the students, both overseas and domestic, engage in entrepreneurship education at some point during their undergraduate study. However, there is a slight increase in the number of sojourning students who reported that they have attended entrepreneurship courses during the study abroad period while the number of domestic students who reported that they had studied entrepreneurship during the same year remained almost the same.

Table 6.4 Student participation rates in entrepreneurship education

Variables	Sojourning				Domestic			
	Time 0		Time 1		Time 0		Time 1	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Studied entrepreneurship	30	55.6	36	66.7	45	77.6	46	79.3
Not studied entrepreneurship	24	44.4	18	33.3	13	22.4	12	20.7

(Source: author)

The questionnaire further explored the students’ perception of entrepreneurship education by asking them to *“Please indicate how the small business or entrepreneurship modules have contributed to your knowledge and understanding?”*. Table 6.5 presents the summary statistics regarding the students perceived benefits of entrepreneurship education. It is apparent that between Time 0 and Time 1 there is an increased number of sojourning students who believed that entrepreneurship education had enhanced their: (i) *understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs*; (ii) *practical skills in order to start a business*; (iii) *ability to develop networks*; and (iv) *ability to identify an opportunity* after study abroad. However, there is a decrease in the number of domestic students who acknowledge the benefits of entrepreneurial education over the same period.

Table 6.5 Perceived benefits of entrepreneurship education

Variables	Sojourning				Domestic			
	Time 0		Time 1		Time 0		Time 1	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Increased your understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs.	26	86.7	31	88.1	44	97.8	41	89.1
Enhanced your practical skills in order to start a business	10	33.3	28	77.8	24	53.3	19	41.3
Enhanced your ability to develop networks	3	10	12	33.3	15	33.3	11	23.9
Enhanced your ability to identify an opportunity	12	40	17	47.2	23	51.1	21	45.7

(Source: author)

A possible explanation for these results may be that China still lags behind other countries in providing high quality entrepreneurship education and training. Entrepreneurship education is used to deliver entrepreneurial knowledge, skills and abilities to students to help them succeed should they choose to progress their career as an entrepreneur. A well-designed curriculum could motivate students and enhance the number interested in becoming an entrepreneur, while poorly designed programmes may instead demotivate students and reduce the number interested in becoming entrepreneurs. There are, however, other possible explanations. For instance, these results are likely to be related to the culture, as acculturation is especially important in the final year of a degree programme and students who study in China are essentially obliged to commit to traditional Chinese culture.

6.5 The foreign sojourn

Questions regarding the foreign sojourn were asked only of the sojourning group. The questions were intended to generate a rich picture about the students' overseas study experience. Some of these questions are multiple-choice, where the students could give as many responses as appropriate, while others took the form of a Likert scale that allowed the students the opportunity to choose only the one option that best aligns with their view.

For reasons of space, these descriptive findings are reported here in summary form. They are reported in full in Appendix J.

- The most important motives for studying abroad were *"I wanted to broaden my horizons"* and *"I wanted to experience different cultures"*, followed by the desire *"to improve my foreign language skills"* and *"improve the chances of getting a good job"*.
- Most respondents (37.0 per cent) indicated that they would return to China immediately and all the respondents said that they would return to China in the long term; e.g., after they finished a further course or had obtained some work experience. These results are consistent with Hao *et al.* (2016) who reported that in recent times more Chinese students are returning home after studying abroad, because of the strength of China's job market as well as its favourable domestic policies toward returnees.
- The most valued benefit of studying abroad is developing *independence*. Students also reported that, after the study abroad experience, they have accumulated a wide range of new skills and abilities such as *decision-making abilities*, *personal intellectual*

flexibility and problem-solving ability. These findings are consistent with those of Dwyer and Peters (2004) who found that studying and living in a new country and culture provides a host of mental and practical benefits, such as creative and innovative tendency, need for achievement, need for autonomy, an internal locus of control, flexibility, problem solving ability, risk-taking propensity, confidence and determination.

- Although many students (33.3 per cent) “*neither agree nor disagree*” that studying abroad is an advantage when starting a business, the majority (59.3 per cent) either “*strongly agree*” or “*agree*”. Other responses revealed that the sojourning students believed that the study abroad experience provided them with *advanced knowledge and skills, a broadened mind, knowledge of different cultures, foreign languages competence and a widened social network*. Such benefits may facilitate entrepreneurship by providing entrepreneurial knowledge, practical and soft skills. In particular, cross-cultural experience could promote understanding and development of entrepreneurial competencies.

To conclude, the effect that these responses are consistent with the hypothesised positive impact of study abroad on entrepreneurial proclivity.

6.5.1 Regression analysis of the study abroad decision

In this section, regression analysis, which is a parametric technique (Ratkowsky and Giles, 1990), is used to examine how effectively one or more (independent) variables can predict the value of another (dependent) variable. The dependent variable in this model is dichotomous as students can either study overseas or study domestically. A range of regression techniques have been developed for analysing data with categorical dependent variables, including logistic regression, which is preferred when there are only two categories of the dependent variable (Press and Wilson, 1978) and when there is a mixture of numerical and categorical independent variables, as in this study (Haggstrom, 1983). Accordingly, logistic regression was used in this study to quantify the extent to which, if any, the selected socio-demographic and economic factors (i.e., age, gender, hometown, household income, family business, parent’s education level and parent’s occupation) influence students’ decisions to study abroad. These finding not only complete the discussion of highlights from the survey responses, but also provide important information for specifying the Seemingly Unrelated Regression model presented in Section 6.6.3 below.

The following logistic regression model was used:

$$(y_i) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$$

Where i indexes the individual respondents ($= 1, 2, 3 \dots 224$); y = the dependent variable (study abroad decision); e is the exponential term; $z = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k$ such that $x_k = k$ independent variables and $\beta_k = k$ unknown parameters to be estimated.

For estimation purposes, ε_i = the observation-specific error term is also included together with a constant term. The regression constant or intercept term (β_0) controls for all systematic influences not included in the model, which include national, regional, and local cultural influences with similar effects on all respondents. Finally, the regression error term (ε_i) reflects all the unobservable, idiosyncratic influences on the study abroad decision of each individual respondent. Table 6.6 presents the definitions of the variables used in the regression analysis.

Table 6.6 Definition of study abroad variables used in regression analysis

Variable	Variables definition and unit of measurement
Dependent variable	
Study abroad	Binary Y=0 study domestic Y=1 study abroad
Independent variables	
Age	Age of the respondent, age in years
Gender	1=female; 0=male
Hometown	1= if in Beijing; 0= if otherwise
Father's occupation	1= if entrepreneurs; 0= if otherwise
Mother's occupation	1= if entrepreneurs; 0= if otherwise
Father's education level	1= if complete college or above; 0= if otherwise
Mother's education level	1= if complete college or above; 0= if otherwise
Family monthly income	1= if equal or above ¥ 15,000; 0= if otherwise
Family business	1=if have own business; 0= if otherwise

(Source: author)

The estimates from the logistic regression are reported in Table 6.7. The full model containing all predictors was subject to the Omnibus Test of Model Coefficients (testing the null that the estimated coefficients are jointly equal to zero), which supports the validity of the estimated model with a p value = 0.000. Thus, the results indicate that the model was able to distinguish between respondents who study abroad and those who studied entirely in Beijing. There is no agreed goodness-of-fit measure relating to logistic regression analysis. Two commonly used indicators are: the Cox and Snell R^2 ; and the Nagelkerke R^2 . The model generated a Cox and Snell R-Square of 0.440 and a Nagelkerke R-Square of 0.586, thus explaining between 44 per cent and 58.6 per cent of the variance in study abroad. The model also correctly classified

79.8 per cent of cases. Six of the independent variables made an individual statistically significant contribution: namely, age; hometown; household income; father's occupation; mother's education level; and father's education level.

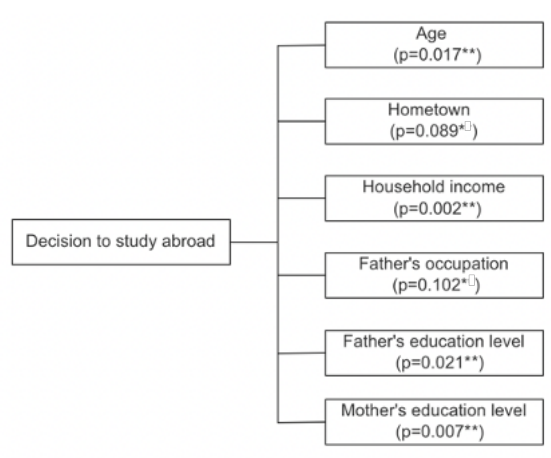
Table 6.7 Result for determinants of the study abroad decision

Independent variable	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig (p)
Regression constant	8.350	1.993	17.552	1	.000
Age	1.697	.715	5.637	1	.017**
Gender	.180	.673	.072	1	.789
Hometown	.614	.290	4.492	1	.089*
Household income	1.931	.626	9.511	1	.002**
Father's occupation	.480	.294	2.673	1	.102*
Mother's occupation	.231	.327	.501	1	.479
Father's education level	1.413	.613	5.324	1	.021**
Mother's education level	1.670	.614	7.390	1	.007**
Family business	.307	.679	.204	1	.651

Notes: **Significant at 5 per cent level; *Significant at 10 per cent level.

(Source: author)

The results of the logistic regression analysis are summarised in Figure 6.1 and are congruent with those of previous studies. For instance Pietro and Page (2008) found that family, especially the parents, are a key factor in influencing students' study abroad decisions. Similarly, Movassaghi *et al.* (2014) found students' study abroad decisions were influenced by family's socio-economic status and parents' education level. In general, students coming from families with an income in the upper or upper middle tier were most likely to study abroad, probably because parents with a higher annual income had a higher ability to pay for international education. Moreover, parents' education levels also affect their children's likelihood to study abroad, such that students from families with a high level of education are much more likely to go abroad to study.



Notes: **Significant at 5 per cent level; *Significant at 10 per cent level

(Source: author)

Figure 6.1 Determinant factors of study abroad

6.6 Study abroad and entrepreneurial proclivity

6.6.1 Estimation of study abroad effects using independent sample t-statistics

6.6.1.1 Entrepreneurial intentions

Entrepreneurial intentions are a precursor to entrepreneurial behaviour and may therefore be indicative of students' potential for future entrepreneurial behaviour (Douglas, 2020). In order to measure the students' entrepreneurial intentions, the students were asked the question: "To what extent have you felt motivated to start your own business?". Responses were obtained from all respondents (i.e., no missing values) on a five-point Likert scale with no "Don't know" category. Accordingly, the resulting ordinal categories (1, ..., 5, where the order of the numbers has an ordered meaning only) can be treated as, in effect, a cardinal (continuous) variable for analytic purposes (for an example of this practice in a substantive area of social scientific enquiry, see Piper, 2015).

The summary statistics for both the sojourning group and domestic group are shown in Table 6.8. The mean values for entrepreneurial intentions are presented for both Time 0 and Time 1. Mean is a good measure of central tendency. A mean score higher than 3 indicates strong entrepreneurial intention.

Table 6.8 Entrepreneurial intention among sojourning and domestic students

Entrepreneurial intention (Mean score)	Time 0 (Sep 2017)	Time 1 (July 2018)	Difference
Sojourning students	3.06	3.37	0.31 (β_0)
Domestic students	2.93	2.88	-0.05 (β_3)
Difference	0.13 (β_1)	0.49 (β_2)	0.36 (D-I-D)

(Source: author)

- **Entrepreneurial intention at Time 0**

Research question number 1 is "Are there any significant differences between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial group studies abroad (at Time 0)?" Addressing this question provides a check on the validity of the DiD approach.

Underpinning this research question is the hypotheses that sojourning students and domestic students start from the same position, at least in terms of their entrepreneurial intention, i.e., there is no difference between the two group at this stage (Time 0) for entrepreneurial intention. Therefore, the null hypothesis for research question 1 is:

$$H_0 = \text{“There is no difference between sojourning and domestic students in entrepreneurial intention at Time 0.”}$$

In order to statistically compare entrepreneurial intention between the two groups at Time 0, the data were subjected to a two-sample t-test reported in Table 6.9 below. The result of the two-sample t-test showed a p-value more than 0.1 ($p=0.59$) against the alternative that the difference is nonzero in either direction, which strongly indicates there was no statistically significant difference in terms of entrepreneurial intention between the sojourning students and domestic students at Time 0. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant difference is not rejected. In this respect, compared to the domestic students, the sojourning students do not show a significant difference in their entrepreneurial intention before they studied abroad. In turn, this increases confidence that any difference measured at T1 reflects study abroad.

Table 6.9 Two-sample t test with unequal variances on entrepreneurial intention at Time 0

Group	Observation	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Sojourning student (x)	54	3.055556	.1638476	1.204029	2.726919	3.384193
Domestic student(y)	61	2.934426	.1530543	1.195392	2.628272	3.24058
combined	115	2.991304	.1115016	1.195721	2.770421	3.212188
diff		.12113	.2242134		-.3231587	.5654187

diff = mean(x) - mean(y)	t = 0.5402		
H0: diff = 0		Satterthwait e's degrees	of freedom = 111.115
Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0		Ha: diff > 0
Pr(T < t) = 0.7049	Pr(T > t) = 0.5901		Pr(T > t) = 0.2951

(Source: author)

While the mean score for the sojourning group increased from Time 0 to Time 1 ($\beta_0 = 0.31$), the mean score for the domestic group fell slightly ($\beta_3 = -0.05$), suggesting that study abroad relatively enhanced entrepreneurial intentions among the treatment group. This is the primary comparison in this study – the difference between the two differences that will identify the impact of study abroad on entrepreneurial intention, if any, which will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

- **Difference-in-Differences analysis of the study abroad effect on entrepreneurial intention**

This section will compare the Time 0 to Time 1 difference in entrepreneurial intention for the sojourning group with the Time 0 to Time 1 difference in entrepreneurial intention for the domestic group. If study abroad has had an effect on entrepreneurial intention, it will be apparent in systematic differences between the two “before and after” measures of entrepreneurial intention. The effect of study abroad on entrepreneurial intention will be calculated as

(the sojourning students’ average entrepreneurial intention score *after* study abroad
minus
the sojourning students’ average entrepreneurial intention score *before* study abroad)

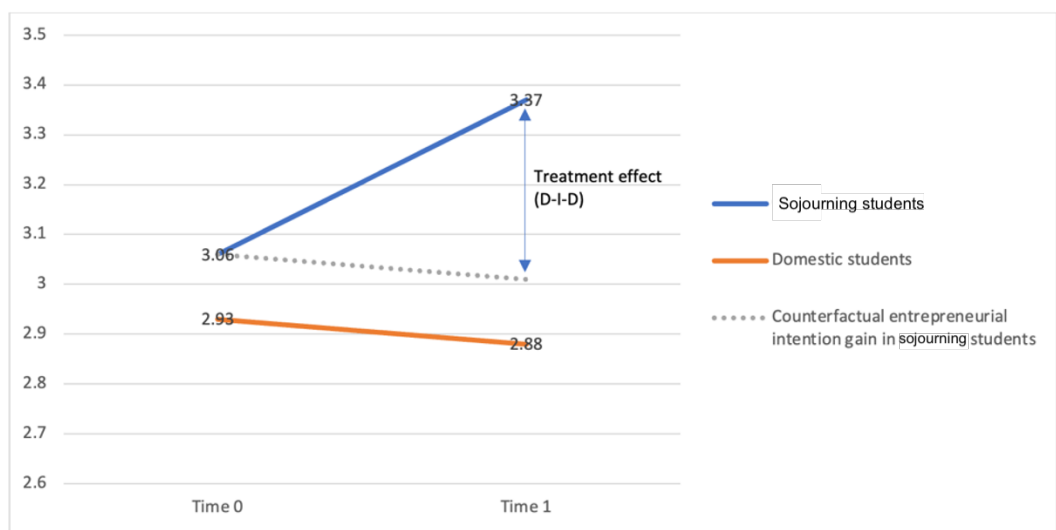
minus

(the domestic students’ average entrepreneurial intention score *after* the treatment
group study abroad period
minus
the domestic students’ average entrepreneurial intention score *before* the treatment
group study abroad period).

Therefore, the null hypothesis to be tested by the DiD procedure is:

H₀: “Study abroad has no positive effect on entrepreneurial intention” (i.e., there is no statistically significant difference between the two differences).

A comparison of the before and after differences in entrepreneurial intention for the sojourning students (treatment group) with the before and after differences for the domestic students (comparison group) is presented as Figure 6.2. The difference in entrepreneurial intention scores for sojourning students is 0.31, which is greater than the -0.05 difference in entrepreneurial intention scores for the domestic students. Accordingly, the difference between these two differences (0.36) is the average treatment effect (labelled “Treatment effect in Figure 6.2).



(Source: author)

Figure 6.2 Entrepreneurial intention in the DiD model

An independent sample t-test is used to determine whether the difference between these two differences in entrepreneurial intention is statistically significant given the size of the samples, their means and their standard deviations. As Table 6.10 shows, the DiD does show a positive effect on entrepreneurial intentions from studying abroad; however, the effect in a one-tail test against the alternative of a positive difference ($p=0.15$) is not estimated at conventional levels of statistical significance (5% or 10%). (The difference was expected to be positive, so the null is tested against the appropriate one-sided alternative, $H_a: \text{diff} > 0$.)

Table 6.10 DiD estimate of the effect of study abroad on entrepreneurial intention (Two-sample t test with unequal variances)

Group	Observation	Mean of Intention	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Sojourning students	54	.3148148	.237657	1.746415	-.1618647	.7914943
Domestic students	58	-.0344828	.2332929	1.776706	-.5016438	.4326782
combined	112	.1339285	.166584	1.76296	-.1961689	.464026
diff		.3492976	.3330262		-.3107042	1.009299

diff = mean(x) - mean(y)	t = 1.0489	
Ho: diff = 0	Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom = 109.669	
Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
Pr(T < t) = 0.8517	Pr(T > t) = 0.2965	Pr(T > t) = 0.1483

(Source: author)

The DiD approach, therefore, does not yield a statistically significant positive effect on entrepreneurial intentions from studying abroad.

6.6.1.2 Enterprising tendency

This section considers the respondents' enterprising tendency using data generated by the adapted General Enterprising Tendency version 2 test (GET2). Enterprising tendency is one of the most important aspects of entrepreneurship (Mazzarol and Reboud, 2020) and can be defined as a collection of psychological characteristics associated with the tendency to set up and manage projects (Caird, 2013). These characteristics can be used to classify one person as an entrepreneur and another as not an entrepreneur.

- **Scoring the test**

The adapted GET2 test measures enterprising tendency in terms of five entrepreneurial attributes: need for achievement; calculated risk-taking; creative tendency; internal locus of control; and need for autonomy. The original GET2 test comprised 54 items or statements and respondents were simply asked to "agree" or "disagree" with those statements (Caird, 2013). The maximum score is 54 and the result is categorized:

44-54 - This score means that an individual is very enterprising (High)

27-43 - This score means that an individual has some enterprising qualities (Medium)

0-26 – This score means that an individual is probably happiest working with guidance from superiors (Low)

Piloting of the research instrument suggested that the students experienced difficulty in completing the original GET2 test, because it was too long, while analysis of the data suggested that it lacked detail. In response to these issues, the adapted GET2 test used in this study was shortened by reducing the original 54 items to just 25 key items through discussions with entrepreneurial experts and academics. In order to gather data in greater detail, it was also decided that rather than use the simple dichotomous "agree" or "disagree" response to statements, the questionnaire would employ a five-point scale: (i) strongly disagree (score 1), (ii) disagree (score 2), (iii) neither agree nor disagree (score 3), (iv) agree (score 4), (v) strongly agree (score 5), and don't know (score 0) – to gain a deeper insight into the respondents' views on those items. Some statements were reverse-coded and combined with other statements to minimize response set bias.

The researcher removed "Don't Know" responses to the 25 enterprising tendency questions in order to identify and remove the influence of component variables in which "Don't know" had been coded as zero. Table 6.11 below reports how many observations were lost due to

removing these “Don’t Know” responses. The copy of the “Stata Do-file” can be found in Appendix K to show how the new or “cleaned” GET variables were created for the statistical analysis.

Table 6.11 The effect of removing "Don't Know" responses from the measurement of GET

Group	Time 0		Time 1		DiD	
	Total observations	After removing "Don't Know" responses	Total observations	After removing "Don't Know" responses	Total observations	After removing "Don't Know" responses
Sojourning students	54	41	54	44	54	35
Domestic students	61	59	58	56	58	55

(Source: author)

The questionnaire was initially designed and written in English, the language in which the sojourning students are taught; however, it was translated into Chinese and checked for inter-translator consistency before being used with the domestic students, because it was felt that the domestic students’ English language ability may not be sufficient to complete the questions. The research instrument was tested for translation errors, content validity, and face validity, using the process outlined in Chapter 5. Content validity was assured by the comprehensive literature review while face validity was assured through discussions with entrepreneurial experts and academics (Holden, 2010). The questionnaire design was investigated for its “fitness for purpose” through a further pilot with six Chinese students. Subsequently, the questionnaire was used to gather data in a preliminary study and the full survey responses of the adapted GET2 test were tested for reliability using Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient (See Appendix I), which is the most commonly used check on the internal consistency of items in a scale (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). It was possible, therefore, to determine that the adapted GET2 scales were reliable, and that the reliability level of the data is sufficient.

This study employed the widely accepted classification criteria of the original GET2 test but used the “*visual binning analysis*” function in the SPSS software to map the original GET2 test scoring categories derived from binary responses onto the new scale derived from the categorical responses (Bauerle, 2006). SPSS can help the researcher to decide how to collapse the large range of values into a much smaller choice of categories if the researcher does not already have a theoretical reason for the adjustment (Meyers *et al.*, 2013). The individual's overall *enterprising tendency* score is calculated as the sum of all 25 items, with a maximum score of 125 points. SPSS helped the researcher to identify suitable cut-off points to break the GET scores (a continuous variable) into three approximately equal groups.

Assuming a normal distribution, the software made two cut points to achieve equal percentiles based on the 224 scanned cases, which then put 33.3 per cent of the sample in each group. After the *visual binning* analysis, a score of 84 to 125 points is rated as a *high* score, a score of 43 to 83 points is a *medium* score, and a score between 0 and 42 points indicates *low levels of enterprising tendency*:

84-125 - This score means that an individual is very enterprising (High)

43-83 - This score means that an individual has some enterprising qualities (Medium)

0-42 - This score means that an individual is probably happiest working with guidance from superiors (Low)

The objective is to determine whether the overseas study experience impacts the students' enterprising tendency. Table 6.12 shows the enterprising tendency scores for sojourning and domestic students at Time 0 and Time 1. At Time 0, most of the sojourning students (53.7 per cent) score in the medium band and have some enterprising qualities, while the modal group of the domestic students' (41.0 per cent) score in the high band and are classified as being very enterprising. The findings also show that at Time 1, a substantial proportion of the sojourning students (38.9 per cent) are now in the high category and very enterprising while the proportion of the domestic students' scoring in the high band has fallen to 36.2 per cent.

Table 6.12 Enterprising tendency for sojourning and domestic students

GET score	Time 0		Time 1	
	Sojourning students	Domestic students	Sojourning students	Domestic students
Low (0-42)	16 (29.6%)	19 (31.1%)	12 (22.2%)	20 (34.5%)
Medium (43-83)	29 (53.7%)	17 (27.9%)	21 (38.9%)	17 (29.3%)
High (84-125)	9 (16.7%)	25 (41.0%)	21 (38.9%)	21 (36.2%)

(Source: author)

The before and after study abroad differences between the sojourning groups and the domestic groups' mean enterprising tendency scores were compared (see Table 6.13). The mean enterprising tendency of sojourning students at Time 0 is 77.83 compared to 80.05 at Time 1, which seems to indicate that the sojourning students had a higher propensity to be entrepreneurs after study abroad. Conversely, the mean enterprising tendency scores of the domestic students decrease slightly from 76.05 to 75.5 over the same period.

Table 6.13 Enterprising tendency among sojourning and domestic students

Enterprising tendency (Mean of GET score)	Time 0 (Sep 2017)	Time 1 (July 2018)	Difference
Sojourning students	77.82927	80.04545	2.21618 (β_0)
Domestic students	76.05085	75.5	-0.55085 (β_3)
Difference	1.77842 (β_1)	4.54545 (β_4)	2.76703 (D-I-D)

(Source: author)

Independent sample t-tests were then used to analyse (i) the difference in enterprising tendency between the overseas and domestic student groups at Time 0, and (ii) to implement DiD analysis of the study abroad effect on enterprising tendency.

- **Enterprising tendency at Time 0**

Research question 1 asks “Are there any significant differences between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial group studies abroad (at Time 0)?” Addressing this question provides a check on the validity of the DiD approach.

Underpinning this research question is the hypotheses that sojourning students and domestic students start from the same position, at least in terms of their enterprising tendency, i.e., there is no difference in enterprising tendency (as measured by the GET score) between the two groups at Time 0. Therefore, the null hypothesis for question 1 is:

$$H_0 = \text{“There is no difference between sojourning and domestic students in their enterprising tendency at Time 0.”}$$

Table 6.14 below displays the difference in mean score on enterprising tendency among the sojourning and domestic students at Time 0. Although the mean score for the sojourning students at 77.8 is slightly higher than the mean score for the domestic students at 76.1, this difference is not statistically significant ($p=0.29$). (Because there is no theoretical reason for expecting any such difference to be in one direction rather than the other, the two-sided test is appropriate.) Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Table 6.14 Two-sample t test with equal variances on enterprising tendency at Time 0

Group	Observation	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Sojourning student(x)	41	77.82927	1.172813	7.509669	75.45893	80.19961
Domestic student(y)	59	76.05085	1.177776	9.046668	73.69328	78.40842
combined	100	76.78	.8456162	8.456162	75.10212	78.45789
diff		1.77842	1.662121		-1.52138	5.07822

diff = mean(x) - mean(y)	t = 1.0700	Satterthwait e's degrees of freedom = 94.8393
H0: diff = 0		
Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
Pr(T < t)=0.8563	Pr(T > t) = 0.2873	Pr(T > t) = 0.1437

(Source: author)

- **Difference-in-Differences analysis of enterprising tendency**

This section will compare the before and after difference in enterprising tendency for the sojourning student group with the before and after difference in enterprising tendency for the domestic student group (see Table 6.12). The effect of study abroad on enterprising tendency will be calculated as

(the average GET score of the sojourning students at Time 1
 minus
 the average GET score of the sojourning students at Time 0)

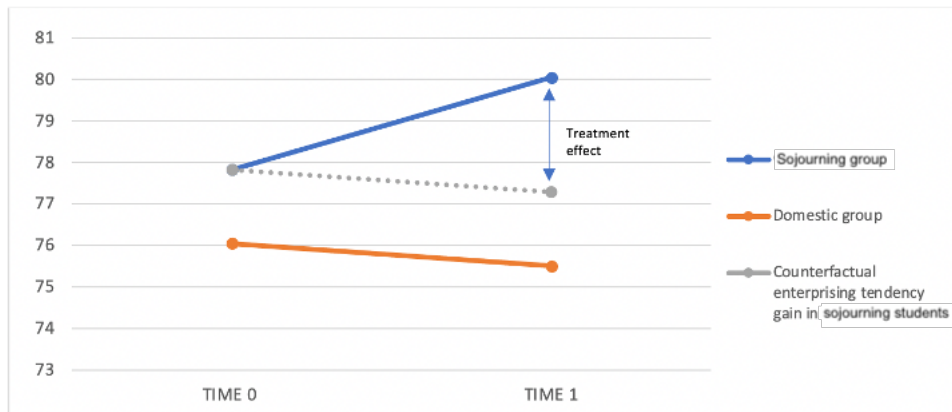
minus

(the average GET score of the domestic students at Time 1
 minus
 the average GET score of the domestic students at Time 0).

The null hypothesis for the DiD model is:

H₀: "Study abroad has no positive effect on enterprising tendency."

As shown in Figure 6.3, a comparison of the mean before and mean after scores of enterprising tendencies for the sojourning students (treatment group) with the mean before and after scores for the domestic students (comparison group) reveals a difference in enterprising tendency scores for sojourning students of 2.22 and a difference in enterprising tendency scores for domestic students of -0.55.



(Source: author)

Figure 6.3 Enterprising tendency in the DiD model

In order to identify the causal effect between study abroad and enterprising tendency, the DiD method was used in this study to evaluate the outcome of study abroad. As Table 6.15 below presents, the DiD method does show a positive effect on enterprising tendency from studying abroad. However, against the one-tail alternative of a positive effect (as suggested by theory), the null hypothesis of a zero effect cannot be rejected ($p=0.16$) at conventional levels of statistical significance (5% or 10%). As in the case of entrepreneurial intention, although descriptive and diagrammatic presentations suggest that the study abroad experience does increase the students' enterprising tendency, this increase – an average treatment effect of 2.77 – is not statistically significant.

Table 6.15 DiD estimate of the effect of study abroad on enterprising tendency (Two-sample t test with unequal variances)

Group	Observation	Mean of GET	Std. err.	Std. dev.	[95% conf. interval]
Sojourning students	35	2.657143	2.024199	11.97532	-1.456523 6.770809
Domestic students	55	-.2545455	2.073274	15.37581	-4.411209 3.902118
Combined	90	.8777778	1.491702	14.15153	-2.086203 3.841758
diff		2.911688	2.897558		-2.8501 8.673477

diff = mean(x) - mean(y)	t = 1.0049	
H0: diff = 0	Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom = 84.3242	
Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
Pr(T < t) = 0.8411	Pr(T > t) = 0.3178	Pr(T > t) = 0.1589

(Source: author)

6.6.2 Estimation of study abroad effects using ANOVA

6.6.2.1 Entrepreneurial intention

First, a one-way ANOVA is calculated of the before and after changes in entrepreneurial intention across the whole sample (d_RevQ11intention) on study abroad (Overseas_Wave2, which is a binary or dummy variable: coded one for completed study abroad – i.e., for the treatment group after treatment – and otherwise zero).

Table 6.16 DiD implemented by one-way ANOVA

	Number of obs =	112	R-squared =	0.0099	
	Root MSE =	1.76218	Adj R-squared =	0.0009	
Source	Partial SS	df	MS	F	Prob>F
Model	3.4118888	1	3.4118888	1.10	0.2968
Overseas_~2	3.4118888	1	3.4118888	1.10	0.2968
Residual	341.57918	110	3.1052653		
Total	344.99107	111	3.1080277		

Standard diagnostic tests support the statistical validity of the underlying model:

1. The Breusch-Pagan test for heteroskedasticity fails to reject the null of constant variance ($p=0.894$); and
2. Cameron and Trivedi's decomposition of the information matrix (IM) test (i) likewise fails to reject the null of constant variance ($p=0.870$) and (ii) for both the third and fourth moments of the normal distribution, which are used to implement the standard tests for normal distribution, falls in the grey area between non-rejection at the one per cent level and rejection at the five per cent level – i.e., skewness ($p=0.036$) and kurtosis ($p=0.025$).

To allay concerns about the ambiguity of the test for normal distribution, it should be noted that “the least squares method can be applied to estimation problems without assuming normality”, because it remains the best linear unbiased estimator (Spanos, 1986: 448). Moreover, with a reasonably large sample (112 observations to estimate the underlying bivariate regression – see below) both F-test and t-tests are “robust with respect to the non-normality” (Spanos, 1986: 451).

Next, the underlying regression coefficients are retrieved: (in Stata, this is accomplished by implementing the “regress” command after obtaining the ANOVA results):

Table 6.17 Underlying OLS regression results

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	112
Model	3.4118888	1	3.4118888	F(1, 110)	=	1.10
Residual	341.579183	110	3.1052653	Prob > F	=	0.2968
				R-squared	=	0.0099
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0009
Total	344.991071	111	3.10802767	Root MSE	=	1.7622

d_RevQ11intent~n	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]	
1.Overseas_Wave2	.3492976	.3332326	1.05	0.297	-.3110912	1.009686
_cons	-.0344828	.2313851	-0.15	0.882	-.4930337	.4240682

The ANOVA and the regression results are, of course, consistent: the square root of the F-statistic for the model and the variable of interest (1.10) is 1.05, which is the t-value on the regression coefficient. In turn, the estimated coefficient (0.349) is the same as the difference reported in Table 6.10 which – as noted in Section 6.3 above – is in line with theory. Likewise consistent are the number of observations (112) and the t-statistic for the null of no significant difference from zero ($p=0.297$) on the regression coefficient measuring the study-abroad effect. If, as has been argued, it is legitimate on grounds of theoretical expectations to report a one-tail test, then – against the alternative of a positive difference in favour of the sojourners – $p=0.148$. At conventional levels of statistical significance, this does not support the hypothesised effect of a positive study abroad effect on entrepreneurial intentions.

6.6.2.2 Enterprising tendency

Following the same procedure, a one-way ANOVA is performed on the before and after changes in enterprising tendency (d_T_Get_rev) on study abroad.

Table 6.18 DiD implemented by one-way ANOVA

Number of obs =		90	R-squared =	0.0102	
Root MSE =		14.1591	Adj R-squared =	-0.0011	
Source	Partial SS	df	MS	F	Prob>F
Model	181.33348	1	181.33348	0.90	0.3442
Overseas_~2	181.33348	1	181.33348	0.90	0.3442
Residual	17642.322	88	200.48093		
Total	17823.656	89	200.26579		

The null hypothesis of constant variance is not rejected by either the Breusch-Pagan or the IM test: respectively, $p=0.122$ and $p=0.387$. Of the elements of normal distribution, skewness is not rejected ($p=0.288$) and kurtosis is in the “grey” region ($p=0.032$).

The underlying regression results are as follows.

Table 6.19 Underlying OLS regression results

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	90
Model	181.333478	1	181.333478	F(1, 88) =	0.90
Residual	17642.3221	88	200.480933	Prob > F =	0.3442
Total	17823.6556	89	200.265793	R-squared =	0.0102
				Adj R-squared =	-0.0011
				Root MSE =	14.159

d_T_Get_rev	Coefficient	Std. err.	t	P> t	[95% conf. interval]
1.Overseas_Wave2	2.911688	3.061558	0.95	0.344	-3.172514 8.995891
_cons	-.2545455	1.909217	-0.13	0.894	-4.048712 3.539621

Again, the t-statistic on the regression coefficient (0.95) is the square root of the ANOVA F-statistic (0.90) and the estimated coefficient replicates the DiD for enterprising tendency reported in Table 6.15. The one-sided t-statistic yields a p-value outside of conventional levels of statistical significance, so does not support the hypothesised positive study abroad effect on enterprising tendency.

6.6.2.3 ANOVA approach to estimating DiD effects: conclusion

As anticipated from theory, ANOVA estimates replicate the finding of independent sample t-tests applied directly to the observed before and after differences of the two groups. While the sign and size of these effects may be regarded as indicative, lack of statistical significance at conventional levels means that it is not yet possible to draw firm conclusions. However, bearing in mind the scepticism of many statisticians across the social and life sciences towards the (still) mainstream practice of privileging “significance” over “oomph” (Ziliak and McCloskey, 2012: 99 and 109), thereby, in effect, merging ‘statistical and policy significance’, it is possible to defend the judgement that these findings are “indicative”. To go beyond this weak interim conclusion, it is possible to specify an econometric model to estimate study abroad effects on entrepreneurial intention and enterprising tendency considered together, which is consistent with the theoretical argument for treating these concepts together as the components of entrepreneurial proclivity.

6.6.3 Estimation of study abroad effects using a panel seemingly unrelated regression model

In addition to the independent-sample t-tests analysis and ANOVA analysis, this study also uses a two-equation, seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) model to quantify the extent to which, if any, study abroad and selected socio-demographic and economic factors influence the students’ entrepreneurial proclivity. This model is designed for unbalanced panel data sets such as the one described in Table 6.8 (Biorn, 2004; Nguyen, 2008).

SUR estimation is different from estimating each equation separately, because it proceeds iteratively. The SUR estimator:

- (a) estimates the coefficients (beta parameters) for given individual-level random effects and observation-specific errors; then
- (b) estimates individual-level random effects and observation-specific errors conditional on the coefficient estimates (beta parameters) from Step (a); then
- (c) repeats Step (a); then
- (d) repeats Step (b);
- (e) ... and so on, until there is convergence of the estimates – i.e., of coefficients, random effects and errors – to constant magnitudes.

In this way, a multistep algorithm jointly solves the problem of how to estimate both (i) the coefficients of the observed variables, and (ii) the unobserved components – the random effects and observation-level errors – when the coefficients of the observed variables depend on the unobserved components and the unobserved components depend on the coefficients of the observed variables.

The following two-equation seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) model was used in this study:¹³

$$y_{git} = x_{git} \beta_g + (v_{gi} + \mathcal{E}_{git})$$

Where g (=1, 2) indexes the two equations in the model, i (= 1,2,3 ... 200) indexes the individual respondents, and t (=1, 2) indexes the before and after periods; y_g is the dependent variable in each of the two equations in the model (respectively, enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention); x_{git} = vectors of independent variables in each equation; β_g = two vectors of unknown coefficients to be estimated (i.e. one vector for each equation and in each case including an intercept term); and, in the composed error term, v_{gi} are the unobserved individual-level effects to be estimated in each equation, and \mathcal{E}_{git} are the observation-specific errors in each equation. The unobserved individual-level effects define this as a one-way random effects model and control for all systematic influences not included in the model, which include not only constant – or, at least, slowly moving – characteristics of the student (such as their individual levels of ability and motivation) but also features of their individual environment such as the type of university, and national, regional and local cultural influences. Finally, the regression error terms (\mathcal{E}_{git}) capture all the unobservable, idiosyncratic influences on the entrepreneurial proclivity of each individual respondent in each period, while the constant (intercept) terms capture all systematic influences on the dependent variables not otherwise included in the model.

Table 6.20 presents the definitions of the variables used in the SUR analysis.

¹³ This presentation of the model follows the Help file on `xtsur` – the Stata user-written programme used to estimate the model (Mihn and Nguyen, 2010) – and the underlying theoretical paper (Biorn, 2004).

Table 6.20 Definition of entrepreneurial proclivity variables used in the SUR model

Variable	Variable's definition and unit of measurement
Dependent variables	
Entrepreneurial intention	Level of intention, Categorical variable (5-point Likert scale, treated as continuous for analytic purposes, as explained above)
Enterprising tendency	GET scores, Continuous variable
Independent variables	
Study abroad	Binary variable (Study abroad=1; study domestic=0)
Age	Continuous variable
Gender	Binary variable (Female=1; Male=0)
Hometown	Binary variable (Beijing=1; Otherwise=0)
Household income	Reduced to a binary "high income" variable (Yen 20-25,000 and above=1; Otherwise=0)
Father's occupation	Reduced to a binary variable (Entrepreneurs=1; Otherwise=0)
Mother's occupation	Reduced to a binary variable (Entrepreneurs=1; Otherwise=0)
Father's education level	Reduced to a binary variable ("Less than high school degree=1; Otherwise=0)
Mother's education level	Reduced to a binary variable ("Less than high school degree=1; Otherwise=0)
Family business	Binary variable (have own business=1; Otherwise=0)
Entrepreneurship education	Binary variable (have entrepreneurship education=1; Otherwise=0)
Wave 2 (Time 1)	Binary variable (Wave 2=1; Otherwise=0)

(Source: author)

The independent variables make use of all the data available from the demographic profile of students in the two groups (see Table 6.3). However, to enable estimation with a limited number of observations, this project reduced the multi-category household income, parental occupation and parental education variables to binary variables. In addition, each equation includes a control for Time 1, which measures otherwise unmeasured effects arising from the passage of time that would affect all students and thus eliminates – or, at least, attenuates – a potential source of cross-individual error correlation.

This study used the Stata user-written programme `xtsur` to estimate a two-equation SUR model with dependent variables – enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention – that are strongly related in theory. In this SUR model, the two dependent variables are related by both common observed explanatory variables and – potentially – by common (or, at least, correlated) unobserved random effects (each equation has a composed error term containing both observation-specific errors and unobserved individual-level effects).

In this model, the explanatory variables are required to be exogenous, and this requirement is satisfied in three ways.

1. Two of the explanatory variables may appear to be potentially endogenous by virtue of simultaneous causation: choosing entrepreneurship education; and the variable of interest, study abroad. However, the respective choices were made well before (years

before, in the case of the variable of interest) the dependent variables were measured, thereby breaking, or at least attenuating any causal link running from either dependent variable to either choosing entrepreneurship education or study abroad.

2. This project also addresses the possibility that omitted variables might cause study abroad to be endogenous. Section 6.5.1 investigated the determinants of the study abroad decision and reported the following to be statistically significant: age; hometown; household income; father's occupation; mother's education level; and father's education level. Consequently, these and the other potential influences of the study abroad decision reported in Table 6.7 are included in the estimated part of both equations in the SUR model. This ensures that these influences are not omitted variables and thus not displaced into the regression error terms (\mathcal{E}_{git}) where – by definition – they would cause the error terms to be correlated with the study abroad dummy variable and thus invalidate the SUR estimates (because of omitted variables bias).¹⁴

3. In random effects models, there is a further type of endogeneity problem. This arises, because one or more of the explanatory variables may be correlated with the unobserved individual-level effects. If so, random effects estimation is not appropriate, because it assumes the absence of such correlation. This possibility is also addressed by the modelling strategy. The model specification is designed to attenuate potential correlations of the individual-level effects with one or more of the independent variables by including as many influences as possible among the independent (observed) variables. For example, including the income, occupation and education variables in the observed part of the model means that none of these correlated variables is relegated to the unobserved individual-level effects, in which case – by construction – a correlation issue arises: if, say, income were to be omitted from the model then it would be absorbed by the unobserved individual-level effects and thus cause these to be correlated with the observed occupation and education variables. To investigate this possibility empirically, both models were separately estimated, first by random effects and then by fixed effects estimation, and then the Hausman test was applied. (With longitudinal data, SUR cannot be estimated by fixed effects, so the

¹⁴ If some omitted variable enters the error term and is correlated with an independent variable, then a change in the omitted variable causes *both* a change in the dependent variable *and* a change in the independent variable with which it is correlated. The estimated coefficient on this independent variable thus wrongly attributes the effect of a change in the omitted variable to the change in the independent variable itself. This is known as omitted variables bias.

Hausman test cannot be directly applied to the model used here). For both models, the Hausman test fails to reject the null hypothesis that the difference in the coefficients estimated by random and fixed effects are not systematic: for the enterprising tendency model, $p=0.8236$; and for the entrepreneurial intentions model, $p= 0.8542$. Accordingly, one-way random effects estimation is a valid approach to estimating the model. In this case, moreover, the individual-specific component of the error terms controls for all time-invariant unobserved characteristics of the students and their respective environments in the sample.

Table 6.21 reports the estimates from the SUR model for entrepreneurial proclivity. Those variables that prove to be significant influences at the 10 per cent level or better are interpreted. However, the p-values and corresponding “significance stars” are for two-tail tests. In cases where theory and previous empirical studies strongly support effects in a particular direction then – as has been argued – one-tail tests are appropriate. This affects the discussion of these results in the cases of (i) “Mother’s occupation (entrepreneur)” in the Enterprising tendency equation and (ii) “Study abroad” in both equations, where strong theory supports a one-tail testing strategy, but not in the cases of (i) “Entrepreneurship education” and (ii) “Hometown Beijing” where ambiguous or weak theoretical expectations do not support one-tail tests.

Table 6.21 SUR model of entrepreneurial proclivity

Dependent variable: Enterprising tendency				
	Coefficient	Std. error	z -stat.	P> z
Gender (male)	0.10	1.08	0.09	0.93
Age	-0.06	0.57	-0.1	0.92
Father's occupation (entrepreneur)	1.19	1.32	0.9	0.37
Mother's occupation (entrepreneur)	2.16	1.37	1.58	0.11 ^{*a}
Father's education level (below high school)	-2.77	3.76	-0.74	0.46
Mother's education level (below high school)	-1.57	4.85	-0.32	0.75
Entrepreneurship education (have studied)	0.25	1.12	0.22	0.83
Family business (yes)	0.52	1.08	0.48	0.63
Wave 2 (Time 1)	-0.40	1.30	-0.3	0.76
Study abroad	3.43	1.52	2.26	0.02 ^{**}
Hometown Beijing	-1.22	1.27	-0.96	0.34
High income	1.22	1.16	1.05	0.29
Intercept	78.08	12.09	6.46	0.00 ^{**}

Dependent variable: Entrepreneurial intention				
	Coefficient	Std. error	z -stat.	P> z
Gender (male)	-0.05	0.14	-0.36	0.72
Age	0.05	0.07	0.67	0.50
Father's occupation (entrepreneur)	0.01	0.17	0.07	0.94
Mother's occupation (entrepreneur)	0.05	0.18	0.29	0.77
Father's education level (below high school)	-0.16	0.47	-0.35	0.73
Mother's education level (below high school)	0.35	0.61	0.57	0.57
Entrepreneurship education (have studied)	-0.32	0.14	-2.34	0.02 ^{**}
Family business (yes)	0.43	0.13	3.34	0.00 ^{**}
Wave 2 (Time 1)	-0.15	0.15	-1.02	0.31
Study abroad	0.36	0.18	1.98	0.05 ^{**}
Hometown Beijing	-0.21	0.16	-1.3	0.19
High income	-0.01	0.15	-0.07	0.94
Intercept	2.32	1.52	1.53	0.13

Number of observations used in estimation = 200

Notes: In two-tail tests: **Significant at 5 per cent level; *Significant at 10 per cent level (^{*a} denotes borderline significance at the 10 per cent level).

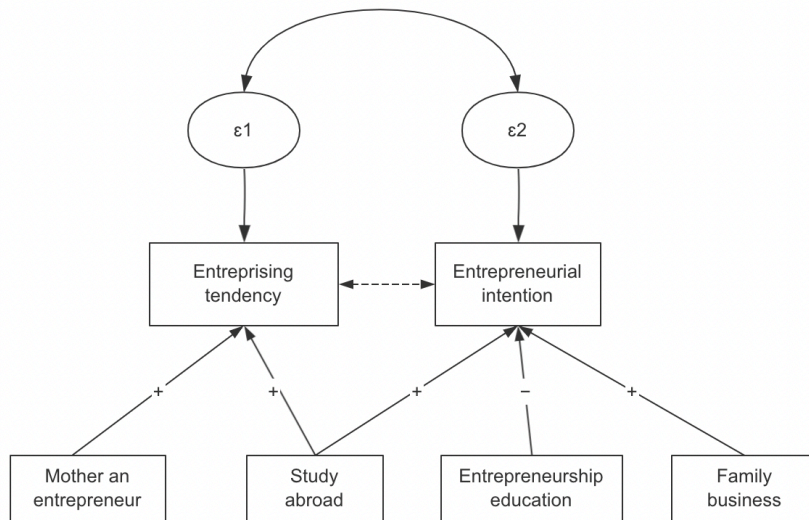
(Source: author)

Mostly, the independent variables fulfil a control function but do not individually reveal statistically significant effects on either dimension of entrepreneurial proclivity. However, it is noted that (i) a mother who is an entrepreneur is associated with ($p=0.11$ – acceptable in a one-tail test, in which case the p-value can be halved) an increased Enterprising Tendency score of 2.16 (compared to a mean score of 77.14), and (ii) while entrepreneurship education has a negative effect on Entrepreneurial Intention (a reduction of 0.32 compared to a mean score of 3.07), a family business has a substantial positive effect (0.43 compared to a mean

score of 3.07). However, the broad range of control variables remove confounding effects and thus enable the effects of the variable of interest to emerge with statistical significance.

The variable of interest – “Study abroad” – appears to have a causal connection with both enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention. The control for Time 1 nets out the effects of time passing on the respondents (e.g., maturing and additional education). Accordingly, the estimated coefficients on Study abroad may be interpreted as the average treatment effects in a Difference-in-Differences set up. These estimates suggest that study abroad leads to an increase in enterprising tendency of 3.43 points ($p= 0.02$), which is 4.45 per cent of the mean. Similarly, study abroad leads to an increase in entrepreneurial intention of 0.36 points ($p=0.05$), which is 11.75 per cent of the mean. These results closely replicate the more tentative conclusions from the Difference-in-Differences analysis reported from independent sample t-tests and ANOVA reported above, where average treatment effects are 2.77 and 0.36 points respectively. However, the validity of the SUR estimates is supported not only by their similarity to the effects obtained from a different methodology but also by their statistical significance. Although SUR analysis makes greater demands on the data, conditioning estimates on a range of both observable covariates and unobservable influences allows the study abroad effects to be estimated with greater precision.

The results obtained from the SUR analysis are summarised in Figure 6.4. This Figure captures the results of the econometric model: i.e. (i) enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention are linked not by mutual causation but by correlation (shown by the dotted double-headed arrow), which reflects (ii) common underlying determinants that are observed (those estimated at or close to the five or 10 per cent level of statistical significance being shown by single-headed solid arrows, which also show the sign of the effect) and (iii) common underlying determinants that are unobserved (shown by the double-headed solid arrow linking the two error terms, epsilon 1 and epsilon 2).



(Source: author)

Figure 6.4 Results of SUR model on entrepreneurial proclivity

6.7 Quantitative data conclusions

6.7.1 Strengths and limitations of Study 1: the quantitative survey

The main strengths of this quantitative study are (i) the clearly defined longitudinal sample with minimal attrition, and (ii) the focus on entrepreneurial proclivity in the Chinese context that, up to this point, has been relatively unexplored. The research was conducted with sojourning students who studied on the TNE program run jointly by BUA in China and HAU in the UK as the Treatment Group and domestic students who studied entirely at BUA in China as the Comparison Group. Before and after longitudinal data makes it possible to explore how entrepreneurial proclivity may change because of the study abroad experience as well as some of the reasons why these developmental shifts take place. Implementing the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach by means of independent-sample t-tests, ANOVA and panel SUR approaches identified changes that happen as the result of study abroad.

As with all research, this study had its limitations and the main ones are discussed below.

Firstly, there is nothing wrong with conducting well-designed small-sample studies where the sample is both useful and feasible. The sample here proved large enough for statistical and econometric investigation of study-abroad effects on entrepreneurial proclivity. However, a larger sample – should it have been feasible – would have had greater informational content, which may have enabled a broader range of statistically significant effects to be identified

(hence, a more richly populated Figure 6.5). Accordingly, future research could be conducted on a wider basis to make use of a larger sample of sojourning students, which may provide a better understanding of this group's entrepreneurial proclivity.

Secondly, the sample in this study is limited to one single university in Beijing as well as being restricted to only undergraduate students, which means that the findings may not be completely relevant to other Chinese universities, universities in other areas of China or other countries, and other types of students (e.g., postgraduates).

Thirdly, time and resource constraints associated with PhD study did not allow the research to carry out the study across different disciplines. There is, therefore, a question of whether the participants in a particular course (business subject) are representative of the entire target population.

Lastly, response biases may influence responses to self-reporting participant surveys. Possibilities include central tendency bias, acquiescence bias and social desirability bias. As explained by Boari and Ruscone (2015), respondents may avoid using extreme response categories in the Likert Scale type of questions to express their opinions, which is the central tendency bias. To mitigate for this, participants were encouraged to express their views and it had been explained to them that their honest response is highly valued. Another possible bias related to self-reporting is that respondents might agree with the statements as presented, which is called acquiescence bias. To mitigate for this aspect, the scale was designed so that equal numbers of positive and negative aspects were present. The third issue with using a self-reporting participant survey is that sometimes respondents may not reveal sensitive information and may respond in a socially desirable manner, which is called the social desirability bias. To mitigate for this, the fact that participation was optional and anonymous were also made clear to respondents. Moreover, in addition to these design features, a feature of the statistical analysis should also attenuate the influence of potential response biases: arguably, in the panel SUR estimation individual-level bias is controlled for by the individual fixed effects in the composed error term.

6.7.2 Hypotheses testing and preliminary discussion

The remainder of this chapter will be given over to a preliminary consideration of the quantitative findings. However, it should be noted that the quantitative findings will be integrated with the qualitative findings and discussed in greater detail in Chapter 9, the Discussion Chapter.

The quantitative study focused mainly on analysing data to provide answers to Research Questions 1 and 2 by implementing the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach by means of independent sample t-tests, ANOVA and a Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR) model. The SUR approach is preferred for the following reasons: (i) consistency between the *theoretical* case for treating enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intentions jointly, as aspects of entrepreneurial proclivity, and the *empirical* approach of estimating a joint model of enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intentions; (ii) the panel or longitudinal SUR model is specified with individual level random effects to control for unobservable individual characteristics; and (iii) SUR is an explicit model-building approach that allows for a full range of control or confounding variables to enable

- more precise estimation,
- more valid estimation, by addressing omitted variables bias (the major reason for potential endogeneity), and
- the two jointly estimated dependent variables to be potentially related by both common unobserved influences as well as by common observed explanatory variables.

Although these three approaches are of different – ascending – orders of complexity, they yield consistent findings: (i) directly applying independent sample t-tests to the observed before and after differences of the two groups suggested a positive effect on entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intentions) from studying abroad, yet lacked statistical significance; (ii) ANOVA estimates replicated these findings both with respect to the sign and size of the treatment effects and their lack of statistical significance; and (iii) the magnitudes of these treatment effects are closely replicated in the SUR analysis at acceptable levels of statistical significance, because conditioning these estimates on both observed and unobserved influences makes better use of the available data (by reducing “noise” thereby allowing the “signal” to be better identified).

Research Question 1 is addressed by independent sample t-statistics. There is no statistically significant difference in either Entrepreneurial Intention or Enterprising Tendency between the two student groups at Time 0 (*before* the Treatment group studies abroad). This helps to validate the conclusions of the DiD analysis, because it suggests that study abroad effects (if identified) do not simply reflect a pre-existing difference between the treatment and comparison groups.

Research Question 2 is best addressed, for the reasons explained above, by the SUR analysis. This yields statistically significant average treatment effects both on enterprising tendency of 3.43 points and on entrepreneurial intention of 0.36 points, which are the equivalents of 4.45 and 11.75 per cent of their respective mean values. The validity of the estimated positive study abroad effects also draw support from their quantitative similarity to the treatment effects obtained from less complex methodologies.

The SUR analysis makes use of the logistic regression estimates reported in Section 6.5.1, which indicate that six of the independent variables are statistically significant determinants of the study abroad decision: namely, age; hometown; household income; father's occupation; mother's education level; and father's education level. Each of these variables is included among the control variables in the SUR analysis. Although SUR analysis makes greater demands on the data, conditioning estimates on a range of both observable covariates and unobservable influences allows the study abroad effects to be estimated with greater precision.

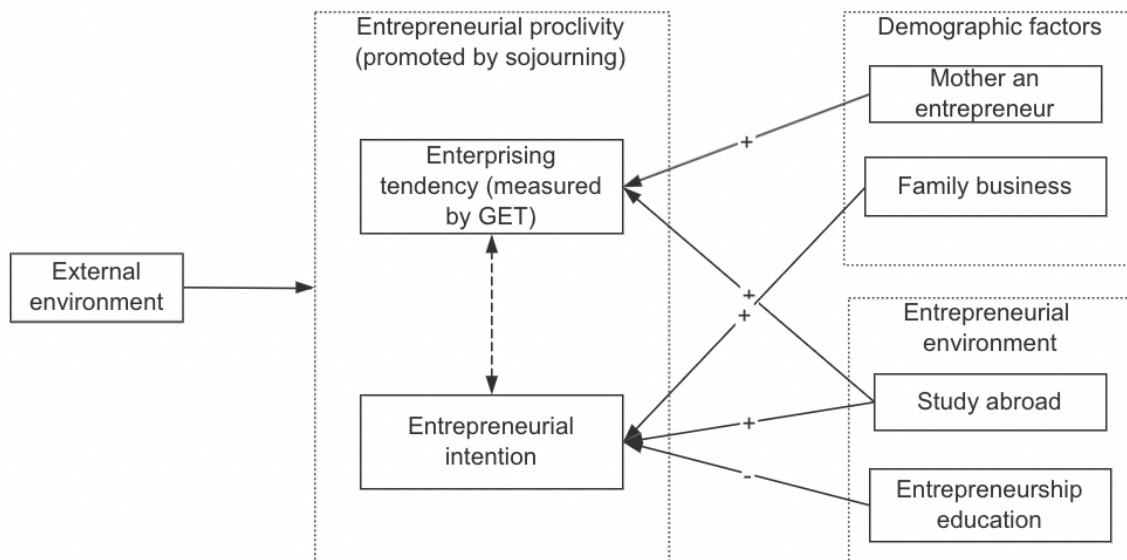
In addition, the SUR analysis (See Table 6.23) suggests that:

- *a mother who is an entrepreneur* is associated with an increased enterprising tendency score of 2.16 (compared to a mean score of 77.14), but not with increased entrepreneurial intention;
- *a family business* background has a substantial positive effect on entrepreneurial intention (0.43 compared to a mean score of 3.07) but has no effect on enterprising tendency; and
- *entrepreneurship education* is associated with reduced entrepreneurial intention (a reduction of 0.32 compared to a mean score of 3.07) but not with reduced enterprising tendency. So, while entrepreneurial education does not affect psychological propensities to enterprise, it may well make students aware of the difficulties confronting entrepreneurs and thus diminish entrepreneurial intention.

6.8 Conclusion: an empirically informed model of entrepreneurial proclivity

In conclusion, this project (Study 1) sets out the empirically refined model shown below as Figure 6.5: i.e., the *Empirically Informed Model of Entrepreneurial Proclivity – result from Study 1*. As Figure 6.5 shows, enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention together comprise entrepreneurial proclivity. Study abroad, the variable of interest, was found to be positively and significantly related with entrepreneurial proclivity via its effects on both “Enterprising tendency” and “Entrepreneurial intention”. “Mother as entrepreneur” positively influences entrepreneurial proclivity via “Enterprising tendency”, while “Family business” positively influences entrepreneurial proclivity via “Entrepreneurial intention”. Finally, “Entrepreneurship education” has a negative effect on entrepreneurial proclivity via “Entrepreneurial intention”. This model also reflects quantitative influences from the *external environment*, which cannot be observed or measured for each individual, but which are captured by the unobserved heterogeneity controlled for in the SUR model.¹⁵

The dotted line between enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention indicates that both concepts have similar observed and unobserved determinants (as indicated by the SUR analysis) and so are legitimately integrated into the higher-order concept of entrepreneurial proclivity.



(Source: author)

Figure 6.5 Empirically informed model of entrepreneurial proclivity – result from Study 1

¹⁵ The independent-sample t-tests and ANOVA both analyse differences. Hence, unobserved environmental factors – because they may be presumed constant over the sample period – cannot bias the results. In the SUR analysis, unobserved environmental factors are directly controlled by either the constant terms (capturing systematic influences) or by the random effects (capturing time-invariant individual influences).

6.9 Chapter summary

The main purpose of this chapter was to investigate what difference, if any, the study abroad experience makes to student entrepreneurial proclivity. This chapter reports the findings from the Study 1 quantitative survey. The two hypotheses corresponding to the research questions specific to this study were tested using three statistical or econometric approaches to identify and measure DiD treatment effects: independent-sample t-tests applied directly to the observed data; ANOVA; and SUR analysis. Each of these approaches allows the researcher to look at the effect of study abroad on entrepreneurial proclivity by studying the differential effect of study abroad on the sojourning group (treatment group) versus the domestic group (comparison group). Basic statistical analysis using t-tests does show a positive effect on entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) from studying abroad, but not at conventional levels of statistical significance. The ANOVA estimates replicate the findings of independent sample t-statistics applied directly to the observed before and after differences of the two groups. However, these estimates are closely replicated at acceptable levels of statistical significance by estimation of a fully specified SUR model.

Study 1 has measured change in entrepreneurial proclivity due to study abroad experience. In this Chapter, the students' entrepreneurial proclivity was measured at two points in time, Time 0 and Time 1, across both groups. The following chapter will present the methodology used in Study 2 – the qualitative study. The follow-up qualitative study allows the graduate entrepreneurs (a different group of respondents) to expand, explain and reflect on their study abroad experience and provide reasons for any change. The purpose of Study 2 is to gather information that can explain and interpret the meaning of the results of this quantitative study, as well as to explore whether the study abroad experience influences the sojourning student's potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life.

Chapter 7 Study 2 - Qualitative Methodology and Methods

7.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter considered in detail the methodology adopted in Study 1 of this research, the quantitative study. This chapter is concerned with the research methodology in Study 2 of this study, the qualitative study. This chapter includes explanations and justifications for the research design and implementation, the population, and the sampling as well as the data collection procedures. This chapter also addresses the trustworthiness of qualitative research and associated ethical issues. Finally, this chapter will explain the integration of the findings from Study 1 and Study 2.

7.2 Participants

In the current study the connection between Study 1, the quantitative survey, and Study 2, the qualitative in-depth interviews, may not be immediately obvious, because the studies focus on different samples. Study 1 focuses on current students (those who studied abroad and those who studied in China) while Study 2 focuses on graduate returnees who have become entrepreneurs. However, while it might not be overt, there are connections between the two studies.

In the first instance many of the issues identified in Study 1 were explored further in Study 2. The timeframe of this project meant that it was not possible to follow the same students who took part in the quantitative study over a period of years to track their actual entrepreneurial behaviour. However, the students who were involved in the quantitative and qualitative studies have gone through the same TNE programme, and so it is reasonable to assume that the participants in the qualitative study will provide a good indication of how the students in the quantitative group may behave in the future. Thus, it can be argued that the graduate group in the qualitative study is a fair representation of the student group surveyed in the quantitative study.

7.3 Data collection: in-depth interviews

There are several established qualitative research methodologies and consequently several methods of data collection. According to Johnson *et al.* (2007) qualitative research involves asking, watching, and reviewing, and qualitative data collection is undertaken via participant observation, in-depth interviews, and focus groups.

- **Participant observation**

Participant observation involves the researcher spending an extended period of time within the situation or culture to be studied to record field notes of his/her observations (Van Maanen and Van Maanen, 1983). This type of qualitative research is important when the aim of the study is to focus on how interactions and activities within a situation or culture give meaning to behaviours or beliefs (Sutton and Austin, 2015). Participant observation is costly and time-consuming as it may take a considerable time to discover meaning within the context or situation (Pope *et al.*, 2000).

- **In-depth Interview**

According to Peters and Halcomb (2015: 6), an in-depth interview can be defined as “*an interview, whose purpose is to gather descriptions of the life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena*”. Although there are different types of data collection method in social science research, the in-depth interview is normally the most widely used qualitative research method (Silverman, 2016). In this type of qualitative data collection, the participants provide the researcher (interviewer) with information through conversation or verbal interchange (Mason, 2010). Non-verbal behaviours can also be noted by the interviewer to add to the qualitative data collected. Interviews place emphasis on listening and following the direction of research participants (Britten, 2006). Interviews are important when a particular issue needs to be explored in depth. They also help to explore or find out the actual reasons behind the problem. Interviews can provide in-depth views of a phenomena and present a thick description (Peters and Halcomb, 2015). As Patton (2005: 409) highlights, “*because phenomena are unconscious and self-evident to those who work within it, it cannot be studied with compulsive methods, such as questionnaire forms. To reach the underlying assumptions, one has to observe and interview.*” However, there are some disadvantages related to the interview process. Time constraints are one of the limitations of in-depth interviews, because preparation for the interview, taping and

transcribing interviews, and interpretation of the responses requires time, which makes the in-depth interview method time-consuming (Hopf, 2004). Another disadvantage is related to the limitations imposed by the use of language. The kind of questions and the way they are asked will determine the response from the participants (Frels and Onwuegbuzie, 2013). The success of an in-depth interview depends on the expertise and skill of the interviewer.

In practice, there are three types of in-depth interview, namely (i) unstructured interviews, (ii) semi-structured interviews and (iii) structured interviews (King *et al.*, 2018). The kind of interview to be applied in a study is determined by the kind of information needed and the nature of the research question (Misoeh, 2019). Unstructured interviews are open-ended with a greater degree of freedom and flexibility in terms of organising, planning and implementing the interview questions (Mayan, 2016). The sequencing of questions is according to the participant's previous response. The researcher would follow up interesting responses to allow the participant to elaborate on various issues. Although this kind of interview may provide a significant amount of data, it is best suited for studies that focus on a particular phenomenon in depth (Dowling *et al.*, 2016). Semi-structured interviews are a valuable exploratory tool based on a mix of structured and unstructured questions (King, 2004). Semi-structured interviews are more flexible than structured interviews, and allow more comparability, which make them easier to analyse than unstructured interviews (Cruickshank, 2012). The questions are pre-planned before the data is collected but the researcher gives the research participants a chance to explain and elaborate particular issues using open-ended questions. A semi-structured interview is suitable for researchers that have a basic knowledge of their research topics as they allow some flexibility in the way the interview is scheduled (Hammarberg *et al.*, 2016). Structured interviews allow interviewers to ask the same questions to each respondent in the same way. The main advantage of this type of interview is that it is arranged around a set of direct questions that permit responses and tick-box data collection. They are appropriate for researchers that know the exact type of data they need (Dilley, 2004). However, structured interviews limit the availability of in-depth data collection as the researcher has restricted flexibility and the participant is unable to elaborate on issues (Alsaawi, 2014).

- **Focus group discussion**

Focus group discussions are a technique for conducting an interview with a group of research participants on a particular topic of research interest. Focus groups are important when multiple responses are required on a particular issue (Kitzinger, 1995). Group members are selected as research participants, and they can build on each other's ideas to produce in-

depth discussions of the research topic. Multiple viewpoints can be acquired through a focus group in a shorter time frame than via individual interviews (Morgan, 1996). The researcher can also observe interactions among the research participants. However, compared to individual interviews, the challenge in focus groups is that participants may not express their honest and personal opinions about the topic (Calder, 1977). They may be hesitant to express their thoughts, especially when their thoughts are contrary to the views of another participant. This point is particularly relevant in the Chinese context where culture dictates that individuals maintain face. The researcher must have skills sufficient to keep the discussion under control while at the same time making sure the discussion is focused on the area of interest (Morgan and Spanish, 1984).

After careful consideration of the advantages and disadvantages of each qualitative data collection method, semi-structured interviews were selected to serve as the means of data collection in Study 2. The choice of semi-structured interviews to serve as the means of data collection was the product of three main considerations. First, this method enables clarification of answers and so is suitable for the exploration of the perceptions of participants regarding complex issues (Dilley, 2004). As the aim of Study 2 was to explore the link between foreign sojourn experience and entrepreneurial development to provide insight into the role that the overseas sojourn played in helping the graduates set-up their own businesses, semi-structured interviews appeared the ideal means by which to collect the data. Second, semi-structured interviews provide flexibility to explore unexpected themes that participants may consider important (Oltmann, 2016). Third, semi-structured interviews give participants the opportunity to make additional comments at the end of the interview.

When the in-depth interviews were set-up, the researcher carefully explained the purpose of the study and so the participants had time to reflect on their foreign experience, the impact it had on their life and their careers. The interviews were grounded in the content of the Study 1 survey questionnaire and the responses it had elicited. Subsequently, the data obtained from the Study 2 semi-structured interviews provided interpretive resources for better understanding the results of the Study 1 quantitative research. In particular, the insights gained during the qualitative study helped to understand the reasons for the changes in entrepreneurial proclivity identified by the quantitative study.

7.4 Interview design

The qualitative study used semi-structured in-depth interviews with BUA graduate returnees who had become entrepreneurs. The semi-structured interviews allowed these respondents the opportunity to talk about their experience, their perceived changes in entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention), entrepreneurial behaviour, and to allow them to reflect on any connections between their foreign sojourn as part of their degree programme and entrepreneurial development.

The topic guide used for the in-depth interviews in this study was informed by several sources including the project's research questions, the project's research objectives, the literature review, and the quantitative data collected in Study 1. The interview was initially designed around issues identified via the analysis of the quantitative data, which served to investigate the reasons why there is a positive influence on entrepreneurial proclivity of the students after study abroad. The interview guide was composed of broad, guiding questions related to the main qualitative research objective and was designed to gather descriptive responses and stories from participants. There were three categories of questions: (i) career history; (ii) study abroad experience; and (iii) entrepreneurship.

According to Warren (2002), qualitative studies should usually employ small sample sizes, because of their intensive nature. While there is no ideal number of participants, a number between four and ten often works well. With fewer than four participants, it is often difficult to generate theory with much complexity and its empirical grounding is unlikely to be convincing. In addition, Byrne (2004) points out that the sample selection for qualitative studies should be made using non-probability sampling as the aim of this approach is to gain an in-depth understanding rather than a generalized view. As Table 7.1 below shows, the sampling techniques for qualitative research include convenience sampling, criterion sampling, homogeneous sampling, opportunistic sampling, maximum variation sampling, purposeful sampling, snowball sampling and stratified purposeful sampling. These are non-probability sampling techniques that involve selecting a sample of people who are most readily and conveniently available from the specific target group (Burnard *et al.*, 2008).

Table 7.1 Qualitative sampling techniques

Method	Characteristics
Convenience	Conveniently located persons or organisations -
Criterion	Selected on key criterion - eg. age-group.
Homogeneous	Deliberately homogeneous group: eg. university-educated male cyclists aged 20-30.
Opportunistic	Taking advantages of opportunities as they arise - eg. a major sporting event taking place locally.
Maximum variation	Deliberately studying contrasting cases. Opposite of 'homogeneous'.
Purposeful	Similar to 'criterion' but may involve other considerations, such as 'maximum variation', typicality.
Snowball	Interviewees source of suggestions for contacts.
Stratified purposeful	A range of cases based on set criteria, eg. representatives of a range of age-groups or nationalities.

(Source: Veal and Darcy, 2014)

Indeed, in order to collect the data for this research, convenience sampling and snowball sampling were used. The interviewees were self-appointed as they responded positively to a request for individuals to take part in an interview made through the IC BUA alumni group on the WeChat platform (China's most popular messaging and social media app). Once contact was made with one member of the network, that person was then asked to identify other appropriate members and, in this way, it was possible to build the sample. The interview selection criteria were a need to have been on the TNE programme operated by IC BUA and HAU, to be a member of the IC BUA alumni, and to now be working as an entrepreneur.

7.5 Pilot interviews

According to Yonge (1956), pilot studies help to ensure that the interview functions well and that the research instrument operates well. Similarly, Dikko (2016) suggests that undertaking a pilot might give a warning about whether the proposed instruments or methods are complicated or inappropriate and whether the protocols of the interview can be followed. More importantly, confidence and comprehensibility in the interview instrument may also be confirmed during the pilot study (Ouellette-Kuntz, 1990). The pilot interviews could help the researcher to make corrections to the design of the interview protocol and questions.

In this study, pilot interviews were conducted with two Chinese returnees who are entrepreneurs and have study abroad experience. Neither of them graduated from BUA. The pilot interviews were carried out in December 2019. By conducting these pilot interviews, it

was possible to test the time the interview would take, identify optional responses and establish the advantages and disadvantages of alternative structures and ordering of the questions as well as reflect on technical considerations concerning the use of a digital recorder (Van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001). The pilot interview lasted 60 minutes, which provided an indication of the potential duration of subsequent interviews. In fact, no issues were identified in the pilot study and, consequently, no further changes were made to the interview guide or process.

7.6 Interview preparation

Preparing interview participants in advance provides participants with an opportunity to reflect on whether or not they agree to provide specific information on the topic, and a chance to reflect on what they might say during the interview (Turner III, 2010). A participant's clear understanding of what they are being asked to do, and how the information they share will be treated, are fundamental in setting the tone of the interview (Fletcher, 1992). Clear explanations about what to expect by taking part in the interview can ease the interview process.

In this study, once identified, the potential interviewees were contacted via WeChat (see Appendix L for the copies of the initial message with the BUA IC alumni group in the Wechat). All the individuals who were contacted agreed to be interviewed for the study. Having agreed to take part in an interview the participants were then sent another message via WeChat to arrange an appointment to conduct the interview at a time, date and place of their convenience. The message also confirmed the main topic areas of the interview, provided an estimated duration for the interview, confirmed the confidential nature of the interview, and provided an opportunity for the participants to ask questions.

7.6.1 Conducting the interview

Face to face in-depth interviews were conducted between January and March 2019 with twelve BUA graduate entrepreneurs. All were based in Beijing, China, and each interview lasted from 60 minutes to 90 minutes. A Semi-structured interview schedule was used that comprised a series of open-ended questions (see Appendix M for the Interview questions in English; see Appendix N for the Interview questions in Chinese). The interview method was used to provide insight into the role that the overseas sojourn played in helping the graduate's set-up their own businesses. In particular, to highlight any changes in personality and practical

skills due to the sojourn experience, and to get insight into how the graduates thought their experience helped their actual entrepreneurial behaviour. At the start of the interview, participants were reminded of the topic areas to be covered, the format, purpose, and need to record the interview. The procedure for handling the interview recordings and transcripts was also explained. Participants' questions were addressed, and a check confirmed that they had signed the Consent Form on the day (see Appendix O for the blank consent form). Signed copies of the Consent Form were retained by the researcher and a copy provided to each participant. All twelve interviews were conducted in person and recorded using an electronic voice recorder.

The nature of the subject matter (entrepreneurship), the respondents (high performing articulate adults) and the questions (non-intrusive) being asked all suggested that it is reasonable to assume accurate verbal answers, therefore, not requiring the recording of nonverbal communication. The focus of the in-depth interviews is verbal communication.

Given the respondents' varying degrees of fluency in English, all the interviews were conducted in Chinese (Mandarin) in order to remove any language barriers and to enhance the accuracy of the interview data. The audio recordings were saved onto a computer and, subsequently, transcribed and coded using NVivo version 12 software for analysis. Interviewees tend to be more open with interviewers of their own race and language (Lloyd *et al.*, 2006) so the interviews and the transcriptions were undertaken by the researcher.

7.7 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis tends to be primarily an inductive process of organizing data into categories and identifying patterns and relationships among categories (Mihás, 2019). Figure 7.1 below briefly explains the different methods used in qualitative data analysis.

Figure 7.1 Methods of qualitative data analysis

Content analysis	•It is a method for subjective interpretation of content of text through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns
Narrative analysis	•These approaches typically focus on the lives of individuals as told through their own stories.
Discourse analysis	•It involves analyzing a naturally occurring language use and types of written texts.
Grounded theory	•is an approach for theory construction through the analysis of data. it is usually inductive in nature.
Thematic analysis	•It is a method for identifying and analyzing patterns (themes) in the data by means of thematic codes.
NVivo Software	•software used to organize and analyze interviews, field notes, textual sources, including image, audio and video files.

(Source: Graue, 2015)

In order to facilitate qualitative data analysis and to make qualitative analysis more reliable and transparent, the software NVivo version 12 was used in this study. Nvivo is justified as the most efficient and effective means to analyse the data collected in Study 2. The use of computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software has a number of advantages. It facilitates quick and easy access to data, processing of large amounts of data and consistency in coding. The software also provides organisational features and automation that facilitates the qualitative analysis (Hilal and Alabri, 2013). Moreover, now-a-days it is widely used in the social sciences, and it enables the researcher to reduce and display data as thematic links, which adds great value to the research process and facilitates the qualitative analysis (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). However, although the software helps in repetitive tasks, the role of the computer remains restricted to a system, and the analysis and interpretation needs to be done by the researcher. The Interviewee responses (coding of interview transcripts) can be found in Appendix S.

In this study, the analysis of qualitative data is carried out using content analysis techniques that match the items considered in the semi-structured interview schedule. Content analysis techniques are a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns and themes within data (Maxwell, 1961). It organises and describes the data set in rich detail and interprets different aspects of the research topic (Thorne, 2000).

7.7.1 Preparation of data

Data preparation prior to analysis includes (i) transcription, (ii) managing the data and (iii) coding in order to perform qualitative analyse (Sgier, 2012).

- **Transcription**

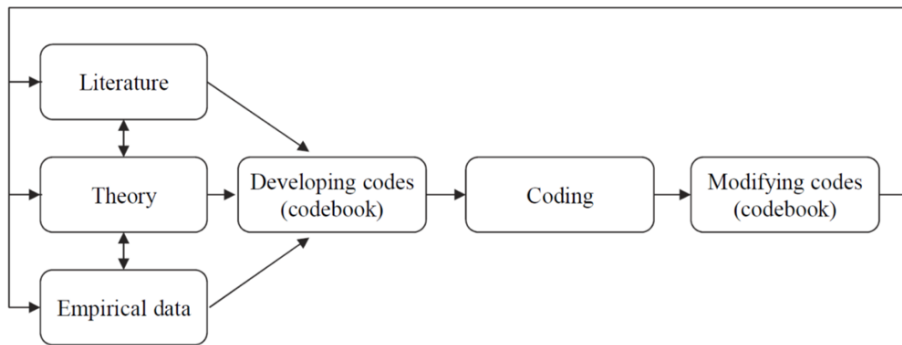
The researcher personally transcribed all twelve interviews. This time-consuming process was actually very helpful as the interviewer began to identify interesting ideas and patterns after the first few interviews. The interviews, including the questions as well as the responses, were transcribed into word documents.

- **Managing the data**

NVivo is useful software for managing and evaluating data. It is also simple to use with a content analysis system that allows the researcher to map out a project, set up frameworks, organize ideas and establish a range of queries (Welsh, 2002). This is then easily collated for later analysis. Each interview was uploaded as a separate file.

- **Coding**

The researcher used NVivo to highlight key passages and assign codes using the process shown in Figure 7.2. First, the researcher develops a meaning for each code that links the data with the literature, theory and empirical data. A code is a word or phrase that summarises or captures the essence of a portion of data. Second, the researcher read each transcript and identified passages that related to each code. Coding is the analytical process of categorising data. Finally, the researcher reviewed the codes by reading the codes in the original interview transcripts to modify the codes by including more of the context around the coded content or remove some of the coded content by un-coding it. It must be noted that coding is rarely a one-stage process, as the researcher reviews the coded data, takes time to reflect on and review the literature, theory and empirical data, the researcher will often see new ways to improve the coding.



(Source: St. Pierre and Jackson, 2014)

Figure 7.2 Coding process

7.7.2 Content analysis

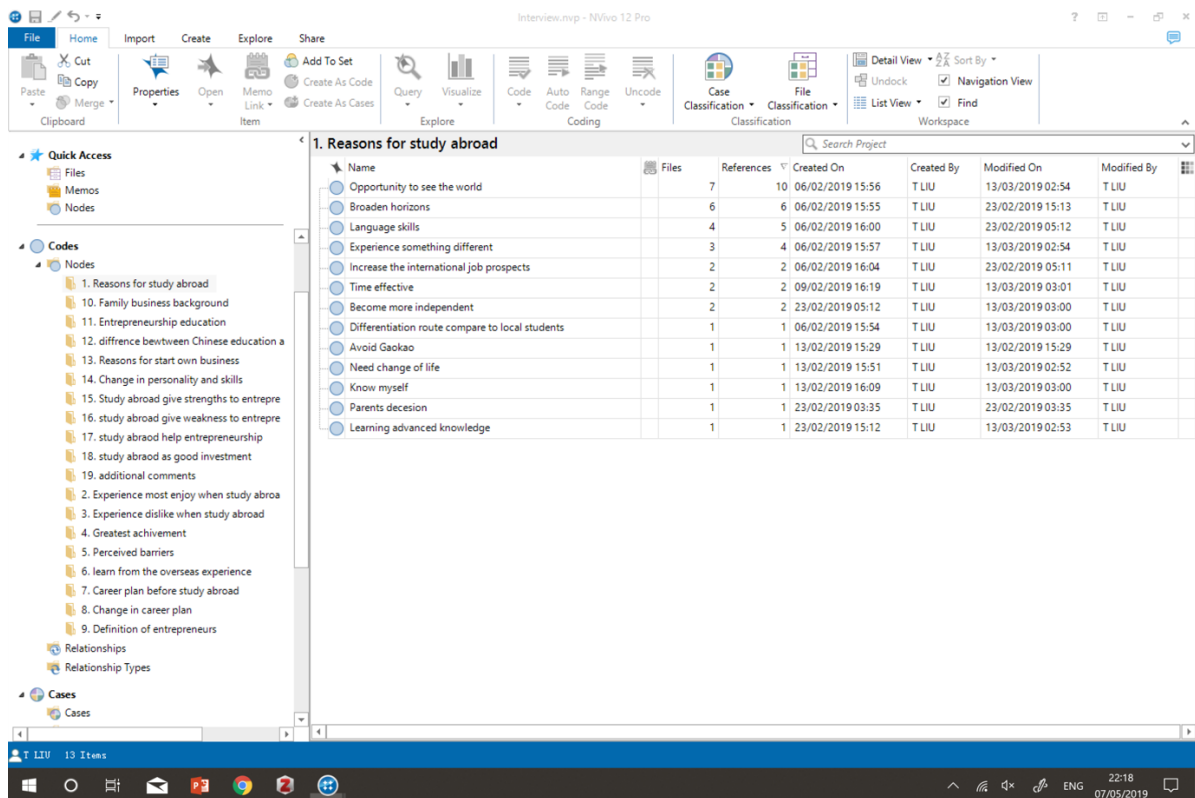
Content analysis is a technique for identifying, analysing and reporting differences and commonalities in qualitative data in detail, with a view to focusing on the relationships between different parts of the data (Sgier, 2012). It is defined by Smith and Firth (2011: 53) as “*Content analysis is an approach to quantify qualitative information by systematically sorting and comparing items of information in order to summarize them.*” Crowe *et al.* (2015) identified four stages of content analysis including: (i) identify data sources and familiarisation with the data; (ii) develop categories and generating initial codes; (iii) code data and (iv) interpreting the data. Content analysis was considered an appropriate approach to analyse the interview transcripts in this study. It provides a flexible and useful research tool and can be applied across a range of theoretical and epistemological approaches (Mihás, 2019).

- **Stage 1: Identify data sources and familiarisation with the data**

The first stage of content analysis involved the researcher to identify data sources and becoming familiar with the depth and the breadth of the content in the data. This was achieved through multiple reads of the data whilst searching for patterns (Castleberry and Nolen, 2018). The audio recordings of the individual interviews were also listened to multiple times. Initially, the researcher read through all the transcripts, making notes as to the general themes and commenting on the entire data set (all twelve interviews). This was followed by the repeated study of each individual interview transcript where impressions and ideas were noted and compared with those from the entire data set.

- **Stage 2: develop categories and generating initial codes**

In the second stage of the analysis, in order to organise, store, and retrieve data, the researcher used the qualitative data analysis software Nvivo. This software provided a reliable tool to present the data in a compressed but accessible way, and facilitated the process of data analysis (Welsh, 2002). The use of a software program to code qualitative data is usually more complex and more detailed than manual content analysis but may lead to greater insight (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). The researcher generated initial codes from the data. In qualitative data analysis, codes are used to identify segments or passages of text, assigning meaning to the descriptive information. Transcripts were reviewed line by line and text labels were attached beside each segment (Alhojailan, 2012). At this stage of open coding, the major categories were freely generated and referred to general descriptors of the data. Transcripts were re-read and as many headings as necessary were written down to describe all aspects of the content (Grbich, 2012). Figure 7.3 below shows one example working screen in Nvivo, the researcher has taken the interview transcripts as the primary source of data, with each code representing a label for participants' comments (e.g., opportunity to see the world, broaden horizons, language skills, experiencing something different, etc.). As such, the coding process contributed to the analysis by linking the raw data with the emerging categories (Rapley, 2011). Codes were categorised according to their area of focus (e.g. push factor or pull factors) and these categories were then explored separately to identify sub-themes (e.g. personal improvement, language, values of overseas study, TNE program features) that related to each focal area (Guest *et al.*, 2012).



(Source: author)

Figure 7.3 The working screen in NVivo

- **Stage 3: Code data - searching, reviewing, refining and naming themes**

Figure 7.4 shows an example of how researchers generate initial codes from the data, search for themes and examine and organise themes. A theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question and represents some level of patterned response within the data set (Joffe, 2012). Once all the interview transcripts were coded and collated in the third stage of the data analysis, sub-themes were reviewed (Liamputtong, 2009). Interview transcripts were re-read along with the finalised list of categories and sub-categories to ensure that the codes comprehensively covered all aspects of the interviews. Data reduction continued through the coding and organising of the data and themes (Tuckett, 2005). This process allowed the researcher to sort, focus, discard and organise data so that final conclusions could be drawn and verified. The main themes were checked against one another, each sub-theme, and against the thoughts initially documented during the first stage of the analysis to ensure that they were consistent, coherent and distinctive (Simons *et al.*, 2008).

Data	Codes	Categories	Themes
1. I want to see the outside world . 2. I hope to see different places . 3. I want to study abroad not only because of study, more importantly, it is about going abroad and being able to explore the unknown , see the life of people who live there, especially our peers. 4. I want to study abroad to explore myself and the world . 5. Since I was in primary school, I have often travelled abroad with my family, when I am going to the university, I want to study abroad because I am hoping to have a deeper understanding of foreign life . 6. I want to study abroad to see the outside world . Go out and have a look. 7. Overseas life is very attractive to me and I am dreaming for it. I used to watch a lot of foreign movies and imagines what the life is in the foreign countries. I want to go out and have a look of the world . 8. Study abroad is about visiting developed countries, I want to see the outside world and learn their culture and advanced methodology. 9. I think study abroad can give me a new height and perspectives, and a new understanding about life. I can traveling and seeing the world . 10. Study abroad is about go out and have a look . Learn something from others.	Opportunity to see the world	Pull factors	Experience related

(Source: author)

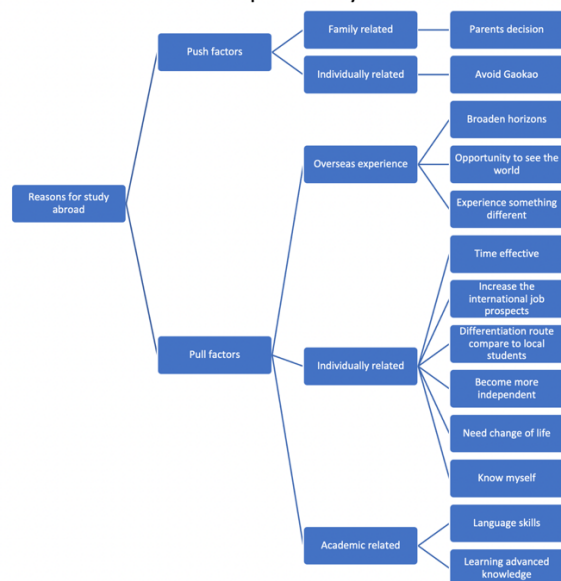
Figure 7.4 Defining and naming themes

- **Stage 4: Interpreting the data**

As Figure 7.5 shows, once the themes and their interrelationships were identified, the thematic maps could be generated, and the findings reported. The thematic map could visualize the research and it allowed the researcher to identify, classify, and map the relationship of each theme of key words from the interview transcripts. The report presenting the analysis should include the description of the data, the assumptions underpinning the themes, arguments in relation to the research questions, and the implications of the themes (Vaismoradi *et al.*, 2013). The final report contains data extracts in the form of interview quotes that best represent a particular theme that emerged from the analysis (Namey *et al.*, 2008).

- Thematic map for study abroad motivation

Rank	Motivation factors/codes	Reference
1	Opportunity to see the world	10
2	Broaden horizons	6
3	Language skills	5
4	Experience something different	4
5	Increase the international job prospects	2
6	Time effective	2
7	Become more independent	1
8	Differentiation route compare to local students	1
9	Avoid Gaokao	1
10	Need change of life	1
11	Know myself	1
12	Parents decision	1
13	Learning advanced knowledge	1



(Source: author)

Figure 7.5 Example of creating thematic map

7.8 Validity and reliability of the qualitative results

Validity and reliability in a qualitative study are about providing information and rationale for the study's processes and adequate evidence so that readers can determine the results are trustworthy (White *et al.*, 2012). In qualitative research, the researcher's role in relation to those studied should be well explained, how the study was done should be clearly presented and the findings of the study should be convincing (Elo *et al.*, 2014). According to Krefting (1991), the quality of a study should be judged by the criteria and standards prevailing in the researchers own paradigm. For example, while the term's reliability and validity are essential criterion for quality in quantitative paradigms, in qualitative paradigms, the reliability and validity of the qualitative study can be better evaluated by using the concepts of credibility (internal validity), applicability/transferability (external validity), dependability/consistency (reliability), and confirmability (objectivity). Table 7.2 summarizes the strategies used in the qualitative research process for ensuring the validity and reliability of the results of this study.

Table 7.2 Reliability and validity of the qualitative study

	Validity		Reliability	Objectivity
Stage of project	Credibility (internal validity)	Transferability (external validity)	Dependability (reliability)	Confirmability
1. Defining the qualitative phase	Built upon previous literature		Defining the concept of enterprising tendency and its dimension	Alertness to related literature, theory and definitions
2. Qualitative research design	Built on existing literature, proven research designs, use of case study, interview data collection	Process well explained and defined for future researchers to be able to replicate		
3. Sampling	Uses convenience and snowball sampling	Use of case study and interviews	Compare and contrasting responses from different participants	Ethical treatment of research participants
4. Qualitative data collection	Uses multiple sources of data.	Use of interview guide to ensure repeatability. Collect data over a period of time	Data transcribed word for word	Triangulation of data source
5. Qualitative data analysis		NVivo		
6. Discussion and conclusions	Clear discussion of how the results is useful and applicable	Research logic is explained and transparent, allowing for future replication	Comparison with related literature	Support for the findings from related literature

(Source: author)

7.8.1 Credibility (internal validity)

Credibility is similar to internal validity in quantitative research (Cope, 2014). Credibility deals with the focus of the research and refers to confidence in data processes and analytics. It involves two processes, conducting the research in a convincing manner and being able to demonstrate credibility (Beck, 1993). Patton (1999) argues that credibility is one of the most important factors in establishing trustworthiness. It focuses on the consistency between the realities of the respondents and what the researcher reports (Cutcliffe and McKenna, 1999). The strategies to ensure the credibility (internal validity) of this qualitative study included: (i) the researcher sought to develop an early familiarity with the culture of participants before data collection took place; (ii) the researcher presented the provisional research findings at seminars¹⁶ and conferences¹⁷, and in discussions with the supervisory team and other academic staff. These sessions providing an opportunity for the researcher to develop ideas and interpretations and help the researcher to recognise her own biases and preferences; (iii) the data in the pilot study was used to generate two journal papers¹⁸ and the feedback from the reviewers enabled the researcher to refine the methods, develop a better explanation of the research design and strengthen the arguments in the light of the comments made; (iv) the researcher made sure no obvious mistakes or omissions were made in transcription through double checking; (v) the validity of coding and content was assessed by the supervisors in the final stage before the results were summarised; (vi) the researcher used triangulation techniques to show that the findings are credible. To be more specific, multiple data sources have been adopted in this study with data collected from survey questionnaires and in-depth interviews to see if there were any inconsistencies.

Field notes were taken while carrying out the in-depth interviews. At the end of the day, research diaries were written to reflect on and analyse the data in the notes. The field notes and research diaries were also cross-checked at the data analysis stage. The researcher compared the personal notes with the interview data to supplement the information generated in the in-depth interviews and check for consistency in what participants say about the same

¹⁶ Harper Adams University Postgraduate Student Colloquium 2016, 2017 and 2018; Harper Adams University Lunch-time Research Seminars 2019.

¹⁷ 32nd Annual Conference of the British Academy of Management BAM 2018 Doctoral Symposium, poster and presentation sessions.

¹⁸ Liu, T., Walley, K., Adkins, P., Pugh, G., Turner, S. and Tan, F. 2018. Motivations and expectations of study abroad: evidence from a study of Chinese undergraduate students on a higher education Trans-National Education (TNE) programme. *The Journal of Academic Development and Education*, (10), pp. 52-67.

Liu, T., Walley, K., Pugh, G. and Adkins, P. 2020. Entrepreneurship education in China: Evidence from a preliminary scoping study of enterprising tendency in Chinese university students. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 12 (2), pp. 305-326.

thing. This was particularly important in this study because Chinese participants are likely to talk in an implicit manner.

7.8.2 Transferability (external validity)

Transferability is similar to the concept of external validity or generalizability in quantitative research (Kuper *et al.*, 2008). In a quantitative study, external validity concerns demonstrating that the results of the work can be applied to a wider population. In a qualitative study, transferability refers to the ability to transfer the findings to other settings or groups. Since the findings of a qualitative project are specific to a small number of particular environments and individuals, it is impossible to demonstrate that the findings and conclusions are directly applicable to other situations and populations. However, Stake argues that, although each case may be unique, it is also an example within a broader group and, as a result, the prospect of transferability should not be immediately rejected. According to Pitney (2004), transferability can be achieved by providing sufficient information to create a detailed and rich description of the study. In Chapter 8: Study 2 findings - Interviews, the narrative will provide rich and detailed descriptions of various themes, so that readers can make informed decisions about the transferability of the findings to other contexts. In these descriptions the context is carefully described, and raw data presented in the form of direct quotes from participants, which should establish potential transferability.

7.8.3 Dependability (reliability)

Dependability is similar to reliability as used in quantitative research (Guest *et al.*, 2012). It refers to the replication of findings and whether the results are stable over time. This means that if the study is repeated in the same context, with the same methods and the same participants, similar results should be obtained (Golafshani, 2003). According to Connelly (2016), one technique to ensure dependability is the use of an “audit trail”, which provides an outline of the decisions made by the researcher from the beginning of the research project to the development and reporting of the findings. The purpose of an audit trail is to determine whether the findings and inferences are both logical and grounded in the data and represent faithful descriptions recognisable to the reader (Kemperaj and Chavan, 2013). In this study, dependability is ensured both by the detailed explanation of the research process provided in this thesis and by the use of NVivo to provide a comprehensive trail of decision-making during the data analysis process. Moreover, the coding tool in NVivo helps the researcher to ensure that any result described in the findings chapter was not the perception of just one participant

but are confirmed by the contributions from a number of participants who held the same opinion. The inclusion of the transcripts in Appendix P (Sample Interview transcript from one returnee entrepreneur - Chinese version) and Appendix Q (Sample Interview transcript from one returnee entrepreneur - English version) provides additional dependability for this study.

7.8.4 Confirmability (objectivity)

The concept of confirmability is similar to objectivity in quantitative research (Trochim, 2006). Confirmability describes the objectivity of the data and is concerned with interpretations of the findings. It focusses on the coherence and logic of the qualitative findings, to ensure that they are not derived from the researcher's imagination or preferences but are the result of the thoughts of the participants (Houghton *et al.*, 2013). The role of triangulation in promoting such confirmability must again be emphasised, in this context to reduce the effect of investigator bias. In this study, confirmability is ensured by the use of triangulation, including data triangulation (e.g. using different sources of data, the research being carried out at different time periods), investigator triangulation (e.g. the validity of coding and content was assessed by supervisors to add to the credibility of the study in order to mitigate the researcher's influence), theoretical triangulation (e.g. using more than one theory in developing the *Extended Theoretical Framework* and employing a number of different theories to explain the conclusions of the research). In addition, detailed methodological description enables the reader to determine how far the data and constructs emerging from it may be accepted.

7.9 Interviewer bias

Interviewer bias is a type of non-sampling error caused by mistakes made by the interviewer. According to Bailar *et al.* (1977:340), interviewer bias refers to the influence of the interviewer in "*creating a situation that the respondent feels pressure to answer in the direction he believes will conform to the opinions or expectations of the interviewer*". To relieve interviewer bias, two strategies have been proposed by Hildum and Brown (1956). First, the interviewer should build a good relationship with the respondents. This will reassure the respondents that the negative consequences of their responses will be minimized which enhances the reliability and validity of the data. Second, the interviewer should avoid giving any clues to the interviewee that serve to lead them in answering the questions.

In order to avoid interviewer bias, the researcher first built a good relationship with the respondents via WeChat and through this obtained their trust before conducting the interviews. An initial email was sent to the participants explaining the importance of the research and confirming the anonymity of the respondents and their businesses should they be willing to take part in the research (see Appendix R for the Participant information sheet). This approach enhanced the researcher's credibility and made the respondents more relaxed in the interview itself. It was also a means of developing a relaxed interview environment and paved the way for the participant to respond to the questions without feeling any pressure from the interviewer. Face-to-face interviews took place in the participant's office or a local café shop depending on the participant's preference, which also helped them feel more comfortable. In order to develop the relationship with the respondents even further and to gain their trust, at the beginning of each interview, the researcher provided a reminder about the nature of the research and asked for the respondents' permission to record the interview to prevent any misinterpretation. The interview process also started by asking non-controversial questions regarding the respondent's career history and business area and industry, which allowed the researcher to demonstrate interest in the respondents on a personal level. To maintain objectivity, Chinese mandarin was used during the interview, so that the respondent could understand what was said without misunderstanding. Moreover, open questions starting with *what*, *how*, or *why* were used during the interview to allow the respondents to explain their answers as they wished and to express their own opinions and experiences (West and Blom, 2017). These kinds of open questions do not suggest possible answers to respondents and prevent them being influenced by the interviewer's opinion.

7.10 Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations are one of the most important aspects of research. Theses and dissertations are considered a failure if this component is missing. One of the most important parts of the research process is the careful consideration of the ethical implications of the study (Kimmel, 1996). Ethical issues can arise at any point in the research process whether it concerns seeking access, collecting data, analysing data or reporting. Possibly the most important ethical concern is the issue of privacy and confidentiality of the information provided.

Table 7.3 below explains how the ethical considerations was addressed in this study.

Table 7.3 Ethical considerations in this study

No	Ethics issues	Study strategies
1	Social value	This research will lead to knowledge that will improve the entrepreneurial environment.
2	Scientific validity	This research will produce reliable and valid data.
3	Fair subject selection	The participant's investigations were selected in a fair and equitable manner and without personal prejudices or preferences.
4	Favourable proportion of risk / benefit	The risks to participants of this research were identified, the risks were minimized, and the benefits was maximized.
5	Informed Consent	Individuals in this study was informed about the investigation and give voluntary consent before becoming research participants.
6	Respect for persons	Participants have the option to opt out of this research and their well-being was monitored.

(Source: adapted from Torrance, 2012)

This study was undertaken within the ethical frameworks of both HAU and BUA and the UK Market Research Society Code of Conduct. The respondents in both the quantitative and qualitative studies were given full and accurate information concerning the research background, the nature of the research and the purpose of the research. Participants were also given sufficient information about the research contribution in order for them to make informed decisions about whether or not to participate in the research. Participants were made aware of their right to withdraw from the study at any time. The Participant information sheet can be seen in the Appendix R. The message also had a Consent Form (see Appendix O for the blank copy of the Consent Form) attached for the participants to complete and return prior to the interview taking place.

The information provided in both the quantitative and qualitative studies was to be used for research purposes only and it was to be treated as confidential. Informing the respondents of this certainly appeared to reassure them. In the quantitative study, the questionnaire was anonymous, and the participants were informed about that. To ensure privacy and confidentiality, the research instruments did not ask for the respondents' personal details. Participants were not required to provide their name, student ID, telephone number or home address. The demographic information collected will be used only for the purposes of the study. In the qualitative study, the interviewees were assured that no reference would be made to their names or to their company without explicit permission. The participants were also assured that they had the right to withdraw from the interview at any point and to require their data to be destroyed. Data collected for the interview will be treated in the strictest of confidence. The participants were not put under unnecessary physical, emotional or psychological risk by their participation in the research. Consent forms (see Appendix O) were provided along with participant information sheet (see Appendix R) containing information about the research, with clear information about the rights of participants and the

responsibilities of the researcher. The storage of data complies with the “Data Protection Act 1998”¹⁹ (Act, 1998). All audio recordings of participants will be kept in a secure place and not released for use by third parties. It will also be destroyed within six years of the completion of the investigation. The computer on which the data is stored is password protected and paper records are kept in a locked cabinet. Only the researcher will have access to the data.

7.11 Reflexivity

The researcher has consciously reflected on the process of conducting the research that underpins this study to ensure reliability, validity and trustworthiness. In the context of this research, the researcher is Chinese and a graduate of the BUA and HAU TNE programme (class of 2012) and this has influenced her understanding of international education and entrepreneurial development. During the research project, the researcher tried to look at herself and her work critically so as to determine how her personal background, previous experience and philosophical positioning might impact the design of the research process, as well as the way the research findings were derived. This is because examining how the researcher impacts subjective elements of the project is a vital part in determining the quality of the findings (Darawsheh and Stanley, 2014). Subjectivity is unavoidable in the research process (Guillemin and Gillam, 2004). For example, in order to promote interaction and encourage respondents during the interview process, the researcher began to share her own experiences with international education as well as her personal and work experiences during her time in the UK so as to break the ice and improve the interaction. The researcher’s role is not invisible during the research process, and his/her motivations, interests, experiences, and attitudes may have had an impact on matters ranging from choosing the research topic, research approach, research strategy, research design, through to conducting the research and generating the research findings. However, the recognition of this individual dimension to research may actually be considered enriching and informative.

¹⁹ United Kingdom Act of Parliament. An Act to make new provision for the regulation of the processing of information relating to individuals, including the obtaining, holding, use or disclosure of such information.

7.12 Chapter summary

This chapter provides a description of the methodology employed in the qualitative research underpinning Study 2. The focus of the chapter was the design of the qualitative research in order to answer the research questions. The data collection was based primarily on personal responses of participants and was collected in the form of face-to-face in-depth interviews. Combining the findings of two, quantitative and qualitative, studies is considered preferable in order to achieve in-depth results. The findings generated by the analysis process answers the research questions and are presented in the chapter that follows.

Chapter 8 Study 2 – Findings and Discussion

8.1 Introduction

The main purpose of Study 2 of the project was to develop a deeper understanding of the relationship between the overseas study experience, entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour. Study 2 is based on qualitative research that will seek to establish *how* study abroad influences entrepreneurial proclivity and the sojourning student's potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life. In-depth interviews were designed around issues initially identified via the analysis of the quantitative data collected in Study 1. One of the major strengths of qualitative data is that it focuses on "*naturally occurring, ordinary events in natural settings*", thereby giving the researcher an insight into real life (Maxwell, 2008: 214). The qualitative data collected in Study 2 via in-depth interviews with twelve returnee entrepreneurs is used to supplement, validate, explain, or illuminate the Study 1 quantitative findings. The in-depth interviews used in Study 2 gather data that address Research Question 3.

Research Question 3

Do study abroad opportunities influence the sojourning student's potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life after graduation?

- i. Do the returnee entrepreneurs perceive that studying abroad influenced them in terms of enterprising tendency?
- ii. Did studying abroad change the returnee entrepreneur's entrepreneurial intention toward starting-up their own business?
- iii. How has studying abroad impacted what the returnee entrepreneurs have done since graduation in terms of entrepreneurial behaviour?
- iv. Does study abroad enhance the inclination towards innovation-driven entrepreneurship?

This chapter commences with an overview of the qualitative data collection and analysis strategy used. There then follows a description of the demographics of the returnee entrepreneurs and, subsequently, the findings are presented in the order of the interview questions. This chapter also includes a commentary and preliminary discussion of the findings.

An integrated and more detailed consideration of both the quantitative and qualitative findings from Study 1 and Study 2 of this project will be presented in Chapter 9.

8.2 Profile of the returnee entrepreneurs

A profile of the 12 individuals who took part in the Study 2 in-depth interviews is presented in Table 8.1. The profile includes a summary of the returnee entrepreneurs by gender, age, hometown, educational background, year of graduation, family business background, previous working experience, business sector, type of entrepreneurship, and years in business.

Table 8.1 Profile of the returnee entrepreneurs

No	Name	Gender	Age	Hometown	Year of Graduation from HAU	Major field of study at HAU	Educational background	Type of industry	Family business background	Start business directly after graduation	Years in entrepreneurship	Age when start business	Age of company
1	J	Male	31	Beijing	2011	IBM	MSc in Project Management	Finance	Father	No	Since 2016	27	4
2	W	Female	30	Beijing	2011	FQRM	MSc in Food Security	Farming education	None	No	Since 2018	28	2
3	A	Male	29	Beijing	2013	IBM	MSc in Fashion Management	Wholesale and retail	Father	No	Since 2017	26	3
4	Y	Male	26	Beijing	2016	FQRM	BSc in Food Retail	Wholesale and retail	Parents	Yes	Since 2017	23	3
5	R	Female	32	Beijing	2011	FQRM	MSc in Food Project Management	Education	Parents	Yes	Since 2017	29	3
6	I	Male	30	Beijing	2012	IBM	BSc in IBM	Finance	Father	No	Since 2016	26	4
7	M	Male	31	Beijing	2010	IBM	BSc in IBM	Finance	None	No	Since 2016	26	4
8	B	Female	33	Beijing	2009	IBM	BSc in IBM	Education	Mother	No	Since 2013	26	7
9	S	Female	30	Beijing	2012	IBM	MSc in International Business	Wholesale and retail	Father	No	Since 2016	26	4
10	L	Male	33	Beijing	2009	IBM	BSc in IBM	Manufacturing	Parents	No	Since 2012	25	8
11	H	Female	32	Beijing	2010	IBM	MSc in Project Management	Software and IT services	Parents	Yes	Since 2012	24	8
12	X	Male	33	Beijing	2009	FQRM	MSc in Business	Manufacturing	Parents	No	Since 2014	27	6

(Source: author)

8.3 Study 2 qualitative findings

8.3.1 Business demographics

At the beginning of the interview, the returnee entrepreneurs were asked “*What is your career history to date?*” and “*Can you tell me a little more about your business?*” These questions were used to break the ice during the first few minutes of the interview to make the returnee entrepreneurs feel more comfortable and naturally transition into the core interview questions. Additionally, these opening questions provide information about the businesses of the returnee entrepreneurs, including their career history, family business background, age of the business, business sector and the type of business. More importantly, it was possible to identify the different type of entrepreneurial behaviour of the returnee entrepreneurs in order to distinguish between (i) lifestyle entrepreneurship (Marcketti, Niehm and Fuloria, 2006), where the entrepreneur intentionally chooses a business model intended to develop and grow their business in order to create a long-term and sustainable brand; (ii) serial entrepreneurship (Plehn-Dujowich, 2010), where the entrepreneur starts and leads one business after another; (iii) innovation-driven entrepreneurship (González-Pernía, Jung and Peña, 2015), where the entrepreneur uses innovation to keep the company in positions of sustainable leadership over time; (iv) growth-oriented entrepreneurship (Mason and Brown, 2014), where the entrepreneur seeks to create and scale-up businesses that will drive productivity growth, create new employment, promote business internationalization, and achieve sustainable economic growth.

It needs to be recognised that although ten of the returnee entrepreneurs had a family business background, there were four career routes for them when they initially returned to China after the overseas study sojourn: i.e. (i) three returnee entrepreneurs set-up, managed and developed their own business immediately and so became entrepreneurs straight after their return; (ii) seven returnee entrepreneurs worked in big organisations immediately after their return; (iii) one graduate acted as an intrapreneur within an organisational setting; and (iv) one graduate worked as a social entrepreneur in a non-governmental organization (NGO), which was a non-profit, citizen-based group that functions independently of government.

As Caird (2012) stated in the *General measure of Enterprising Tendency (GETv2) Guide*, enterprise is a wide concept that includes more than business owners. The enterprising person may be an entrepreneur, or an “intrapreneur”, working within organisations, or an “voluntrapreneur”, a person who sets up and leads voluntary projects in the community. If this

project takes Caird's definition of entrepreneurship, then five of the twelve returnee entrepreneurs acted entrepreneurially immediately after they returned to China.

All of the students who had worked before starting their own business mentioned positive aspects of their previous work experience that they felt would impact on their development as entrepreneurs. For example, they stated that prior experience helps them to (i) understand the opportunities that exist; (ii) understand their strengths and limitations; and (iii) find their true career passion. These results match those observed in earlier studies (Ratten and Usmanij, 2021; Wardana *et al.*, 2020). Usually, people take one of two roads to entrepreneurship and setting up their own business: (i) returnee entrepreneurs who go into self-employment straight after graduation; (ii) returnee entrepreneurs who take employment in a field where they ultimately want to work, then set-up their own business once they feel that they have the required skills and knowledge.

8.3.2 Study abroad

This section provides a lens on the study abroad experiences through what returnee entrepreneurs report as motivation (8.3.2.1), barriers (8.3.2.2), most enjoyable aspects (8.3.2.3), unenjoyable aspects (8.3.2.4), greatest achievement (8.3.2.5) and learning outcomes of study abroad (8.3.2.6).

8.3.2.1 Motivation to study abroad

A wide range of reasons motivate students to study abroad. For example, to broaden one's horizons (Haisley *et al.*, 2021), to experience other cultures (Liu, 2021), to improve the chances of getting a good job (Anderson and Lawton, 2015), to improve one's competence in a foreign language (Allen, 2010), to study in the UK (Chirkov *et al.*, 2008), to study at an institution with an international reputation (Hernández, 2010), to change one's life (Chirkov *et al.*, 2008), to become more independent (Anderson and Lawton, 2015), and to have a better-quality education than the one offered in the home country (Hernández, 2010).

In response to the question: "*Why did you choose to study abroad?*", the returnee entrepreneurs gave a range of responses, which are listed in Table 8.2 below.

Table 8.2 Factors motivating returnee entrepreneurs to study abroad

-
- Opportunity to see the world
 - Broaden horizons
 - Develop language skills
 - Experience something different
 - Increase the international job prospects
 - Time effective (Master's degrees in China usually take between two and three years to complete, while most master's degrees in the UK usually take one year)
 - Become more independent
 - Differentiation routes compare to local students
 - Need change of life
 - Know myself
 - Learning advanced knowledge
 - Parents decision
 - Avoid "Gaokao"
-

(Source: author)

Two discrete perspectives emerged from the analysis. It suggested that the students had been either pushed to study abroad by internal factors or pulled by external forces. Examples of pull factor responses are presented in the following paragraphs.

J has been interested in overseas life since he was little. An interest in *different cultures* was one of the main reasons why he and I chose to study abroad.

Text Box

"Overseas life is very attractive to me, and I am dreaming for it. Since I was in primary school, I have often travelled abroad with my family, when I am going to the university, I want to study abroad because I am hoping to have a deeper understanding of foreign life. I want to study abroad to see the outside world and learn their culture and advanced methodology. I think study abroad can give me a new height and perspectives, and a new understanding about life. I expected my study abroad would expand my intellectual horizons and enable me to experience another culture first-hand." (Participant J)

"I want to see the outside world and different places. It is not only because of study, more importantly, it is about going abroad and being able to explore the unknown, see the life of people who live there, especially our peers. Study abroad is about going out and having a look. Learn something from others. Enrich life experience and accumulate the ability to survive in different cultures and environments." (Participant I)

S was interested in improving her *English language*, and this encouraged her to fall in love with the British culture. To her studying abroad was a journey where she could improve her language ability and experience British culture. She was also looking forward to making new friends with British students.

Text Box

"I want to study abroad because I think it is a great opportunity to improve my English languages proficiency. Studying abroad is the best way to learn a language. My English is good compared to my peers, and I want to study abroad to improve my speaking skills. I will have one year to be fully immersed in the English language. I want to make native friends there to practise the language. I want to make efforts to bring English more fully into my life. I believe English is very important in today's job market. English is a tool which can be used everywhere. Undergraduate study is about learning one major subject, it may be not the same subject area when I do my master's degree or start my work, but every major need English ability." (Participant S)

M hoped that the study abroad experience could provide him with more opportunities to be exposed to British society and understand British culture. Being apart from his parents would also give him more freedom and independence.

Text Box

"I want to study abroad to broaden my horizons and gain a new perspective of life. Enrich life experience and accumulate the ability to survive in different cultures and environments. I want to become more dependent on myself. Away from my parents' guidance, I could learn the ability of how to survive on my own." (Participant M)

From the above, this project can see participants in the "pull" group make the decision to study abroad because they feel that it would be an enjoyable journey. However, the motivations of participants' studying abroad in the "push" group are slightly different. In this group study abroad was perceived as a way of gaining an advantage over the home students who have a degree only from the domestic institutions and avoiding the pressure of the Gaokao in China. Gaokao has a nickname "DuMuQiao" (a single-log bridge) in China, because of its competitiveness and decisive power over students' destiny (Muthanna and Sang, 2016). In China, everyone wants to be enrolled in the top universities and this leads to fierce competition in the Gaokao.

Text Box

"I didn't like the Chinese education system. Every year in early June, millions of students in China take a vital and competitive exam called the Gaokao, the annual national college entrance examination. It is widely considered as the most important exam for Chinese students, which can make or break their futures. Gaokao only takes two or three days but will have great influence on one's future. I didn't do well in the Gaokao and I have missed out on the grades needed to go to my dream university. Studying abroad is a good opportunity. I hope I can experience a different education system. As far as I am aware, the student assessment method is different between Chinese education system and the west. The final exam is the most important part in most Chinese universities while overseas universities will consider not only final exams but also daily assignments, teamwork scores and class presentations." (Participant J)

Students who registered on the 3+1 TNE programme are the focus of this project. They undertake most of their study (3 years) in China but complete their studies by spending the final year in the UK. Students will receive either single degrees or double degrees from the TNE programme. (i) Students enrolled outside the quotas allocated to BUA by the Chinese Ministry of Education, or those admitted with lower scores in the Gaokao, will graduate with a single degree from HAU upon completion of the programme. Normally, non-state quota students pay higher tuition fees. (ii) Students who are part of the Chinese Ministry of Education quota system, will graduate with a Chinese degree from BUA and a UK degree from HAU, which is called Double degrees. This may have some additional value in the job recruitment process especially when one degree is from a UK university.

Text Box

"I chose to study at International College at BUA because I learned about this TNE program. I think this program is very good to me, it is very cost effective and time effective. Also, my grade is average in the class, I think I might become more competitive compared to the local peers when I received the overseas study in the UK. Study abroad is a differentiation route compared to the local students; it may give me an important competitive advantage in the marketplace. I believe having a degree from a foreign university will give me a greater chance in finding a better job in a large organisation when I return to China after graduation. Also, it's more time efficient to go to the UK as they provide one year of full-time study for the postgraduate courses which can help to keep the cost of tuition fees and living expenses down." (Participant W)

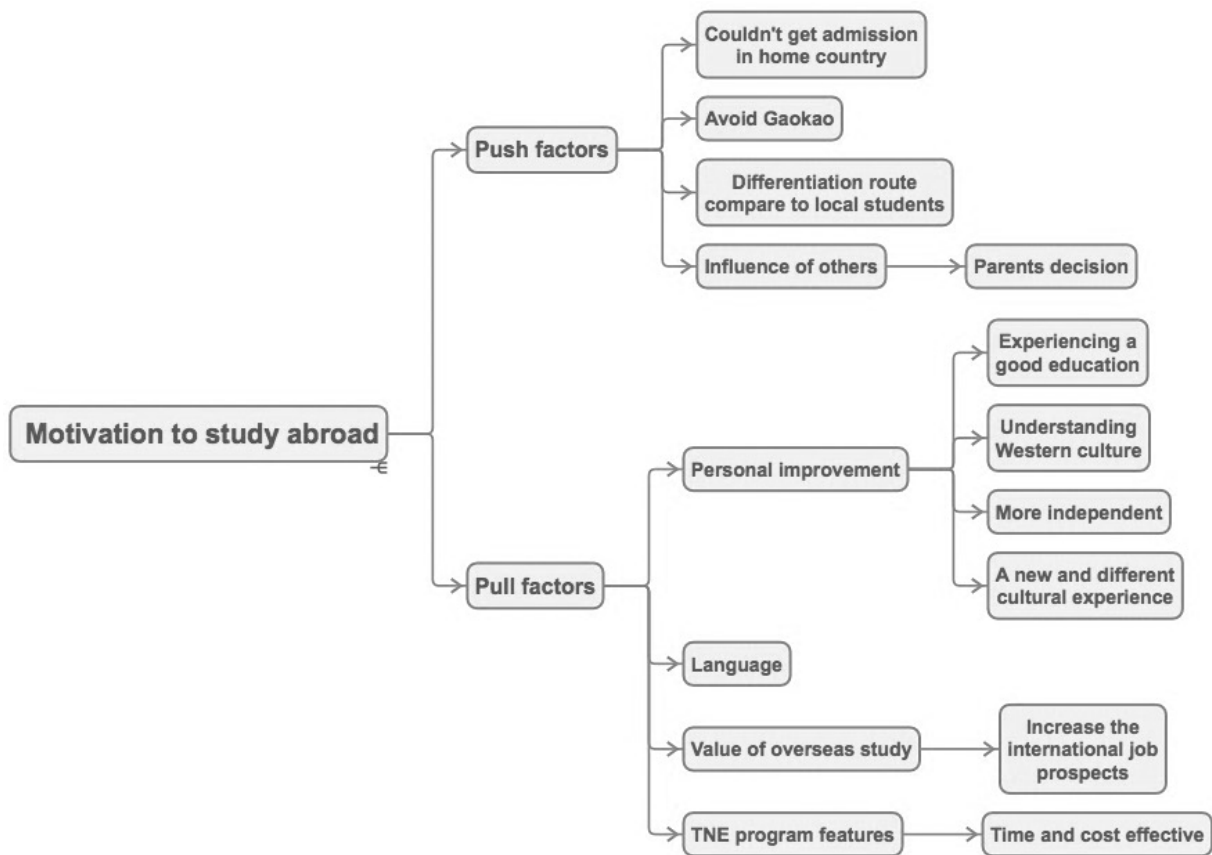
Two returnee entrepreneurs decided to enrol on the TNE program and study abroad primarily because their parents think so highly of western education. This finding is consistent with the observation that in Chinese culture children are viewed as investments in the future. In general, Chinese children have little or no authority over their own lives and decisions are often made for them by their parents (Cheung *et al.*, 2005). As all of the returnee entrepreneurs in this study were born in the early 1990s, under China's one-child policy, and were the only child in the family, they have had great expectations placed on them by their parents.

Text Box

"It was my parents' decision to study abroad, my parents greatly influenced my move to enrol in another country. My parents believe that being an sojourning student can improve my English and help me to find a good job in an international company. My cousin studied abroad and found a very good job in Beijing. My parents hope I could get a good job too when I come back from the UK." (Participant A)

"My parents said this TNE course will enable me to go abroad and have a bright employment future. They like this course, because it gives me a chance to go abroad in the final year. I can experience three years of the university life in China first and get preparation before going abroad. I didn't have my own idea in that time. My decision to study abroad was to please my parents." (Participant Y)

The above analysis suggests that a decision to study abroad is a complex decision-making process and there are push and pull factors that influence students' decisions to study abroad. The push and pull factors impacting the students in this study are shown in Figure 8.1. Push factors refer to conditions in the home country that initiate the decision to embark on a sojourn abroad and include economic, social, and political forces. In contrast, returnee entrepreneurs in the pull category are those who are highly motivated to study abroad. They view study abroad as an attractive proposition and part of an enjoyable journey which they often look forward to over a considerable period of time. This journey will enable them to realize their personal goals, such as exposure to British culture, fulfilling their dreams, experiencing different education systems, connecting more to the society, making new friends, enjoying more freedom, widening their views, and enjoying more activities.



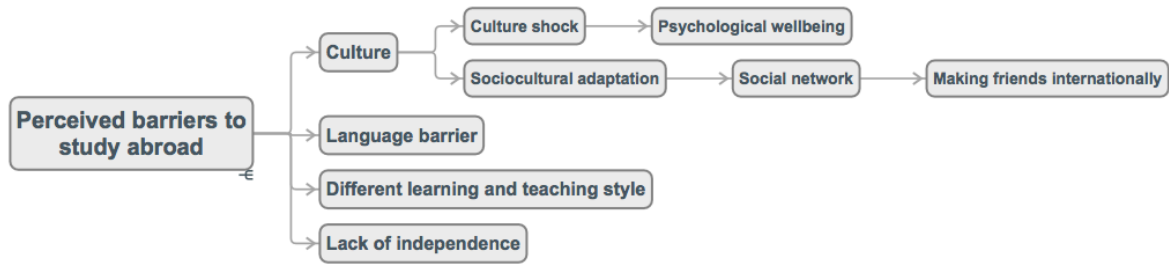
(Source: author)

Figure 8.1 The push-pull factors influencing study abroad motivation

8.3.2.2 Barriers to study abroad

Although there are many factors that motivate students to study abroad, there are also numerous factors that serve as barriers too. Barriers can range from the practical to the emotional. Before they sojourn, the students need to be preparing for the trip and they have reported that they have theories and ideas floating around about what things would be like in the UK. After arriving abroad, students need to adjust to an unfamiliar culture, learn to communicate in a foreign language and adjust to a new academic system. They may experience homesickness, isolation and difficulties communicating with family and friends in the home country.

In response to the question: *“What are the biggest barriers that you experienced while studying abroad and how did you overcome them?”*, a range of responses were elicited from the returnee entrepreneurs. The responses form four themes: (i) an unfamiliar cultural environment; (ii) the language barrier; (iii) unfamiliar academic study; and (iv) the challenges associated with the requirements of independence (see Figure 8.2).



(Source: author)

Figure 8.2 Student perceptions of barriers to study abroad

The interviews revealed that the main problem encountered was related to culture. According to Oberg (1954:9), the initial experience of study and living in a foreign country may be labelled culture shock. Culture shock is “*precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse*”. While the Chinese students on the TNE programme that is the focus of this study had travelled to the UK with the motivation of meeting new people and making friends with them, they initially had difficulty integrating with the UK cultural environment. While this could be explained to some extent by the challenge of communicating in a foreign language, the returnee entrepreneurs felt that it was due more to their own Confucian culture and the reserved nature of Chinese people.

Text Box

“When I first arrived in the UK, I felt a big culture shock. Although before going abroad, the international college at BUA had arranged some lectures and training in order to prepare us for the study abroad trip. However, the life and cultural differences are not something we can learn from the lecture or book. I imagine myself as a foreigner, imitating their conversation and living habits. Force myself to get integrate into that environment. However, influenced by the traditional Chinese culture, we are fears of peer disapproval and face sensitivity (lose face). I have little interaction with the English students. In daily life, we (the Chinese students) tend to stick together and have no chance to have a deep understanding of British culture. The common stereotype of Chinese people is quiet, passive and introverted. As a Chinese, I am more introverted and not good at communicating with people from other countries. We have passive attitude towards socialising with foreigners. I think the Chinese and the UK people have different habits and preferences, different background, different conceptions and different ways of interacting.” (Participant Y)

“I think culture is a big barrier to me when I study abroad. The unspoken norm in China like behaviour, gestures, tone of voice, interact are so different compared to the UK. I seriously do not like drinking or clubbing. I cannot go to the clubs. It is disgraced. This is a serious cultural conflict. I feel dissatisfied with the friendships with local students and I find it very challenging to socialise with students of other nationalities. I don't like to go to bars or club to socialise, we have different social habits (e.g., drinking alcohol). I can't accept some western lifestyles; I find it difficult to understand the culture norms from the perspective of local people. The barrier is the cultural conflict, when discussions proceed to in-depth issues like ideologies, there is huge differences in the way of thinking, the view of life, the world view and value system, the cultural identity and the way of doing things. I think when I make decisions and think about a problem, I still use the Chinese way and look at things from the Chinese perspective.” (Participant R)

In addition to culture, language is another important factor mentioned by most of the returnee entrepreneurs as a barrier to study abroad. Because of difficulties in communication, the students could not get out of their comfort zone to do what they really liked doing. They could not have deep and detailed discussions with their teachers, supervisors, and classmates because of the language problem. The students also found it difficult to make local friends and establish effective social communication.

Text Box

“I have experienced social difficulties, lack of communications with local people due to the limitation of language, introversion and different interactional norms and patterns. I found difficult to engage in social interaction with local people. My English is poor, and I didn’t get a good score in the language test. It’s very hard for me to organise my words when I have a question. My English language skills (speaking) were very limited and basic when I first arrived in the UK. Although we have been studying English for many years and we took the IELTS test, we have hardly spoken English in public in China. There is no chance for us to practice day to day English with natives. When I first arrived, I couldn’t speak good English, for example, I don’t know how to explain to the staff in the bank that I would like to have some change. As a result, I have carried a lot of £50 notes with me for long time. It is very difficult for me to get through day-to-day situations.” (Participant B)

“I think the biggest barrier is the language, which causes me a lack of confidence in communicating with others, and not be able to communicate with others in detail. It is because of language fluency, and also about self-confidence. We only talk about plain stuff and we can only know the surface of the English culture. I have trouble communicating with my HRP supervisor especially in exchange the ideas. I feel more confidence at expressing my ideas in my native language. I found difficult to express myself using English.” (Participant M)

Another major challenge faced by the returnee entrepreneurs is the academic adjustment which is defined here as *adjustment to the specific demands of academic study at the UK university, including styles of teaching and learning, relationships between students and teachers, and assessment procedures*. The returnee entrepreneurs in the study experienced anxiety as a result of the difficulties they had with the adjustment process.

Text Box

“Studying abroad is a great experience but full of challenges. We need to adapt to a new learning and teaching style. We tend to be much more deferential and obedient, which is embedded within Chinese culture, whereas in the UK, it is normal to challenge the lecturer in the class. When I study in China, I don't need to read a lot of literature, for example, reading a lot of books or journal articles, and collect first-hand information and primary data. The way of thinking is more empiricism in China and based on experience and personal opinions, rather than giving an argument that is supported by evidence and compared and contrasted with existed research. The way of learning and thinking in the UK is very different from China.” (Participant S)

“There is a huge difference in learning style between the UK and China. When I first started the overseas study, I was not familiar with the way of critical thinking, learning patterns, and academic writing skills, I am not get used to having debate and discussion in the class. The way of learning and thinking is a big obstacle to me. The foreign teaching style are distinctly different from China. Learning in China are very exam orientated and have focused on rote learning. Chinese students do not tend to ask as many questions. In Chinese culture questioning may be seen to represent a challenge to the teacher.” (Participant L)

Indeed, this finding has important implications for staff at the International College at BUA in terms of developing a more Western approach to their teaching from early days on the TNE programme. Furthermore, a small number of those interviewed suggested that they felt that in the circumstances they had no support from friends and family and that this was a big challenge to them.

Text Box

“My usual support network of family and friends are thousands of miles away. In the beginning of the study abroad, I found very tough to manage everything, including plan the finances, budget, and track the expenses. I never cooked my own foods before, and food is a huge part of my life and there is a massive difference in the tastes and flavours of the British food compared to the Chinese food. Being away from the comfort food my mother used to cook for me every day can be very difficult.” (Participant H)

In order to overcome the barriers, the students worked hard to adapt to the different cultural environment and academic style, as well as enhancing their language ability and establishing interpersonal relationships. These findings reflect the process that many sojourners go through when overcoming culture shock (Barker, 1980). In the culture shock process, sojourners are expected to experience four stages of adjustment: the honeymoon stage where sojourners are overwhelmed with the newness of the foreign country; a crisis stage that is characterized by a hostile and aggressive attitude towards the foreign country; a recovery stage where they begin to accept the differences; and a final stage where there is complete adjustment (Goldstein, 2013).

Text Box

“To understand the class better, I start to read the English textbook before the class. Look up unfamiliar words in the dictionary. Find the Chinese version and get to know the English meaning. I collect the glossary from my daily reading, mark them down and will go over them again. I read the hand-outs before the class and try to remember the English definition. I borrowed books on the reading list and read through the chapters that our teachers were going to cover in the following lecture. I looked up the words I didn’t know in the dictionary.” (Participant X)

The returnee entrepreneurs also developed a strong desire to communicate with the natives, make friends with the British students and integrate into the local culture.

Text Box

“I try to take the initiative to talk to the British students first and communicate with them to practice my English. I don’t want to stay with Chinese students all the time. It will be meaningless if we only stay with our own group members.” (Participant I)

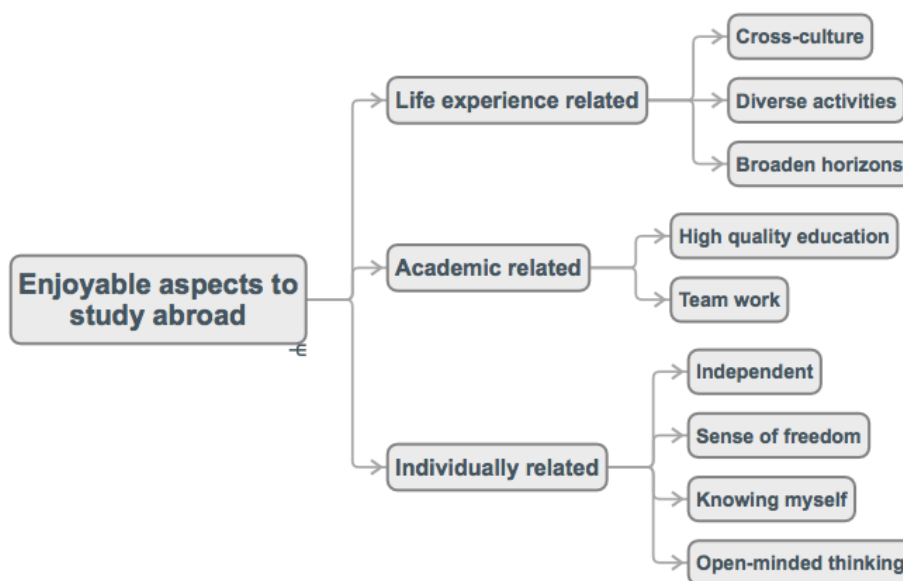
Although the returnee entrepreneurs obviously encountered barriers to studying abroad, they were seen as challenges rather than absolute impediments. The students, by taking the initiative and being persistent, had found ways to overcome the barriers. None of the students felt that the barriers had impacted their time studying abroad to the extent that it was not a positive experience.

Text Box

“Obstacles in life are there to train you and also to be a lesson for you to improve yourself. There are many benefits for studying abroad and it does come with many challenges. Study abroad allow me to make new friend, experience new cultures, become more mature and become more independent than ever before.” (Participant J)

8.3.2.3 Most enjoyable aspects of the study abroad experience

The question, “Which aspects of the overseas experience did you enjoy?” elicited a range of responses. The most popular response mentioned by all of the returnee entrepreneurs was “cross-culture engagement”. “Developing independence and standing on my own feet” was mentioned by six out of the twelve returnee entrepreneurs. Other enjoyable factors noted by the returnee entrepreneurs included *teamwork* and *interpersonal relationships*, *the sense of freedom*, *the high-quality education in the UK*, *the opportunity of learning more about me*, *broaden and expanded horizons*, *engage in social activities* and *open-minded thinking*. These responses could subsequently be grouped into three broad themes (see Figure 8.3).



(Source: author)

Figure 8.3 Enjoyable aspects of the study abroad experience

All of the returnee entrepreneurs were very excited about the cross-cultural aspects of the study abroad experience. The participants used words such as *great*, *fascinating*, *best*, *amazing*, *life-enriching* to describe their experiences.

Text Box

"I most enjoy the ideas of cross cultures, the international experience brings me closer to other cultures, ideas, values, beliefs and religions, which I never think about or experience before. I also enjoy the opportunity to be able to interact with people from diverse cultural background, different countries, races and beliefs. I had the opportunity to witness a completely new way of life. During study abroad, I have a better understanding and appreciation for my own culture and history. Through the multicultural engagement, I learned the difference between Britain and China because I had never been abroad in my entire life, that is, more than 20 years. I realize Britain is more advanced than China in some respects at that time when I study abroad, they have higher degree of civilization and more advanced infrastructure. Studying abroad was one of the best experiences of my life." (Participant W)

"I enjoy the new culture, new language, new people, and new surroundings. It is the first time I leave my parents and my home in my life. When I arrive in the UK, I am fascinated by the distinct cultural perspectives. I found incredible new foods, customs, traditions, and social atmospheres. I enjoy the culture including the social etiquette and customs in the UK. The social atmospheres are very friendly, the interpersonal communication is simple and direct. The UK people lay great emphasis on their privacy and opinions. They are very direct in expressing themselves. However, Chinese tend to be more obedient. When doing business, the UK people are very focused on doing things, there is not so many traps like Guanxi in China. Studying abroad is amazing, and life-enriching in many ways." (Participant A)

Another enjoyable factor was the independence:

Text Box

"I enjoy the sense of freedom in every atmosphere of life. For the first time ever, I have total freedom to be who I want to be." (Participant I)

"I most enjoy the complete independent feelings during the study abroad journey. I enjoy being independent and mature and grow as a person. I start learning the art of being Independent. I enjoy the independent thinking and the ability to solve problems independently. Live independently and make your own decisions. No matter I feel sad or happy, I can make all the decisions by myself. Independent living means controlling and directing my own life. Generally speaking, the Chinese parents are more controlling over children compare to the Western parents. Overall, I most enjoy the independent decision making and stand on my own feet." (Participant Y)

Some students picked up on the fact that study abroad developed their teamwork skills. Students were engaged in real-world learning experiences with groups of other students, and this provided them with the opportunity to develop teamwork skills.

Text Box

“In China, there is a saying that one depends on one's parents while at home; one depends on one's friends while away from home. I enjoy the teamwork and the sense of team spirit while study abroad. Also, I enjoyed the interpersonal relationship with different people.” (Participant R)

A range of other enjoyable factors included the high-quality education provided in the UK, the opportunity to learn more about myself, the opportunity to broaden horizons, the diverse social activities on campus and the open-minded thinking.

Text Box

“Education is the centre piece of my study abroad trip, I most enjoy the high-quality education in the UK, which more focus on the softer skills, which is different from the education I received at home. I enjoy the liberal, professional and rigorousness of the UK education system.” (Participant M)

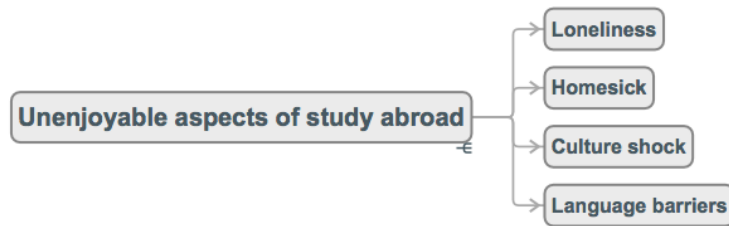
“I most enjoy the opportunity to learn more about myself during the study abroad process. It gives the opportunity for me to really get to know myself, my strengths and weaknesses, and to identify my goals, ambitions, desires, dreams, and begin working to achieve them. It allowed me to set up a structured plan and put it into action. Throwing myself into a completely new environment helped me to figure out what I am good at, as well as what I am not so good at.” (Participant B)

“Going abroad help me to broaden my horizon, that is one thing that I mostly enjoy, including traveling and seeing many new places.” (Participant S)

“During study abroad, I got the chance to join a lot of sports clubs and doing part-time jobs, integrated in the social life of the UK.” (Participant L)

8.3.2.4 Unenjoyable aspects of the study abroad experience

In response to the question, *“Which aspects of the overseas experience did you dislike?”* a range of responses was elicited. While the most enjoyable aspects of studying abroad include experiencing new things and becoming more independent, the unenjoyable aspects of study abroad included *loneliness, homesickness, cultural shock and language barriers* (see Figure 8.4).



(Source: author)

Figure 8.4 Unenjoyable aspects of the study abroad experience

Studying abroad comes with a wide range of emotions including happy, sad, excited, homesick, independent, and lonely. Loneliness is an unenjoyable but common aspect of study abroad which was mentioned by most of the returnee entrepreneurs.

Text Box

“At Harper, everyone is busy with the postgraduate application and HRP project. It is also difficult to build friendships with British students. I feel I have lost a lot of good friends at home because of the overseas study. In China, my local friends have a close and intimate network. The friendship relies on meeting each other frequently, but if I do not see them for a few months or a year, we become really distant. I have a lot of free time during the overseas study which I don't know how to get along with myself. I love to play and hang out with friends. I like big cities compared to villages. I don't like Harper's environment. It's lonely and boring. In addition, In Chinese university, they normally have the graduation ceremony and alumni group, the graduates form the close contact network. I think the network system in Harper and IC BUA is very weak. In fact, I have very few friends left after the overseas study.” (Participant X)

“I am introverted and have social anxiety disorder. I don't like to communicate with strangers, and I am passive in making new friends, not to mention making friends with foreigners. I don't like to seek others for help when I face difficulties. I was always afraid that I would make mistakes and be laughed by others (lose face /Mianzi). I think I have depression and inferiority when I study overseas, I experience the inner suffering.” (Participant H)

Another unenjoyable aspect of study abroad that was common amongst the participants was homesickness. Homesickness is a form of anxiety or emotional distress that results from feeling disconnected from familiar people and places and forced out of one's comfort zone and regular routine. Homesickness can arise for a number of different reasons, e.g., difficulty adjusting to a new environment, feeling lonely, being away from a person's regular support system, difficulty in understanding and culture shock.

Text Box

"I feel very upset about leaving my home. I have been eating the same thing for dinner every night because I don't know how to cook. Seeing my local friends having fun doing all the things together but I cannot join them. Being so far away from home and everything that makes me feel comfortable, I just feel really isolated. I constantly want to call friends or family." (Participant L)

Culture shock is another unenjoyable aspect of study abroad. It is about the feeling of being out of place in an unfamiliar environment. After some weeks living in the new environment, the differences between the UK and China were both significant and irritating for many of the returnee entrepreneurs. The participants began to experience negative feelings towards the new culture.

Text Box

"Everything from food and weather in the UK is different from those in China. For example, I don't like the British pub culture. Pub culture is an important part of British student life. I don't like the ways that Pubs are a place to go to socialise, relax and have a drink. I don't feel comfortable going to the pub, however, the pub is one of the most important and typical elements of British culture." (Participant B)

Language difficulties are cited by the returnee entrepreneurs as another unenjoyable aspect of study abroad. Difficulty with language could be so severe that it impacted on the wellbeing of some sojourning students.

Text Box

"I found it very difficult to understand what lectures speak in the beginning. It had a deep effect on my ability to learn and develop." (Participant S)

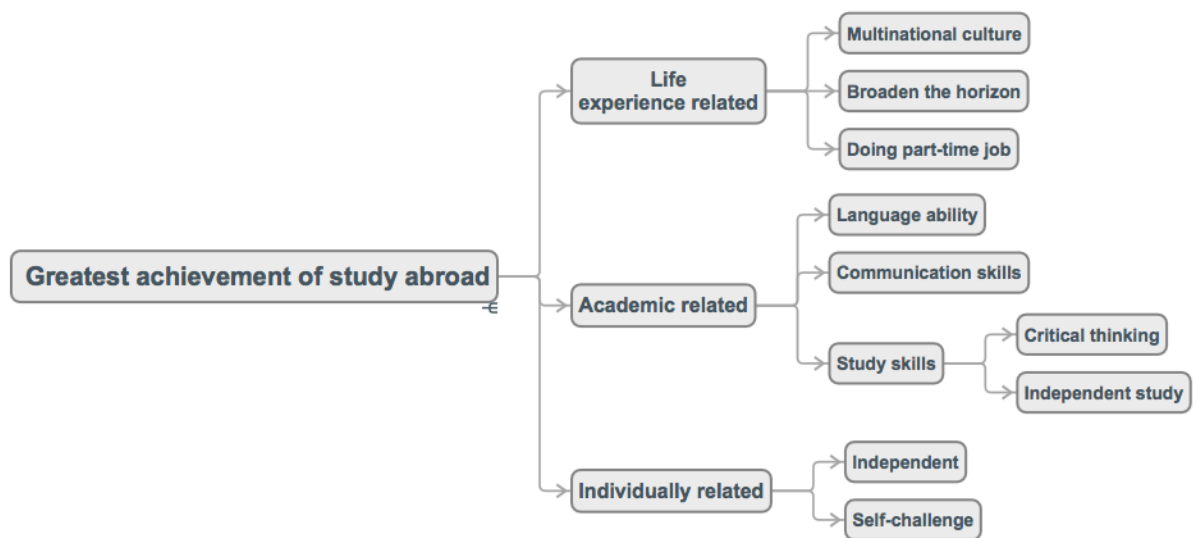
Overall, these results suggest that most of the unenjoyable aspects of the study abroad experience happen at the start of the sojourn and were concerned with dealing with different challenges. However, all of the returnee entrepreneurs had found ways to overcome these challenges.

Text Box

"Study abroad is an opportunity but also a big challenge. However, that challenge is worth facing." (Participant A)

8.3.2.5 Greatest achievement of study abroad

When the returnee entrepreneurs were asked, “*What do you consider to be the greatest achievement of your time studying abroad?*”, the majority of responses to this question were very positive. The purpose of this question is to let the returnee entrepreneurs reflect on their study abroad experience and comment on their biggest academic or personal achievements. Three broad themes emerged from the data gathered in respect of this question (see Figure 8.5).



(Source: author)

Figure 8.5 Greatest achievement of study abroad

The majority of the returnee entrepreneurs who responded to this question felt that they had increased cultural sensitivity and awareness. The experience with a different culture allows the students to expand their worldview, learn about new perspectives, develop a cross-cultural awareness, widen their horizons, and broaden their mind. They are more comfortable with people from different backgrounds and value their unique experiences. In most situations, cultural background has a huge impact on how one individual sees the world and reacts to different situations. Gaining a variety of perspectives can help them to look at things in an entirely new way.

Some returnee entrepreneurs believed that improved academic skills are their greatest achievement, because they mastered learning and teaching in both the Chinese and UK educational systems. The Chinese education system generally has a teacher-centred style where a teacher is the authority and frequently gives long lectures or one-way presentations. There is a focus on rules and expectations, and students typically take notes to simply memorize information. However, in the UK, the teachers promote self-learning by emphasizing the teacher-student relationship. They help students develop critical thinking skills by teaching them to ask questions and find solutions by themselves. This is a learning style that encourages students to be active in their learning. The academic skills include time management, language skills, oral communication, critical thinking, research abilities, analytical thinking, and problem-solving ability.

Additionally, many graduates mentioned personal development as their greatest achievement, especially developing the ability to make decisions and solve problems independently. By challenging themselves, (e.g., stepping out of their comfort zone; exposing themselves to new cultures, places, customs, and people) they grew, learnt to adapt and self-improve.

Text Box

“I love looking back and comparing my thoughts from the beginning of study abroad trip versus the end of the TNE program. At BUA accommodation, we have six students live in one room and all the roommates are from the same course, male students are not allowed to visit female students in their accommodation. There is no kitchen in the accommodation, and we often have meals in the canteens on campus or sometimes go to restaurants or snack bars near campus. However, in HAU, most students have their individual room with en-suite, flatmates can be British students and could be boys or girls. We have kitchens in our accommodation. We learnt to cook for ourselves, doing laundry, manage the finance, go to do the grocery shopping, manage our life, and make all the decisions by myself. Overall, I think my greatest achievement was to step out of my comfort zone and act bravely without fear of embarrassment, be the boss of your own life, make it your own, you are the story that you know best.” (Participant I)

8.3.2.6 Learning outcomes of study abroad

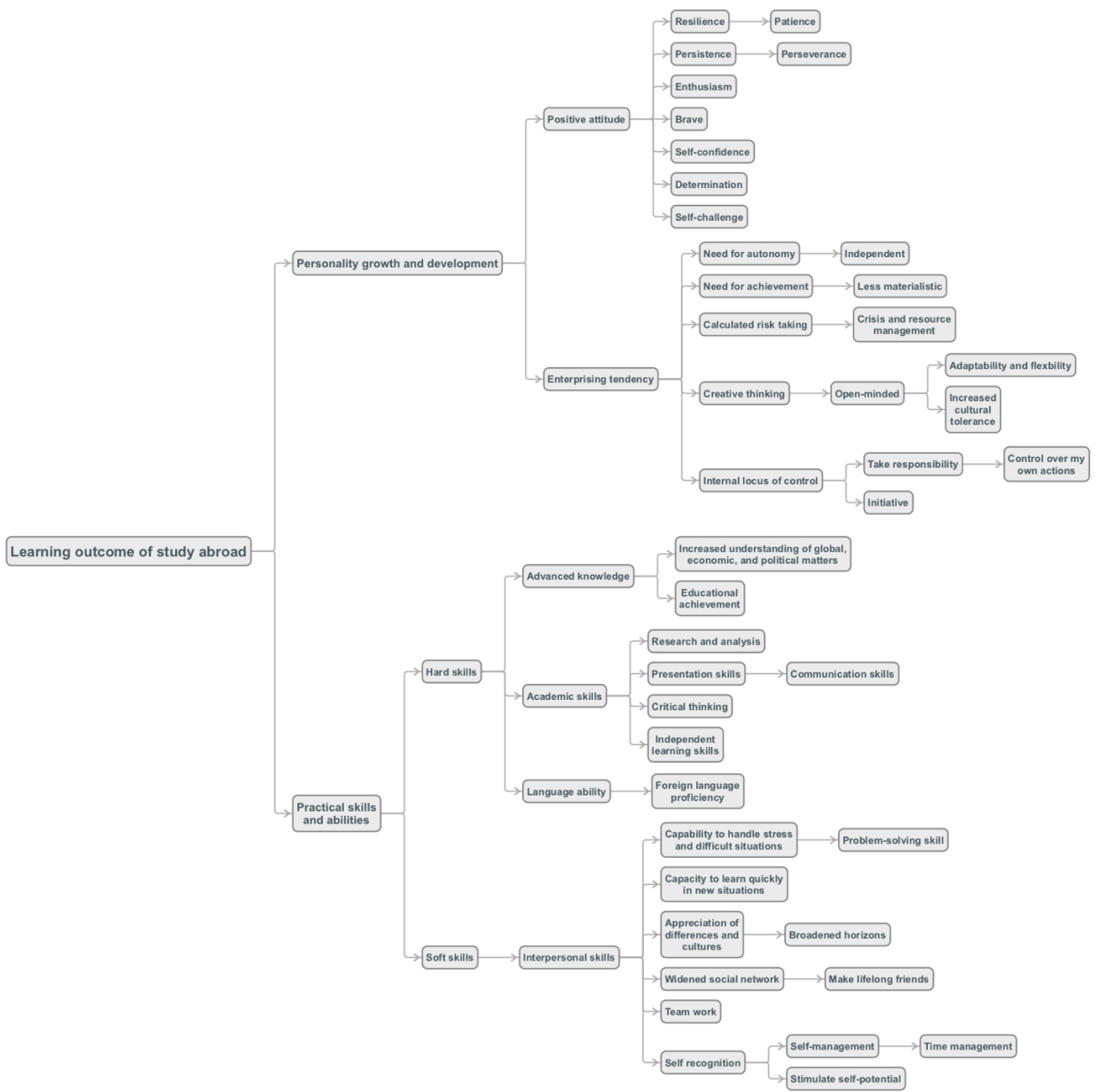
When asked, “*What did you learn or take away from the overseas experience?*” the returnee entrepreneurs provided a range of answers (see Figure 8.6). This question was intended to explore personal growth and development as well as identify the practical skills and abilities that the returnee entrepreneurs felt they had obtained during their study abroad experience.

The returnee entrepreneurs were able to outline a range of personal benefits obtained from exposure to a different culture, including the ability to be independent, to be confident, have gained in maturity, self-awareness, flexibility, and adaptability, and have developed resilience through coping with challenging circumstances. The most common response to this question related to independence.

Text Box

“Over the study abroad, I learned to take initiative and be active, make my own decisions. Far away from friends and family, I must learn how to rely on myself in difficult and challenging situations. I have learned a lot about myself during the process. The independence makes me become stronger and more resilient as a person. I have learned how to thrive in a place without any support from family or friends. I am forced to survive on my own, I need to do my own grocery shopping, cooking, cleaning, make new friends, and learn how to survive on my own, which makes me more independent and stronger. When I stay at home, I live with my parents, and I have the convenience of relying on them for everything. I become my own boss in my own life. I can make all the decisions without any one’s permission.” (Participant Y)

“During the study abroad, I need to overcome the difficulties from life and study independently. I have encountered all kinds of problems, both in life and study, I need to solve them by myself. I can think independently, make decisions independently, and solve problems independently. I have worked in the canteen and earned the money for the plane ticket back to China. I become more independent and earn the money for my living cost. It is the first time I am living on my own. I become more independent and self-reliant. Friends and family are not there to offer immediate support. I need to rely on myself to solve any problem.” (Participant R)



(Source: author)

Figure 8.6 Learning outcomes of study abroad

Open-mindedness was another common learning outcome cited by the returnee entrepreneurs. Open-mindedness refers to the ability to see the good side of a cultural difference, respect such differences, and try to adapt to it.

Text Box

“Study abroad makes me see the world and appreciate how diverse the world truly is. I learn about different cultures, and I started learning to appreciate my own culture. I think the way you think will change during study abroad. The way you think will become more diverse. Before I study abroad, what I used to think about a thing is the Chinese way of thinking, but now, it is more integrated with the western way of thinking. The attitude toward life is no longer unitary, the understanding of success is more diverse, however, the Chinese people still put money first as being successful in life. Study abroad gives me an international perspective, I become more tolerant to different cultures, beliefs, and races. I became more aware of the differences that exist between the Chinese and British culture.” (Participant W)

“Study abroad helps me to know other cultures. I got the chance to observe the different customs and traditions and experience different perspective on life. I have changed my old way of thinking. Study abroad makes my thinking become more open. I have new understanding of money and new understanding of life and work. After study abroad, I am more willing to try new things or to hear and consider new ideas. The study abroad experience helps me to shape my views on life, my views about the world. It helps me with opening the mind to other people, cultures, and ways to live life. I realise success is not a single pattern or single definition.” (Participant X)

The majority of those who responded to this question felt that the personal growth that occurs through studying abroad can last a lifetime. Other personal development such as learning to be brave, taking the initiative and assuming responsibility, as well as developing the characteristics of determination, persistence, flexibility, adaptability, and enthusiasm are assets that benefit returnee entrepreneurs far beyond their time studying abroad.

Text Box

“I think study abroad gave me the courage which I do not have when I am at home. I think going abroad for a period of time gave me courage from the inside out. I do not worry about the unknown. During the study abroad time, I used to write a paper of 2000 or 3000 words every week, which is more intense than that of Chinese universities. I think I can accomplish anything I want no matter how difficult they are. I survived during the study abroad time when I have faced a lot of difficulties and challenges, and this inspired me when I first started my business, and inspires me even today, no fear about the future. Study abroad has stretched the limits of my fear. I have learned to accept uncertainty. Uncertainty is the source of many fears.” (Participant M)

As a result of their overseas sojourn the returnee entrepreneurs had developed a greater sense of personal responsibility:

Text Box

"It is the first time in my life that I am way from my family and going to a new country. I feel very lonely at the beginning, but I become more mature and take responsibility of myself. I have a lot of free time with myself, I learned to manage my own time and my money. I need to plan my one-year expense in advance. Plan how much money I can spend weekly, monthly, and save for vacation trips. It is all up to myself, and I need to take responsibility for my own learning and living. I need to work towards my own goals, meeting assignment deadlines and taking responsibility for my own academic success." (Participant H)

An example of the way in which the study abroad experience had affected the graduate's determination was provided Participant B:

Text Box

"When I first start work, I have worked in the government and NGOs, I have faced many challenges. Now when I start my own business, I am still facing new challenges every day, but I choose to keep challenging myself to the limit. There are all kinds of difficulties in the work, but I can solve it with calm. I think it has everything to do with the experience of studying abroad. Study abroad makes me a stronger person because it forced me out of my normal comfort zone. During my study, I had worked in the canteen, I had to get up early every day, and I had to face the pressure of studying while working. Many people choose to live an easy life in their comfort zone, but I challenge myself and stick to it. I was equipped with skills to handle challenge in an unstable environment; work under pressure to achieve my goals. Studying abroad is very challenging, but it's also the perfect opportunity for personal growth." (Participant B)

Persistence was another important learning outcome obtained from study abroad:

Text Box

"I joined the football team in the university, I was recognized by my local peers. In the beginning, there is three or four Chinese students in the team, we joined together, but they did not stick to it and they quit. No matter how busy I was for my study or working part-time at the canteen, I wanted to stick it to the end. Do not quit or give up when facing pressure and difficulties. Study abroad changes my attitude towards life, I developed more persistence and perseverance. The education system of studying in the UK has greatly influenced me and made me insist on doing many things. You will know the meaning of money; you will understand every penny matters. When you spend parents' money, you don't understand how hard you need to work to earn the money. In the process of making money by myself, I think it has a profound influence on me. It teaches me to be persistent." (Participant L)

Some returnee entrepreneurs also mentioned self-recognition, self-discovery and self-awareness during the study abroad experience as they discovered a stronger sense of self. The study abroad process can change students' perspectives, their job prospects and help them discover new career options.

Text Box

"I become more self-aware. I think studying abroad is not only for getting a better education, but more importantly, you learn more about yourself and knowing your strengths, weaknesses and potential. It is about the exploration of oneself and the world. Parents give you all the support and resources they can provide to help you to stand in a good starting point, but it is all about you to explore and work to become a stronger and better person. You have the opportunity to make the decision to choose your life. Study abroad helps me to realize who I truly am, and who I want to be. Only through experience can you know what your limits and your strengths are. You will be able to know yourself better. Through overseas study, I am able to understand my strengths and weaknesses. The experience of studying abroad makes me find myself and discover myself." (Participant H)

The study abroad experience provided the returnee entrepreneurs with opportunities to develop various entrepreneurial characteristics (e.g., need for achievement, need for autonomy, creative and innovative tendency, calculated risk taking and internal locus of control) which have had a very positive influence on their career and life as a whole.

Text Box

"In China, we are used to learning knowledge from books, while universities in the UK lay more emphasis on application and practical skills and require our self-autonomy. I became more creative and started to think outside the box. I think study abroad made me a more flexible, creative and complex thinker. I think study abroad encourages me to explore the more creative side of myself. I could take a closer look at the outside world and know how to manage risk. I feel a huge sense of achievement when I look back at my year in the UK." (Participant I)

Apart from personal growth and development, the survey suggested that students who had studied abroad felt that the experience had impacted strongly on a range of practical skills and personal attributes. These skills included hard skills, which were usually tangible and learned through academic study, and soft skills which were usually intangible and come from life experiences. Many of the returnee entrepreneurs participating in the in-depth interviews reported significant gains in skills such as presentation skills, writing skills, self-management, independent learning, collaborative skills, interpersonal skills, teamwork, leadership, problem-solving, and communication skills. Indeed, most of the returnee entrepreneurs also reported that overseas study had a positive impact on their research and analytical skills.

Text Box

“While studying abroad, I developed my research and analytical skills in the process of report writing. I need to read a lot of publications and materials, analyse the article in detail, considering rationale behind the article and use data to support the argument. I learned to use approaches and methods to identify and evaluate a certain situation. I try to apply this skill at work, I trying to see things from different perspectives, doing research online to find more data and information about the situation. This skill became a tool in my life, and I use it during my study, work and personal life to help me with the decision-making process. I tend to do research when I see a new concept or face a new situation before making a decision.” (Participant H)

“I learned from the study abroad the skills of report writing, data collection, finding and acquiring information from the internet, critical thinking and analysis, which still helps me a lot these days. I need to deal with all sorts of questions and assignments in the overseas study. I learned to use books and journals, use the Internet to find the information that I needed. After the report writing and complete my HRP, I am being able to quickly find information during the work, review and analysis the information I found from different sources and recognize key patterns. The skills I learned from study abroad are very beneficial, the report writing experience is difficult in the beginning, however it enables me to search for appropriate information and evaluate it, and I have learned to make good use of information to resolve a problem.” (Participant S)

The study abroad experiences also had a great impact on many students' communication skills and on their ability to work with people from other countries and cultures. In particular, the returnee entrepreneurs felt that the experience had had an impact on the development of their verbal communication skills.

Text Box

“The most important thing I learnt from studying abroad is the need for communication between people in order to get along with each other in life. I learned how to communicate especially in a foreign language, and actively listen to other people's thoughts and take them on board. The presentations during the class while studying abroad helped me with the presentation skills to present my ideas and information clearly. I learned how to do the PowerPoint slides, being confident and delivering my ideas with the audience in mind to get my message across.” (Participant B)

“I developed my communication skills during the study abroad experience. It allows me to understand and be understood by others in the workplace. I can effectively communicate ideas to others, delivering my message to the customers, giving and receiving critical feedback with others.” (Participant M)

When reflecting on their study abroad experience the returnee entrepreneurs also reported enhanced critical thinking skills.

Text Box

"I developed my critical thinking skills during the study abroad experience. It is about identifying the purpose behind the writing, considering why they do it or write it in the way that they have. Instead of repeating things from the book or from the class, I try to develop my own opinions based on what I read or learn. Critical thinking skills are very useful in the workplace and have helped me a lot in decision making. This skill helped me to make good decisions by evaluating information critically, fairly and objectively, rather than purely accepting everything others say or write on the Internet. I will read a lot of data to analyse the problem and develop a logical rational." (Participant L)

The returnee entrepreneurs also mention teamwork and collaboration skills, self-management skills, problem solving skills and independent learning skills, which were gained through the study abroad experience and which have improved their life and career after returning home.

Text Box

"During the overseas study, we have a lot of group discussions and teamwork in seminars and tutorials. I have learned to work as a team, engaging with others, making a contribution to the team and supporting others. We have team assignments in the overseas study programme, writing each part individually and putting them together helps me to develop my skills in communication and collaboration. Having my own business, I need to work closely with my employees and customers, and this skill helps me to work well with others." (Participant J)

"I think I have learned the ability to survive in a relatively lonely environment. Those life skills help me get through life better and get on with other people. The things I learnt from the overseas life experience are more valuable than the hard skills I learned from formal education. I need to make the most of my time and organise my life. Different from study in China, there is no supervision from the teacher, it is all about being able to organise, plan and manage the study and learning by myself. I have to work independently and manage my own time." (Participant W)

"I learnt the ability to solve problems independently. Study abroad is something outside my comfort zone, I don't have my parents or friends with me, I need to make my own decisions and face the problem by myself." (Participant A)

"The pressure from study abroad is huge and it required the ability of independent thinking and learning. The teacher only covers the essential knowledge in the class. In order to write the assessment, I need to learn by myself, and read a lot of materials around the subject." (Participant Y)

Academic knowledge was another advantage for returnee entrepreneurs in terms of their career development.

Text Box

"I have gained professional knowledge of business administration and the specialized theory system during my study abroad which can be able to apply it in support my current work." (Participant R)

To sum up, all the returnee entrepreneurs agreed that studying abroad had a positive and lifelong impact on a person's career. The positive life changing benefits include personal development (e.g. increased self-confidence, enhanced independence, increased maturity, more defined personal values, long lasting impact on world view); academic commitment (e.g. enhanced skills in academic study, foreign language and critical thinking); intercultural development (e.g. understand own cultural values and biases, greater diversity, interactions with different cultures) and career development (e.g. acquired skills sets, influenced career path). The benefits and opportunities that were gained from the study abroad experience were innumerable.

Text Box

"Study abroad is a once in a lifetime experience where I got the chance to experience new opportunities and broaden my horizons. I have seen and learned new things that I would never have if I stayed at home. Study abroad have increased the range of my knowledge, skills, understanding and experience. It is all about learning, growing, changing, and adapting to a new life. It is the first opportunity in my life I could travel to another country and experience new cultures. The only real way to understand a culture is to live among its people. I can meet people from different backgrounds and cultures. I got the chance to feel something different, experience new culture and see the world. I believe that the living and studying abroad experience itself is the most beneficial part of the study abroad programme. Such experience is composed of study and all kinds of problems and difficulties in life. The entire experience is very positive and has influenced my entire life." (Participant S)

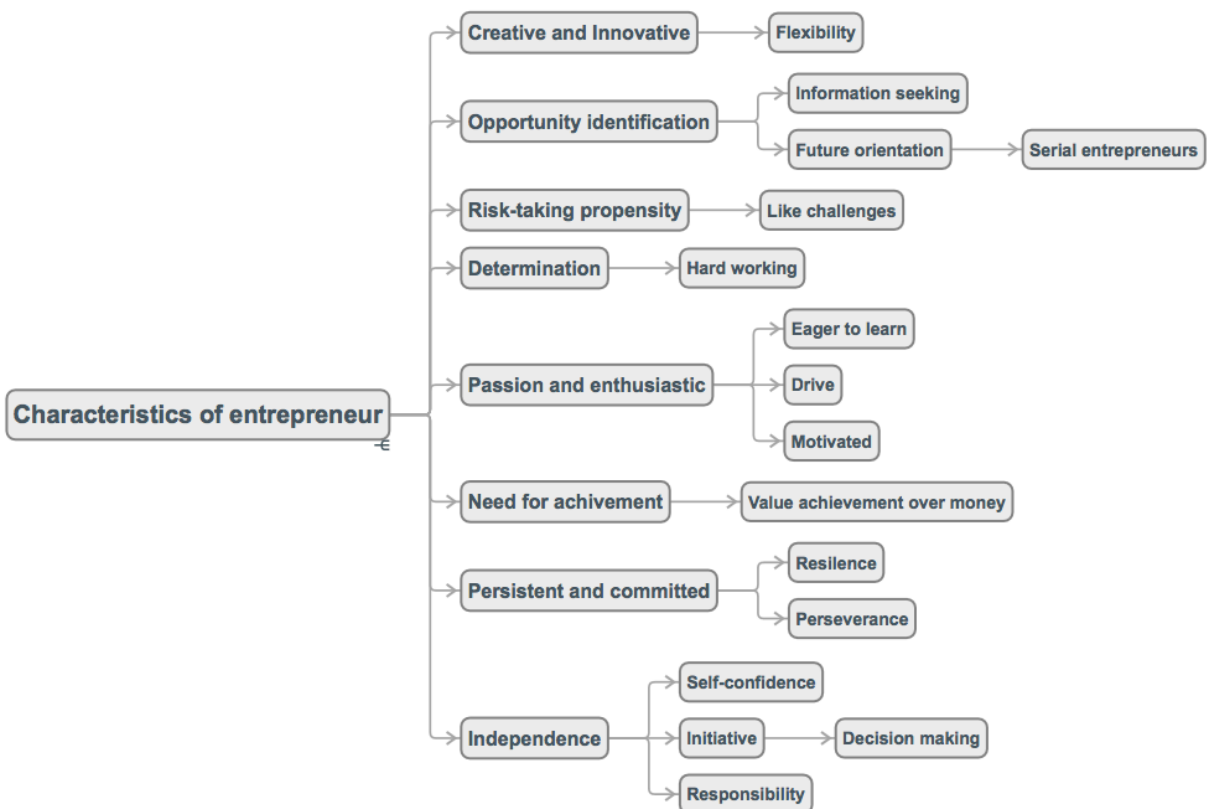
8.3.3 Entrepreneurship

The purpose of this section is to gain an understanding of entrepreneurship through the perceptions of returnee entrepreneurs, how they perceive the definition of entrepreneurship (8.3.3.1), what is the relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour (8.3.3.2), what is the major difference between the Chinese and UK education systems (8.3.3.3), what they report about their career plan before studying abroad (8.3.3.4), what they report about their family business background (8.3.3.5) and what is their motivation to start their own business (8.3.3.6).

8.3.3.1 Definition of entrepreneurship

In the interview, the returnee entrepreneurs were asked “*In your view, what is an entrepreneur and what is entrepreneurship?*” The purpose of this question was to find out the level of understanding of entrepreneurship among the returnee entrepreneurs. It was also an attempt to find out how the returnee entrepreneurs view themselves and define their businesses.

The returnee entrepreneurs associated a wide range of characteristics with being an entrepreneur including a creative and innovation tendency, business enthusiasm, persistence, determination, problem-solving ability, need for achievement, need for autonomy, risk taking propensity, and an internal locus of control. These characteristics are summarised in Figure 8.7 and are similar to many of the learning outcomes from the study abroad experience considered previously.



(Source: author)

Figure 8.7 Characteristics of an entrepreneur

The most common answer was that “*entrepreneurs take the business from zero to one*” and they saw entrepreneurship as being innovation-driven. This view is consistent with Schumpeter’s (Galindo and Méndez-Picazo, 2013), with the entrepreneur being someone who acts as an agent of change by bringing into existence a new combination of resources, a new process, a new product or some sort of organisational innovation. In addition, all twelve returnee entrepreneurs believed that creativity and innovation are essential elements in entrepreneurship, which is about new processes and new ways of doing things. They also described the creative, innovative and revolutionary process of entrepreneurship as “*exciting*”, and they enjoyed turning their visions into a reality. They see the entrepreneur as an innovator of new ideas and business processes.

Text Box

“An entrepreneur is someone who has a creative solution to an existing problem. Entrepreneurship is to come up with a new idea or approach, create a new business with better products. Personality will determine whether you prefer to sit in a comfortable environment, or you choose to do what you want to do no matter what difficulties you will encounter. At the same time, your family background may determine your resources and influence you when you make the choice, because some people are very suitable for entrepreneurship (with high enterprising tendency) but they are subject to strong objective reasons, like lack of resources and they will be hindered in doing this. Or there are some people who have high intention to start their business, their family is wealthy and can provide them the resources they need, but they have low enterprising tendency, they prefer to stay in their comfort zone, they won’t be a successful entrepreneur. Overall, I think entrepreneurship has something to do with the person, the personality, the environment, the time, the opportunity and the circumstances.” (Participant J)

“Entrepreneurship is about the behaviour and process to create new organizations, business models or products with a clear understanding of its own capabilities and social trends. An entrepreneur is someone who has a solid theoretical system and has the ability to make ideas become a reality. It is more self-autonomy, you set a goal, make efforts, and work hard to achieve it by continually exploring the current market, improving the current field and industry.” (Participant R)

“I think the entrepreneur is about creating something new to make value for society, especially the industry you are working with. As for my job, I helped some outstanding entrepreneurs to raise money, and they can use the money to create some new products, develop better services, create more positions and improve work efficiency.” (Participant Y)

“Starting a business is all about taking care of the business by yourself, creating things from zero to one. You need to know how to register a company, you need to go to the revenue, go to the industrial and commercial bureau, you need to study all the policy and regulations, you need to learn how to open an account for social security, you have to pay for your employees, set goals for the employees and set a vision for the company, you need to set the monthly company target, look for a good location and rent a place for your company, do market research, find the right customers, design products and services, keep adjusting and developing the product, deal with the tax bureau, declare dutiable goods every day, etc. you need to experience all the process by yourself and experience this again and again. However, if you go to a big company, as long as you sit there and complete the task the manager assigned to you, you finish your work. Starting a business is to start from scratch, you need to go through everything by yourself, or at least you need to understand and be familiar with the process. You need to be prepared to solve problems; sometimes there is no one who can help you.” (Participant I)

In addition, a number of the returnee entrepreneurs expressed the view that entrepreneurial enthusiasm and personal satisfaction are the key elements to the growth and success of a new businesses Several demonstrated a true passion for building something great and they were willing to push themselves to their limits to achieve big goals with great determination.

Text Box

“First of all, you need to love what you do or have passion for it. An entrepreneur is someone who is facing problems all the time and finding solutions to overcome difficulties. It is someone who is doing what he likes and keeps doing it. I think being an entrepreneur is to have a career that you want to do and have a passion and motivation to pursue it. You pursue this dream and work to make your dream come true. The whole process is entrepreneurship.” (Participant W)

“Starting a business is a brave decision. The process of starting a business is full of accomplishment and difficulties. They constantly come and go and interact. Entrepreneurship is an ongoing process with no end or finishing line. Entrepreneurs are people who have a strong psychological quality, high emotional intelligence and excellent professional knowledge of business, leadership and management.” (Participant A)

“I am very lucky that I can do something I really like in my life, and the thing I do could reflects my value. The most important thing is that I am happy, and I have passion about it. A lot of people start a business for the sake of the financial reason, but I do it because I like it, because of happiness. The financial reward comes second.” (Participant X)

Some returnee entrepreneurs’ view entrepreneurships as decision-making freedom. They are free to do want they want; in the way they want and when they want. They think the need for autonomy and need for achievement are the key elements in entrepreneurship and they have personal goals associated with personal independence and fulfilment. They consider having the independence to make their own decisions as a key benefit of running their own business.

Text Box

“The best thing with being an entrepreneur or starting a business is that you can control everything, you can control all the risk, you make all the decisions, you can choose whether or not you want to do something, you can decide how you want to do it, and who you want to do it with. I think this is the freedom that only entrepreneurship can bring to me. I am my own boss and choose my own destiny. But the bad thing about entrepreneurship is that you need to face and manage everything by yourself, you have to put in more time, energy, and resources in order to gain more profit. Making money is not the most important thing in my job but making value to society is what I think the meaning of my job is. It is more about self-achievement, self-satisfaction, I like to set goals and work hard to achieve them. I always have a vision.” (Participant M)

Some returnee entrepreneurs consider that the ability to recognize opportunities is the key trait of an entrepreneur. From their perspective, entrepreneurs need to be able to recognize and exploit market opportunities in order to start their new business or launch a new product. One returnee entrepreneur viewed himself as the serial entrepreneur, as he enjoys starting a business, selling it, and then starting all over again. He loves new opportunities and the excitement of starting a new business more than ensuring the day-to-day management of a business. This is the approach adopted by the serial entrepreneur who continuously comes up with new ideas and starts and leads new businesses one after another. The serial entrepreneur is considered to possess a higher propensity for risk, innovation and achievement (Parker, 2013). Serial entrepreneurs are more likely to experience repeated entrepreneurial success. They are also more likely to take risks and recover from business failure.

Text Box

“My understanding of entrepreneurship is starting a new business rather than managing or growing a business. I will start a new business when I see the right opportunity in the market where I can gain profit and make money; but once the business is mature and stable, I will not put my whole heart and energy into it. I will look for new business opportunities. I enjoy the process of going from zero to one, I will create it, develop it to maturity, and then I may hire someone else to manage the company and I will leave to find new opportunities and start new projects and businesses again.” (Participant B)

On the contrary, one returnee entrepreneur viewed herself as a lifestyle entrepreneur (Claire, 2012). She sees entrepreneurship as a way of life, it starts with an idea she loves and is passionate about and believes that it will be personally rewarding for herself. Even after the company starts to grow and mature, she still enjoys the entrepreneurial lifestyle. She creates the business because of passion and wishes to make an impact on society instead of maximizing the financial results.

Text Box

“Starting a business is not only about making money. It is about making a profit out of passion. It is about delivering value, creating a new brand, establishing it in the market, maintaining brand recognition in the market, building brand loyalty with the customer, and making the brand sustainable. These achievements are greater than simply making money, and you can receive more satisfaction during the process. You create something from zero to one. Your business supports your life and allows you to create freedom while making an impact on people’s lives. Entrepreneurship is a growth and on-going process for a lifetime. I believe that narrow and deep is better than wide and shallow. Entrepreneurship is about achieve the dream, creating something new, being persistent during the process of creating, finding a suitable path for the business. Run an enterprise as a passion or hobby.” (Participant I)

A small number of the returnee entrepreneurs believe entrepreneurship is about taking calculated risks on a regular basis, no matter how big or small they may be.

Text Box

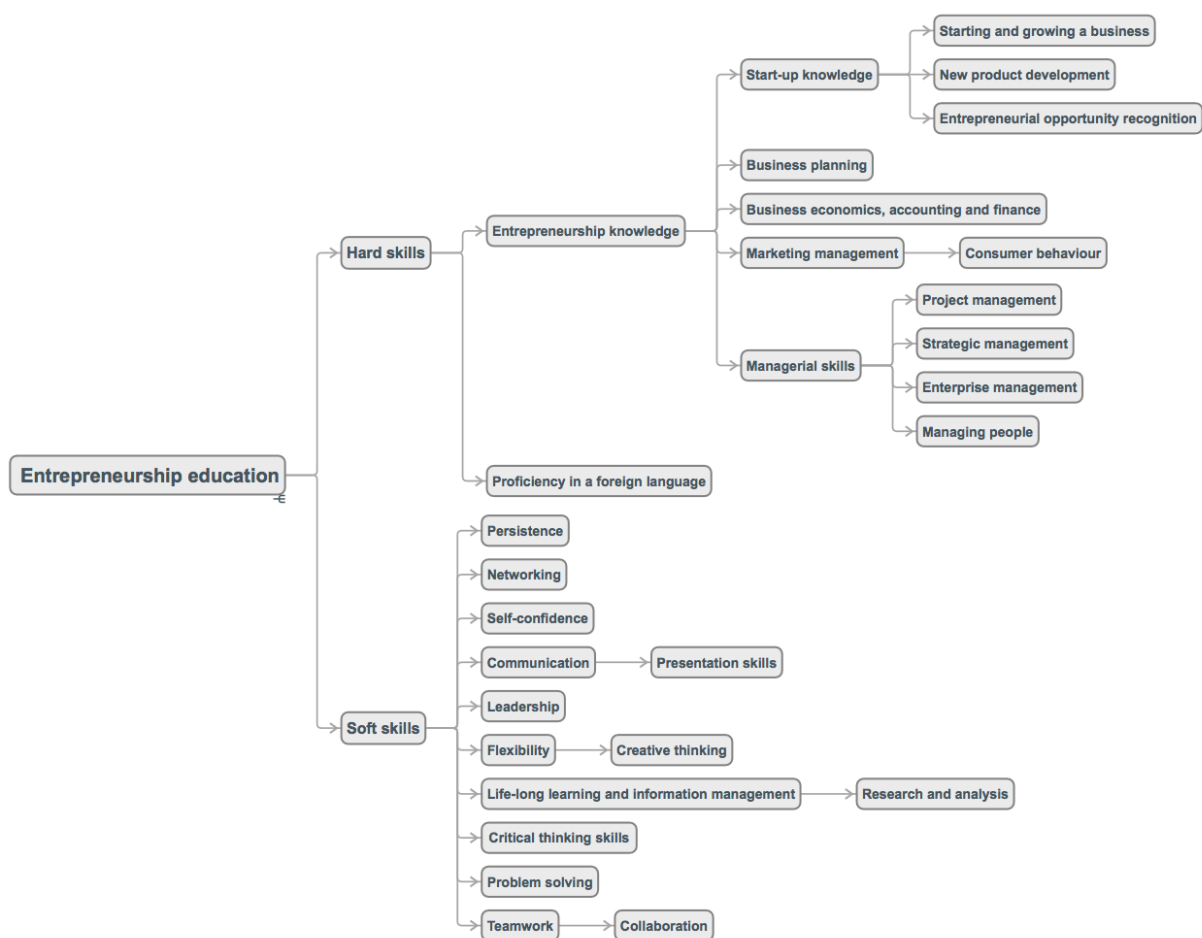
"I think starting a business is all about focusing on details, you go from zero to one, starting a business and finding a direction by yourself. The details can be small or big. It all involves dealing with business licenses, determining the company strategy, going through the product life cycle, and then starting all over again. It is very hard to start a business; it is even harder to make money and cover all the running cost of the company. You need to have a strong heart and resolve to start a business. Independent entrepreneurs take all the risks and make all the decisions; there is no one to share the responsibilities." (Participant L)

Being an entrepreneur is about depending on your contacts in the past, using the past resources, using all your savings in the bank, including customer resources, financial resources and knowledge about the market, without the dependence on mature enterprise. Without any protection or support, you need to independently solve the problems. When no one pays you regular wages, how do you make enough money to feed yourself or even to support the family? In the beginning, a new entrepreneur will face numerous problems. When you first start a business, you need to have enough knowledge about start-up, business management, you need to know how to register a company, what is tax affairs, legal affairs, and finance, etc. All of these things need to be learned and understood; you have to know everything in order to start a business, not only the knowledge about entrepreneurship or business management. You need to consider tax, business operation cost, rent, water and electricity, and labour cost. (Participant S)

Overall, these findings provide further support for the *Extended Theoretical Framework* (Figure 3.4) proposed in Chapter 3. As discussed in the Literature Review, entrepreneurs and small business owners are both self-employed; however, they exhibit different characteristics. The small business owner is primarily concerned with the day-to-day functioning of the business, the key objective of the small business is to generate profits, there is little or no intention to innovate or grow, and they usually do something that is already being done by others. However, entrepreneurship is the process of identifying a new business opportunity in the market and starting and developing a new business. The main objective of entrepreneurship is to develop a new and innovative product or service. Entrepreneurs usually start a business because of their passion towards it. Entrepreneurs have a willingness to innovate and create new things.

8.3.3.2 Entrepreneurship education

The literature suggests that entrepreneurship education is an important factor influencing many entrepreneurs. Consequently, this study sought to investigate the role that entrepreneurship education has played in the lives of the returnee entrepreneurs by asking: “Did you study small business management or entrepreneurship as modules, parts of modules, or as short courses as part of your degree programme? If yes, do you think that the entrepreneurship education made you a better entrepreneur? In what way?”. The outcomes of entrepreneurship education are summarised in Figure 8.8.



(Source: author)

Figure 8.8 Outcomes of entrepreneurship education

Most of the returnee entrepreneurs believe that taking entrepreneurship courses as part of their TNE program shaped their interest in entrepreneurial careers. After some reflection, the returnee entrepreneurs felt that they had learnt to effectively and rapidly bring business ideas to market, and they felt more confident of so doing. They were able to identify opportunities and obtain the necessary resources and capital. Through entrepreneurship education, the returnee entrepreneurs gained entrepreneurial abilities such as the requisite personality traits and entrepreneurial knowledge, e.g., creative and innovative thinking, critical thinking, problem-solving abilities, communication skills, risk-taking and teamwork.

Text Box

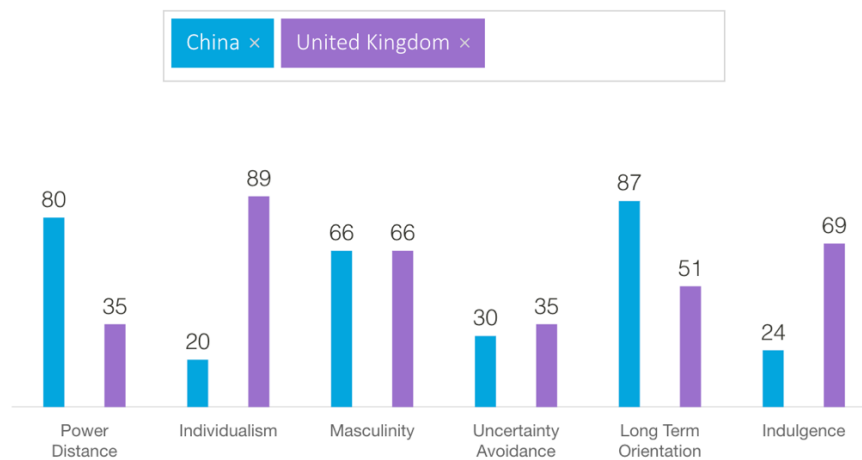
“The entrepreneurship education I received in the UK helped me to develop the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary to start my own business. The entrepreneurship education trained me to think analytically. It involves the whole process for gathering and processing information. This skill helps me to determine the needs of my target customers through doing market research before taking any actions. Depending on my findings, I can determine the feasibility of my business idea without relying purely on emotion or experience.” (Participant A)

Given that most of the respondents (10 out of the 12) were already inclined towards entrepreneurship by their family backgrounds, a possible explanation for this might be that, rather than entrepreneurial education inducing entrepreneurial proclivity and behaviour, it was pre-existing entrepreneurial proclivity that caused these respondents to self-select into entrepreneurial education. Maybe through entrepreneurial education what they learned was a vocabulary and theories for describing and rationalising what they were already inclined to do in any case. If so, this might help to explain why it is study abroad that makes the difference rather than entrepreneurial education as such.

In addition, these findings have important implications for developing entrepreneurship education in China, as there is evidence from the returnee entrepreneurs in this study that entrepreneurship education can strengthen the students' entrepreneurial mindset. However, the actual impact depends on the individual's attitudes and interests, as well as the design and delivery of the entrepreneurship course itself. The university and its staff have to create a curriculum and pedagogy that can stimulate an interest in entrepreneurship among the students and turn that interest in to entrepreneurial intention and ultimately entrepreneurial behaviour.

8.3.3.3 Major difference between the Chinese and UK educational systems

A considerable amount of literature (Griner and Smith, 2006; Leithwood and Mascall, 2008; Taras *et al.*, 2010) has been published on how cultural frameworks affect psychological processes related to school education. It has been argued that cultural dimensions of individualism - collectivism, and power-distance, influence students' classroom participation and learning (Zhou, 2008). According to Hofstede's (2020) model of cultural dimensions (see Figure 8.9), China, with a score of 20, is a highly collectivist culture where people act in the interests of the group and not necessarily of themselves. People are more likely to avoid direct conflict with another person to maintain harmony, respect group opinions rather than give a personal opinion, be less independent and worry about losing face. However, the UK, with a score of 89, is amongst the highest of the Individualist scores. British people are highly individualist and tend to speak their mind honestly, develop and promote their own opinions, be more independent, and have greater self-respect. Children are taught from an early age to think for themselves and to find out what their unique purpose in life is and how they can contribute to society. The route to happiness is through personal fulfilment.



(Source: Hofstede, 2020)

Figure 8.9 Hofstede's cultural dimension in China and the UK

Numerous studies (e.g. Jin and Cortazzi, 2006; Zhang and Li, 2010; Gu, 2011) have considered the differences between the Chinese and the UK educational systems and these are summarised in Table 8.3.

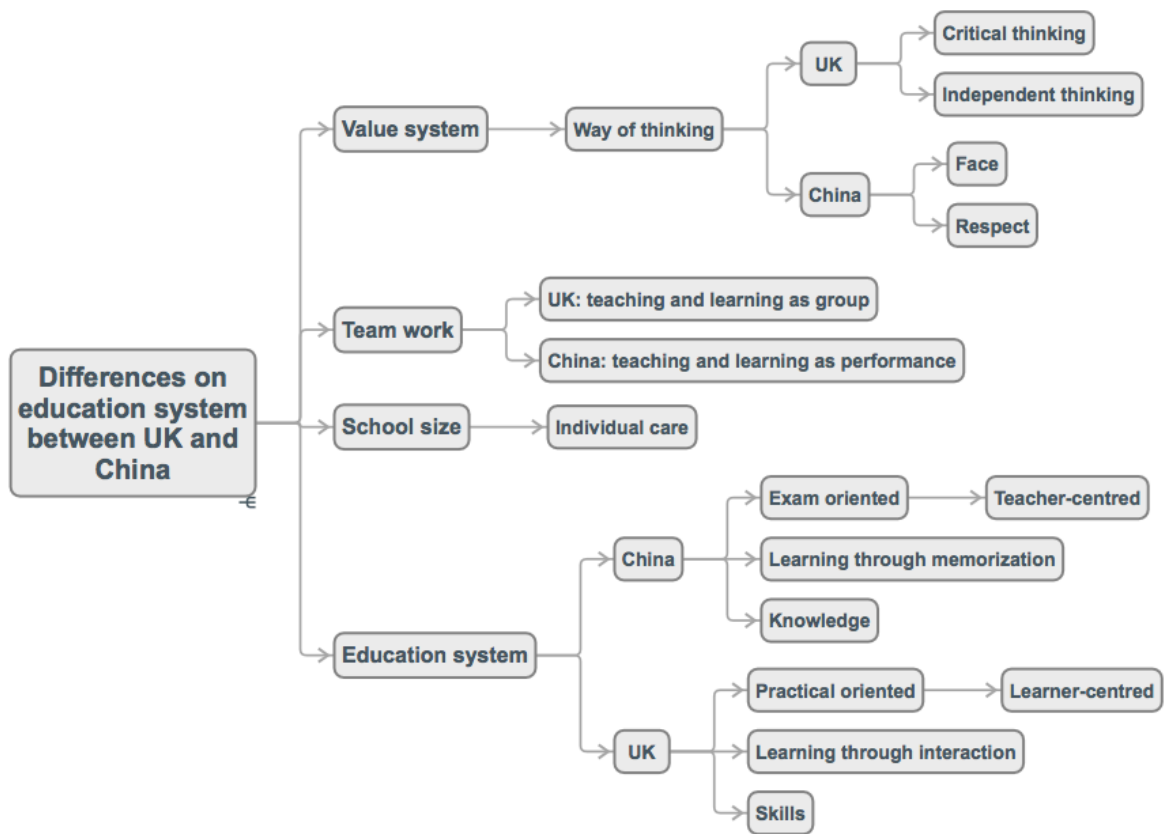
Education in China tends to be teacher-centred with little interaction, students will hesitate to speak up in larger groups unless a teacher addresses them by name. Students are less likely to challenge the teacher and express their opinion in class (Wang, 2012). Students accept that they should cooperate and support the teacher at all times. However, UK education encourages students to work independently, generate their own thinking based on self-study and research, critically evaluate what they produce themselves as well as that produced by others, and to question their teachers (Tinsley and Board, 2014). The two approaches to education are very different and this leads to a large difference in the power-distance scores between China and the UK.

Table 8.3 Different emphases in cultures of learning between China and the UK

CHINA	UK
Knowledge from teachers & textbooks	Skills in communicating & learning
Collective consciousness co-ordination, group support, social & moral learning	Individual orientation personal needs, attention, talent, uniqueness
Teaching & learning as performance Pace, variety, presentation, virtuosity	Teaching & Learning as organization Pairs, groups, activities, tasks
Learning through practice & memorization towards mastery preparation, repetition, confidence building	Learning through interaction & construction Experience, activities, tasks, initial creativity
Contextualized communication Listener/reader responsibility	Verbal explicitness Speaker/writer responsibility for communication
Hierarchical relations Agreement, harmony, face, respect	Horizontal relations Discussion, argument, informality
Teacher as model Expert, authority, parent, friend, teacher- centred	Teacher as organizer Mentor, guide, helper, learner-centred

(Sources: adapted from Hayhoe, 2016; Fong, 2007)

The TNE program provided the students the opportunity to experience a different education system and learning process in the UK. In the interview, therefore, the returnee entrepreneurs were asked “*What do you value most about your overseas education? What is the biggest difference between Chinese education and UK education?*” In the event, four broad themes emerged from an analysis of the responses shown in Figure 8.10.



(Source: author)

Figure 8.10 Differences between the education systems of the UK and China

Most of the returnee entrepreneurs acknowledged the major difference between the education systems in the UK and China. Many returnee entrepreneurs also criticized the education system in China.

Text Box

“There is a significant deference between the education systems in the UK and China. Chinese students can be lazy and sit around doing nothing during their undergraduate course, they only study before their exams. However, study in the UK is very intense, we used to have three papers or assignments in one month. We learned to write essays, do presentations, do experiments, do case study analysis. Our English language ability improved dramatically. Chinese education focuses on memorizing information and repeating it, but UK education focuses on research and analysis. Chinese education is high-pressure, test-centred schooling. UK education is independent, students are free to speak their mind, and have activities to choose from.” (Participant R)

Another returnee entrepreneur believes that the UK has a better education system than China and that he received better education through study abroad:

Text Box

“The UK education system develops individual talent and encourages diversity. It is different from the traditional Chinese education system, which neglects the cultivation of personality and innovative ability. UK education pays more attention to the cultivation of soft skills and personal ability, while Chinese education pays more attention to the inculcation of knowledge and the mastery of hard skills. The Chinese have examination-oriented education while the UK have practical education. Most of us were the only child in the family, we bore the responsibility of being our parents’ and grandparents’ hope for the future. Competition for employment in China is intense. The Chinese education system is exam-oriented, the UK education system is more inclined to application, there is a lot of case study and analysis during my overseas study.” (Participant M)

Participant H provided insight into entrepreneurship education in China:

Text Box

“The Chinese education system is exam-oriented, UK education is quality education, it is a comprehensive education. The most important part of the Chinese students’ lives are their exam scores. They believe that high scores will secure them a better University and better career in the future. UK education is closer to industry and real business. Assessment methods and teacher selection are to cultivate talents for enterprises. In particular, entrepreneurship education in China is still under development and there is a focus on textbooks but isolated from the real business world, it is still influenced by the traditional Chinese education system.” (Participant H)

A significant number of those interviewed mentioned that the UK education system fosters independence, creativity, and critical thinking. Several returnee entrepreneurs noted being exposed to different teaching and learning styles, being involved in the learning process in the UK developed critical thinking; and being highly involved in projects in class made them think more independently. All of the returnee entrepreneurs stated that the UK approach was a better way of learning than the traditional way of education in China.

Text Box

“The UK education system encourages independent thinking, critical thinking and encourages diversity. It is different from the traditional Chinese education system which lacks creativity and independent thinking. The UK education trained the students with the ability to think independently and outside the box. In China, teachers prefer to teach knowledge to students. The students care more about the results rather than the learning process. The teachers tend to give one single and standard answer to one question.” (Participant X)

“The UK education system tries to develop students as a whole and encourages critical thinking. However, the Chinese education system focuses on achieving high grades in assessments, with memorisation of textbooks. The typical Chinese class has a teacher-led approach, and the students learn by memorising information through repetition and note-taking. Students just passively receive the information. Normally, there is no student engagement or discussion during the class.” (Participant B)

A number of returnee entrepreneurs linked the Chinese cultural value system with Gaokao. The Chinese cultural value system emphasises personal struggle and this is reflected in the Gaokao. The Gaokao is the National College Entrance Examination held annually in China (Yu *et al.*, 2016). The Gaokao is very competitive and everything the teachers teach and everything the students learn in high school is needed to pass the exam and get a place in a desirable university. This standardized test is a prerequisite for entrance into almost all Chinese higher education institutions at the undergraduate level (Ruiqing, 2013). The enrolment standard for degree courses has three tiers and students need to get a high enough score to pass the relevant standard.

Text Box

“The purpose of the entire high school learning is for Gaokao, which the Chinese students consider as life changing. Chinese people believe in pragmatism, most of them see money and family as the most important things in life. Chinese people put money first and think having money represents success. The Chinese believe in saving and the importance of making enough money to take care of yourself, your family and your future. The parents want their child to choose one of four careers, for example, accountancy, medicine or doctor, computer engineering, or law. Chinese people work just for the sake of working and making money, everything is arranged by their parents. After study abroad, my attitude toward life is no longer unitary, the understanding of success is more diverse.” (Participant L)

A small number of the returnee entrepreneurs mentioned the term “Banzhuren”. Banzhuren plays a special role in Chinese education (Li and Chen, 2013). He or she teaches one or several subjects but holds the key responsibility for the whole group of students, in charge of most of the administrative stuff, the collaboration among teachers, and the communication with parents. It is different to a personal tutor in the UK who provides academic development and pastoral care for students.

Text Box

“In the UK, the personal tutor takes good care of the students, and the class capacity is very small, the personal tutor has enough energy to pay attention to every student, which is very difficult to do in China. For an average class in China, it is a small class if we have 30 to 50 students, and the typical class can often have up to 70 – 80 students. Due to the different education system, Chinese and British teaching relationship and teaching approach is very different. There is no teamwork or report in the Chinese class. However, we have a lot of reports and presentations in the form of group during study abroad, the results from the overall team will be the result of the module and will be recorded. The class discipline, learning time, class capacity, tutorial time is very difference between the two system. The class capacity is too large in China, one Banzhuren needs to take more than 50 students in China, and the workload is too large.” (Participant I)

The returnee entrepreneurs also criticized the test-based evaluation methods in China, as opposed to the combination of projects, presentations, assignments, and tests methods in the UK.

Text Box

“In Chinese class, the teacher speaks more, and the students listen more, without much interaction. The relationship between teacher and students is just like that between parents and children. The teachers are highly respected by students and students are used to obeying the teachers. We normally ask the questions after the class. However, in the UK, the relationship between the teacher and student is more equal. The class is much smaller. I realized that UK students can just sit in their seats and prompt the questions instantly. You don’t need to put up your hands, just answer the questions when you know the answers. Sometimes, the teachers can come down to us to have a discussion. I also like seminar where you have smaller groups and better discussion with tutors. The teaching approach is more personal and friendlier. The teachers encourage students to be critical and raise questions and come up with different ideas. The different perspective is encouraged and normally the teacher encourages us to believe that there is not only one right answer. The classes are for everyone, students can ask questions at any time and have a lot of interaction with teachers.” (Participant W)

Overall, these results indicate that there are significant differences between the educational systems of China and the UK. Although the Chinese education system, both at school and university level, is based on teacher-centred learning, it is encouraging to note that the students on this TNE programme are more engaged with Western pedagogy, and they have developed independent, creative and critical thinking during their time abroad. They also learnt independent learning through their HRP research projects; analysis and problem-solving through the use of case studies in tutorials and seminars. They worked with their classmates on group assignments and group presentations reflecting their improved confidence in teamwork and collaboration. These findings suggest that during the study abroad period the returnee entrepreneurs developed soft skills including problem-solving, team working, communication, innovation, independent and critical thinking.

8.3.3.4 Career plan before studying abroad

When the returnee entrepreneurs were asked, “*What was your career plan before studying abroad?*” approximately half of the returnee entrepreneurs stated that they would have liked to work for a large organization in China, five of the returnee entrepreneurs had no definite plans, and only one returnee entrepreneur planned to set up their own business (see Figure 8.11). The purpose of this question was to find out (i) if any of the returnee entrepreneurs had definite plans before they studied abroad, in particular whether they had always considered setting up a new business, and (ii) whether their career plan was influenced by their study abroad experience.



(Source: author)

Figure 8.11 Career plan before studying abroad

One graduate, who currently runs his own business, stated that he had been planning to work in a large organisation and that this plan was directly influenced by his mother.

Text Box

“Before I studied abroad, I wanted to find a stable job in my hometown to work in a large organisation, to have a fixed salary every month. Especially my mother wants me to find a stable job.” (Participant L)

A number of returnee entrepreneurs stated that they did not have a definite career plan before studying abroad.

Text Box

"I didn't think about my career plan before I went abroad. I just played every day and enjoyed life. I didn't have a clear idea of what I should do. It is like every coin has two sides. I am not a strict planner, but my personality also makes it easier for me to seize opportunities and be less constrained by my own planning. It gives me more flexibility." (Participant B)

Another returnee entrepreneur criticized the career guidance and counselling for university students in China.

Text Box

"I didn't have any plans. Not at all. I didn't think about what I would do in the future. I think lack of career plan is also the biggest flaw in the entire Chinese education system. The problem of employment for returnee entrepreneurs is caused by many factors, an important one of which is that the students have limited long-term career planning and personal goal-setting strategies. The students also lack awareness of the knowledge and competencies required in specific jobs." (Participant X)

One returnee entrepreneur mentioned that he always had the determination to set up a business, it is indeed what he planned, and it was something he had always wanted to do.

Text Box

"Influenced by my father, I knew before studying abroad that I didn't want to work for others. I never think about working for others. I want to start my own business and be my own boss." (Participant H)

8.3.3.5 Family business background

In response to the question, *"Do any of your family members, including your parents and relatives, have their own business or are self-employed?"*, only two graduates reported that neither of their parents have their own business or are self-employed. All the others either had a parent or one of their direct family who owned or ran their own business. Most of the returnee entrepreneurs reported that the family business background had helped or influenced their decision to set up their own business. The occupation of the parents appeared to directly impact on the students' career choice. For example, several graduates said that their parents had a great and direct influence on their career decision.

Text Box

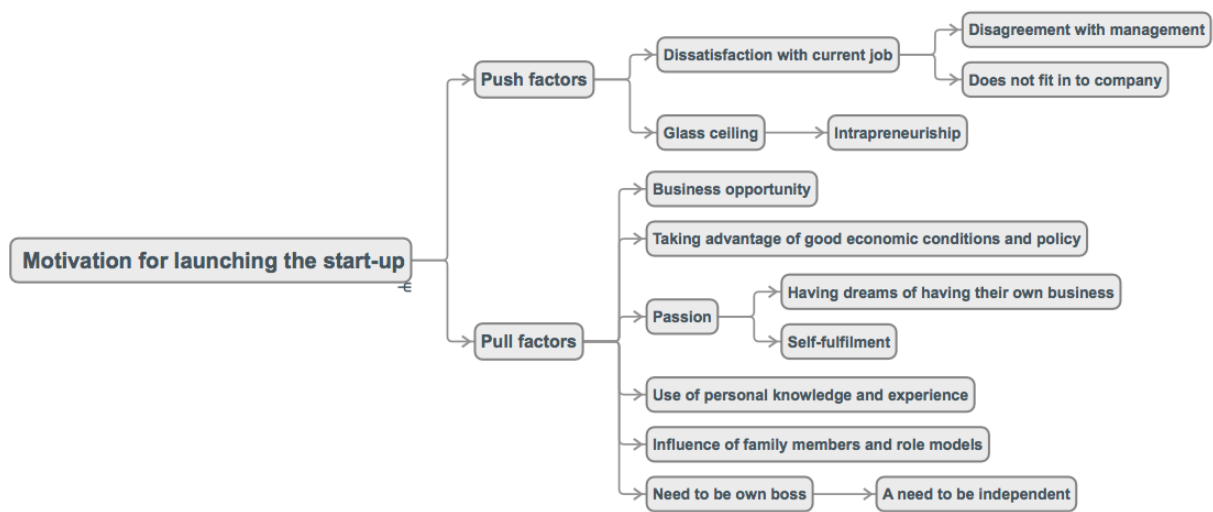
“My family run a small engineering company in China, and it has been trading for more than a decade. Most of the family members are entrepreneurs. Their careers have had a great influence on me. They teach me to be my own boss and choose my own destiny. I don’t think I am suitable, or I can survive working in an organization system. I’m a very assertive person. I started my own business because of my personality and my family background. My parents’ experience had a great and stable influence on me.” (Participant I)

“My father runs his own business. He runs a contractor company to help other big companies to set up cameras. My father started his own business from scratch, and this had a great influence on me. My father’s experience is very inspiring. He never stays in one field. He teaches me to be brave and just do it. Never stay in the comfort zone and you should always challenge yourself. You need to continually think about the future direction of your company and adopt it with the trend of current market, it is not about enjoying the success after creating a brand. It is about having a sense of crisis to think about future changes and how to make a timely response and adjustment before the changes. Be insistent and persistent, flexible and adjustable.” (Participant M)

To sum up, most of the returnee entrepreneurs reported that their family background had influenced their career direction. Family influence played a crucial role in the students’ decision making with regard to where they began their career path (Lalkaka, 2001) and it could be either positive or negative. On the one hand, family background, as social capital, provided the means for them to establish a foundation for their future career. On the other hand, it limited their choices. This occurred in two ways, ten of the returnee entrepreneurs’ parents or family relatives have their own business and they were familiar with the business environment as well as the social networks (Guanxi) that make up the environment, but only three of the returnee entrepreneurs started their own business immediately after they returned to China. It is difficult to explain this result, but it might be that these three returnee entrepreneurs believed that their best option was to become an entrepreneur and started their own business to fulfil their dream and take advantage of the social capital provided through their family background and parent’s social connections. However, the other nine returnee entrepreneurs, two of whom come from a non-entrepreneurial background, have family that preferred them to have a stable working environment, job security, social resources, and the cultural norms associated with certain social expectations of gender roles. These results match those observed in earlier studies (Oluwafunmilayo., 2018) where an individual who belongs to an entrepreneurial family has a greater likelihood of an entrepreneurial career than someone from a non-entrepreneurial background. Family members’ engagement in entrepreneurial behaviour creates opportunity for the individual to develop similar perceptions.

8.3.3.6 Motivation to start own business

The research sought to establish what factors motivated the returnee entrepreneurs to start their own business. In response to the question: “*What were the reasons for setting up your own business?*”, the returnee entrepreneurs gave a range of responses that are presented in Figure 8.12. It is apparent that there are a number of key reasons why the returnee entrepreneurs started their own business: for example, to take advantage of a business opportunity, pursue a passion, self-fulfilment, make one’s own decisions, or dissatisfaction with a current job.



(Source: author)

Figure 8.12 Motivation for starting their own business

There is one factor more than any other that motivates the returnee entrepreneurs to start their own business and that is a chance to introduce a new business idea to the market. They spot a gap in the current market, come up with an innovative idea and then convert it into a business plan to launch the new venture onto the market.

Text Box

"I started my own business when I saw a new business opportunity. I was not satisfied with the current desert food service industry in China. I am not satisfied with the existing brands in the market, the image of the product. I found a gap in the market which I could work on to push the current industry forward with new innovations and ideas. I believe my brand can achieve something unique and I want to make a new brand for the market. That is the reason I started my own business instead of joining an existing business or franchising." (Participant M)

"After I returned to China from study abroad, I found that the existing motor vehicle maintenance and repair service in Beijing was very old and underdeveloped. I spent a long-time doing market research using the SWOT analysis and Porter's five forces model I studied during the entrepreneurship course. I believed that there is a market for the door-to-door private car service and my idea could deliver greater value to customers. I want to put the new service into the market, and I can see there is a gap in the market. My research tells me that there will be a large number of customers who will willing to pay for my service." (Participant B)

"I started my own business because of dissatisfaction with the existing English training market in China. In China, the language training is for taking exams. However, I want to help students to learn through playing and help them to understand the purpose of learning English, which is using English as a tool rather than for exams. I was always looking for opportunities to start my business and I quit my previous job as an English teacher to be an entrepreneur when I met a good partner." (Participant S)

Another important motive for most returnee entrepreneurs to start their own business is the favourable policies for overseas educated students. Some returnee entrepreneurs agreed that they did benefit from these policies. The benefits are many and varied but include special project incubators, funds, tax cuts, and easier access to permanent residence in first-tier cities. China has so far set up 350 industrial parks exclusively for foreign-educated returnee entrepreneurs and so far these have attracted 27,000 enterprises (Xia et al., 2020). One of the returnee entrepreneurs started his business in an entrepreneurs' incubator established by Renmin University of China in 2016. He thinks the big advantage was that the incubator provided training about entrepreneurship and taught him many of the basics about starting a business.

Text Box

"During my first six months at the incubator, I learned how to approach angel investors, who specialize in funding start-ups, and institutional investors to give my business a start. It's difficult for us to get loans from banks, because we have limited assets to use as collateral. Therefore, angels and institutions have become the most important way of raising funds. The lack of collateral is a major problem for many young entrepreneurs in Beijing. Some would be reluctant to use their own assets. Even if I bought a house, I would not use it as collateral with a bank. If I did that, I couldn't afford to lose." (Participant M)

Need for achievement is another powerful motivation for starting a business and being an entrepreneur. Some returnee entrepreneurs stated that they were not satisfied with working in a business hierarchy or for a bureaucratic organisation. The multi-layered hierarchy system that prevails in large organizations was seen as bureaucratic. The vertical structure gives returnee entrepreneurs very limited space to progress. They feel that their skills are being wasted and that their potential is not being fulfilled.

Text Box

“After I came back from overseas, I worked in an English training institution and became the president of the branch school. However, I found that I needed to follow the instructions of the president of the head school, and many of my ideas could not be fully implemented. The president from the headquarters had a typical Chinese value system and way of thinking and we could not work together, so I decided to leave and realise my own ideas by starting my own business. I feel satisfied to have established and built something of my own instead of working for others. I feel self-actualization for being my own boss and making profits through my own leadership, abilities, ideas and efforts.” (Participant A)

“The motivation for starting my own business lies in the desire to have a bigger stage on which to maximize my potential. If I work in a company and follow the instructions from the manager, I may become a very good employee in 10 or 20 years, but I don't want to live my life in this way. Opportunities for promotion in a big company are very few.” (Participant Y)

Another driving force for the returnee entrepreneurs is their love for what they are doing. They have persistent love for doing something great and they have a passion that drives them forward. They have the feeling of satisfaction from building a business.

Text Box

“I feel satisfied to establish and build something of my own instead of working for others. I feel self-actualization for being my own boss, making profits through my own leadership, abilities, ideas and efforts. Lego education enables children to go abroad to participate in various competitions. I think it is very interesting and satisfying, which attracts me to start my own business. I don't like to work for others and obey the conventional rule. The motivation for being an entrepreneur is about doing what I love and the desire to make a meaningful difference. I love to wake up each morning knowing I am getting to do exactly what I love. Do what you love, and the money will follow.” (Participant L)

A final driving-force was that role models (such as parents, local entrepreneurs, and teachers), directly or indirectly, have a significant influence on individual entrepreneurial motivation. A role model is an individual who has the ability to inspire, stimulate, and encourage others to engage in a given activity (entrepreneurship). One returnee entrepreneur mentioned the influence of her supervisor during the study abroad period which helped her to create her own identity and make choices about her future career.

Text Box

“The motivation of being an entrepreneur goes back to the time when I study at Harper. My mentor and supervisor, Douglas, had a huge impact on me. He is not only my teacher but more like my friend, my mentor in life. His behaviour makes me feel that teachers not only teach students knowledge, but influence their beliefs, values and ways of thinking and how you view things. In China, we are used to 100 per cent obeying and respecting our teachers. We are used to never objecting to the teacher’s opinion about the textbook content. In China, the teacher left after class, there is no communication between the students and the teacher. However, in the UK, we are encouraged to raise different opinion and ideas, and be critical and independent thinking. Therefore, I want to open an English language training institution after I come back to China. I want China to have more teachers who pay attention to students, encourage different ideas, teach them with a positive life attitude and pay attention to their emotional problems.” (Participant B)

The returnee entrepreneurs also acknowledged a number of push-type factors motivating them to become entrepreneurs. A small number of those interviewed stated that they were motivated by a need to change their present career from intrapreneurship to independent entrepreneurship. As an intrapreneur, they share many behavioural characteristics with entrepreneurs such as innovativeness, pro-activeness and risk taking; however, they need to operate within a certain corporate culture and are limited by the strictures of the firm. They decided to become entrepreneurs when they were not able to pursue their ideas any further within the framework of the employing organization.

Text Box

“The motivation for starting my own business was related to an intrapreneurship project I did with my last job. I have been doing intrapreneurship in the company for one year and decided to start my own business. Starting a business has nothing to do with my family background. I was working at the Internet start-up after I came back from overseas study, and my work involves an intrapreneurship project, but I didn't think what I did every day was right for me. I was standing at a crossroads and facing two options. The first one is to return to the large mature system in the company and continue to work with the large organization; but I didn't feel that I could maximize my ability working as an employee. The second option I had was to start my own business, because working as intrapreneur is very similar as being an entrepreneur. I have actually gone through half of the entrepreneurial experience; the only difference is that I have the freedom and autonomy to make decisions. At that time, my colleagues in the intrapreneur team had the same idea and thoughts and they supported me to come out and start my own company. I concluded that my motivation for being an entrepreneur was a relatively passive opportunity rather than an active choice.” (Participant W)

Surprisingly, one returnee entrepreneur claimed that he had been pushed into entrepreneurship because no other suitable employment opportunities existed. He spoke of the fierce competition for graduate jobs in China. He had a lack of understanding regarding the domestic employment situation and had missed the best time for recruitment. Generally, there are two types of recruitment in China, social recruitment and campus recruitment (Wang *et al.*, 2020). Social recruitment refers to the occasional opportunity for people who have relevant work experience, whereas campus recruitment is an annual event exclusively targeted at forthcoming university returnee entrepreneurs. Campus recruitment usually starts with online applications during the first term of the academic year (between October and December), and the whole recruitment process, including written exams and several rounds of interviews, lasts until April the following year. Since students graduate in late June or early July, those who have been recruited will sign a contract once they have their degree certificate and start working around July. Many Chinese universities allow students to use their final semester to spend time looking for jobs and doing internships (Wu *et al.*, 2020).

It is impossible for sojourning students to travel back to undertake tests and interviews for jobs during the Chinese recruitment process. In order to undertake recruitment amongst students who have studied abroad, large Chinese companies usually set up campus recruitment events at Chinese universities during the graduation period. The returnee entrepreneur comments that he did not have many choices in terms of employment, because the time of the graduation in the UK was different from the Chinese graduation events.

8.3.4 Linking entrepreneurship with international education

This section explores what returnee entrepreneurs think about the impact of study abroad on enterprising tendency (8.3.4.1), entrepreneurial intention (8.3.4.2), and entrepreneurial behaviour (8.3.4.3), thus allowing for an understanding of the link between entrepreneurship and international education. This section ends with a further discussion of the return on investment of the study abroad experience (8.3.4.4) and a final remark on this section (8.3.4.5).

8.3.4.1 The impact of study abroad on enterprising tendency

The Study 1 quantitative study revealed an increase in students' enterprising tendency after study abroad. In order to better understand the relationship between study abroad and enterprising tendency, the returnee entrepreneurs were asked: *“Do you think the overseas experience influenced your entrepreneurial traits and characteristics (enterprising tendency)?”* The returnee entrepreneurs provided a variety of answers that are summarised in Figure 8.13. It is apparent that all of the returnee entrepreneurs believed that studying abroad had numerous benefits and that many were of value to them when they became entrepreneurs. Many students felt that the study abroad period had refined personality traits that are associated with entrepreneurship and that the experience had made them mentally stronger and more able to deal with the challenges of entrepreneurship. They become more creative, independent, flexible, problem solving, culturally aware, open-minded, critically thinking, self-motivated, willing to meet new challenges, and adaptable to new situations.



(Source: author)

Figure 8.13 The impact of study abroad on entrepreneurial traits

Most of the returnee entrepreneurs stated that the study abroad experience had taught them to be more autonomous. The nature of the study abroad experience encouraged them to be more independent in their decision making and life choices. They gained confidence through their study abroad experience, and they enjoyed the freedom and independence but when they returned to China, they could only find work as an entrepreneur.

Text Box

“In terms of my entrepreneurial traits, I think I have changed a lot after study abroad. Self-autonomy is very important. You have a lot of your own time. It’s your own responsibility to manage your life and study; everything relies on you. My parents used to make all the big decisions for me in my life, for example, what subject I should choose for my degree, what university I should apply to, even what type of clothes I should wear. However, I became more independent, and I made my own decisions during study abroad. Being far away from home, I had to face and solve everything independently. While in China, there are too many people that can help me when I am facing difficulties, but, in the UK, no one can help me, and even money cannot solve the problem. It certainly changed my personality traits. In particular, my independence and autonomy has been greatly strengthened. I became much more independent and established a higher level of maturity because of study abroad. This helped me in my career as an entrepreneur. Today, I enjoy work where I determine my own goals, values and beliefs. I value the independence and freedom in my job.” (Participant J)

“Being in a completely new place and new country made me become more independent and mature, and I have become more confident and have grown as a person. It is my first experience of living away from my parents and home. I have found that studying abroad made me feel more free, independent, resourceful, and open to new experiences. Being far away from home forces me to become more independent and take initiatives in my life. I have learned to stand on my own two feet and take control of my life. In China, even if I was living in university accommodation, I could travel back home every week, there is only a one-hour driving from home. I don’t need to cook for myself while in China as there are many restaurants available near the campus. However, going abroad meant I had to do my own grocery shopping and cooking. When I am in China, if something happens or I am facing some difficulties, my friends or parents are there to help me. But when I am studying abroad, I am on my own. At first it was very challenging, but this experience shaped me to become a better person and indeed a better entrepreneur. I depend less on other people and depend more on myself. Being independent just became second nature to me.” (Participant W)

Another important finding was that several returnee entrepreneurs felt that the study abroad experience had made them more achievement motivated, and that this trait had been very beneficial to them when they became entrepreneurs. Study abroad is a challenge that requires students to plan ahead and to overcome many different challenges. During the process, they possess a powerful desire to find solutions for different problems by themselves, they are enthusiastic and constantly trying to improve their performance through self-development, and now they like to seek challenges that match their personality and desire for success.

Text Box

“Living in a different country and environment, living in a completely foreign culture, far away from the help of my parents, many challenges were waiting for me. It required me to step out of my comfort zone, to become more courageous, self-autonomous, to explore myself, to explore the world. Challenge myself to stay out of my comfort zone. Work hard and to do things well. That spirit has always inspired me and helped me to start my own business. Many people choose to live an easy life in their comfort zone, but I enjoy challenge myself.” (Participant L)

The responses also indicated that the returnee entrepreneurs clearly felt that their creativity had improved. They believe their experience abroad had given them more opportunities to be creative than they would have had if they stayed at home. They need to get out of their comfort zone to meet new people and discover new ways of thinking. This experience encouraged adaptability and creativity, and the students learnt to solve complex problems with creative solutions.

Text Box

“People who know me well think that I have a broader perspective with creative thinking after study abroad. They think I can see things in a more logical and creative way with more than one perspective. They think I have an open mind with open vision. After study abroad, I have a better understanding and appreciation for the different cultures and value systems around the world, I learned to respect people with different beliefs, customs and history. Because of the accumulation of knowledge and life experience, I become more rational and mature in the ways of thinking. Exposure to a new culture lets me gain a broad and sophisticated worldview and diversifies my thoughts and values. I think this helps me run my business better. I welcome new ideas and diverse perspectives; I can see more opportunities and creative solutions to problems.” (Participant R)

“The overseas experience changed me in the way of thinking and changed my mindset. After study abroad, I became more creative and think outside the box more. The experience I have with different cultures forces me to generate creative ideas and link seemingly unrelated concepts. Stepping outside of my comfort zone, study abroad helped me to develop problem solving skills, creative thinking skills and the confidence that I can handle unexpected situations. It is an important trait as an entrepreneur, as I need to keep improving efficiency in my business, and I need to find new ideas with the product to have the unique selling point in the market. This leads to innovative production that generates profits. When I need to find a solution to the problem, I will search and read a lot of data first, and then do detailed, rational analysis of the information. I tend to see things from more than one perspective.” (Participant S)

“After I see the world and live in another culture for several years, my views about the world are not as narrow as before. Study abroad has changed the way I look at things and changed my way of thinking. I gained a more rational understanding of things abroad and exposure to a different culture. I have the opportunity to see the full scope of what is happening and what opportunities there are around the world. In China, I am being restricted by only hearing one voice and one belief, which gives me a very narrow perspective. Looking at things from a different perspective makes me a better person with a greater mindset. When you see less, the way of your thinking can be narrow and delusional, but when you have the chance to see more, you will know better about your capabilities, your strengths and weaknesses, you will become more down-to-earth, and aware of your own limitations. You will know better about what you can do within your ability and set realistic goals. Keep your feet on the ground. This helps me a lot as an entrepreneur and helps my business.” (Participant A)

Another important dimension of enterprising tendency is risk-taking propensity. Most of the returnee entrepreneurs admitted that their risk-taking propensity had changed through the year abroad. They had become more entrepreneurial and developed a positive attitude towards risk-taking. Risk is a vital component in the decision-making process. During the study abroad process, the students learnt to make their own decisions under challenging situations, and they learnt to evaluate the risk and potential outcomes before making any decision. They have developed their awareness of risk and ability to control it.

Text Box

“Studying abroad is very helpful and beneficial for starting my own business and it also helped in shaping my personality. Before study abroad, I used to fear taking the risks or meeting new changes. I have the fear of not being understood and fear of different cultural norms and practices. However, I become brave and willing to try new things after study abroad. I learned that there are endless possibilities in life. Nothing and nobody can stop me doing what I like; the only fear is fear itself. I have become more independent, confident, and mature in the decision-making process. I do not fear taking risks and pushing boundaries. It is essential for the success and growth of my business.” (Participant I)

The interviewees also believe that the study abroad experience has given the returnee entrepreneurs considerable control over their lives and increased their confidence in their ability to influence their environment, which has led to an increased locus of internal control. They now see what they do and what happens to them as being linked together as a result of what they can control, rather than as a result of luck, fate, chance or powerful others. They have an internal locus of control and a realistic view of life.

Text Box

“Study abroad provided me with great experiences, but most importantly, it helped me understand who I really am and what I can control. It has helped me to learn much more about myself, including the good and bad aspects of myself. It has made me far more self-sufficient and independent than I thought I could be. I developed a feeling that I can control my own destiny. I don’t believe in fate so much. I feel less stressed and more empowered in many situations in life. The amount of growth that takes place over study abroad is actually incredible. I was completely out of my comfort zone. It taught me about myself and what I was capable of doing. Studying abroad has allowed me to grow and find myself. It has helped shape who I am today as an entrepreneur, and it has formed my opinions and values I hold closest to my heart.” (Participant B)

“Study abroad has influenced my personality. It helped me to have a positive attitude about life, as well as making me persist and persevere under pressure. Exposure to an entirely different country made me more aware about myself, the world, and my own country. I realize just how strong and resilient I am. I had to face a lot of challenges during my time studying abroad, including culture shock, home sickness, and struggling with the language, but what did not kill me makes me stronger. I became significantly more resilient, and I coped with change more easily. Study abroad taught me how I think about things, and I know I am in control when I face difficult challenges under different circumstances. I learned to keep moving forwards and maintain a positive attitude. I know I can control my own destiny.” (Participant H)

8.3.4.2 The impact of study abroad on entrepreneurial intention

In order to find out what the students hoped to do after study abroad, and whether the study abroad experience impacted their entrepreneurial intention, the returnee entrepreneurs were asked: “*Did the overseas study experience influence your entrepreneurial intentions?*”. Seven out of the twelve returnee entrepreneurs felt that their study abroad experience had a positive impact on them and shaped their career path and goals as an entrepreneur. Influenced by their study abroad experience, they had started to seriously consider starting their own business after graduation. Study abroad is an experience that allows the students to enhance their education and life experiences outside their comfort zone. During their stay in the UK, they were forced to adapt to life in a different culture and overcome obstacles by themselves which made them more independent and improved their decision-making skills. One returnee entrepreneur mentioned that he felt that study abroad helped him to be clearer with the direction he hoped to take after graduation, and it also played a significant role in terms of what he is doing as an entrepreneur today.

Text Box

“Study abroad was the best decision I made in my life. As a result of this life-changing experience, I began to really think about different career paths that I could take upon graduation. After study abroad and returning to China, although there are so many jobs in the Chinese marketplace, I learnt from the experience that I want to do what I like, and I want to be my own boss. I was able to figure out the career path I wanted to pursue. I have a relatively keen insight into domestic and foreign markets. I gained so much more independence and ability in decision-making. The fundamental changes studying abroad gave me is knowing I am an entrepreneur at heart. The dream of starting my own business has always been there.” (Participant Y)

Participant H stated that the study abroad experience allowed her to not only understand herself better, but also helped clarify what she wanted to do with her career.

Text Box

“My experiences studying abroad definitely influenced my interests and career pace. If I did not go abroad to study, I would never have started a business. I would just listen to my parents' words, follow their expectations to find a stable job. I won't focus much on what I like to achieve and what I truly want. After study abroad, I realised that starting my own business was a good choice and is another possibility which I never thought about previously. I know more about myself and I know that I don't want to work for others, and I don't like working in a company. After experiencing so much abroad, when I started my first day at PWC (a job arranged for me by my parents), I knew I did not belong to there. I felt like I was being constrained, kept inside a box with too many rules and regulations, and an inflexible management structure. I seek change and opportunity all the time and so I decided to quit my job and start my own business when I saw the new market opportunity.” (Participant H)

The remainder of the returnee entrepreneurs felt that it took time for them to find their destiny and connect their study abroad experience with their goals and plans for the future. After taking time to digest the study abroad experience, they had been able to realize what they have accomplished and what they have learnt. It gives them the capability to draw upon the experiences and shape their decisions for the future.

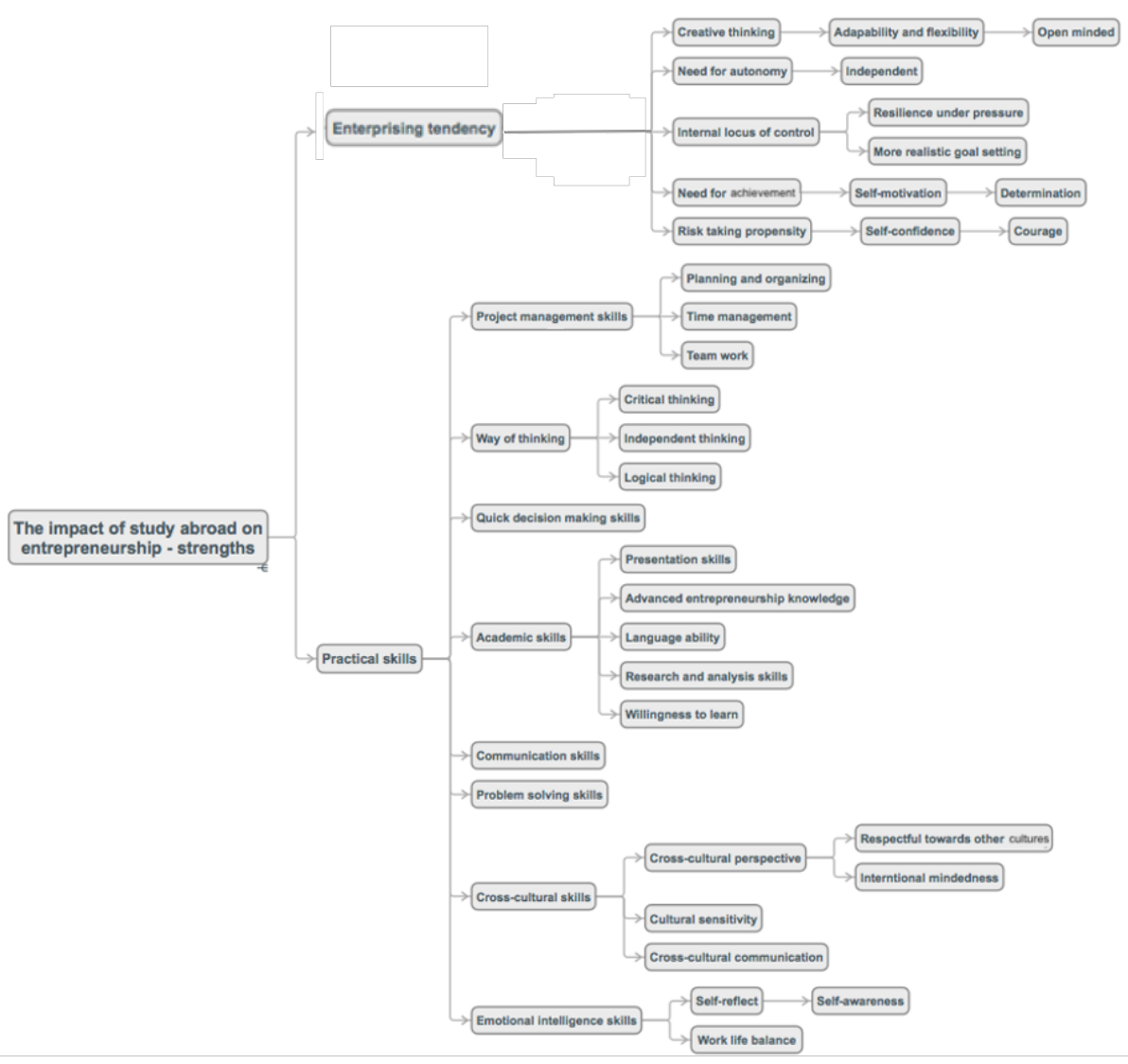
Text Box

“I did not start my own business immediately after graduation, because it took time for me to recognize how the time abroad transformed me. It is the experience that taught me a lot about your destination. After self-reflection, I have distinguished my strengths and connected the dots of my experiences with my goals and plans for future. The study abroad experiences and my previous job taught me what I liked and what I didn't like. It sharpened my skills as well as giving me the contacts and credibility I would need to start my own business.” (Participant I)

8.3.4.3 The impact of study abroad on entrepreneurial behaviour

In order to investigate the impact of study abroad on entrepreneurial behaviour the returnee entrepreneurs were asked: *“Do you think that students who study abroad have particular attributes that mark them out as entrepreneurs (strengths)? If yes, can you elaborate on the answers and identify any weaknesses associated with studying abroad?”*. A variety of perspectives were revealed, and these are summarised in Figure 8.14. However, all the returnee entrepreneurs felt that the study abroad experience contributed to their enterprising tendency as well as providing them with the practical skills necessary for them to become entrepreneurs.

For example, the students have limited access to help and protection from their family while studying abroad and this made them more independent and at the same time equipped them with a high degree of self-sufficiency. These findings are similar to those concerning the positive impact of study abroad on the development of entrepreneurial proclivity. The returnee entrepreneurs acknowledged again that the ability to handle pressure and stress on their own led them to develop a high degree of self-awareness and self-confidence, and that this increased their entrepreneurial proclivity. After study abroad they were more prepared for challenges and difficulties, they know more about how to deal with pressure, and how to solve problems. They also believed that they had open minds and were able to come up with new ideas and information because of their experiences abroad.



(Source: author)

Figure 8.14 The impact of study abroad in creating entrepreneurship strength

Apart from personality development, the returnee entrepreneurs also linked study abroad with the development of certain entrepreneurial skills. For example, they believed that they had improved language skills, study and communication skills, cross-culture skills, and research and analysis skills. They believe they have developed the capacity to work independently and think in a more critical way. Overall, all of the returnee entrepreneurs confirmed that the study abroad experience had had a positive impact on their entrepreneurial behaviour.

There is an acknowledgement from the majority of the returnee entrepreneurs that the study abroad experience had an impact on their personality traits (enterprising tendency). For the most part, the changes were positive and related to self-autonomy, creative tendency, internal locus of control, risk-taking propensity and high need for achievement.

Text Box

“One of the biggest advantages of studying abroad is that I learnt how to adapt to new environment and surroundings quickly, which is a big strength compared to domestic entrepreneurs. In the business world, change is unavoidable. As an entrepreneur, we must adapt to constant change, we need to discover new ways and think outside the box. Whilst studying abroad, the new environment pushed me to meet new challenges, get out of my comfort zone and develop myself. I needed to take full responsibility for everything in my life and career. Having studied abroad, I become more independent in making decisions. I have gained self-sufficiency and learnt how to think on my own feet. Study abroad helped me to unlock my own hidden entrepreneurial spirit, learn about other cultures and expand my thinking using a different perspective. I have become more brave, willing to take calculated risks, autonomous, and I never stop learning.” (Participant J)

“Every great entrepreneur is an independent thinker who paved their own path. Study abroad changed my way of thinking, I learnt not to imitate or copy a successful existing business model, but to innovate, to think independently. Being an independent thinker enables me to increase my performance, productivity, efficiency and to reach a greater level of self-awareness.” (Participant W)

Most of the returnee entrepreneurs also felt that they acquired cultural capital from their overseas study, including advanced foreign language skills, cross-cultural competence, and cultural sensitivity. They believe that this type of cultural capital then distinguishes them from domestic entrepreneurs. At the present time, the graduate entrepreneur’s business operations often included international trade or involved foreign business partners, and the cultural capital that they had acquired from study abroad enables them to perform much better in terms of communicating and knowing the cultural differences and variety of cultural rituals. Study abroad gives them a global vision and outlook to build multinational businesses.

Text Box

“Compared with the domestic entrepreneurs, I have more creative ideas to catch up with the market, especially the overseas market. I am able to look at international boundaries, international trade, global economics and how to negotiate with customers and business partners from diverse cultural backgrounds. Overseas study has broadened my world view and helped me see things from different perspectives. I tend to learn the advanced technology and models from the Western countries and adopt it in my own business. The Chinese market is influenced by other Asian markets like Japan and South Korea, but they are influenced by the Western countries. I adopt the western culture and technology and reform my business.” (Participant A)

“The resources and our clients are normally from large foreign companies, while local people from state-owned enterprises may experience difficulties in finding these resources. My business involves interacting with an investment bank where most of the employees have the overseas study background, including the Account Manager and the President of the bank. The overseas study experience gives me the same background as the people I am doing business with. People who study abroad do things in a very international way, which is different from the domestic graduates. Those without an overseas background may face problems in business etiquette, such as Email conversations, the way of doing business, and understanding their culture. The communication is much easier because I am more familiar with the business culture and business etiquette.” (Participant Y)

“Study abroad gives me a unique insight into the consumer mindset. It helps me to develop a respect for diversity and a global perspective, which helps me work well in cross-cultural business environments. Studying abroad gives me a broad perspective and understanding of the world. It helps me think the “big picture” and opens eyes to see more potential and possibilities. Due to the experience of living abroad independently, I have a capacity for handling all kinds of difficulties on my own, which would not be the case if I had remained in China. Without the overseas experience, I would not be able to adapt to new ideas and perspectives as fast as I currently do.” (Participant R)

A number of returnee entrepreneurs commented that they are able to use their mindset and perspectives to their advantage. They approach problems, fear, and failure differently compared to the local entrepreneurs. They have a clear vision and a defined strategy to direct their business. While most of the local entrepreneurs are looking for quick profits, the returnee entrepreneurs want to build a sustainable business and do not consider personal financial returns a high priority.

Text Box

“Study abroad is very helpful and beneficial for starting a business. People who go abroad do a lot of things with vision. Vision is what makes me explore, challenge, insist, to keep pushing myself, to have the determination to succeed. Study abroad gives me a sense of my own identity and a vision of where I want to go. I have a clear vision, along with the courage to take action and follow through. I want to achieve independence and control my own destiny. I believe a successful entrepreneur should set a strong and clear vision in order to achieve his purpose and goal and pursue it with passion. The entrepreneur’s personal and business goals are closely linked. A lot of current Chinese entrepreneurs do not have a vision to guide their day-to-day decisions, they just run the company for the profit. They believe innovation would be to improve upon already established products or systems. They often make short-sighted decisions and only invest in marketing to drive an immediate sale and immediate return on investment.” (Participant M)

However, the experience of study abroad is not without some disadvantages. The returnee entrepreneurs expressed their opinions on the negative impact of receiving overseas education on their entrepreneurial behaviour, particularly compared to local entrepreneurs who only received education at home (see Figure 8.15). The disadvantages include (i) the ability to obtain or regain an in-depth understanding of Chinese culture, the fast-changing environment, and the domestic market; (ii) Guanxi lies at the heart of business in China and study abroad makes it difficult to develop relationships with local stakeholders including employees, local partners and government officials; (iii) returnee entrepreneurs may be over confident regarding their place in society and this may lead them to have unrealistic expectations concerning salary, so re-adjusting attitudes and positioning oneself when returning to China can be difficult; (iv) a lack of real-life work experience; and (v) a problem called “Bujie diqi” or not connected to the energy of the land.



(Source: author)

Figure 8.15 The impact of study abroad on entrepreneurship as weakness

The responses from the returnee entrepreneurs suggest that the main disadvantages of study abroad are cultural differences. Because of the time they spent abroad the returnee entrepreneurs feel that they are not familiar with or up to date with Chinese society. Indeed, the returnee entrepreneurs felt that when they returned to China, they were subject to reverse culture shock and found it difficult to re-adjust themselves to the Chinese domestic culture. The findings of the current study are consistent with Huiyao Wang (2015), who argued in his book *“Reverse Migration in Contemporary China - Returnees, Entrepreneurship and the Chinese Economy”*, that Chinese returnees from overseas, referred to as Haigui, are affected by the social and political factors of their home country. The re-entry culture shock is a strong negative social factor influencing the returnees and it took them more than a year to readjust to their home culture again.

Text Box

“At the beginning, I felt I was disconnected from the Chinese society. There was a lot of stuff that I didn’t know how to deal with, including communication style, attitude to leaders, working process and performance in public. If you handle it with the western style or habit, the result usually wouldn’t be satisfactory. The biggest frustration for me was that I could not freely express my true feelings for fear of being regarded as a show-off. I was constantly warned by friends and family to not make complaints in public. I don’t want others to think that I am different only because of my overseas experience, or that I am trying to show off this experience.” (Participant B)

In addition, a number of the returnee entrepreneurs commented that they found it difficult to construct their own identity within the broader Chinese culture and national identity. They had developed their thinking patterns, value systems, a world view, and communication system through the study abroad process. They felt a need to re-learn and accept Chinese traditions, adapt to the local norms and complex interpersonal relationship systems in order to belong back in China.

Text Box

“Everything is based on Guanxi. You have to have resourceful connections in order to achieve anything in China. Guanxi is extremely important and powerful for business success. It applies everywhere. Although you need a social network abroad too, after all, rules are rules. No one really breaks the rules or changes the rules in order to do a favour for anybody. In China, the importance of Guanxi has become an unspoken rule, which leads to double standards when it clashes with regular rules and regulations.” (Participant J)

“I think the most difficult thing for returnee entrepreneurs’ start-ups is that the product needs to change customers’ habits. Having lived away from China for so many years, I initially failed to study my target customers’ behaviour. The company also lacked marketing channels. All this happened because I had lived outside China for many years, so I was unfamiliar with the domestic market.” (Participant I)

“I think the education I received overseas taught me that the shortest distance between two points is a straight line. However, in China, in order to get something done or achieve business success, I have to treat people nice, build that relationship, build that trust before talking about business. It is not just a transaction, but people need to do you a favour, so you do them a favour, so they could do a favour back later. All that takes hard work, and it does not happen in the office.” (Participant X)

In spite of the cultural and economic reform and open-door policy, Confucian values are still deeply rooted in the minds of most Chinese people and have a significant impact on their behaviour (Wu and Tseng, 1985). Throughout history, Chinese culture places a high value on collectivism, stability and harmony. Individual accomplishments or desires are secondary to societal, familial or organizational obligations. There is an old saying in China, “*shoot the bird which takes the lead*”, which can be interpreted as show-offs gets punished (Fan, 2000). In Western countries, maintaining one’s own personality and expressing one’s own idea or opinion are encouraged, but Chinese culture values the “*doctrine of the golden mean*” in order to avoid the stress of individualism (Barmé, 1999).

Another disadvantage mentioned by the returnee entrepreneurs was the gap between their unrealistic expectations and reality. On the one hand, people in society always think returnee entrepreneurs from overseas are superior and mysterious. On the other, the returnee entrepreneurs’ family have high expectations of them as they have invested a lot of money in sending their children to study abroad, and the parents expect greater recognition and more economic return from the labour market when the returnee entrepreneurs return from overseas. In China, the traditional view of the route to success involves getting a university degree and going to work for the government or a large company. Most parents wouldn’t encourage their children to be an entrepreneur because they want their children to have a secure job.

It is interesting to note that five out of the twelve returnee entrepreneurs mentioned the term “Bu jie di qi”, which means “not down to earth”: such a person would make decisions and implement policies that did not fit with the actual needs.

Text Box

“When I came back from abroad, I just naturally had English words pop up when I am speaking Chinese, but this created an impression that I am trying to act like I am more westernized than other people or that I am just showing off. However, it is just the natural way I am thinking and speaking. I needed to change myself to become more integrated into the local Chinese culture.” (Participant S)

Another critical challenge faced by Chinese entrepreneurs has been their limited access to credit. Very few of the entrepreneurs had obtained formal financing. The lack of a deposit is a major problem for many young entrepreneurs.

Text Box

“It is difficult for us to get loans from banks, because we have limited assets to use as a deposit. Therefore, angels and institutions have become the most important way of raising funds.” (Participant I)

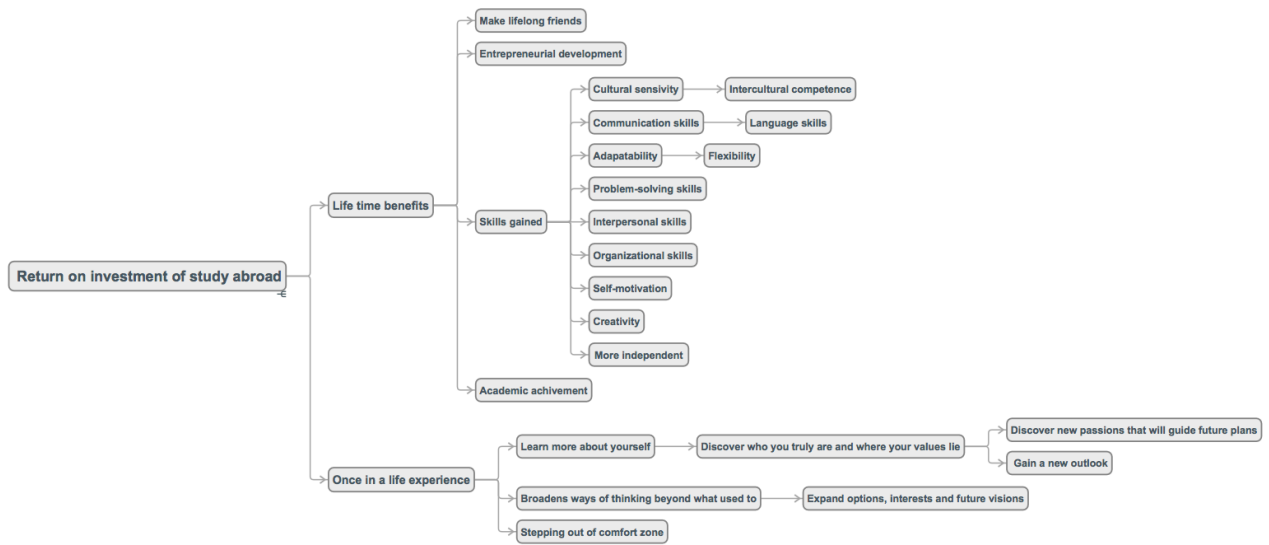
The protection of the intellectual property rights was another key concern.

Text Box

“Despite visible progress and attempts to reform, China’s low level of protection and enforcement for trade secrets and intellectual property rights (IPR) theft continues to be a major concern and irreparable harm for us (the start-up company). These practices put us at risk of losing our competitive edge.” (Participant H)

8.3.4.4 Study abroad and the return on investment

Studying abroad is an investment of both time and money and it is important to establish whether the returnee entrepreneurs believe it is worth it or not. In response to the question: *“Do you regard the years you spent abroad as a good investment?”* all the returnee entrepreneurs believed that study abroad is a unique academic and life opportunity that can enrich study and that it was the best experience of their lives so far. At a more detailed level, the returnee entrepreneurs provided a range of positive responses which are summarised in Figure 8.16. All returnee entrepreneurs described their study abroad experience as special, using words such as perfect, turning point in life, experience of a lifetime, eye opening, life changing, an excellent opportunity for their academic and personal improvement as well as the development of entrepreneurial skills.



(Source: author)

Figure 8.16 Return on investment of study abroad

The majority of the returnee entrepreneurs mentioned that the benefits of study abroad would last a lifetime. It is a remarkable investment that provides improved academic performance, higher intercultural skills, increased language skills, increased independence, a sense of self-achievement, increased self-awareness and self-recognition, an ability to work with a variety of people, creative thinking skills, and the ability to take the initiative.

Text Box

“Studying abroad is a profound, life-changing experience. It expands my horizons and my world view. I gain a deeper understanding of myself and the world. I think the ability to be independent and communicate with people in foreign countries is beneficial to my work as an entrepreneur and my life. Study abroad helps me to broaden my mind and get to know myself. I learn to appreciate and respect other cultures. I appreciate the different culture, customs, unique regulations, policies and systems that are different from China. Study abroad gives me stronger communication and interpersonal skills, higher levels of adaptability, and greater creativity and independence.” (Participant J)

“The benefit is long-term and will be with me the whole of my life. Study abroad experience helped me to become a better entrepreneur and a better person. Indeed, studying abroad can make you become a person with high and comprehensive quality, a comprehensive person, instead of just know how to study. The study abroad experience, and the ability I learned from it, can last a lifetime. Studying abroad is a good investment, because it will affect you for the rest of your life. Long after my study abroad experiences are over, I can still feel a strong impact of that experience on my personality and life.” (Participant W)

Other returnee entrepreneurs use terms such as “once in a life experience” and “a life-changing experience” in their answers. The returnee entrepreneurs were extremely positive about their time abroad. According to the returnee entrepreneurs, studying abroad means exploring and discovering a new culture, exploring new places, and making friends from all over the world. Studying abroad gives the students a greater sense of independence and expands their world views. It expands their options, interests and future visions. It allows the students to experience new ways of thinking and continuously learn and adapt using alternative methods of teaching and learning. The students gain a new outlook through study abroad, sees opportunities where they did not exist, and discovers new passions that guide their future plans.

Text Box

“When I was in the UK, my local friends and I would go to some activities every week, such as skydiving, driving, bungee jumping, horseback riding and going to sea. I felt that I had experienced a different life. After returning to China, I would never have the chance to go to such activities for the rest of my life. Because the experience is different. No matter how many years I spent in China, I won’t have the similar experience. Studying abroad is not only about experiencing a different country and culture. It helped me discover more about myself. Studying abroad allowed me to grow as an individual and become more independent, responsible and prepared for the unexpected challenge. It is a life-changing experience. An experience that will challenge you, change you, and motivate you for the rest of your life, study abroad is well worth the time, money, and effort.” (Participant A)

8.3.4.5 Final remarks

At the end of the interview, the returnee entrepreneurs were given the opportunity to make any concluding remarks when they were asked *“Do you have any additional comments or observations about your business, entrepreneurship in general, enterprise in China, your degree programme, or your time studying abroad?”* The purpose of this question was to allow the returnee entrepreneurs to add any information which they felt relevant but which they had not been able to contribute in response to the set questions.

The findings from the interviews suggest that the returnee entrepreneurs are able to associate their decision to become an entrepreneur with their study abroad experience. They are inspired and wish to become entrepreneurs due to their experience. They have greater entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention), better entrepreneurial skills, and greater entrepreneurship knowledge to help them in identifying business opportunities and starting a business. As one returnee entrepreneur concluded, education abroad has a direct positive effect on entrepreneurship development, even if it does not create the effect immediately, it does amplify it if it is there to begin with.

Text Box

“There is no standard answer about whether someone should go abroad to study or starting a business. When it comes to choices, there are no right ones or wrong ones, no good ones or bad ones. They are only choices and with every choice comes an opportunity about different routine in life. For those who want to go abroad to study in the future, they must know what they want to achieve before they make the decision, whether they can bear the loneliness, challenge themselves, learn the advanced knowledge from abroad. It is not an alternative option to avoiding the pressure of Gaokao. Regarding starting a business, it is important to find out what you really want in life and have a good understanding of yourself. You need to understand your values and strengths, and the reason why you want to start a business. Following the majority and the trend without thinking critically could be the end of your business. Not everyone should be an entrepreneur, because being an entrepreneur is hard work, you tend to be exhausted all the time. It starts with having a clearly defined vision of what you are looking to accomplish, and then requires working tirelessly to achieve that. There are some people who have the right personality and a desire for the freedom, independence, control your own destiny, understand risks and are happy to be out of the comfort zone. However, there are some people who prefer the stable and routine job, comfortable more secure life and live peacefully. I am the first type.” (Participant X)

8.4 Study 2 qualitative data conclusion

This section discusses the strengths and limitations of the study (8.4.1) and provides a summary of the main findings from the qualitative data (8.4.2)

8.4.1 Strengths and limitations of the Study 2: qualitative research

Overall, this research project aims to study entrepreneurship among students before and after they had studied abroad on an established TNE program. The research was conducted in two studies. Study 1 was quantitative in nature and sought to answer the “what” and “how much” type of questions via a survey. Study 2 was qualitative in nature and sought to answer the “why” and “how” type of questions via a series of in-depth interviews with returnee entrepreneurs from the same TNE programme.

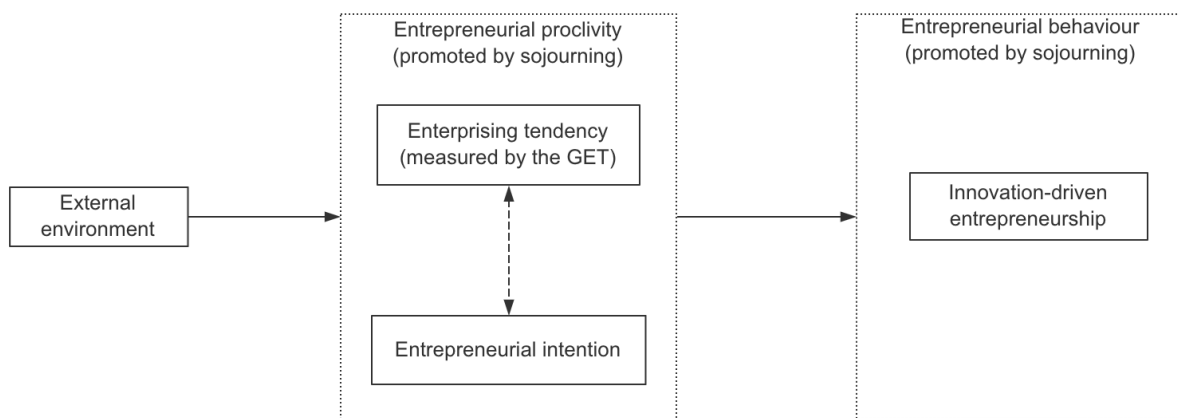
The qualitative Study 2 of the research provided a deep and detailed investigation of changes in the students’ entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial behaviour over time. The qualitative study investigated the long-term impact of the study abroad experience on the students. The main strengths of this qualitative study are the thick and detailed descriptions of returnee entrepreneurs’ feelings, opinions, and overseas experiences; and interpretations of the meanings of their actions, for example, discovering the participants’ experiences, and to figure out how their actions are shaped through their experience and acculturation. In addition, the strengths of interviews are the likelihood of collecting rich information, as well as allowing the returnee entrepreneurs to clarify any responses.

Beyond the above strengths, there are some limitations in this qualitative study. In terms of research method, a small sample size (n=12) raises the issue of generalizability to the whole population of this research. Due to the small sample size, this study’s results may be difficult to generalise to other contexts. Another limitation is the focus of this study. Due to time and resource constraints, this study is limited to one single University in Beijing and not the whole of China. Furthermore, this study focused on a very specific group of student sojourners, namely those undertaking the BUA TNE program and returning to China and working as entrepreneurs. Future research could therefore very usefully compare different student groups. A larger study that comprises domestic returnee entrepreneurs from a number of universities would be very interesting. In addition, the returnee entrepreneurs were self-selected volunteers and thus likely to be more confident, open-minded and skilled than those who did not volunteer to participate in the interviews.

8.4.2 Summary of qualitative findings

A summary of the main findings from the in-depth interviews is presented in Table 8.4. The findings will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 9 (Discussion Chapter) where they will be integrated with those from the quantitative study. But, without any exception, every single returnee entrepreneur stated that the study abroad experience helped them in their entrepreneurship development. Generally, they felt satisfied with their academic, psychological and sociocultural achievements and reported a positive outcome to their study abroad experience. They indicated that the study abroad experience had produced several positive outcomes, including increased enterprising tendency, developed entrepreneurial intention, acquisition of specific entrepreneurial and academic skills, a greater understanding of other cultures, knowledge of their personal strengths and weaknesses, and constructing their own identity.

Returning to Research Question 3 that was the focus for the qualitative research, it is now possible to state that the study abroad experience did positively impact on the returnee entrepreneurs' lives and careers and that it had positively impacted on them as entrepreneurs. It is widely recognised that study abroad experiences influenced returnee entrepreneurs' entrepreneurial behaviour in terms of personality traits and entrepreneurial skills. Study abroad may also give rise to a greater inclination towards innovation-driven entrepreneurship. Figure 8.17 below presents an overview of the theoretical model suggested by the empirical findings on entrepreneurship development as promoted by the sojourning experience.



(Source: author)

Figure 8.17 Empirically informed model of entrepreneurship development - result from study 2

Table 8.4 Qualitative data conclusions

Interview questions	Key theme	Findings
1. Why did you choose to study abroad?	Study abroad motivation	<p>Push factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Couldn't get admission in home country • Avoid Gaokao • Differentiation routes compare to local students • Influence of others <p>Pull factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal improvement • Language acquisition • Values of overseas study • TNE programme
2. What are the biggest barriers that you experienced while studying abroad and how did you overcome them?	Study abroad barriers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Culture • Language barrier • Different learning and teaching style • Lack of independence
3. Which aspects of the overseas experience did you enjoy?	Enjoyable factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Life experience • Academic • Personal development
4. Which aspects of the overseas experience did you dislike?	Unenjoyable factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loneliness • Homesick • Culture shock • Language barriers
5. What do you consider to be the greatest achievement of your study aboard?	Greatest achievement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Life experience • Academic • Personal development
6. What did you learn or take away from the overseas experience?	Learning outcome	<p>Personality growth:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive attitude • Enterprising tendency <p>Practical skills and abilities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Academic knowledge • Academic skills • Language ability • Interpersonal skills

7. In your view, what is an entrepreneur and what is entrepreneurship?	Entrepreneurship definition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creative and innovation • Opportunity identification • Risk taking propensity • Determination • Passion and enthusiastic • Need for achievement • Persistent and committed • Independence
8. Did you study small business management or entrepreneurship as modules, parts of modules, or as short courses as part of your degree programme? If yes, do you think that the entrepreneurship education made you a better entrepreneur? In what way?	Entrepreneurship education	<p>Hard skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurship knowledge <p>Soft skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurial characteristics • Entrepreneurial skills
9. What do you value most about your overseas education? What is the biggest difference between Chinese education and UK education?	Education system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Value system • Teamwork • School size • Education system
10. What was your career plan before studying abroad?	Career plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work at a large organisation: 6 • Start my own business: 1 • No plan: 5
11. Do any of your family members, including your parents and relatives, have their own business or are self-employed?	Family business background	<p>Family business: 10</p> <p>Non-family business: 2</p>
12. What were the reasons for setting up your own business?	Entrepreneurship motivation	<p>Push factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dissatisfaction with current job • Glass ceiling <p>Pull factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business opportunity • Taking advantage of good economic conditions and policy • Passion • Use of personal knowledge and experience • Influence of family members and role models • Need to be own boss

13. Do you think the overseas experience influenced your entrepreneurial traits and characteristics (enterprising tendency)?	Enterprising tendency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need for achievement • Risk taking propensity • Internal locus of control • Creative tendency • Need for autonomy
14. Did the overseas study experience influence your entrepreneurial intentions?	Entrepreneurial intention	Positive
15. Do you think that students who study abroad have particular attributes that mark them out as entrepreneurs (strengths)? If yes, can you elaborate on the answers and identify any weaknesses associated with studying abroad?	Entrepreneurial behaviour	<p>Strengths:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personality traits • Practical skills <p>Weakness:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guanxi • Lack of local knowledge • Lack of internship experience • Acclimate to Chinese business environment • Over expectation
16. Do you regard the years you spent abroad as a good investment?	Return on investment of study abroad	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Once in a life experience • Lifetime benefits
17. Do you have any additional comments or observations about your business, entrepreneurship in general, enterprise in China, your degree programme, or your time studying abroad?	Final remarks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Study abroad has a direct positive effect for entrepreneurship development (entrepreneurial proclivity an entrepreneurial behaviour) • Study abroad promotes innovation-driven entrepreneurial behaviour

(Source: author)

8.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the Study 2 qualitative findings. The findings of Study 2 expand the findings from the Study 1 quantitative survey and complete the longitudinal methods design of this study. The findings provide a more comprehensive picture of the relationship between overseas study and enterprising tendency, entrepreneurial intention, and entrepreneurial behaviour. It is evident from the research that studying abroad has a strong impact on returnee entrepreneurs' entrepreneurship development. The next chapter moves on to integrate the findings from the Study 1 survey with the Study 2 in-depth interviews and discusses these findings in the context of current knowledge as found in the literature.

Chapter 9 General Discussion

9.1 Introduction

This project is based on two primary research studies. Study 1 is quantitative and seeks to understand the effects of overseas study opportunities on the entrepreneurial proclivity of sojourning Chinese students (Chapter 6) while Study 2 is qualitative and seeks to gain insights into the eventual entrepreneurial behaviour of the sojourners (Chapter 8).

Study 1 is quantitative in nature and researched entrepreneurial proclivity (see Figure 3.4 *Extended Theoretical Framework*, Chapter 3) by combining a longitudinal method with a comparative analysis where a group of sojourning students was the “treatment” group, and a group of non-sojourning students was the “comparison” group. In Study 1, two hypotheses and their sub-hypotheses were tested. The data was collected via online and hard-copy self-administered questionnaires based on the adapted GET2 test to measure the enterprising tendency of respondents. The Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach based on independent sample t-tests, ANOVA, and a Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR) model were used to investigate the entrepreneurial proclivity of respondents. The study then used results obtained from the quantitative analysis to inform and develop an interview schedule for qualitative research that was conducted in Study 2. In Study 2, in-depth interviews with twelve returnee entrepreneurs were undertaken and the data used to explain the statistical results from the quantitative study. No other known study of international education and entrepreneurial proclivity has used both quantitative and/or qualitative data within a longitudinal study.

The findings from the quantitative survey and the qualitative interviews were discussed independently in Chapters 6 and 8. Now, however, this chapter will discuss the quantitative and qualitative findings together and in respect of the research objectives as well as the existing literature. This chapter begins with an overview of the study in relation to the research questions, which were derived from the *Extended Theoretical Framework* (Figure 3.4 Chapter 3). The subsequent sections address the six research questions and summarise them along with a number of additional findings.

9.2 The purpose of this project

The primary research question addressed by this project is: “*What are the effects of overseas study experiences on the entrepreneurial proclivity and behaviour of Chinese university students?*”. This primary research question determined the overall project design. The project aims to contribute to an improved understanding in the field of “entrepreneurship” and “international education” by integrating the concepts of enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention into the new concept – entrepreneurial proclivity; and presenting, summarising, and discussing the findings with regard to each of these concepts as well as entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurship development (including enterprise education). The output from the project is summarised in the *Empirically Validated Model of Entrepreneurship Development* presented as Figure 10.1 in Chapter 10.

The research objectives of this project are to:

- a. examine whether Chinese university students who have the chance to study in the UK develop or enhance entrepreneurial proclivity through a period of study abroad;
- b. if so, why entrepreneurial proclivity may have developed or been positively enhanced by the sojourn abroad experience; and
- c. to investigate the entrepreneurial behaviour of returnee entrepreneurs.

To address these three objectives requires answers to the following three research questions, which are subsequently addressed by either Study 1- quantitative research (Questions 1 and 2) or Study 2 - qualitative research (Question 3).

1. Are there any significant differences between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial group studies abroad (at Time 0)? Addressing this question provides a check on the validity of the DiD approach.
2. Is there a significant difference between the before and after differences of the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their entrepreneurial proclivity?
3. Do study aboard opportunities influence the sojourning students’ potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life after graduation?

9.3 Discussion of results by research question

The strength of using a research design based on two studies emerges as the quantitative and qualitative data serve to corroborate and supplement each other (Morse, 2016). Indeed, using two studies allows the researcher to conduct both statistical tests and in-depth analysis, which help provide a deep understanding of the study abroad effect on entrepreneurial proclivity and generate new insights into the research questions. This section, therefore, integrates the results of Study 1 with the findings of Study 2 by first presenting the results from Study 1 and then explaining them using the findings from Study 2.

9.3.1 Research question 1: “Are there any significant differences between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial group studies abroad (at Time 0)?” Addressing this question provides a check on the validity of the DiD approach.

It needs to be noted that for longitudinal studies to be effective the treatment and comparison groups must be as similar as possible in every respect except for the variable of interest. In medical research, participants are randomly allocated to groups which, in a very large sample, should ensure that there are no systematic differences between the two groups, prior to one group being given a drug and the other receiving a placebo (Johnson *et al.*, 2009). In social science, including business studies, we can only observe pre-determined, existing groups. For example, in the context of this project, students studying at home and students studying abroad. It is possible to argue that the problem in the selection process is that self-selection might be related to the outcomes the researcher wants to explain (Schenker and Rumrill, 2004). So, again, in the context of this project, students might study abroad because they are entrepreneurial or because they see themselves as entrepreneurial. In either case, there is a problem of endogeneity. In other words, it may not be study abroad that explains entrepreneurial proclivity but entrepreneurial proclivity that determines study abroad. Hence, guarding against this possibility is part of ensuring the validity of the research. As a result, in this project, accurate information about both groups before one group goes abroad was gathered in order to address this research question. This allowed the researcher to determine whether there are any differences between domestic students who study wholly in China and students who will go abroad in terms of inherent enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention. If the two groups are demonstrably similar with respect to these key characteristics, then this supports the validity of the research.

The focus here is on entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and how these may change due to the effect of international education. A comparison was made to see whether there were any differences in entrepreneurial proclivity between the sojourning students (treatment group) and the domestic students (comparison group) at Time 0, and thus, the results at Time 0 can be used as the baseline to determine whether there are any changes in the sojourning student group at Time 1.

On the whole, the current study found that there is no statistically significant difference in either Entrepreneurial Intention or Enterprising Tendency between the two student groups at Time 0 (*before* the Treatment group studies abroad). This helps to validate the conclusions of the DiD analysis.

This finding is, however, contrary to previous studies (Sasaki, 2007; Souto-Otero, 2013) which have suggested that students who choose to study abroad are systematically different in terms of personality traits to those who choose to remain at-home. Indeed, these studies have tended to find that the students who choose to study abroad are more open-minded, have a higher risk-taking propensity, are more creative and have a higher innovative tendency than those who remain at-home.

The difference between the findings of this project and those of other studies may be explained by the current study's focus on a treatment group who know from their first day that they enrol with IC BUA that they are going to the UK in the latter stages of their studies. This study abroad experience is compulsory, and they cannot self-select themselves in or out of the study abroad experience, and as such, the self-selection effects are minimised. However, it should be remembered that these students have self-selected themselves (or their parents made the decision for them) to study this TNE degree when they take the Chinese higher education entrance examination (Gaokao) and, as a consequence, the opportunity to study in the UK was a determining factor in the students' decisions to undertake the TNE degree in the first place.

It also could be due to previous studies looking specifically for any and all differences between the sojourning students and domestic students, whereas the current study is focused on entrepreneurial characteristics and background variables related to entrepreneurship.

9.3.2 Research question 2: “Is there a significant difference between the before and after differences of the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their entrepreneurial proclivity?”

This research question is addressed by DiD analysis, which is implemented by three approaches: (i) independent-sample t-tests applied directly to the observed data; (ii) ANOVA; and (iii) Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR). First, the t-tests and ANOVA analyses find:

- a. positive study abroad effects on entrepreneurial intentions, although this effect falls short of conventional levels of statistical significance, instead yielding at best a “borderline” significance value; and
- b. positive study abroad effects on enterprising tendency, which are likewise not estimated at conventional levels of statistical significance.

Turning to quantitative interpretation, even if it is accepted that these comparisons are valid - i.e., despite the weak statistical significance – the positive effect of study abroad on enterprising tendency is small: the 2.77 points difference between the Treatment and Comparison differences is only 3.46 per cent of the Time 1 Treatment mean. In contrast, the positive effect of study abroad on entrepreneurial intention was much greater: the difference between the Treatment and Comparison differences was 0.36 points, which is 10.68 per cent of the Time 1 Treatment mean.

SUR provides an empirical approach consistent with our theoretical approach (i.e., both model the relatedness of enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) as well as controlling for both a range of observed factors and unobserved time-invariant factors. SUR is thus the preferred approach to estimating study-abroad effects. SUR analysis yields statistically significant average treatment effects on enterprising tendency of 3.43 and on entrepreneurial intention of 0.36 points, which are the equivalents of 4.45 and 11.75 per cent of the respective SUR sample mean values. Overall, therefore, the validity of the estimated positive study abroad effects is supported not only by the close similarity of the effects obtained from different methodologies but also by the statistical significance of the methodologically preferred SUR estimates.

The current study also adopted SUR analysis to help integrate the data concerning the factors that determine entrepreneurial proclivity. The results of the SUR analysis suggest that (i) a mother who is an entrepreneur is associated with (albeit with borderline significance; $p=0.11$)

an increased Enterprising Tendency score of 2.16 (compared to a mean score of 77.14), but not with increased entrepreneurial intention; (ii) studying *entrepreneurship education*, however, is associated with reduced entrepreneurial intention (a reduction of 0.32 compared to a mean score of 3.07) but not with reduced enterprising tendency. So entrepreneurial education does not affect psychological propensities to enterprise but may well make students aware of the difficulties confronting entrepreneurs and thus diminish entrepreneurial intention; and (iii) a *family business* background has a substantial positive effect on entrepreneurial intention (0.43 compared to a mean score of 3.07) but has no effect on enterprising tendency.

Overall, therefore, the validity of the estimated positive study abroad effects is supported not only by the close similarity of the effects obtained from different methodologies but also by the statistical significance of the SUR estimates. Although SUR analysis makes greater demands on the data, conditioning estimates on a range of both observable covariates and unobservable influences allows the study abroad effect to be estimated with greater precision.

9.3.3 Research question 3: “Do study abroad opportunities influence the sojourning student’s potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life after graduation?”

The purpose of this research question was to gain an insight into how a foreign sojourn experience has impacted on the entrepreneurial behaviour of returnee entrepreneurs.

Study 2 is qualitative in nature, and in this part of the project the returnee entrepreneurs confirmed that in their view studying abroad provides a host of mental and practical benefits. The interview findings also further support the idea that studying and living in a new country with a different culture contributes to the development of entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour. Indeed, all twelve of the returnee entrepreneurs in the interviews acknowledged a direct link between their experience abroad and tangible and intangible benefits they had gained that helped develop their new businesses. The perceived benefits mainly fit into two categories: personality traits (enterprising tendency); and practical skills (entrepreneurial skills and knowledge acquired through studying abroad). These include thinking skills, such as: logical and analytical reasoning skills; thinking critically in a real business context; problem solving skills; effective communication skills; teamwork skills; research skills; and the capacity to identify, access and manage knowledge and information; decision making skills; creative thinking skills, and an openness to learn from both successes and failures. These skills are consistent with Ahmad and Hoffmann (2008) who report that the OECD has identified the skills required by entrepreneurs: (i) technical skills – communication, environment monitoring, problem solving, technology implementation and use, interpersonal

and organisational skills; (ii) business management skills – planning and goal setting, decision making, human resources management, marketing, finance, accounting, customer relations, quality control, negotiation, business launch, growth management, compliance with regulation skills; (iii) personal entrepreneurial skills – self-control and discipline, risk management, innovation, persistence, leadership, change management, network building, and strategic thinking.

Another important finding was that study abroad enhanced the inclination towards entrepreneurship. Returnee entrepreneurs were able to bring back new technologies that had not yet been introduced to China, and they believed that this gave them a substantial competitive advantage over the local entrepreneurs who had never studied overseas. Moreover, the Chinese government has implemented a series of preferential policies for returnee entrepreneurs (Zhang and Guan, 2021). The incentives include simplified procedures for investment, reduced tariffs on R&D equipment, low-cost housing, and direct subsidies to support returnee entrepreneurs. Chinese local and national governments have developed more than 150 national returnee entrepreneurial parks throughout the country. The Chinese government wants to use these incentives to bring back new technology that can help improve the scientific and technical sector to grow the local economy (Lai and Vonortas, 2020). Below is a quote from one of the interviews:

Text Box

“Compared with the domestic entrepreneurs, I have more innovative and creative ideas to catch up with the market, especially the overseas market. I am able to look at international boundaries, international trade, global economics and how to negotiate with customers and business partners from diverse cultural backgrounds. Overseas study has broadened my world view and helped me to see things in different perspectives. I tend to learn the advanced technology and model from the Western countries and adopt it in my own business. The Chinese market is influenced by other Asian markets like Japan and South Korea, but they are influenced by the Western countries. I adopt the western culture and technology and reform it within my business.” (Participant I)

The Study 2 findings revealed three general aspects of the study abroad experience that led to changes in the sojourning students’ entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour: (i) academic and life challenges; (ii) cultural adjustment; and (iii) adaption to and acceptance of their new identity during their studies abroad. These results also support the culture shock concept and its role in changing the students’ entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial ability, and subsequently influencing the students’ entrepreneurial behaviour.

Firstly, the returnee entrepreneurs explained how the challenges and difficulties they experienced while studying abroad made them take responsibility for themselves and to become independent (developing an internal locus of control). The students in the TNE program know from the first day that they enrol with IC BUA that they are going to the UK in the latter stages of their studies; the students are given presentations about UK life before they travel; the students are accompanied to the UK by a member of staff from BUA; and there is an informative induction programme at HAU. Yet, no matter how much support was offered to the students from the staff in the TNE program during their overseas study, they are disconnected from familiar people and places and forced out of their comfort zone and their regular routine. The returnee entrepreneurs summarised the difficulties that they had faced during their study abroad time as: (i) culture shock as they leave their own country and try to adapt themselves to a new culture and environment; (ii) academic barriers as the learning style in the UK is quite different from the style that they are used to in China; (iii) language barriers as they find it hard to communicate with others when listening, speaking and writing in English. These challenges motivated the students to develop strategies to solve the problems. By overcoming these difficulties, they had the opportunity for personal growth and developed the belief that they can overcome difficulties in the future.

This finding is consistent with that of other researchers, such as Gong *et al.* (2020) and Raby *et al.* (2021), who found that overcoming challenges experienced during the study abroad period can lead to positive change in the personality traits of students. As Arruti and Panos-Castro (2020) comment in their study, overcoming challenges in international mobility can make a person more adaptable, flexible, creative and able to take the initiative. In the same vein, these results are consistent with the results of (Reid, 2001) who, in his book "*Sojourners and Settlers: Histories of Southeast Asia and the Chinese, 2001*", argues that Chinese sojourners in the UK reported obstacles, such as a different culture, different food, unfamiliar living circumstances, financial problems, different learning styles, difficulties related to language including communication with teachers, classmates and staff, and different ways of thinking and doing things. Yet, as a result of their study abroad experience, the students felt more confident, resourceful and autonomous. This study supports the view that the challenges are the driving force in personality development and study abroad is an example of a life event with the potential to influence personality change in the long-term. While this finding is in line with past research, the present study is the first that connects study abroad with entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour in the Chinese context.

The change in entrepreneurial proclivity may partly be explained by the process of initial adjustment to an unfamiliar environment. This adjustment may include emotional, behavioural,

and physiological adjustment of the individual students. In order to overcome culture shock and other challenges, the students need to be open-minded, try to learn new things, treat the challenge as an opportunity to gain knowledge about the new culture and so to develop themselves. Through stepping out of their comfort zone, the students are exposed to a new culture, new places, new customs, new ways of thinking and new people, which allows them to grow as a person as they learn to adapt and improve themselves. The students were forced to find solutions to the complex situation in which they found themselves and, as a consequence, their entrepreneurial proclivity, including their innovative and creative tendency, need for achievement, need for autonomy, risk-taking propensity and internal locus of control were enhanced by the overseas experience.

The findings of Study 2 are consistent with the findings of the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach by means of the independent-sample t-tests, ANOVA and panel SUR approaches in Study 1, which show a positive effect on entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) from studying abroad. All of the returnee entrepreneurs in the qualitative study made direct reference to a link between the benefits that the overseas study experience had given them in terms of their entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour. As one returnee entrepreneur said in the interview:

Text Box

“While studying abroad, the new environment pushed me to meet new challenges, get out of my comfort zone and develop myself. I needed to take full responsibility for everything in my life and career. Having studied abroad, I became more independent in making decisions. I have gained self-sufficiency and learnt how to think on my own feet. Study abroad helped me to unlock my own hidden entrepreneurial spirit, it also helped me to learn about other cultures and expand my thinking using a different perspective. I have become more brave, willing to take calculated risks, be autonomous, and never stop learning. At first it was very challenging, but this experience shaped me to become a better person and indeed a better entrepreneur. This spirit has and always will inspire me, and it certainly helped me to start my own business.” (Participant J)

Another possible explanation for the observed correlation between foreign sojourn experiences and entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour is through exposure to a different culture and the opportunity to witness a completely new way of life. The exposure to a new culture may not be directly related to the development of entrepreneurial proclivity, but the understanding of how other cultures operate, the acceptance of cultural differences and the ability to adapt, integrate and build social relationships and networks with people from different backgrounds are necessary skills for future entrepreneurs. What comes through

clearly from the qualitative study is that all the returnee entrepreneurs who took part in the Study 2 enjoyed the opportunity to be able to interact with people from diverse cultural backgrounds, different countries, races and beliefs, while they studied abroad. This is apparent in the two quotes that follow:

Text Box

“I most enjoy the ideas of cross cultures. The international experience brings me closer to other cultures, ideas, values, beliefs and religions, which I never think about or experience before. I also enjoy the opportunity to be able to interact with people from diverse culture background, different countries, races and beliefs. I have the opportunity to witness a completely new way of life. During study abroad, I have a better understanding and appreciation for my own culture and history. Through the multicultural engagement, I learned the difference between Britain and China because I had never been abroad in my entire life, that is, more than 20 years. I realize Britain is more advanced than China in some respects at that time when I study abroad, they have higher degree of civilization and more advanced infrastructure. I am fascinated by the distinct cultural perspectives. I found incredible new foods, customs, traditions, and social atmospheres. I enjoy the culture including the social etiquette and customs in the UK. The social atmospheres are very friendly, the interpersonal communication is simple and direct. The UK people lay great emphasis on their privacy and opinions. They are very direct in expressing themselves. However, Chinese tend to be more obedient. Studying abroad was one of the best experiences of my life.” (Participant W)

“Study abroad makes me see the world and appreciate how diverse the world truly is. Study abroad helps me to know other cultures. I learn about different cultures, and I started learning to appreciate my own culture. I think the way you think will change during study abroad. The way you think will become more diverse. Before I study abroad, what I used to think about a thing is the Chinese way of thinking, but now, it is more integrated with the western way of thinking. The attitude toward life is no longer unitary, the understanding of success is more diverse; however, the Chinese people still put money first as being successful in life. I have changed my old way of thinking. Study abroad makes my thinking become more open. I have new understanding of money and also new understanding of life and work. After study abroad, I am more willing to try new things or to hear and consider new ideas. The study abroad experience helps me to shape my views on life, my views about the world. It helps me with opening my mind to other people, cultures and ways to live life. I realise success is not a single pattern or single definition. Study abroad gives me an international perspective, I become more tolerant to different cultures, beliefs and races. I became more aware of the differences that exist between the Chinese and British culture.” (Participant A)

Overall, as Caird (2012) stated in the introduction to the GET2 test: *“Your ability to develop your enterprising potential may depend on the changing constraints and contexts in your life and career. Your enterprising tendency may change in response to challenges you face at different key life and career phases. Personal development and transformation are an open-door if you wish to be enterprising.”* The results suggest that the study abroad experience was

positively associated with interest in starting a business after graduation or at some point in the future. There appears to be a strong recognition among the returnee entrepreneurs of a link between their study abroad experience and their entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour. The study abroad experience changed the students' perspectives on life and career possibilities. The personality development and practical skills acquisition that came with study abroad have a number of long-term and lifelong benefits for sojourning students. The main benefits of the study abroad experience was developing enterprising potential, accelerating entrepreneurial intention, offering entrepreneurial skills, knowledge and experience, and reinforcing entrepreneurial development.

9.4 Additional findings

The study is driven by the overall research aim and three specific research questions, but these questions do not stand alone. In particular, there are contextual data (e.g., students' demographic factors, social factors, environmental factors, their motivation and barriers to study abroad, and the benefits of study abroad) to support these research questions and provide a more complete picture of the factors that determine the entrepreneurial proclivity of the students. Thus, after an in-depth discussion of the findings relating to each sub-question, the contextual data (selected social-demographic and economic factors) is now presented and discussed in relation to the current literature.

9.4.1 Demographic factors

Previous studies (Lévesque and Minniti, 2011; Ferreira, Loiola and Gondim, 2017) have highlighted the influence of demographics on entrepreneurial intention and enterprising tendency. The demographic data collected in Study 1 included age, gender, hometown, household income, family business background, parents' occupation, and parents' education level.

- **Gender**

The demographic data of the sojourning students and domestic students involved in Study 1 showed that more females than males responded to the questionnaire, which corresponds to the fact that in China more females than males undertake business-related degree modules (Jones and Zhang, 2021) and register on courses with study abroad opportunities (O'Leary, 2017).

- **Age**

In Study 1, the majority of the sojourning students enrolled in the TNE program that is the focus of this research are between 21 and 22 years old at the time of the survey. This is consistent with Jana (2020), who found that the majority of students in Chinese higher education start their undergraduate degrees between the ages of 18 and 19 and complete them by the age of 22. In the qualitative study, all the returnee entrepreneurs had started their business between the ages of 23 and 29. The ages of the returnee entrepreneurs are also in line with those observed in earlier studies. Some researchers (Guerrero *et al.*, 2020) believe that people mostly decide to establish their own firms between the ages of 25 and 34. Although older people are more capable of starting a new business, because they have more resources and opportunities, they are far less likely than younger individuals to take steps toward acting entrepreneurially or starting a business. This would, therefore, explain the age-related effect on entrepreneurial intention as a result of the opportunity costs of time. According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) 2018 report, China has a high proportion of young entrepreneurs, with 31.57 per cent being aged between 18 and 34, and less than one-quarter falling into the 45-64 category.

- **Hometown**

The demographic data of the sojourning students and domestic students involved in Study 1 showed that the majority of the students (sojourning students: 83.3 per cent; domestic: 74.1 per cent) are from Beijing. This result may be explained by the fact that BUA is an institution of higher education located in the northern suburbs of Beijing.

In the qualitative study, all the twelve returnee entrepreneurs reported that their hometown is Beijing. This finding corroborates the ideas of Chen *et al.*, (2021), who suggested the influence of hometown, domestic environment and neighbourhood are an important determinant of entrepreneurship. Furthermore, the result may be explained by the fact that there exists significant geographical concentration of startups among the 600 cities in China (Jin and Piskunova, 2021). Chinese cities are divided into five tiers according to municipal Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and registered population. This current study used the city classifications offered by the Chinese National Bureau of Statistics in 2018 which is an official classification. The four first-tier cities – including Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou and Shenzhen – are the most important start-up cities in China, and are also seen as the most developed urban metropolises having relatively better entrepreneurship education, more favorable entrepreneurship policies, and greater government support (Yao and Hu, 2020). In particular, Beijing as the capital city is the forerunner in supporting mass entrepreneurship and innovation.

Awareness of entrepreneurship education is limited to first-tier cities and developed coastal areas. Parents in second- and third-tier cities are less willing to enroll their children in entrepreneurship education (Alves *et al.*, 2021).

- **Household income**

In Study 1, the average total monthly household income for the sojourning students is ¥20,001 - ¥25,000, in comparison with ¥10,001 - ¥15,000 for the domestic students, although both groups class as amongst the better off in the context of China as whole. These result are consistent with those of other studies (Pietro and Page, 2008) and suggest that a family's socio-economic status is positively related to the student's intent to study abroad. Students who come from families with an income in the upper or upper middle-class tiers are much more likely to go abroad to study, because parents with a higher annual income have a higher financial ability to pay for their children's international education.

In Study 2, all twelve returnee entrepreneurs acknowledged that they are from an upper middle-class family in China, which means that they originate from a family of three, earning an annual income of ¥200,000 - ¥500,000. This finding confirms the association between household income and entrepreneurial behaviour. These results reflect those of Lofstrom *et al.*, (2014) who also found that people from high-income households are more likely to start their own business because their family could provide them with the necessary financial support, and they are more likely to see entrepreneurial growth opportunities because of their social status.

- **Parents occupation**

In Study 1, the greatest proportion (25.9 per cent) of sojourning students reported that their father's occupation was a manager, followed by entrepreneurs and employees. However, the sojourning students reported that the greatest proportion of their mother's occupation (16.7 per cent) was entrepreneur or unemployed. For the domestic students, the majority of the respondents indicated employee, entrepreneur and farmer as both of their parents' occupations. In Study 2, ten of the twelve returnee entrepreneurs reported that they have at least one parent who works as an entrepreneur. These findings further support the idea that entrepreneurs are most likely to come from a family businesses background. According to Liu *et al.* (2011), sixty per cent of successful entrepreneurs in China come from a family that has a history of business ownership, and the effect is especially strong in emerging markets.

- **Parents' education level**

In the quantitative study, most of the sojourning students reported their parents' education level as bachelor's degree. The majority of the domestic students, however, stated that their father's education level is less than high school degree or high school degree or equivalent, while the majority of the domestic students stated that their mother's education level is less than high school degree. The results are consistent with those of other studies (Huang-Saad *et al.*, 2020; Jena, 2020) and suggest that high educational level is associated with, and expected to have a causal effect on getting a stable, well-paid, high-status job later in life. In addition, the results from the current study further support the notion that higher educated parents have the resources and knowledge to effectively advocate and support the academic ambitions of their children (Paray and Kumar, 2020). As such, educated parents place a high value on international education and play a key role in influencing their children's opportunity and decision to study abroad, as educated parents place a high value on international education, and they could help their children to shape their academic life and achieve academic goals.

9.4.2 Social factors

Previous studies (Liñán and Santos, 2007; Herdjiono *et al.*, 2017; Ahadi and Kasraie, 2020) have highlighted the influence of social factors on entrepreneurial intention and enterprising tendency. The social factors included in Study 1 and Study 2 included entrepreneurial family exposure, role models, general education, entrepreneurship education and previous experience.

- **Entrepreneurial family exposure (wider extended family business background)**

This is a social factor rather than a demographic factor because it goes beyond the parents and focus to the wider extended family.

In Study 1, regression analysis was employed to explore the relationship between wider extended family business (this does not refer just to the parents) and entrepreneurial proclivity and a statistically significant positive relationship was found to exist. A *family business* background has a substantial positive effect on entrepreneurial intention (0.43 points compared to a mean score of 3.07) but has no effect on enterprising tendency. These results match those observed in earlier studies which were reported in the literature review of this thesis. According to Bonesso (2018), the most important influence on whether or not a young person demonstrates an entrepreneurial intention to start-up their own business is their family.

Indeed, the family can serve to encourage entrepreneurship in a variety of ways. Likewise, Ahmed *et al.*, (2020) found that students whose parents are entrepreneurs, or who have acted entrepreneurially, demonstrated the highest preference for self-employment. Being raised in a family that is entrepreneurial significantly impacts individuals' intentions to start their own businesses. Other studies also confirm that the children of entrepreneurs learn the factors involved in running a business and consider establishing a new business as a natural career choice. For instance, Krueger and Brazeal (1994) state that children who grew up with entrepreneur parents had a greater intention to choose a self-employed career. Correspondingly, Ahmed *et al.*, (2020) reports that individuals who hold a positive view of their family business perceived starting a business as both desirable and feasible. In the same vein, Wong *et al.*, (2005) showed that entrepreneurs tended to have a self-employed mother or father in their family. This is, quite possibly, because the family is, therefore, providing a role model for the children to emulate. More importantly, the role of family is the key element in Chinese business social networks, as the central person in the network is often a member of the entrepreneur's family, which is fundamentally different from western cultures (Qian, 2020).

In Study 2, ten of the twelve returnee entrepreneurs reported that they have at least one family member (wider extended family) who works as an entrepreneur, and only two of the returnee entrepreneurs come from a non-entrepreneurial family background.

- **Role model**

Another important finding in Study 2 was that a role model (such as parents and teachers), directly or indirectly, has a significant influence on individual entrepreneurial intention. For example, one returnee entrepreneur mentioned the influence of her supervisor during the study abroad period, which helped her to create her own identity and make choices about a future career in entrepreneurship. Another returnee entrepreneur explained the influence of his entrepreneur parents serving as a role model, which affected his attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur. He had the benefit of being mentored by his parents and of accessing the business networks of his parents. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of other studies (Cardella *et al.*, 2020; Chen *et al.*, 2020) and suggest that having an entrepreneurial role model has a positive impact on entrepreneurial intention. These role models may serve as good examples of entrepreneurial activity and inspire individuals to become entrepreneurs.

- **General education**

In Study 1, participants in both the sojourning group and the domestic group studied their undergraduate degree in the Business subject area.

In Study 2, seven out of the twelve returnee entrepreneurs reported that the highest education level they obtained was a master's degree, and the rest of the returnee entrepreneurs obtained a bachelor's degree from the TNE program. These results match those observed in earlier literature (Wei and Zhu, 2020) which suggest that education levels are an important characteristic of entrepreneurs in China. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) 2018 report shows that among Chinese entrepreneurs, bachelor's degree holders account for nearly 32 per cent, college or equivalent for about 27 per cent, secondary school about 27 per cent, below secondary school accounts for 9 per cent, while master's degree and above accounts for the remaining 4.4 per cent.

It needs to be noted that all the respondents in Study 2 reported that there is a major difference between the education system in the UK and China. A majority of respondents criticized the education system in China, which is mainly dominated by lecturers' explanations during class, which leads to a "surface learning approach" based on memorization. Indeed, the Chinese education system adopts a teacher-centred approach with knowledge transferred to students by a "spoon-feeding" method, which is opposite to the UK education system. A significant number of those interviewed mentioned that the UK education system fosters independent, creative and critical thinking. They commented that experiencing different teaching and learning styles and being involved in the active and independent learning process in the UK had triggered their own critical thinking. They have been involved in different projects in the UK classes which improved their independent thinking ability. In fact, all of the returnee entrepreneurs stated that the way of learning in the UK was better than the traditional way of education in China.

- **Entrepreneurship education**

In Study 1, participants in both the sojourning group and domestic group were business students. Most of the students in the sojourning group (66.7 per cent) and the domestic group (79.3 per cent) had studied *Small Business Management* or *Business Entrepreneurship and Innovation modules* in their degree. The present study found that entrepreneurial education has a positive effect on the sojourning students' perception of benefits to entrepreneurship, including (i) increased understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs; (ii) enhanced practical skills in order to start a business; (iii) enhanced ability to develop

networks; and (iv) enhanced ability to identify an opportunity. Surprisingly, the same effect was not found with the domestic students, as entrepreneurship education seems to have had a discouraging effect on the student's perceptions of entrepreneurship. This result may be explained by the fact that China is currently still at a nascent stage in entrepreneurship education compared to developed countries (Mei *et al.*, 2020). In China, many entrepreneurial education courses are still delivered like traditional courses, i.e., students only need to sit in the classroom and listen to the teacher's lectures. In addition, these findings suggest that there may be an important interaction effect between study abroad and entrepreneurial education. Further studies, which take these variables into account, will need to be undertaken.

In Study 2, all of the returnee entrepreneurs reported that they had received entrepreneurship education during their time abroad, which they considered had had a positive impact in increasing their social and human capital and supporting the development of entrepreneurial activities. Through entrepreneurship education, the returnee entrepreneurs reported that they have gained entrepreneurial abilities relating to their personality traits, entrepreneurial knowledge and key entrepreneurial skills. However, the returnee entrepreneurs did make some recommendations regarding the design of entrepreneurship course both in the home institution and in the UK. For example, they felt that courses should involve contact with actual entrepreneurs; guest lectures by actual entrepreneurs; and that student should have the opportunity to engage in work placements in entrepreneurial companies.

In addition, the Seemingly Unrelated Regressions (SUR) analysis was employed to investigate the relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial proclivity. One unanticipated finding was that a negative but significant relationship exists between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention (but not enterprising tendency). The result is very surprising given that the objective of many entrepreneurship programs is to develop entrepreneurial skills and positively affect the entrepreneurial intentions of the students. This finding is contrary to many previous studies (e.g. Cera, 2020; Mei *et al.*, 2020) which have suggested that entrepreneurship education is an important means of encouraging students to engage in entrepreneurship. Indeed, effective entrepreneurship education can stimulate and increase students' intention towards a career in entrepreneurship, and it can further bring entrepreneurial success, help promote an entrepreneurial culture, and facilitate entrepreneurship through training (Hassan *et al.*, 2021).

Conversely, the negative impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention can be due to a more realistic view of what is involved in starting a new business. This inconsistency may be due to the entrepreneurship program in this study making the students'

expectations about entrepreneurship more realistic. This effect was found by Rasmussen and Wright (2015), who argue that too much knowledge of entrepreneurship can discourage business start-up. In particular, business students are equipped with the entrepreneurial skills, mind-set and knowledge to engage in entrepreneurial activities; however, knowledge of entrepreneurship could discourage them, because they would be aware of the high risk of failure (Rasmussen and Wright, 2015). Consequently, they may prefer to take the safe option of working for an organisation rather than starting their own business.

- **Previous experience**

In Study 2, nine out of the twelve returnee entrepreneurs had a few years of work experience in a large organization before they started their own business. They reported that the previous work experience helped them to clarify what they were most interested in, refined their own ideas about what exactly they would like to do, what sort of business they would like to run, and what they want to accomplish in their life. The previous work experience allowed them to bring a lot of maturity as well as a wide social network to their entrepreneurship development. This finding concurs with those of other studies (Mosey and Wright, 2007; Genus *et al.*, 2021) which suggest that gaining experience in a variety of companies and work environments can help entrepreneurs to learn from the inside, gain essential insights into the skills and practices of the business world, build contacts and learn from leaders in the industry. In fact, according to Kuratko (2016), about 80 per cent of Chinese entrepreneurs have prior work experience.

9.4.3 Environmental factors

Several previous studies (Zain *et al.*, 2010; Kallas, 2019; Kozubikova, 2019) have stressed the influence of environmental factors, such as culture, economic factors, and political conditions, on entrepreneurial intention and enterprising tendency.

- **Culture**

In Study 1, the findings show the importance of cultural experience in the study abroad decision-making process, which indicates that non-academic reasons are primary motives driving Chinese students to study abroad. Regarding the benefits of studying abroad, the majority of the participants reported that study abroad allowed them to experience a different culture, expand their world view, learn about new perspectives, and develop cross-cultural awareness. Another important finding was that the participants believe that cross-cultural experience increases their capabilities to identify entrepreneurial opportunities, to successfully

adapt to new cultural settings, promote understanding and develop entrepreneurial competencies.

In Study 2, a common view amongst the returnee entrepreneurs was that cross-cultural experiences are a valuable resource and have a positive effect on entrepreneurship development. As discussed in the literature review (Obschonka, 2018), there can be an incompatibility between traditional Chinese Confucian values (e.g. agreement and respect for authority; moderation; reaching consensus; avoiding confrontation; obligation to one's family and nation; fatalism; conformity), and entrepreneurial values (e.g. internal locus of control; initiative; need for achievement; positive response to changes; need for autonomy; creative and innovative tendency). Study abroad allowed the respondents to gain knowledge of different cultures, including: how people communicate; ways of thinking; beliefs, attitudes and values; religions; and alternative ways of life. In fact, the returnee entrepreneurs suggest that the study abroad experience helped them to gain an appreciation for other cultures and to become open to new cultures and ideas. Furthermore, they have developed individual skills and knowledge during the study abroad period that improved their ability to generate and implement entrepreneurial ideas, and to identify and recognize entrepreneurial opportunities. These findings are consistent with evidence discussed in the literature review (Klamer, 2011) that suggest that culture is an important factor impacting entrepreneurship. Acquiring new or modifying fundamental social and cultural norms through study abroad could encourage or discourage individual action that leads to entrepreneurship and the creation of new businesses.

- **Economic and political conditions**

The results of Study 2 indicated that the returnee entrepreneurs have taken advantage of government incentives when starting their own businesses. The benefits include special project incubators, finance, tax cuts, and easier access to permanent residence in first-tier cities. The challenges these returnee entrepreneurs were facing included: high operation costs, unfamiliarity with the domestic market, and difficulty raising capital. The support they needed included market development, a favourable environment for entrepreneurship, financial services, and entrepreneurship mentoring. As one returnee entrepreneur highlighted in the interview: *"The incentives of entrepreneurship in China are not as mature as in other countries, but Chinese government support is growing rapidly compared with other countries, especially support for science-tech innovation businesses."* These results are in line with those observed in the literature review.

9.4.4 Motivation to study abroad

In Study 2, the most important motives for studying abroad were “*I wanted to broaden my horizons*” and “*I wanted to experience different cultures*”, followed by the desire “*to improve my foreign language skills*” and “*improve the chances of getting a good job*”. The statements with which the respondents agreed the least were “*I particularly wanted to study in the UK*”, “*I particularly wanted to study at an institution with an international reputation*”, and “*I thought that my preferred course is better quality in foreign countries*”. The ratings confirm the importance of cultural experience in the study abroad decision-making process, which indicates that non-academic reasons are primary motives driving Chinese students to study abroad. Moreover, it appears that the Chinese students from this study consider course type or subject area first, institution second and country third.

While these findings clearly confirm that non-academic factors are very important motivators for studying abroad, the fact that *quality of education* and *institutional reputation* are lower in the list is somewhat unexpected given the efforts that UK universities put into promoting these factors when recruiting sojourning students. While the machinations of validation panels may well imply that the main reason that students from overseas wish to study in the UK is for the UK qualification, and the oft-repeated mantra of the Vice Chancellors is that they are here because of institutional reputation, this study suggests that other, student-centred factors are at play and are much more important in the decision-making process of the students. Indeed, the findings of this study suggest that the most important motivations for Chinese students to study in the UK are a desire for cultural experience and a broadened perspective. These findings are not out of line with the findings of previous studies. For instance, an investigation of TNE provision in France by Allen and Herron (2003) found that the most frequently reported reasons for participating in study abroad were all culturally related. They found that students considered motives such as meeting people from a different culture and getting to know the foreign country as the most important motives for study abroad participation, while receiving an education or earning an overseas degree were considered less important.

As a result, when designing and promoting TNE programmes, university administrators and policy makers are advised to stress the intercultural aspects of their courses and demonstrate what the TNE programme can offer in terms of cultural experiences and field trip opportunities, in addition to the academic content.

Although the returnee entrepreneurs provided comments on different aspects of motivation for study abroad the results from the qualitative study were very similar to and mainly

consistent with the results from the quantitative study. For example, the returnee entrepreneurs regarded international education experience as a significant stepping-stone towards future career success. Additionally, apart from the pull factors, the returnee entrepreneurs reported that Chinese students are pushed to go overseas by unfavourable conditions in China. The push factors may include the fierce competition for admission into 211 or 985²⁰ higher education institutions in China, and the perceived poorer quality of education in third tier and fourth-tier institutions, which may result in lower chances of employment after graduation (Fong, 2004). Another push factor might be the increase in average household income in China that has made high international education tuition fees more affordable for Chinese families (Fong, 2020). Indeed, the Chinese economy is continuing to grow and create more high-income families. Considering the dynamics of the exchange rate, the stronger Renminbi (RMB) has made education abroad more affordable to the Chinese. Moreover, with the so called “one-child” national family planning policy established in the 1970s, the 18–22 year-olds enrolled as students in higher education institutions today are the only child in their family (Yang, 2018). Families are prepared to invest more in the only child's education, and so help to develop the most educated generation in Chinese history.

9.4.5 Benefits of study abroad

In Study 1, the students were asked to indicate how their life has been influenced by the experience of studying and living abroad across a range of dimensions using a five-point Likert scale. Students believe that studying abroad provides a variety of personal and practical development. The most valued benefits of studying abroad are *independence*, *decision-making abilities*, *personal intellectual flexibility*, and *problem-solving ability*. In addition, the majority of the students (59.3 per cent) are in agreement that study abroad was a positive experience that enriched their education and their life and that it would be a personal advantage if they were to start their own business. These findings further support the idea that studying and living in a different country and culture provides a host of mental and practical benefits, and that these personality characteristics and other attributes are correlated to entrepreneurial characteristics (enterprising tendency). For example, independence is related to a high need for autonomy while problem-solving ability or thinking of new solutions can represent the innovative and creative tendency that is an important ability in entrepreneurship. Indeed, the most enterprising person has a strong need for achievement, likes to be in charge,

²⁰ The "985 Project", also known as the “world first class university”, is the central government of China’s main target to construct first class universities in the world. The "211 Project" is focusing on the construction of 100 universities and a number of key disciplines for the twenty-first Century.

seeks opportunities and uses resources to achieve plans, believes that they possess or can gain the qualities to be successful, and is innovative and willing to take a calculated risk (Cromie, 2000).

In Study 2, the returnee entrepreneurs indicated that study abroad helped with their maturity and personal development, interpersonal and communication skills, problem solving and analytical skills, enhanced academic and entrepreneurial knowledge, teamwork, and the ability to work with others. Additionally, they gained new perspectives on their home country (China) and obtained knowledge and understanding of the UK, and they increased their motivations and passions for their career direction. Indeed, all of the returnee entrepreneurs believed that studying overseas was an advantage when starting their own business. However, returnee entrepreneurs also perceive a number of disadvantages in their entrepreneurial activities, including a lack of adaptation to Chinese society, a lack of understanding of the local Chinese market and customer needs, and a lack of guidance on the direction of their entrepreneurial development. Consequently, there are a number of important suggestions that the returnee entrepreneurs have made for the future. For example: (i) a communication platform should be set up for returnee entrepreneurs from BUA; (ii) local governments should improve the service system for returnee entrepreneurs, especially in the protection of intellectual property; and (iii) despite the favourable policies, returnee entrepreneurs should improve their own abilities and proactively learn more about the domestic environment.

9.5 Chapter conclusion

This chapter presented a discussion of both the quantitative Study 1 and qualitative Study 2 results in terms of the three main research questions. The integrated findings on contextual factors and sojourn abroad experience impacts on the development of a positive entrepreneurial proclivity and subsequently entrepreneurial behaviour, and this has been discussed and related to prior research. The next and final chapter (Chapter 10) of this thesis will present the main findings of this project together with a correspondingly revised conceptual model of entrepreneurial development, which takes into account key contextual dimensions including demographic and environment factors. The findings presented in Chapter 6 and 8 are considered jointly and their theoretical, methodological and practical contributions will be confirmed. The overall limitations of the research and recommendations for further research are also presented.

Chapter 10 Conclusions and Contributions to Knowledge

10.1 Introduction

The previous chapter brought the quantitative Study 1 results and the qualitative Study 2 results together and discussed them in the context of current knowledge as revealed through the extant literature. This final chapter provides a summary of the overall aim of this project and the research questions, a review of the research design, and confirmation of the main findings in respect of a revised conceptual model of entrepreneurial development within international education. The narrative then confirms the limitations of the research, the theoretical, empirical and practical contributions of this project, and directions for future research.

10.2 Research questions and objectives revisited

A detailed review of research on entrepreneurship and the role of international education found that there is limited literature on sojourners and returnees in China (Gruenhagen and Davidsson, 2018). Specifically, no study has looked at the effect of a sojourn abroad on the entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour of Chinese students. Thus, the aim of the present study was to develop an understanding of entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour of Chinese sojourners.

The apparent gap in the knowledge, therefore, drove the aim of the current research project;

“To explore the impact that a sojourn abroad experience has on the entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) of current students, and also explore the sojourn abroad impact on the entrepreneurial behaviour of graduates.”

Designed to address this overall research question, the current study sought to contribute to an improved understanding in the field of “entrepreneurship” and “international education” by integrating various contextual factors including

- (i) entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention),
and
- (ii) entrepreneurial behaviour and international education,

aiding the development of an integrated *Extended Theoretical Framework* (Figure 3.4 Chapter 3).

Subsequently, the research objectives of this project were to:

- (i) examine whether Chinese university students who have the chance to study in the UK develop or enhance entrepreneurial proclivity through a period of study abroad;
- (ii) if so, why entrepreneurial proclivity has developed or been positively enhanced by the sojourn abroad experience; and
- (iii) to investigate the entrepreneurial behaviour of returnee entrepreneurs.

These objectives were used as the basis for the following research questions, which were addressed through either quantitative research in Study 1 (Questions 1 and 2) or qualitative research in Study 2 (Question 3):

1. Are there any significant differences between the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their demonstrable entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial group studies abroad (at Time 0)? Addressing this question provides a check on the validity of the DiD approach.
2. Is there a significant difference between the before and after differences of the sojourning and non-sojourning students in their entrepreneurial proclivity?
3. Do study abroad opportunities influence the sojourning students' potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life after graduation?

10.3 Research design revisited

This research project made use of two studies, that were based on quantitative (Study 1) and qualitative methods (Study 2) and investigated the effect of foreign sojourn experience on the entrepreneurial proclivity and behaviour of Chinese students. Study 1 adopted a longitudinal study approach with comparative analysis using a group of sojourning students as the “treatment” group, and a group of non-sojourning students as the “comparison” group. Data were collected longitudinally on a range of outcome measures (e.g., enterprising tendency was measured using a variation of the GET2 test) within a quasi-experimental design. The overall design combined positivistic research (addressing “what” issues) and interpretivist

research (addressing “why” and “how” issues) that were important for model testing and in-depth understanding of the research issues in the Chinese context.

The quantitative data in Study 1 was collected by means of an online and hard copy survey. The survey instrument was developed based on the well-established GET2 test. The survey data was input into SPSS and Stata software and subject to univariate and multivariate analyses. The findings from the Study 1 quantitative survey were discussed in Chapter 6. In study 2, qualitative data was collected by means of in-depth semi-structured interviews with twelve returnee entrepreneurs. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analysed using NVivo software with a content analysis approach. The findings from the interviews were discussed in Chapter 8.

The quantitative and qualitative studies were not undertaken independently, because the Study 2 depth interviews were informed by the results of the statistical tests undertaken on the quantitative data gathered in Study 1. The findings of the two studies were further integrated in the discussion chapter (Chapter 9) when addressing the study outcomes. Qualitative and quantitative methods were used to ensure the richness and integrity of the findings in terms of validity and reliability (Bergman, 2008). This *modus operandi*, employing survey questionnaires and in-depth interviews with semi-structured protocols, meant that the strategy for collecting the primary data was derived partly from existing entrepreneurship theory and empirical studies of international education and partly from themes that emerged from the data itself. New themes and understanding emerged when the respondents were asked open-ended questions about their foreign sojourn experience. The qualitative data was used to help explain and supplement the findings from the quantitative analysis and to provide a more complete picture of the quantitative results. In addition, the advantage of having a longitudinal dimension was that it made it possible to determine whether the foreign sojourner experience shaped the students’ entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) to become an entrepreneur, or if their entrepreneurial proclivity influenced their decision to travel abroad to study in the first instance. The advantage of having a comparison group was that it acted as a base measure to permit correlation analysis that then facilitated the inference of cause and effect. This allows for analyses and findings to take into account just how different the two groups were at the start of the study (Time 0); without this, the study design would be considered weak. In brief, the baseline measurement of key variables (including the students demographic background and entrepreneurial proclivity before the initial sojourning group studied abroad) indicated that the students, whether overseas or domestic, were similar in almost every respect. The comparison group was also used to verify that the changes that occurred in the sojourning group of students were due to

the study abroad experience. The result from the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach implemented by means of independent-sample t-tests, ANOVA and a panel SUR model does show a positive effect on entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) from studying abroad. This study design was considered the most robust that could be implemented in order to address the cause-and-effect issue. The fact that there was apparent convergence between the qualitative and quantitative research findings indicates the validity of the research design and the value of the *Empirically Validated Model of Entrepreneurial Development* that is presented as Figure 10.1 in the section that follows.

10.4 Research conclusions

Expectations are typically formed from theory regarding the sign of effects. This study made use of an extensive literature review to develop theoretically informed hypotheses; e.g., that study abroad had a positive effect on entrepreneurial proclivity. However, theory cannot predict the size of such effect. This is the task of empirical analysis.

In light of the research questions, it can be concluded that studying abroad can be characterized as a major life event with the ability to foster personality change and develop personal and practical skills. Indeed, it does impact on a student's entrepreneurial development, including entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial behaviour, beyond that found in an at-home learning context. In the quantitative study (Study 1), the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach implemented by means of independent-sample t-tests and ANOVA does show a positive effect on entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) from studying abroad, but not at conventional levels of statistical significance. However, the DiD estimates implemented by the panel SUR model are not only quantitatively similar but are also much more precise, as indicated by acceptable levels of statistical significance. Panel SUR is the preferred method of analysis, for two reasons: (i) the empirical specification reflects the theoretical model, because enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention are analysed jointly, as the concept of entrepreneurial proclivity suggests they should be; and (ii) the study abroad effects are estimated conditional on a range of control variables, which are also informative about entrepreneurial proclivity. The qualitative interviews (Study 2) show that study abroad opportunities influence the sojourning student's potential to behave entrepreneurially in later life after graduation. In fact, all of the returnee entrepreneurs who took part in the depth interviews reported the positive benefits that the sojourn abroad experience had on their lives and on their entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour. Indeed, they have suggested a link between the sojourn abroad experience and

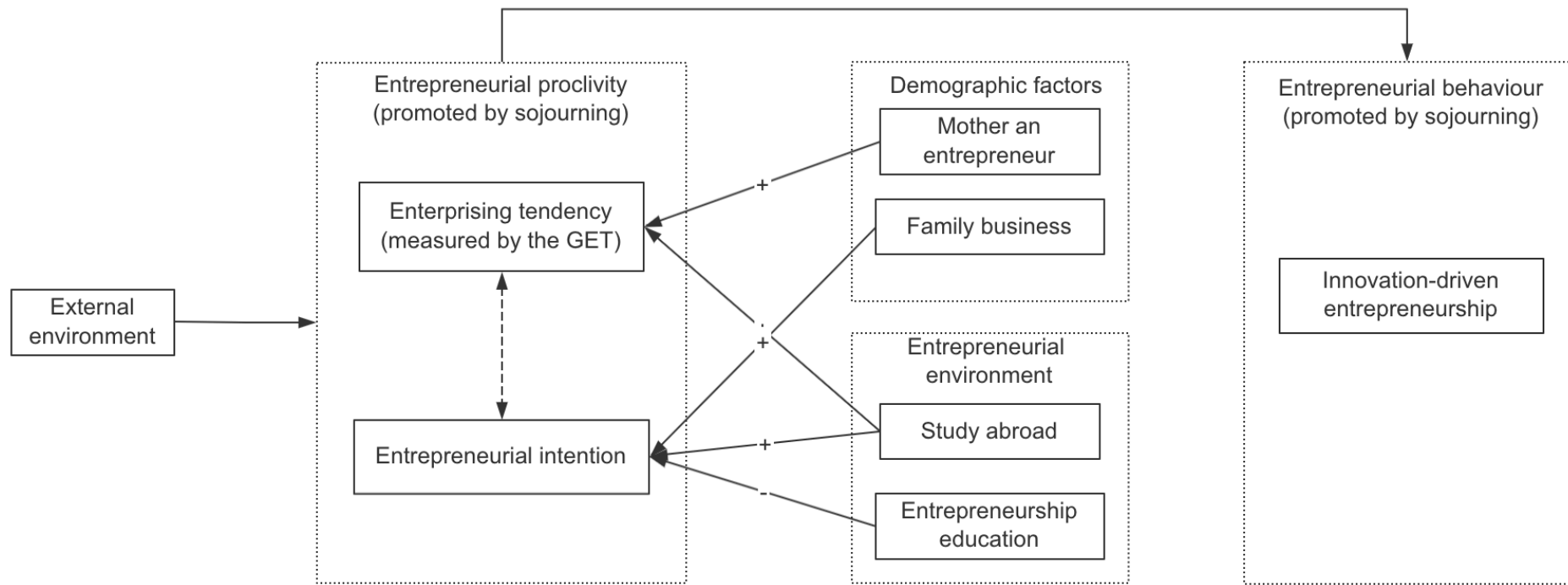
entrepreneurial development (including entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour). All of the returnee entrepreneurs recognised positive changes in their enterprising tendency that they strongly associated with entrepreneurial behaviour, and there is also self-reported evidence of positive changes in entrepreneurial intention as a result of the sojourn abroad. In addition, the study has shown that study abroad enhanced the inclination towards the entrepreneurial behaviour.

To sum up, the present study, which tracked not only current students but also former returnees who have chosen an entrepreneurial career, found evidence that the sojourn abroad experience had an impact on entrepreneurship development:

- (i) the sojourn abroad experience had a positive impact on entrepreneurial proclivity in the quantitative study;
- (ii) in the qualitative study, the returnee entrepreneurs report perceived positive changes in their entrepreneurial proclivity due to the sojourn abroad experience; and
- (iii) there was also evidence of innovation-driven entrepreneurial behaviour influenced by study abroad in the returnee entrepreneurs' group.

The present study found that sojourning changes thoughts, feelings and behaviours which supports Zimmermann and Neyer (2013) and Greischel *et al.*, (2018) who argued that sojourning is a valid life event with the potential to directly affect personality change. However, the prior studies and models of international education have tended to focus on the motivations (Hsieh, 2008), barriers (Lai, 2013), personality development (Awan *et al.*, 2011), outcome on employment (Mahendra *et al.*, 2017), and immigration (Lesjak, 2015). This current study is the first such study to introduce the concept of “entrepreneurial proclivity” as the umbrella definition for the concept of “enterprising tendency” and “entrepreneurial intention” and to connect the international experience with the entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour of Chinese students.

The current study contributes to knowledge by developing and empirically validating a framework concerning the effect of international education on entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial behaviour, and its demographic and environmental determinants. This framework is displayed in Figure 10.1, below.



(Source: Author)

Figure 10.1 Empirically validated model of entrepreneurship development

Having a mother as an entrepreneur was only positively associated with enterprising tendency, whereas family business positively affected entrepreneurial intention. Entrepreneurship education was negatively associated with entrepreneurial intention. The dotted line between enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention indicates that both concepts have similar observed and unobserved determinants (as indicated by the SUR analysis) and so are legitimately integrated into the higher-order concept of entrepreneurial proclivity. This model also reflects the SUR analysis feature that influences from the external environment (which could not be measured because they fell outside the scope of this study) are controlled by the model fixed effects (capturing otherwise unobserved heterogeneity among respondents) and the model intercept terms (capturing otherwise unmodelled systematic influences on respondents).

In addition, the qualitative research (Study 2) has (i) explored the reasons why the sojourn abroad experience has positively influenced entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial behaviour; and (ii) justifies a direct link from Study abroad to Entrepreneurial behaviour. Indeed, in the qualitative study, the returnee entrepreneurs confirmed that, in their view, studying and living in a new country with a different culture provides a host of mental and practical benefits, which contributes to the development of entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour. Furthermore, all twelve of the returnee entrepreneurs in the interviews acknowledged a direct link between their experience abroad and tangible and intangible benefits they had gained that helped develop their new businesses.

The findings of this study support the robustness and validity of the adjusted GET2 test in respect to the Chinese context despite the existence of some unique Chinese cultural values. The present research also went beyond the scope of previous studies by introducing the concept of entrepreneurial proclivity as the umbrella definition for the concept of “enterprising tendency” and “entrepreneurial intention”, and this concept too appears to have validity. Overall, the *Empirically Validated Model of Entrepreneurship Development* provides greater insight into the relationship between international education, entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention), and entrepreneurial behaviour.

10.5 Research limitations

Although this project has contributed to knowledge in various ways, as with all research projects it does have its limitations and there is still potential for further research. Indeed, it is important to acknowledge the limitations associated with this study, as these can inform future research direction. Recommendations for further research corresponding to the limitations of this present study are provided in the next section.

- **Sample issues**

Firstly, the most notable limitation in this study is the relatively small sample size ($n=115$) in the quantitative survey, which may directly affect the transferability of the results. In the current study, the sample size proved to be too small to detect significant interaction effects. Small sample sizes are problematic for several reasons (L.Lin, 2018). First, it may be difficult to ascertain whether the observed differences are due to the intervention (i.e., study abroad) or simply by chance. However, in this study, due to its longitudinal design, the total number of observations was almost double the sample size, which proved sufficient to detect moderate study-abroad effects. Nonetheless, a larger sample could reveal more comprehensive findings (for example, exploring potential interaction between study abroad and entrepreneurial education). Secondly, all the students, no matter whether overseas or domestic, are studying business. Study abroad might impact students from different majors in different ways. Different majors may also influence students' ideas about their future careers and pathways, which may result in different attitudes and intentions.

Thirdly, the fact that this study was based on just one TNE programme operated by a Chinese university and a UK partner means that the findings cannot be generalized to all TNE programmes. However, the TNE programme at the centre of this study is not untypical, especially in terms of Chinese undergraduate TNE programmes with UK partners, and so the findings may very well have value in the context of other TNE programmes.

Fourthly, this study was undertaken in China and the unique aspects of the context may mean that the findings are not generalisable to other countries. Students from different nationalities might be affected by study abroad in different ways, because countries differ in relation to culture, demography, social elements, economic elements, and others, thus highlighting that the conclusions generated from this study may not be directly applicable for other countries.

- **Sample bias**

In any research where participation is voluntary, questions arise regarding who chooses to take part in the study and how their participation may impact the results. This research used convenience sampling (also known as availability sampling) in the quantitative survey and snowball sampling in the depth interviews. The participants in the depth interviews were also self-appointed as they responded positively to a request for an interview made through the IC BUA alumni group in the WeChat platform. Once contact was made with one member of the network, that person was then asked to identify other appropriate members and, in this way, it was possible to build the sample. Those who consented to participation in the interview may have had an underlying motivation for choosing to be studied. From a personality perspective, participants might be more confident, open-minded, innovative and creative, and so more willing to take part.

- **Self-report bias**

In social science research self-reported data is a common basis for data collection and as a consequence self-report bias is a widely discussed phenomenon (Larson, 2019). In the context of this study, the overseas study experience was highly personal and had to be investigated using self-reporting. Self-report bias is, therefore, a potential limitation that requires consideration. With respect to the GET2 test and other questions within both the survey questionnaire and the interview, the students and returnee entrepreneurs may wish to show an “ideal-self”, which does not correspond to one’s real self (i.e., social-desirability bias). In order to project a better “ideal-self”, the students may provide answers that indicate more socially desirable characteristics, and, consequently, skew the results of the questionnaire data and the interview data (Caputo, 2017). Although all the students in the current study were asked to answer honestly and knowing that the data would be treated in confidence, a response bias cannot be completely eliminated, and the results may not be a true representation. In the quantitative study, there may be a tendency for some students to misrepresent their household income and their parents’ education level. In the qualitative study, the returnee entrepreneurs may not have revealed sensitive information and may have responded in a socially desirable manner. These cognitive tendencies can skew results and introduce self-report biases, and the reader should remain mindful of this when interpreting the findings.

- **Recall bias**

Given that all the depth interviews were completed several years after the returnee entrepreneurs have had their study abroad experience, readers should also be aware of recall bias. Recall bias refers to systematic errors that can occur when an individual does not remember a particular event correctly or omits details (Raphael, 1987). The longer the time between the event and the interview, the more likely recall bias is to occur (Sedgwick, 2012). Therefore, the current thoughts, feelings and behaviours of returning entrepreneurs may influence their responses in relation to their study abroad experience. The impact of study abroad experience on entrepreneurial propensity and entrepreneurial behaviour may also be subjectively influenced by returning entrepreneurs' satisfaction with their study abroad experience. Such recall bias may distort the results and limit the validity of the findings.

10.6 Research contributions

Notwithstanding the aforementioned limitations, this work makes a contribution to knowledge in terms of filling important gaps within the current literature and improving understanding regarding the study abroad experience and how it influences sojourning Chinese students' entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour. This project is one of the first to examine the sojourn abroad experience and how it impacts on the development of entrepreneurial proclivity and subsequently entrepreneurial behaviour. In addition, it appears that to date no study has been completed in China using GET2 to capture university students' (either domestic or sojourning students) enterprising tendency. It is hoped that the research findings can not only develop empirically-supported theory on international education and entrepreneurial proclivity, but also provide constructive strategic guidelines for the Chinese government, policy makers and university program designers in that it provides direction for TNE program design and entrepreneurship education in China. The contributions to knowledge made by this study may be considered in terms of their theoretical, empirical, and practical contributions.

10.6.1 Theoretical contributions

The theoretical contributions of this thesis include the following:

- This study for the first-time links “enterprising tendency” and “entrepreneurial intention” under the umbrella concept of “entrepreneurial proclivity”.
- This study contributes to the development of theoretical linkages between international education and entrepreneurship with model building. This thesis puts forward a new, integrated framework (Empirically Validated Model of Entrepreneurship Development, Figure 10.1, Chapter 10) for the study of international education with entrepreneurial proclivity.

10.6.1.1 “Entrepreneurial proclivity”

This study provides, for the first time, a definition of “entrepreneurial proclivity” as the umbrella definition for the concepts of “enterprising tendency” and “entrepreneurial intention”, and connects international experience with the entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour of Chinese students. This study provided its own comprehensive definition of the concept as “*the combination of a person’s internal enterprising tendency and external entrepreneurial intention to become an entrepreneur*”. The concept of entrepreneurial proclivity provides a basis for synthesising existing entrepreneurial knowledge and guiding future research. As Bruyat and Julien (2001) acknowledge, the lack of a settled definition of entrepreneurship is also one of the major problems in entrepreneurship research. In the same vein, Howorth *et al.*, (2005) are concerned about the danger that unresolved debates on the definition of entrepreneurship could lead to confusion. Indeed, in the literature there are a wide range of concepts related to entrepreneurship including entrepreneurial disposition (Stewart, 2003), entrepreneurial aspiration (Henley, 2007), entrepreneurial predisposition (Douglas, 2013), entrepreneurial orientation (Lee and Peterson, 2000), entrepreneurial passion (Cardon *et al.*, 2009), entrepreneurial attitude (Bosma and Schutjens, 2011), entrepreneurial propensity (Langowitz and Minniti, 2007), enterprising tendency (Caird, 1991) and entrepreneurial intention (Turker and Selcuk, 2009). It is hoped that the conceptualisation of entrepreneurial proclivity used in this research will help synthesise findings, provide a common understanding for entrepreneurial intention and enterprising tendency, and provide a basis for future empirical research and theorising.

It is argued that enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention are closely aligned concepts in their influence on entrepreneurial activity. This consideration suggests that these two concepts are closely related and may be described jointly by a single higher-order concept, which here is named entrepreneurial proclivity. In turn, this determines that the two concepts be brought together in the same empirical model when testing for the influence of study abroad. To anticipate, the SUR model estimates confirm that both enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention are similarly related to study abroad, the variable of interest. In other words, the theoretical reasoning leading these two concepts to be considered together informed the empirical specification that otherwise would have been mis-specified by considering them individually rather than jointly.

Theoretical reasoning suggests that the two concepts are correlated. Accordingly, in the Empirical Informed Model (Figure 6.5) this correlation is shown by a broken line. This correlation has to be reflected in the empirical specification, because otherwise the model is theoretically and statistically mis-specified.

10.6.1.2 This study contributes to the development of theoretical linkages between international education and entrepreneurship with model building.

The most significant contribution to knowledge made by this study is the enriched evidence of the relationships between entrepreneurial proclivity and international education. The literature considering the effect of international education on entrepreneurship is limited (Farashah, 2013), especially in respect of the link between international education and entrepreneurship development (Ertuna and Gurel, 2011). Indeed, it appears that no previous research has focused on Chinese sojourning students and returnees in terms of their entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial behaviour. This is the first study to investigate the effects of study abroad on the entrepreneurial proclivity of Chinese university students. This research, therefore, has contributed to knowledge and provided data by conducting a quantitative survey followed by in-depth semi-structured interviews. It provides insights into the entrepreneurial development of sojourning students and returnees who have undertaken study abroad – another area that has received little attention in the literature to-date. The present study confirms that the study abroad experience can develop entrepreneurial proclivity and contribute to entrepreneurial behaviour. In addition, the current research, contrary to much of the existing literature (Leong, 2007; Bazeley and Jackson, 2013), indicates that there is no systematic difference between the sojourning student group and the domestic student group in terms of their entrepreneurial intention before the initial group studied abroad. This current study supports the view that entrepreneurs can

be made, and not just born. The ability to develop entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) may depend on the changing constraints and contexts in life and career. Entrepreneurial proclivity may change in response to the challenges people face at different key stages in their life and careers.

In addition, this research made a contribution to knowledge in terms of model-building. Scholars such as Al-Jubari (2019) and Mwiya (2014) have argued that focusing on only one perspective often leads to incomplete understanding and sometimes inconsistent conclusions. In addition, as Sun (2019) postulated, the TPB model ignores the impact of individual background factors, such as personality and demography that may influence the beliefs people have. Thus, the present study makes a significant theoretical contribution by extending the TPB model. Unlike prior studies and models (Liñán, 2005; Khuong and An, 2016) that examine the factors that influence entrepreneurship development using individual factors or contextual factors in isolation from each other, this study develops and validates an integrated model to explore how these factors jointly shape entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention). The *Empirically Validated Model of Entrepreneurship Development* (Figure 10.1, Chapter 10) explains the effect of the sojourn abroad experience on the relationship between entrepreneurial proclivity and its institutional and individual determinants. Furthermore, entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) is influenced by a range of individual demographic and personality factors as well as by the entrepreneurial environment. Thus, in this study, the components of entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) are the dependent variables, and a range of measures relating to individual demographic and personality factors are the independent variables.

10.6.2 Empirical contributions

Apart from the theoretical contributions, this study yielded valuable results using the longitudinal research design (study 1) and combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

The empirical contributions of this study also include the following.

- This is the first empirical investigation of enterprising tendency that makes use of the adapted General Measure of Enterprising Tendency Test (GET2) in the Chinese context.

- Use of a longitudinal data set to elicit repeat observations through time on the same cross-sectional units, the sojourning students, before and after study abroad, rather than just association or correlation, makes it more confident in identifying causal relationships.
- Use of the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach by means of independent sample t-tests, ANOVA and a Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR) model to identify causal effects of study abroad on entrepreneurial proclivity. A feature of the novel panel SUR model is that it analyses enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention jointly, and thus complements the novel entrepreneurial proclivity concept.

10.6.2.1 The adapted General Measure of Enterprising Tendency Test (GET2) in the Chinese context.

This study is one of the first to explore enterprising tendency in university students in China. Studies focusing on university students' enterprising tendency are limited in number and very few have been conducted in developing countries like China (Roztocki and Weistroffer, 2015). Furthermore, studies in developing countries that use quantitative scaling approaches like GET2 are very rare (Lyu *et al.*, 2021). Indeed, it appears that to date no quantitative study has been completed in China using GET2 to capture university students' enterprising tendency. Although the GET2 test has been widely tested in the Western context, it has not been applied in developing countries, especially in China. As China is the largest country of origin for international students in the world, with 622,100 Chinese students studying abroad in 2018 (Cheng *et al.*, 2021), and the trend for Chinese students to study abroad appears set to continue into the future, this means that understanding the impact of study abroad experiences on Chinese students' enterprising tendency has become even more important. As Wang and Miao (2019b) suggest, Chinese returnee entrepreneurs are an important phenomenon and research is required to develop a comprehensive model. The study of Chinese students' enterprising tendency using the adapted GET2 test thus makes a valuable empirical contribution to knowledge.

Furthermore, it needs to be noted that many current measures and methods of measuring entrepreneurship are limited in scope, because they often focus on only one or a few dimensions of entrepreneurship, such as self-employment or the rate of business start-up. In addition, most of these alternative instruments were developed for use with adults, and they are not designed for assessing the enterprising personality of university students and young people, e.g.: the Entrepreneurial Aptitude Test (Cubico *et al.*, 2010); the Skills Confidence

Inventory (Betz *et al.*, 2003); the Entrepreneurial Intention Questionnaire (Liñán, 2005); the Battery for the Assessment of the Enterprising Personality – BEPE (Postigo and Lozano, 2020); the Entrepreneurial Guidance Questionnaire (Morselli, 2018); the Measure of Entrepreneurial Talents and Abilities – META (Mayer-Haug, 2013); Entrepreneurial Attitudes Scale for Students – EASS (Ortuño-Sierra, 2021); and the High Entrepreneurship, Leadership and Professionalism – HELP test (Palazzeschi *et al.*, 2018). It is worth noting that the mentioned instruments focused on particular dimensions of entrepreneurship, thus, not allowing for the establishing of a complete profile of enterprising tendency. In addition, most of the instruments developed are designed for adults rather than students. Because of this, it can be said that many of these measures and entrepreneurship tests they are less applicable than the adapted of full GET2 test used in this study.

Taken together, the evidence from this study suggests that further work should be carried out to develop the adapted or full GET2 test in the Chinese context and cater for the need of the Chinese university students. This will allow for a more culturally comprehensive examination of the enterprising tendency of Chinese students.

10.6.2.2 The longitudinal nature of the study

The main empirical contribution arises from the longitudinal nature of this research (Study 1), which enables the researcher to be more confident in identifying causal relationships rather than just association or correlation. While there are earlier studies (Coelho, 1962; Dwyer, 2004) that link studying abroad to significant personal changes and personal growth, there are far fewer empirical studies that examine both the short-term and long-term impact of the study abroad experience on entrepreneurship development. Green *et al.*, (2008) suggest that a longitudinal research design with a control group comparing participants with individuals who have no experience of international education is needed to examine the lasting effects of international education. In the same vein, Hung and Yen (2020) also recommend such an approach, but state that the most appropriate way to assess the effects of international education is to use a matched group of students of the same age, gender, home environment and educational background as a control sample.

To add to the understanding of both the short-term and long-term impact of study abroad, and in order to establish causality, the current study (Study 1) adopted a longitudinal approach to examine changes in current students' entrepreneurial proclivity over their study abroad period. Post-graduation studies were also conducted with previous returnees to explore what happens

to students after graduation and to assess the impact of international education on future career choices and entrepreneurial behaviour from a retrospective perspective.

Given that most comparable studies are cross-sectional, this research is an application of longitudinal research in an area where this is not the typical approach and thus advances knowledge in a manner that is likely to be of value to policy makers. As policy needs to be based on causal relationships, so that doing more – which usually entails spending more – on some particular activity (e.g., study abroad) is likely to yield a return in terms of some desirable outcome (e.g., more entrepreneurial behaviour).

10.6.2.3 Use of the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach

The longitudinal nature of this study enabled the use of Difference-in-Differences (DiD) analysis – implemented by means of independent sample t-tests, ANOVA and a Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR) model – of the quantitative data collected from the survey. The DiD approach is a statistical method or quasi-experimental design, that is considered a robust method in the social sciences for examining the effects of changes in specific variables of interest (Ozgulbas and Koyuncugil, 2009). In social science, it is sometimes called a “controlled before-and-after” study (Kobayashi, 2013). The basic DiD approach compares the results of two groups and records data for each group over two time periods. One group (the comparison group) is not exposed to any treatment, while the other group (the treatment group) is exposed to a treatment for a period. The same observations are made on both groups before and after the time period. Data are analysed by first calculating the difference between the first and second time periods and then subtracting the average increase (or decrease) in the treatment group from the average increase (or decrease) in the comparison group. As such, this study used data taken at two time periods, before and after study abroad, to compare the average change in enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention over time for the sojourning group compared to the average change over time for the domestic group. Using this design, it is possible to measure the true causal impact of study abroad on entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention). It is then possible to compare the results of the overseas and domestic groups and to distinguish changes in entrepreneurial proclivity that have been promoted by study abroad.

Econometrica is the premier journal of quantitative theory and methods in economics and business, additionally ranking 5 from 108 in Mathematics and Interdisciplinary Applications, 4 from 53 in Social Sciences and mathematical Methods, and 4 from 125 in Statistics and probability. According to a paper published by Athey and Imbens (2016) in *Econometrica*:

“Difference-in-differences (DiD) methods for estimating the effect of policy interventions have become very popular in economics. These methods are used in problems with multiple subpopulations – some subject to a policy intervention or treatment and others not – and outcomes that are measured in each group before and after the policy intervention (although not necessarily for the same individuals)”. They continue in a footnote: “In other social sciences such methods are also widely used, often under other labels such as the “untreated control group design with independent pre-test and post-test samples ...”. Twenty references to studies in major journals are cited in support of these contentions. Athey and Imbens (2016) also claim that: “Several recent surveys describe other applications and give an overview of the methodology ...”.

Accordingly: (i) DiD is an appropriate methodology, well established in the social sciences by 2006 at the latest, although perhaps not yet in some – less quantitative – areas; and (ii) the DiD approach is appropriate for the analysis of two subpopulations, observed both before and after a treatment (i.e., study abroad). Moreover, DiD analysis is particularly appropriate when performed on panel or longitudinal data (i.e. with the same individuals in the before and after periods), because this design controls for influences from the time-invariant unobserved characteristics of the individuals.

The SUR analysis supports the findings on study abroad at conventional levels of statistical significance (i.e., $p > 0.05$). Moreover, as we have argued, panel SUR analysis is the preferred means of implementing the DiD approach, because it not only makes use of the before and after variations in the data but allows enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention to be analysed jointly, as suggested by the joint concept entrepreneurial proclivity.

Not only does the use of the Difference-in-Differences (DiD) approach by means of independent sample t-tests, ANOVA and a Seemingly Unrelated Regression (SUR) model contribute to knowledge in the substantive area, but it also introduces a new way of analysing this type of data to researchers in this area. SUR analysis was introduced into economics in the 1950s. However, it is possible to make a connection with researchers in other social science disciplines, by pointing out that SUR analysis represents a point of contact between regression analysis, which is common in economics and the life sciences, and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), which is common in many areas of social science outside of economics. SUR analysis is one amongst several models commonly used by SEM practitioners. Unfortunately, until recently, SUR analysis within both regression and SEM frameworks could not be used with panel (longitudinal data) and was thus not suitable for

analysing before and after differences for programme evaluation. However, recent developments in theory together with a user-written programme for Stata have given practitioners the means to apply SUR analysis to panel data (as referenced in Chapter 6).

10.6.3 Practical contributions

Societal well-being is dependent on economic development and, in turn, on enterprise and entrepreneurship (Westhead and Solesvik, 2016). However, China is not particularly entrepreneurial on a number of measures (GEM 2018). In particular, China still lags behind other countries in providing high quality entrepreneurship education and training (see Zhou and Xu, 2012; and Xu *et al.*, 2021). The findings of this study provide some insight into the importance of international and entrepreneurship education and how these may be improved. It has been the first study to explore the change in Chinese students' entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour as a result of an international sojourn to study abroad. The results suggest that exposure to international educational experiences, which may be outside the comfort zone of students, impacts their entrepreneurial proclivity and likelihood of starting a business. Understanding the impact of international education on entrepreneurial development can provide valuable practical insights for all the stakeholders but especially the students themselves, the government, policy makers and university program designers. Indeed, policymakers and practitioners (Entrepreneurship and International Education educators and researchers) can use this research to empirically evaluate the value of the sojourning experience and inform future practice, policy, design, and preparation.

- **The individual perspective**

From the Chinese returnee entrepreneur's perspective, it is evident that the Chinese market system remains imperfect or underdeveloped, and has strong Chinese characteristics such as bureaucracy, dependence on relationships (Guanxi), and poor marketing infrastructure. Although the returnee entrepreneurs have accumulated human capital, social capital, and cultural capital during their study abroad experience that helped them to start a new business, they also reported issues coping with a lack of local networks (Guanxi) and local knowledge. Therefore, to succeed in China, substantial adaptation to the local market is required. The returnee entrepreneurs should focus on re-localisation in their home country after their return. Indeed, in order to overcome this issue, they might look to learn from the experienced local entrepreneurs, find a local business partner, and attend training seminars and workshops. In addition, their local university might set-up an online entrepreneur forum or WeChat Group for

returnee entrepreneurs to discuss a wide range of these issues and connect and interact with other returnee entrepreneurs to share experiences, support, and advice.

- **The institutional perspective**

From the institutional perspective, the (i) motivations, expectations and experiences of students studying abroad and (ii) the effect of the study abroad experience on entrepreneurship development may be of interest to educators who are involved in the design and operation of both entrepreneurship programs and study abroad programs. These findings have clear implications for both Chinese higher education institutions and overseas (especially UK) higher education guesting institutions.

- **Recommendations for the international departments of Chinese and overseas partner universities**

Firstly, the results related to the motivation and expectations of study abroad may be especially useful to educators developing TNE programs. It is readily apparent that universities do need to understand Chinese undergraduate students' motivations and expectations of study abroad. This is imperative if they are to design, promote and manage effective TNE programmes that will deliver genuine value to the students. Learning outcomes should concentrate on personal development, advanced knowledge and skills, and the development of entrepreneurial proclivity. Promotion of the TNE programmes should also focus on these factors. These findings also have important practical implications for the overseas higher education institutions involved in TNE programmes.

Secondly, educational staff in China could use the outcomes of this research in order to point out to students the advantages and learning outcomes of the TNE programs. Specifically, staff might wish to explain to their students that international education has a significant impact on a student's personality and skills, namely intercultural competence, personality development, practical skills, opportunities for entrepreneurial development, academic and knowledge improvement. It might also be useful to stress that the following personal traits of students changed because of international education: need for achievement, need for autonomy, creative and innovative tendency, calculated risk taking, internal locus of control, self-confidence, independence, maturity, and so on. It would be important also to stress that these personal characteristics are typical of entrepreneurs and are related to enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intentions. With regard to the setting up of a new business, it would seem useful to inform the students that the returnee entrepreneurs felt that international education

changed their intention toward entrepreneurship and had a positive influence on their entrepreneurial behaviour. These benefits provide a rationale for investment in campus internationalization plans and for encouraging more students to participate in TNE programmes. Efficient use of a TNE program can lead to students' entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour increasing and, therefore, the current research is useful for universities and other stakeholders involved in international education.

- **Recommendations for university business departments**

Another important practical implication is related to the availability and quality of entrepreneurship education in China. In the quantitative Study 1, the statistical data indicates that entrepreneurship education is leading to a decrease in entrepreneurial intention. This decrease may be explained by the fact that the students have developed a more realistic and practical perspective on entrepreneurship. For such students, entrepreneurship education is primarily a developmental process, where they realise the complexity and challenges involved in business start-up. Another possible explanation for these results may be the lack of adequate entrepreneurship education in China. According to Bell (2020), China is currently still at a nascent stage in entrepreneurship education compared to developed countries. The current approach to entrepreneurship education and training in Chinese universities is certainly better than in the past, but it is still limited and subject to various weaknesses. This study suggests that if university administrators want to enhance students' entrepreneurial proclivity, they should focus on providing students with a university environment that is more supportive of entrepreneurship.

The approach to entrepreneurship education currently adopted by many Chinese universities does not encourage students to develop an entrepreneurial mind-set, entrepreneurial interests, or entrepreneurial intention. In addition, with Chinese culture and values being derived from Confucianism, there can be an inconsistency between traditional Chinese culture and the entrepreneurial personality. In general, traditional Chinese culture has devalued the importance of commercial activities, with entrepreneurs traditionally being placed at the bottom of the Chinese social hierarchy, after government workers, teachers, doctors, lawyers, and workers. Because of their cultural background many Chinese students simply understand entrepreneurship to be something that a few individuals engage in, rather than seeing it as something in which they might develop competences and interests that could then serve as a career option for them personally. In addition, many Chinese colleges and universities fail to deliver effective entrepreneurship education because of a lack of experienced lecturing staff. Most of the lecturing staff have followed an academic route into education and so do not have

any experience of working in the commercial sector, let alone of being involved in entrepreneurship, and so entrepreneurship teaching comes straight from the textbooks and, rather than being practical it is highly theoretical. In many cases, teaching of entrepreneurship in Chinese universities does not employ either active or work-based learning approaches. Chinese university entrepreneurship education does not fully address student needs. A student may have a good idea for a new product or service but the disparate nature of Chinese entrepreneurship education at present means that the student will find it difficult to associate the idea with the taught subjects, for instance marketing and finance, necessary to successfully start a business.

Apart from a range of compulsory modules in the *Entrepreneurship and Small Business* subject area, the institutions should provide a selection of optional modules in the field of “entrepreneurship” that should be designed and delivered with more practically oriented context and content. These courses might include modules on Financial Accounting, Business Research, Entrepreneurial Management, Innovation and Technology, Human Resource Management, Project Management, Strategic Management, Principles of Audit and Taxation, International Entrepreneurship, New Venture Development, Business Law, and Supply Chain Management. These modules would not only introduce students to the nature of entrepreneurship at a corporate level but, most importantly, focus on the practical components of entrepreneurship, which could provide the skills to plan, promote, finance, and grow new business ventures for the future. Additionally, higher education institutions in China should give the students a variety of entrepreneurship opportunities, respect and encourage student individuality, and encourage innovative and creative thinking. For example, the students should be afforded the opportunity to learn from established and successful entrepreneurs, listen to guest speakers, meet alumni who might act as entrepreneurial role models and/or mentors, be given access to short-term company internships, provided with the opportunity to experience entrepreneurship and innovation in action through hands-on teaching experiences of starting and launching a business venture, base classes on live case studies, and encourage visits to companies to meet industry experts. Universities would be encouraged to seek support from the government, industry, and alumni to overcome any resource limitations. The universities would be encouraged to create a platform, e.g., a WeChat Group, for students and graduates to communicate with returnee entrepreneur alumni, so that they could use this Guanxi (social network) to recognize and pursue entrepreneurial opportunities and test their entrepreneurial ideas. The university needs to make the students believe and be confident that they have the ability to carry out entrepreneurial activities. Overall, the Chinese universities should concentrate more on the availability and quality of entrepreneurship education, respect the students’ specific needs and expectations, listen to their suggestions,

regularly evaluate the support the university provides and its impact on students, clarify the strengths and weaknesses of current entrepreneurial support, and take measures to improve student satisfaction with their entrepreneurial support.

It is important to note that the returnee entrepreneurs involved in this study confirmed the value of the entrepreneurship education they received in the UK in supporting their entrepreneurship development. The insights gained from this study indicate that Chinese higher education institutions have lessons to learn from the UK when it comes to entrepreneurship education. Indeed, the returnee entrepreneurs suggest that the Chinese institutions should learn from their UK TNE partner institutions, to improve the traditional teaching pedagogies by switching from a teacher orientation to a student orientation, shifting the focus from classroom teaching to real-world active learning, and moving on from teaching entrepreneurial knowledge to promoting entrepreneurial culture and skills.

Overall, this study suggests that entrepreneurship education remains important in facilitating entrepreneurship and that the role of universities in entrepreneurship education programs is crucial. The creation of high-quality entrepreneurship education can promote and support students' entrepreneurial proclivity and behaviour, help promote an entrepreneurial culture, facilitate entrepreneurship development through training, and putting knowledge into practice. Entrepreneurship skills can be taught and enhanced through quality entrepreneurship education, which will promote better business practices as well as increasing revenues and profits. However, currently there are weaknesses with entrepreneurship education in China, and what is needed is a better understanding of the mechanics of the impact on enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention, and a stronger focus on the objectives of entrepreneurship education. Chinese higher education institutions should integrate their education style with those that are common in western countries and follow the trends of internationalization practices. Universities should help students by developing additional international qualifications in the form of TNE programmes. This study was conducted with a view to informing the debate by reporting the findings and raising a number of important implications for future practice.

- **The government perspective**

From the government perspective, China is not particularly entrepreneurial on a number of measures. In particular, China still lags behind other countries in providing high quality entrepreneurship education and training. The findings of this study provide some insight into the role that study abroad may contribute to entrepreneurship education and its role in

enhancing entrepreneurial proclivity. This study has also shown that study abroad had a high impact on returnee entrepreneurs' entrepreneurial behaviour. While the findings of this study relate entrepreneurial proclivity amongst Chinese university students to demographic factors that cannot directly be influenced by policy makers (i.e., mother as an entrepreneur, family business) it does confirm study abroad as a positive influence and entrepreneurship education as a negative influence, on enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention, and these can be influenced by government policy makers.

Firstly, the results provide new perspectives for government in China. The returnee entrepreneurs in this study suggest that a strong and stable institutional environment was the key determinant for them to start a new venture. In particular, they were concerned about the protection of intellectual property and expressed the view that currently there is still inadequate regulatory and legal protection in China. In addition, their access to government resources was based on informal networks and relationships, which might be misused and result in unproductive entrepreneurial activities. Therefore, a key policy priority should be to design a transparent and objective mechanism for determining who receives access to governmental support. Policy makers should promote a positive and objective climate for entrepreneurship in China.

Secondly, the findings suggest that Chinese universities who try to improve entrepreneurial proclivity among their students may draw support from within their own international education departments. The Chinese government should promote TNE programs with suitable universities in foreign countries and encourage programs that include a year abroad. By understanding the study abroad experience as an instrument that may develop enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention, universities can improve the effectiveness of their entrepreneurship education strategy.

Thirdly, China's education system, a product of Confucian values, is also somewhat incompatible with the approach needed for effective entrepreneurship education (Shi, 2019). Continued efforts are needed to promote an entrepreneurial culture in China. Cultural influences such as gender, values, religion, family background and ethnicity are important factors that influence student's perceptions of entrepreneurship (Poirine, Dropsy and Gay, 2017). Hofstede (2020) found that Chinese people have a collectivist approach to decision making. Within the Chinese family, children learn a deep respect for age, hierarchy, and authority (including government officials, teachers, parents and supervisors) and, as a consequence, allow decisions to be taken for them by others. According to Confucian tradition the ideal man or perfect gentleman is not a successful entrepreneur who works for profit and

personal gain but rather a scholar or academic. In contrast with Western culture, which emphasises the importance of individualism and mercantilism, Chinese culture does not promote commercial activities and businessmen are at the bottom of the Chinese social hierarchy (Tongxin *et al.*, 2020). Indeed, the majority of the Chinese students in the quantitative study indicate a preference to work under supervision in the government, the tech industry, or in the finance industry after graduation. In this context, culture is almost certainly influencing the students in deciding their future career. As He *et al.*, (2019) state, “*entrepreneurship must be perceived as being socially embedded in China’s peculiar social networks and informal institutional context...Innovation demands one’s independent thinking, imagination and creativity, which lies in education*”. Although personal experiences and perceptions may influence a person’s ideology, the government has an important role in shaping the ideology through education. Current Chinese education has been criticised by many for being rigid and stifling the imagination of students.

The Chinese government should consider designing policies and measures to create a strong entrepreneurial climate and fully demonstrate the social desirability of entrepreneurship. A fundamental change that should be made in primary and secondary schools is to allow more than one standard answer to each question. In many exams, students are expected to memorise standard answers rather than come up with their own ideas. Primary and secondary schools should improve their curriculum to inspire students and stimulate their imagination in order to promote creative and innovative thinking.

Policy makers should focus on promoting an entrepreneurship-friendly environment which encourages non-financial rewards for entrepreneurship (e.g., flexibility, creative freedom, being in control, a sense of satisfaction), for individuals who undertake entrepreneurial behaviour and foster an entrepreneurial culture that contributes to the emergence of new economic activities.

It is worth noting, however, that while Chinese culture does not fully support entrepreneurship there are some aspects, such as pragmatism, adaptiveness, family involvement, financial support, Guanxi network, and the achievement-oriented education system, that are helpful in promoting entrepreneurship. Chinese people are anecdotally reputed to do business in a pragmatic fashion and adapt to new environments. It is interesting to note, however, that while the Chinese returnee entrepreneurs may take advantage of these aspects of culture in the same way as domestic entrepreneurs, they do have additional characteristics that may serve as competitive advantages. They have gained new perspectives and expanded their view of the world, they have modified their traditional cultural mindset, integrated the beneficial

elements of both their original culture and the culture they experienced in the UK, which together provide them with new insights about their business ventures.

Fourthly, the finding that entrepreneurship education has a negative effect on students' entrepreneurial intention may be because entrepreneurship education is still at a relatively early stage of development in China. Most Chinese universities have unclear goals with respect to innovation and entrepreneurship education due to the constraints of the traditional education system in China. This lack of development suggests that there is much scope for investment in entrepreneurship education. Currently, the weak links in entrepreneurship education in China are primarily reflected in imperfect curriculum design, too much emphasis on entrepreneurial theory and not enough focus on practice; a lack of qualified teachers, funds, and other practical training matters; a lack of a standard model for entrepreneurship education across all the cities and regions in China and, conversely, a lack of localization; and imperfect support mechanisms for entrepreneurship education. At present the literature (Farashah, 2013; Thomassen, 2019) suggests that China still lacks mature, independent and systematic education programs in the entrepreneurship subject area. To address this situation, the Chinese government might wish to consider further developing national policy on entrepreneurship in general and entrepreneurship education in particular, so as to encourage all universities in China to provide entrepreneurship education consistently and to develop the entrepreneurial proclivity of their students. Although it is vital for universities to customize their entrepreneurship education and, hence, to adopt a localized approach, because China is so big and diversified (e.g., Northern and Southern Chinese are distinctively different in their characteristics, appearance, and diet), policymakers are advised to survey all Chinese universities to establish how entrepreneurship education is being implemented throughout the country.

It is essential that China, like many other countries, encourages entrepreneurship for the employment opportunities created; however, the development of entrepreneurial skills bring broader benefits too. As Li *et al.* (2018) highlight in their study, entrepreneurship education should focus on supporting the formation of human capital through nurturing students' entrepreneurial proclivity in combination with career experience and entrepreneurship knowledge and skills. Encouraging students to develop entrepreneurial skills (i.e., to be creative, innovative, to seek continuous improvement, to be open-minded, self-determined and disciplined) will help to develop more innovators, designers, intrapreneurs and voluntrapreneurs capable of creating innovative new products, services, and processes throughout society. So, there is a good case for university administrators to develop strategies to implement recent Government policy that decrees that entrepreneurship education should

not be limited to university business schools and to the periphery of other courses but should be included as a central component in all programs and courses in all subject areas, irrespective of the students' major.

In providing entrepreneurship education to their students, Chinese universities face a number of challenges due to the somewhat idiosyncratic demand and supply aspects of entrepreneurship education in China. On the demand side, it is well documented (Blake and Hanson, 2005; Drucker, 2014) that entrepreneurs are often atypical individuals who often have challenging educational needs (e.g. dyslexia) and who, as a consequence, struggle in traditional education. However, on the supply side, the education system in many Chinese universities is typically a very traditional teacher-centred chalk-and-talk system focused on memorization of theory and concepts (Li *et al.*, 2003) which is unsuited to entrepreneurship teaching and inimical to the development of entrepreneurial skills. Unlike developed countries, the education system in China is not conducive to independent, creative, innovative, and critical thinking. Moreover, problems on the supply-side of entrepreneurship education are compounded by a shortage of qualified teachers (Dou, 2019) who are often limited to providing only a theoretical perspective rather than having any real-life experience of entrepreneurship. To effectively implement entrepreneurship education and improve the current situation, both top-down and bottom-up approaches are necessary. To be more specific, top-down approaches require the commitment of the most senior policymakers. Entrepreneurship education has to be framed within the context of its contribution to economic and social growth. Bottom-up approaches require policymakers at the local or regional level who can help drive initiatives on the ground. To sum up, policy makers will need a clear goal with both top-down and bottom-up approaches to equip universities with the funding, infrastructure, and staff to create an innovative and transformational system of entrepreneurship education, including university-industry links.

It would appear, therefore, that there are some very substantive challenges to developing entrepreneurship education across the university system in China. However, the situation may well also be seen as an excellent opportunity to develop the system via the introduction of modern Western approaches to teaching. Indeed, as entrepreneurship education may well be a new subject to many Chinese universities, but an established educational subject in the West, then the Chinese universities could consider partnering with a Western university in order to gain access to knowledge that might then be used to develop modern domestic programmes of delivery incorporating student study abroad programmes. Such programmes would be contextualized and based on a learning-by-doing philosophy but may embrace interactive methods of delivery, collaboration with local business start-ups, involve the

university alumni, make use of successful entrepreneurs to deliver workshops and seminars, use business simulations focused on enterprise, be supplemented with optional short courses for those wishing to learn more about a specific aspect of entrepreneurship (e.g., finance, marketing) and provide experienced entrepreneurs as mentors to students wishing to start their own business. In addition, it could be argued that a policy of embedding integrated entrepreneurship education across all levels of learning, including schools, and all courses may prove beneficial to the long-term economic success of the nation (Lackeus, 2020).

10.7 Directions for future research

Based on the limitations identified earlier, it is possible to make a number of recommendations for future research. As previously stated, the literature on entrepreneurship and the overseas study experience is lacking in research of a longitudinal nature. The present study has demonstrated how a longitudinal approach can generate a rich source of data regarding entrepreneurship and the overseas study experience.

Despite these promising results, questions remain. This study focused on just one TNE program operated by just one institution. Considerably more work will need to be done to determine the cross-national effects and long-term effects of study abroad on entrepreneurship development. Ideally, the study should be repeated with a larger sample of students taken from across China, or further afield, in order to check the robustness of the findings.

This study's sample was chosen from the students who enrolled in a one-year TNE program. In this programme the students travelled and largely studied as a group. This raises the question of whether students from other programs and study abroad opportunities would produce different findings. There is also the question of whether programs of greater duration (e.g., 2+2, 1+3)²¹, or shorter duration will evidence a similar result in terms of entrepreneurship development over time. This would enable scholars to understand the impact of the various characteristics of the overseas study programme on entrepreneurial development.

The scope of this study was limited to BUA students. Further research should be carried out to establish whether the effects found in this population would differ substantially from the wider population in China. It is apparent that further studies should test the framework in the context of other countries and other national settings. This would enable scholars to assess

²¹ 2+2 means the course duration is four years, with Year 1- 2 study at the home institution with Year 3- 4 study abroad.

the transferability of the model generated by this study in different contexts and countries. For example, further research could compare the impacts of the study abroad on Chinese student's entrepreneurial proclivity at other UK universities and universities in other countries around the world. In addition, conducting the same study with university students from other developing countries who study in the UK, could be beneficial to gather more insightful and comparable data. Although the sample in this study could be considered useful and sufficient, a bigger sample taken from more Chinese universities would provide more reliable and more generalisable findings about study abroad opportunities and their impact on entrepreneurial proclivity.

This study made use of regression analysis which is a parametric technique used to examine how effectively one or more (independent) variables can predict the value of another (dependent) variable. The panel SUR analysis was applied to quantify the extent to which study abroad together with the selected socio-demographic and economic factors (e.g., gender, age, hometown, household income, family business, parents' education level, parents' occupation, and entrepreneurship education) influence the students' entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention). A greater range of contextual factors may well provide additional insight into entrepreneurial proclivity and entrepreneurial behaviour. Larger-scale studies would also allow interaction effects to be explored (e.g., between study abroad and entrepreneurial education, subject studies, destination university, etc.).

A separate study could be undertaken to validate the adapted GET2 test research instrument more fully in the Chinese context. The GET2 test is one of the most used, robust and accepted tools on enterprising tendency, which establishes a complete profile of the enterprising personality and provides a comprehensive measure of enterprising tendency with in-depth analysis of individual characteristics. However, a separate study should seek to identify supplemental constructs as well as to check the validity of the existing constructs in the Chinese context. Indeed, other studies might not use the GET2 Test but employ other instruments to test the validity and reliability of the current study, such as the Entrepreneurial Aptitude Test (Cubico *et al.*, 2010), the Skills Confidence Inventory (Betz *et al.*, 2003), the Entrepreneurial Intention Questionnaire (Liñán, 2005), the Battery for the Assessment of the Enterprising Personality – BEPE (Postigo and Lozano, 2020), the Entrepreneurial Guidance Questionnaire (Morselli, 2018), the Measure of Entrepreneurial Talents and Abilities – META (Mayer-Haug, 2013), Entrepreneurial Attitudes Scale for Students – EASS (Ortuño-Sierra, 2021), and the High Entrepreneurship, Leadership and Professionalism – HELP test (Palazzeschi *et al.*, 2018). Such additional studies would test the robustness of the findings

reported in the present study on enterprising tendency – and thus entrepreneurial proclivity – to the measurement tool.

Further qualitative research with the returnee entrepreneurs, especially over different time period (e.g., one year, three years, ten years), might generate further insights, especially if it examined the long-term impacts of study abroad on entrepreneurship development. This work might also explore the difference between returnee entrepreneurs and locally educated graduate entrepreneurs, examining whether the gap between the two groups narrows or expands later in life.

10.8 Chapter conclusion

The aim of this research project was to examine the entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) of university students in China, have had the chance to study in the UK on a TNE program (Study 1); and on the entrepreneurial behavior of previous returnees (Study 2). This chapter confirms the implications for international education and entrepreneurship education in China, and develops recommendations for the government, policy makers and university program designers. Despite limitations relating to a small sample that originated solely from one university located in Beijing, this study has been the first to explore a series of study abroad outcomes within a Chinese university student sample using both quantitative and qualitative research to measure changes in entrepreneurial proclivity (enterprising tendency and entrepreneurial intention) and entrepreneurial behavior over time. The most important finding suggests that international education can help develop entrepreneurial proclivity, while interviews with previous sojourners now established as entrepreneurs in Beijing indicate substantial returns to international education in terms of entrepreneurial behavior.

The Chinese government is advised to develop a national policy on international education, entrepreneurship in general, and domestic entrepreneurship education in particular. Policy makers are encouraged to introduce entrepreneurship education into all programs and courses in all subject areas irrespective of the students' major. Chinese universities are advised to adopt modern Western approaches to entrepreneurship education, and indeed consider partnering with a Western university in order to gain access to modern programmes of delivery. Given the specificities of the Chinese university students' study abroad experience, further research is required to provide a platform by which policymakers and practitioners can empirically evaluate the value of the sojourning experience and inform future practice and preparation.

References

- Abhayarathne, M.H.R. and Kodithuwakku, S.S. 2018. A study of enterprising tendencies of undergraduates of different fields of study. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 315 (6), pp. 400-412.
- Abowitz, D.A. and Toole, T.M. 2009. Mixed method research: Fundamental issues of design, validity, and reliability in construction research. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 13 (61), pp. 108–116.
- Acharya, S.R. and Chandra, Y. 2019. Fostering entrepreneurship: an analysis of general enterprising tendency and pedagogical intervention in building entrepreneurship education. *International Journal of Information Management*, 50, pp. 90-110.
- Act, D.P. 1998. Data protection act, London Station Off.
- Adcock, R. and Collier, D. 2001. Measurement validity: A shared standard for qualitative and quantitative research. *American Political Science Review*, 95 (3), pp. 529–546.
- Agarwal, S. and Lenka, U. 2016. An exploratory study on the development of women entrepreneurs: Indian cases. *Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship*, 32 (6), pp. 610-618.
- Ahadi, S. and Kasraie, S. 2020. Contextual factors of entrepreneurship intention in manufacturing SMEs: the case study of Iran. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 12 (5), pp. 436-442.
- Ahamer, G. 2015. Quality assurance in transnational education management: The developmental “Global Studies” curriculum, in *Curriculum Design and Classroom Management: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools, and Applications*. IGI Global, pp. 1271–1313.
- Ahlstrom, D. and Ding, Z. 2014. Entrepreneurship in China: an overview. *International Small Business Journal*, 32 (6), pp. 610–618.
- Ahmad, N. and Hoffmann, A. 2008. A framework for addressing and measuring entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 34 (5), pp.10-59.
- Ahmed, T. 2020. Entrepreneurship education programmes: How learning, inspiration and resources affect intentions for new venture creation in a developing economy. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 18 (1), p. 327.
- Ajzen, I. 1985. *From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behaviour*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer.
- Ajzen, I. 1991. The theory of planned behaviour. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 50 (2), pp. 179–211.
- Ajzen, I. 2002. Perceived behavioural control, self-efficacy, locus of control, and the theory of planned behaviour. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 32 (4), pp. 665–683.
- Ajzen, I. 2006. *Constructing a theory of planned behavior questionnaire*. Amherst, MA.

- Ajzen, I. and Driver, B.L. 1992. Application of the theory of planned behaviour to leisure choice. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 24 (3), pp. 207–224.
- Ajzen, I. and Fishbein, M. 1977. Attitude-behaviour relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84 (5), p. 888.
- Albers, M.J. 2017. *Introduction to quantitative data analysis in the behavioural and social sciences*. New Jersey, United States: John Wiley & Sons.
- Albers, M.J. 2017. *Introduction to quantitative data analysis in the behavioural and social sciences*. New Jersey, United States: John Wiley & Sons.
- Albort-Morant, G. and Oghazi, P. 2016. How useful are incubators for new entrepreneurs?, *Journal of Business Research*, 69 (6), pp. 2125–2129.
- Alhojailan, M.I. 2012. Thematic analysis: A critical review of its process and evaluation. *West East Journal of Social Sciences*, 1 (1), pp. 39–47.
- Al-Jubari, I. 2019. College students entrepreneurial intention: Testing an integrated model of SDT and TPB. *Sage Open*, 9 (2), p. 67.
- Allen, H.W. 2010. Language-learning motivation during short-term study abroad: An activity theory perspective. *Foreign Language Annals*, 4 (31), pp. 27–49.
- Allen, H. W., and Herron, C. 2003. A mixed-methodology investigation of the linguistic and affective outcomes of summer study abroad. *Foreign Language Annals*, 36 (3), pp. 370-385.
- Al-Saadi, H. 2014. Demystifying ontology and epistemology in research methods. *Research Gate*, 1 (1), pp. 1–10.
- Alsaawi, A. 2014. A critical review of qualitative interviews. *European Journal of Business and Social Sciences*, 3 (4), pp. 413-438.
- Alves, A.C., Fischer, B.B. and Vonortas, N.S. 2021. Ecosystems of entrepreneurship: configurations and critical dimensions. *The Annals of Regional Science*, 35 (1), pp. 1–34.
- Amankwah-Amoah, J., Boso, N. and Antwi-Agyei, I. 2018. The effects of business failure experience on successive entrepreneurial engagements: An evolutionary phase model. *Group and Organization Management*, 43 (4), pp. 648–682.
- Ambad, S.N.A. and Damit, D.H.D.A. 2016. Determinants of entrepreneurial intention among undergraduate students in Malaysia. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 3 (7), pp. 108–114.
- Anderson, A.R., Dodd, S.D. and Jack, S. 2010. Network practices and entrepreneurial growth. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 26 (2), pp. 121–133.
- Anderson, P.H. and Lawton, L. 2015. Student motivation to study abroad and their intercultural development. *The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 1 (3), pp.16-35.
- Antoncic, B. 2003. Risk taking in intrapreneurship: Translating the individual level risk aversion into the organizational risk taking. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 11 (01), pp. 1-23.

- Armanios, D.E. 2017. How entrepreneurs leverage institutional intermediaries in emerging economies to acquire public resources. *Strategic Management Journal*, 38 (7), pp. 1373–1390.
- Arruti, A. and Panos-Castro, J. 2020. International entrepreneurship education for pre-service teachers: a longitudinal study. *Education and Training*, 16 (2), pp.13-22.
- Arshad, M. 2016. Determinants of individuals entrepreneurial intentions: a gender-comparative study. *Career Development International*, 21 (4), pp. 318–339.
- Athey, Susan and Imbens, Guido. 2006. Identification and Inference in Nonlinear Difference-in-Differences Models. *Econometrica*, 74 (2), pp. 431-497.
- Athey, S., and Imbens, G. 2016. Recursive partitioning for heterogeneous causal effects. *National Academy of Sciences*, 113 (27), pp. 7353-7360.
- Atherton, A. and Newman, A. 2017. *Entrepreneurship in China: The emergence of the private sector*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Atsan, N. 2016. Failure experiences of entrepreneurs: Causes and learning outcomes. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 23 (5), pp. 435–442.
- Au, K. and Kwan, H.K. 2009. Start-up capital and Chinese entrepreneurs: The role of family. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33 (4), pp. 889–908.
- Audretsch, D.B. and Link, A.N. 2019. *Sources of knowledge and entrepreneurial behavior*. Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press.
- Austin, M.J. and Nauta, M.M. 2016. Entrepreneurial role-model exposure, self-efficacy, and womens entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Career Development*, 43 (3), pp. 260–272.
- Autio, E. and Fu, K. 2015. Economic and political institutions and entry into formal and informal entrepreneurship. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 32 (1), pp. 67–94.
- Awan, R.U.N., Noureen, G. and Naz, A. 2011. A study of relationship between achievement motivation, self-concept and achievement in english and mathematics at secondary level. *International Education Studies*, 4 (3), pp. 72–79.
- Awang, H. 2018. Financial factor as the catalyst in choosing destination to further studies abroad for international students. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 35 (1), pp. 1-9.
- Bai, W., Johanson, M. and Martín Martín, O. 2019. Dual Business Relationships, Opportunity Knowledge, and New Product Development: A Study on Returnee Young Ventures. *Journal of International Marketing*, 16 (2), p. 106.
- Bai, W., Johanson, M. and Martín, O.M. 2017. Knowledge and internationalization of returnee entrepreneurial firms. *International Business Review*, 26 (4), pp. 652–665.
- Bailar, B., Bailey, L. and Stevens, J. 1977. Measures of interviewer bias and variance. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14 (3), pp. 337–343.
- Bakar, R., Islam, M.A. and Lee, J. 2015. Entrepreneurship Education: Experiences in Selected Countries. *International Education Studies*, 8 (1), pp. 88–99.

- Bannier, B.J. 2016. Global trends in transnational education. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 6 (1), p. 80.
- Bao, J. 2015. Appeal for and Establishment of Entrepreneurship Education in Colleges and Universities, in *International Conference on Management, Computer and Education Informatization*. Atlantis Press.
- Bao, Y. 2016. Human capital perceived domestic institutional quality and entrepreneurship among highly skilled Chinese returnees. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, 210 (1), p. 16.
- Barker, D.R. 1980. Culture shock and anthropological fieldwork. *Journal of Management*, 14 (2), pp. 139-161.
- Barmé, G. 1999. *In the red: On contemporary Chinese culture*. Columbia University Press.
- Baron, R. A. 2006. Opportunity recognition as pattern recognition: How entrepreneurs connect the dots to identify new business opportunities. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20 (1), pp. 104-119.
- Bauerle, L. 2006. Binning system for data analysis. *Decision Analytics*, 2 (1), pp. 1-25.
- Baum, J.R. and Bird, B.J. 2010. The successful intelligence of high-growth entrepreneurs: Links to new venture growth. *Organization Science*, 2 (12), pp. 397–412.
- Bazeley, P. and Jackson, K. 2013. *Qualitative data analysis with NVivo*. New York, United States: Sage Publications Limited.
- Beck, C.T. 1993. Qualitative research: The evaluation of its credibility, fittingness, and auditability. *Western Journal of Nursing Research*, 15 (2), pp. 263–266.
- Berglund, K. and Verduyn, K. 2018. *Revitalizing entrepreneurship education: Adopting a critical approach in the classroom*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Bergman, M.M. 2008. *Advances in mixed methods research: Theories and applications*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Bernoster, I., Rietveld, C. A., Thurik, A. R., and Torrès, O. 2018. Overconfidence, optimism and entrepreneurship. *Sustainability*, 10 (7), pp. 22-33.
- Bernard, H. R., and Bernard, H. R. 2013. *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Sage.
- Betz, N.E. 2003. The expanded skills confidence inventory: Measuring basic dimensions of vocational activity. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 6 (21), pp. 76–100.
- Bian, Y. 2017. The comparative significance of guanxi. *Management and Organization Review*, 13 (2), pp. 261–267.
- Billioud, S. 2016. The hidden tradition: Confucianism and its metamorphoses in modern and contemporary China. *Modern Chinese Religion*, 15 (2), pp. 767–805.
- Bird, B. 1988. Implementing entrepreneurial ideas: The case for intention. *Academy of Management Review*, 13 (3), pp. 442–453.

- Bird, B. 2019. Toward a theory of entrepreneurial competency. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 26 (4), pp. 5-8.
- Bird, B. and Schjoedt, L. 2009 Entrepreneurial behavior: Its nature, scope, recent research, and agenda for future research. *Journal of Business venturing*, 8 (3), pp. 211-230.
- Bjørnskov, C. and Foss, N.J. 2016. Institutions, entrepreneurship, and economic growth: what do we know and what do we still need to know? *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 30 (3), pp. 292–315.
- Biørn, E. 2004. Regression systems for unbalanced panel data: a stepwise maximum likelihood procedure. *Journal of Econometrics*, 122 (2), pp. 281-291.
- Blake, M.K. and Hanson, S. 2005. Rethinking innovation: context and gender. *Environment and Planning A*, 37 (4), pp. 681–701.
- Boari, G., and Nai Ruscone, M. 2015. A procedure simulating Likert scale item responses. *Electronic Journal of Applied Statistical Analysis*, 8 (3), pp. 288-297.
- Boisot, M. and Meyer, M.W. 2008. Which way through the open door? Reflections on the internationalization of Chinese firms. *Management and Organization Review*, 4 (3), pp. 349–365.
- Bond, M.H. and Hofstede, G. 1989. The cash value of Confucian values. *Human Systems Management*, 8 (3), pp. 195–199.
- Bonesso, S. 2018. Students entrepreneurial intentions: the role of prior learning experiences and emotional, social, and cognitive competencies. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 5 (6), pp. 215–242.
- Bosma, N. and Schutjens, V. 2011. Understanding regional variation in entrepreneurial activity and entrepreneurial attitude in Europe. *The Annals of Regional Science*, 47 (3), pp. 711–742.
- Botsaris, C. and Vamvaka, V. 2016. Attitude toward entrepreneurship: structure, prediction from behavioral beliefs, and relation to entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of the Knowledge Economy*, 7 (2), pp. 433–460.
- Brace, I. 2018. *Questionnaire design: How to plan, structure and write survey material for effective market research*. London, UK: Kogan Page Publishers.
- Bradburn, N.M. 1979. *Improving interview method and questionnaire design: Response effects to threatening questions in survey research*. San Francisco, US: Jossey-Bass.
- Bradburn, N.M., Sudman, S. and Wansink, B. 2004. *Asking questions: the definitive guide to questionnaire design--for market research, political polls, and social and health questionnaires*. New York, US: John Wiley & Sons.
- Britten, N. 2006. Qualitative interviews. *Qualitative Research in Health Care*, 3, pp. 12–20.
- Brown, J.D. 2002. The Cronbach alpha reliability estimate. *Journal of business Venturing*, 10 (4), pp. 283-301.

- Brunel, O., Laviolette, E. M., and Radu-Lefebvre, M. 2017. Role models and entrepreneurial intention: the moderating effects of experience, locus of control and self-esteem. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 250 (2), pp. 149-177.
- Brunswik, E. 1952. The conceptual framework of psychology. *Psychological Bulletin*, 49 (6), pp. 654–656.
- Bruton, G.D., Ahlstrom, D. and Chen, J. 2019. China has emerged as an aspirant economy. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, pp. 1–15.
- Bruton, G.D., Zahra, S.A. and Cai, L. 2018. *Examining entrepreneurship through indigenous lenses*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Bruyat, C. and Julien, P.A. 2001. Defining the field of research in entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 16 (2), pp. 165–180.
- Bryman, A. 2016. *Social research methods*. Oxford, UK: Oxford university press.
- Bryman, A. and Cramer, D. 2009. *Quantitative data analysis with SPSS 14, 15 & 16: A guide for social scientists*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- BUA, 2019. About the International College. Available at: <https://gjxy.bua.edu.cn/> (Accessed: 6 November 2019).
- Burnard, P. 2008. Analysing and presenting qualitative data. *British Dental Journal*, 204 (8), p. 429.
- Burns, A.C., Bush, R.F. and Sinha, N. 2000. *Marketing research*. New Jersey, United States: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Burt, R.S. 2019. The networks and success of female entrepreneurs in China. *Social Networks*, 5 (8), pp. 37–49.
- Burt, R.S. and Burzynska, K. 2017. Chinese entrepreneurs, social networks, and guanxi. *Management and Organization Review*, 13 (2), pp. 221–260.
- Burton-Jones, A. 2009. Minimizing method bias through programmatic research. *MIS Quarterly*, 3 (11), pp. 445–471.
- Bush, D.W. and White, K.R. 1985. Questionnaire distribution: A method that significantly improved return rates. *Psychological Reports*, 56 (2), pp. 427–430.
- Bygrave, W.D. and Hofer, C.W. 1992. Theorizing about entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 16 (2), pp. 13–22.
- Byrne, B. 2004. Qualitative interviewing. *Researching Society and Culture*, 2, pp. 179–192.
- Caird, S. 1990. What does it mean to be enterprising? *British Journal of Management*, 1 (3), pp. 137-145.
- Caird, S. 1991a. Testing enterprising tendency in occupational groups. *British Journal of Management*, 2 (4), pp. 177–186.
- Caird, S. 1991b. The enterprising tendency of occupational groups. *International Small Business Journal*, 9 (4), pp. 75–81.

- Caird, S. 2006. GET test 2. Available at: <http://get2test.net/> (Accessed: 17 May 2020).
- Caird, S. 2012. General enterprising tendency test GET2, Available at: <http://get2test.net/get2test.html> (Accessed: 1 January 2021).
- Caird, S. 2013. General measure of enterprising tendency test. *Management Education and Development*, 23 (1), pp. 6-17
- Cairns, D. 2017. *The mobility dream and its consequences*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Calder, B.J. 1977. Focus groups and the nature of qualitative marketing research. *Journal of Marketing research*, 14 (3), pp. 353–364.
- Calderon, G., Lacovone, L. and Juarez, L. 2017. Opportunity versus necessity: understanding the heterogeneity of female micro-entrepreneurs. *The World Bank Economic Review*, 30 (1), pp. 86–96.
- Cantillon, R. 1755. *An essay on commerce in general. History of economic thought books*. US: Mises Institute.
- Cantrell, M.A. 2011. Demystifying the research process: Understanding a descriptive comparative research design. *Paediatric Nursing*, 37 (4), pp. 188–190.
- Caputo, A. 2017. Social desirability bias in self-reported well-being measures: Evidence from an online survey. *Universitas Psychological*, 16 (2), pp. 245–255.
- Cardella, G.M., Hernández-Sánchez, B.R. and Sánchez García, J.C. 2020. Entrepreneurship and family role: a systematic review of a growing research. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, p. 2939.
- Cardon, M.S. 2009. The nature and experience of entrepreneurial passion. *Academy of Management Review*, 34 (3), pp. 511–532.
- Carland, J.W. 1985. Risk taking propensity among entrepreneurs, small business owners and managers. *Journal of Business and Entrepreneurship*, 7 (1), p. 15.
- Carland, J.W. 2007. *Differentiating entrepreneurs from small business owners: A conceptualization*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Carland, J.W., Hoy, F. and Carland, J.A.C. 1988. Who is an entrepreneur?" is a question worth asking. *American Journal of Small Business*, 12 (4), pp. 33–39.
- Carnap, K.V. 2022. *Beijing's watchful eye on all data flowing in and out of China*. Available at: <https://merics.org/en/short-analysis/beijings-watchful-eye-all-data-flowing-and-out-china> (Accessed: 17 October 2022).
- Castleberry, A. and Nolen, A. 2018. Thematic analysis of qualitative research data: Is it as easy as it sounds? *Currents in Pharmacy Teaching and Learning*, 10 (6), pp. 807–815.
- Casson, M. 1983. The discovery of opportunities: Extending the economic theory of the entrepreneur. *Small Business Economics*, 28 (4), pp.285-300.
- Casson, M., Yeung, B., and Basu, A. 2008. *The Oxford handbook of entrepreneurship*. London: Routledge.

Cebolla-Boado, H., Hu, Y. and Soysal, Y.N. 2018. Why study abroad? Sorting of Chinese students across British universities. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 39 (3), pp. 365–380.

CEE - China Education Expo. 2019. *Overseas Returnees to China Have Bright Prospects for Employment and Entrepreneurship-Center for China and Globalization*. Available at: <https://www.chinaeducationexpo.com/english/> (Accessed: 30 October 2019).

Cen, M.E.G. and Jun, Y. 2014. Traditional Chinese philosophies and their perspectives on moral education, in *Handbook of moral and character education*. Routledge, pp. 46–58.

CCG- Center for China and Globalization. 2019. Available at: <http://en.ccg.org.cn/> (Accessed: 28 October 2019).

Cera, G. 2020. The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention. A quasi-experimental research design. *Journal of Competitiveness*, 17 (1), pp. 46-64.

Chai, C. 2018. Cultural Product Design with the Doctrine of the Mean in Confucian Philosophy. *The Design Journal*, 21 (3), pp. 371–393.

Chand, M. and Ghorbani, M. 2011. National culture, networks and ethnic entrepreneurship: A comparison of the Indian and Chinese immigrants in the US. *International Business Review*, 20 (6), pp. 593–606.

Chandra, Y. and Mathur, K. 2019. Organization citizenship behaviour and work-life interface practices: exploring entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial mindset. *Vision*, 25 (3), pp. 361-372.

Chang, L. 2018. Route Construction of Innovation and Entrepreneurship Education Development in Universities of Western China against the Belt and Road Initiative, in *2018 2nd International Conference on Management, Education and Social Science ICMESS 2018*. Atlantis Press.

Chao, C. 2019. Chinese students motivations for studying in the United States. *Journal of International Students*, 7 (2), pp. 257–269.

Chaudhuri, K.R. 2006. International multicentre pilot study of the first comprehensive self-completed nonmotor symptoms questionnaire for Parkinsons disease. *Journal of The Movement Disorder Society*, 21 (7), pp. 916–923.

Chell, E., Haworth, J. M., and Brearley, S. 1991. *The entrepreneurial personality: Concepts, cases, and categories*. London: Routledge.

Chen, A. 2018. Urban unemployment and segmented labor markets, in *Urbanization and Social Welfare in China*. Routledge, pp. 141–166.

Chen, C. Hamilton, B. and Ramakrishnan, P. 2020. Gender and mentorship in entrepreneurship. *Academy of Management Review*, 25 (1), pp. 217-226.

Chen, L., Guo, W. and Liu, M. 2021. Childhood migration and work motivation in Adulthood: Evidence from China. *Journal of Business Research*, 13 (2), pp. 481–490.

Chen, S. and Macfarlane, B. 2015. Academic integrity in China. *Handbook of academic integrity*, pp. 1–6.

- Chen, Y. 2018. Research on Value and Development Strategy of Innovative Entrepreneurship Education in Colleges and Universities of China. *Transactions on Social Science, Education and Human Science*, 2 (1), pp. 82-98.
- Chen, Y.C. 2008. The limits of brain circulation: Chinese returnees and technological development in Beijing. *Pacific Affairs*, 8 (12), pp. 195–215.
- Cheng, C. 2019. *Behind the Tiananmen massacre: Social, political, and economic ferment in China*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Cheng, Z., Tani, M., and Wang, H. 2021. Energy poverty and entrepreneurship. *Energy Economics*, 10 (2), pp. 10-54.
- Cheung, R. 2005. Understanding the culture of Chinese children and families. *The Journal of School Nursing*, 2 (11), pp. 3–9.
- Child, D. 1990. *The essentials of factor analysis*. London, UK: Cassell Educational.
- CEAIE. 2019. China Education Association for International Exchange 2019. Available at: <http://en.ceaie.edu.cn/> (Accessed: 30 October 2019).
- CNBC. 2019. *China Q2 GDP: Beijing posts economic data amid trade war with US*. Available at: <https://www.cnbc.com/2019/07/15/china-economy-beijing-posts-q2-gdp-amid-trade-war-with-us.html> (Accessed: 25 October 2019).
- Child, D. 1990. *The essentials of factor analysis*. Cassell Educational.
- China Statistical Yearbook. 2018*. Available at: <http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjsj/ndsj/2018/indexeh.htm> (Accessed: 28 October 2019).
- China.org.cn. 2019. *China news, business, travel & language courses*. Available at: <http://www.china.org.cn/> (Accessed: 26 October 2019).
- China daily. 2019. *Chinese students studying abroad up 8.83% - Chinadaily.com.cn*. Available at: <http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/a/201903/28/WS5c9c355da3104842260b30eb.html> (Accessed: 30 October 2019).
- Ching-hwang, Y. 1998. Wing on and the Kwok brothers: A case study of pre-war overseas Chinese entrepreneurs. *Asian Department Stores*, ed. Kerrie L. MacPherson, pp. 47–65.
- Ching, H. Y., and Kitahara, J. R. 2017. Impact of the exposure to entrepreneurship education on students' entrepreneurial intentions: A case-based study of the higher education in Brazil. *Business and Management Studies*, 3 (4), pp. 85-93.
- Chirkov, V. 2007. The role of self-determined motivation and goals for study abroad in the adaptation of international students. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 3 (12), pp. 199–222.
- Chirkov, V. I., Safdar, S., de Guzman, D. J., and Playford, K. 2008. Further examining the role motivation to study abroad plays in the adaptation of international students in Canada. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 32 (5), pp. 427-440.
- Choudaha, R. 2017. Three waves of international student mobility 1999–2020. *Studies in Higher Education*, 4 (25), pp. 825–832.

- Chu, T. and Wen, Q. 2019. Does College Education Promote Entrepreneurship in China? *Journal of Labor Research*, pp. 1–24.
- Churchill, G.A., Brown, T.J. and Suter, T.A. 1996. Basic marketing research. *Journal Of Urban Economics*, 67 (1), pp. 1-14.
- Cinar, E.M., Du, Y. and Hienkel, T. 2018. Chinese entrepreneurship attributes: a comparative GEM data analysis. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 10 (2), pp. 217–248.
- Claire, L. 2012. Re-storying the entrepreneurial ideal: Lifestyle entrepreneurs as hero? *Journal for Critical Organization Inquiry*, 10 (12), pp. 365-379.
- Cockayne, D. and Cockayne, H. 2018. Chalk and Talk? Teaching Practice and Innovation in Transnational Education, in *Exporting Transnational Education*. Springer, pp. 151–175.
- Coelho, G.V. 1962. Personal growth and educational development through working and studying abroad. *Journal of Social Issues*, 17 (1), pp. 1-6.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. 2013. *Research methods in education*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Cole, A. H. 1959. The tempo of mercantile life in colonial America. *Business History Review*, 33 (3), pp. 277-299.
- Collins, C.J., Hanges, P.J. and Locke, E.A. 2004. The relationship of achievement motivation to entrepreneurial behavior: A meta-analysis. *Human Performance*, 17 (1), pp. 95–117.
- Connelly, L.M. 2016. Trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Measure Nursing*, 25 (6), pp. 435–437.
- Cook, N.R. and Ware, J.H. 1983. Design and analysis methods for longitudinal research. *Annual Review of Public Health*, 4 (1), pp. 1–23.
- Cope, D.G. 2014. Methods and meanings: credibility and trustworthiness of qualitative research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1 (13), pp. 456-480.
- Cox, E. 2009. Good research practices for comparative effectiveness research: approaches to mitigate bias and confounding in the design of nonrandomized studies of treatment effects using secondary data sources. *Value in Health*, 12 (8), pp. 1053–1061.
- Cramer, D. 2003. *Advanced quantitative data analysis*. UK: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Creswel, J.W. 2009. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach*. Los Angeles, US: University of Nebraska–Lincoln.
- Cromie, S. 2000. Assessing entrepreneurial inclinations: Some approaches and empirical evidence. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 9 (1), pp. 7–30.
- Cromie, S. and Callaghan, I. 1997. Assessing enterprising attributes—the usefulness of cairds general enterprising tendency GET test. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 4 (2), pp. 65–71.

- Cronbach, L.J. 1947. Test reliability: Its meaning and determination. *Psychometrika*, 12 (1), pp. 1–16.
- Crossan, F. 2003. Research philosophy: towards an understanding. *Nurse Researcher*, 11 (1), p. 46.
- Crowe, M., Inder, M. and Porter, R. 2015. Conducting qualitative research in mental health: Thematic and content analyses. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, 49 (7), pp. 616–623.
- Cruickshank, J. 2012. The role of qualitative interviews in discourse theory, critical approaches to discourse analysis across disciplines. *Small Business Economics*, 44 (2), pp. 219–230.
- Cubico, S. 2010. Describing the entrepreneurial profile: the entrepreneurial aptitude test TAI. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, 11 (4), pp. 424–435.
- Cui, J., Sun, J. and Bell, R. 2019. The impact of entrepreneurship education on the entrepreneurial mindset of college students in China: The mediating role of inspiration and the role of educational attributes. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 345 (6), pp. 868–887.
- Cutcliffe, J.R. and McKenna, H.P. 1999. Establishing the credibility of qualitative research findings: the plot thickens. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 30 (2), pp. 374–380.
- Dada, O., Watson, A. and Kirby, D. 2015. Entrepreneurial tendencies in franchising: evidence from the UK. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 22 (1), pp. 82–98.
- Dalborg, C., and Wincent, J. 2015. The idea is not enough: The role of self-efficacy in mediating the relationship between pull entrepreneurship and founder passion—a research note. *International Small Business Journal*, 33 (8), pp. 974–984.
- Darawsheh, W. and Stanley, M. 2014. Reflexivity in research: Promoting rigour, reliability and validity in qualitative research. *International Journal of Therapy and Rehabilitation*, 21 (12), pp. 560–568.
- Davey, T., Plewa, C. and Struwig, M. 2011. Entrepreneurship perceptions and career intentions of international students. *Education and Training*, 53 (5), pp. 335–352.
- Davids, J. 1963. Best practice in entrepreneurship education. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 14 (3), pp. 528–536.
- Davies, H. 2002. *Enterprise and the Economy in Education*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Davies, H. 2017. Chinese culture, guanxi and their consequences, in *Understanding a Changing China*. Routledge, pp. 52–68.
- Dawson, C. and Henley, A. 2012. Push versus pull entrepreneurship: an ambiguous distinction. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 18 (6), pp. 697–719.
- De Jong, J.P. 2015. Entrepreneurial behaviour in organizations: does job design matter? *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 39 (4), pp. 981–995.

- Del Greco, L., Walop, W. and Eastridge, L. 1987. Questionnaire development. *CMAJ: Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 136 (8), p. 817.
- Del Greco, L., Walop, W., and McCarthy, R. H. 1987. Questionnaire development: Validity and reliability. *Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 136 (7), p. 699.
- Demirci, A.E. 2013. In pursuit of corporate entrepreneurship: How employees perceive the role of formalization and centralization. *Journal of Management Research*, 5 (3), p. 115.
- Dennis Jr, W.J. and Fernald Jr, L.W. 2001. The chances of financial success and loss from small business ownership. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 26 (1), pp. 75–83.
- Devece, C., Peris-Ortiz, M., and Rueda-Armengot, C. 2016. Entrepreneurship during economic crisis: Success factors and paths to failure. *Journal of Business Research*, 69 (11), pp.5366-5370.
- Dewey, J. .1922 / 2007. *Human Nature and Conduct: An Introduction to Social Psychology*. NY, USA: Cosimo.
- Dewey, J. 1931 / 1982. *The Development of American Pragmatism*. In H. S. Thayer (Ed.). *Pragmatism, the Classic Writings*. Indianapolis, USA: Hackett.
- DRC. 2019. *Development Research Center of the State Council of the Peoples Republic of China*. Available at: <http://en.drc.gov.cn/> (Accessed: 28 October 2019).
- Dickson, B.J. 2003. *Red capitalists in China: The party, private entrepreneurs, and prospects for political change*. Cambridge University Press.
- Dikko, M. 2016. Establishing construct validity and reliability: pilot testing of a qualitative interview for research. *Qualitative Report*, 21 (3), p. 207.
- Dilley, P. 2004. Interviews and the philosophy of qualitative research. *International Journal of Educational Excellence*, 1 (2), pp. 101-110.
- Dimov, D. 2013. Nascent entrepreneurs and venture emergence: Opportunity confidence, human capital, and early planning. *Journal of Management Studies*, 47 (6), pp. 1123–1153.
- Ding, Y.Y. 2017. The constraints of innovation and entrepreneurship education for university students. *Journal of Interdisciplinary Mathematics*, 206 (7), pp. 1431–1434.
- Doepke, M. and Zilibotti, F. 2014. *Culture, entrepreneurship, and growth*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: Elsevier.
- Dollinger, M. 2008. *Entrepreneurship*. Norwood, Australia: Marsh Publications.
- Doney, P.M., Cannon, J.P. and Mullen, M.R. 1998. Understanding the influence of national culture on the development of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23 (3), pp. 601–620.
- Dou, X. 2019. Outcomes of entrepreneurship education in China: A customer experience management perspective. *Journal of Business Research*, 40 (1), p. 25.
- Douglas, E. J., and Shepherd, D. A. 2002. Self-employment as a career choice: Attitudes, entrepreneurial intentions, and utility maximization. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 26 (3), pp.81-90.

- Douglas, E.J. 2013. Reconstructing entrepreneurial intentions to identify predisposition for growth. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 28 (5), pp. 633–651.
- Douglas, E.J. 2020. *Entrepreneurial intention: past, present, and future research*. Camberley, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Dowling, R., Lloyd, K. and Suchet-Pearson, S. 2016. Qualitative methods: Enriching the interview. *Progress in Human Geography*, 40 (5), pp. 679–686.
- Drost, E.A. 2011. Validity and reliability in social science research, *Education Research and Perspectives*, 38 (1), p. 105.
- Drucker, P. 2014. *Innovation and entrepreneurship*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Du, K. 2018. Research on Innovation and Entrepreneurship Education of University Students in Zhejiang Province, in *4th International Conference on Arts, Design and Contemporary Education ICADCE 2018*. Atlantis Press. 19 (3), pp.321-332.
- Du, X., and Jackson, J. 2021. L2 self-discrepancy, motivation, and study abroad (SA) contexts: a case study of semester-long international exchange students. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 42 (3), pp. 207-220.
- Du, J. 2021. Chinese students' appetite for studying abroad remains strong, but changes emerge. Available at: <https://news.cgtn.com/news/2021-12-07/Changes-emerge-in-Chinese-students-appetite-for-studying-abroad-15NblAYZ2ml/index.html> (Accessed: 10 October 2022).
- Dunkelberg, W. C. and Cooper, A. C. 1982. Entrepreneurial research: Old questions, new answers and methodological issues. *American Journal of Small Business*, 11 (3), pp.11-24.
- Dwyer, M.M. 2004. More is better: The impact of study abroad program duration. *The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 10, pp. 151–163.
- Dwyer, M.M. and Peters, C.K. 2004. The benefits of study abroad. *Transitions Abroad*, 37 (5), pp. 56–58.
- Edwards, G. 1985. A later follow-up of a classic case series: DL Daviess 1962 report and its significance for the present. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 46 (3), pp.181-190.
- Eisinga, R., Te Grotenhuis, M. and Pelzer, B. 2013. The reliability of a two-item scale: Pearson, Cronbach, or spearman-brown? *International Journal of Public Health*, 58 (4), pp. 637–642.
- Ellis, T. J., and Levy, Y. 2010. A guide for novice researchers: Design and development research methods. In *Proceedings of Informing Science & IT Education Conference*. 10 (10), pp. 107-117.
- Elo, S. 2014. Qualitative content analysis: A focus on trustworthiness, *SAGE Open*, 4 (1), p. 21.
- Engberg, M.E., Jourian, T.J. and Davidson, L.M. 2016. The mediating role of intercultural wonderment: connecting programmatic components to global outcomes in study abroad. *Higher Education*, 7 (11), pp. 21–37.

- Entrialgo, M. and Iglesias, V. 2017. Are the intentions to entrepreneurship of men and women shaped differently? The impact of entrepreneurial role-model exposure and entrepreneurship education. *Entrepreneurship Research Journal*, 8 (1), p.10.
- Erogul, M.S. 2019. Constructing female entrepreneurial identity in Turkey. *Perspective of Womens Economic Empowerment*, 19 (5), p. 200.
- Ertuna, Z.I. and Gurel, E. 2011. The moderating role of higher education on entrepreneurship. *International Business Review*, 13 (1), pp. 19-41.
- Estrin, S. 2019. Entrepreneurship in Emerging Markets, in *The Oxford Handbook of Management in Emerging Markets*. Oxford University Press, p. 457.
- Etzkowitz, H. 2003. Innovation in innovation: The triple helix of university-industry-government relations. *Social Science Information*, 42 (3), pp. 293-337.
- Fachinger, U. and Frankus, A. 2017. Self-employed people and pension: is old age poverty the inevitable dark side of an entrepreneurial society? *Exploring the Entrepreneurial Society: Institutions, Behaviours and Outcomes*, p. 245.
- Fan, Y. 2000. A classification of Chinese culture. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 7 (2), pp. 3–10.
- Fang, L. 2018. *Chinese Buddhism and Traditional Culture*. Routledge.
- Fang, T. 2019. A tale of two strategies: economic growth strategy and talent management strategy in China, *Handbook on China and Globalization*, p. 393.
- Farashah, A.D. 2013. The process of impact of entrepreneurship education and training on entrepreneurship perception and intention: Study of educational system of Iran. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 11, pp. 21-31.
- Farashah, A. 2015. The effects of demographic, cognitive and institutional factors on development of entrepreneurial intention: Toward a socio-cognitive model of entrepreneurial career. *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, 13 (4), pp. 452-476.
- Faux, J. 2010. Pre-testing survey instruments. *Global Review of Accounting and Finance*, 11, pp. 100–111.
- Fayolle, A. 2005. Evaluation of entrepreneurship education: behaviour performing or intention increasing? *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, 2 (1), pp. 89–98.
- Fayolle, A. and Gailly, B. 2015. The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial attitudes and intention: Hysteresis and persistence. *Journal of small Business Management*, 53 (1), pp. 75–93.
- Fellnhofner, K. and Mueller, S. 2018. I want to be like you, The influence of role models on entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 260 (2), pp.113-153.
- Fendt, J. and Sachs, W. 2008. Grounded theory method in management research: Users perspectives. *Organizational Research Methods*, 11 (3), pp. 430–455.
- Feng, X., Johansson, A.C. and Zhang, T. 2015. Mixing business with politics: Political participation by entrepreneurs in China. *Journal of Banking & Finance*, 5 (9), pp. 220–235.

- Ferreira, A. da S.M., Loiola, E. and Gondim, S.M.G. 2017. Individual and contextual predators of entrepreneurial intention among university students: a literature review. *Cadernos*, 15 (2), pp. 292–308.
- Fielding, J. 2001. Coding and managing data. *Researching Social Life*, 2, pp. 227–251.
- Filieri, R. 2019. A cultural approach to brand equity: The role of brand mianzi and brand popularity in China. *Journal of Brand Management*, 26 (4), pp. 376–394.
- Findler, F. 2019. The impacts of higher education institutions on sustainable development: A review and conceptualization. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 20 (1), pp. 23–38.
- Fini, R. 2009. The foundation of entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 22 (3), pp. 251-282.
- Finlay, B. and Agresti, A. 1986. *Statistical methods for the social sciences*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Fletcher, C. 1992. Ethical issues in the selection interview. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 115 (6), pp. 361–367.
- Folta, T.B., Delmar, F. and Wennberg, K. 2010. Hybrid entrepreneurship. *Management Science*, 56 (2), pp. 253–269.
- Fong, R. 2007. *Language, power and identity politics*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Fong, V. 2020. Choosing the road less traveled: how and why Chinese citizens decide to study abroad. *Journal of Small Business and Entrepreneurship*, 32 (1), pp. 33-57.
- Fong, V.L. 2004. *Only hope: Coming of age under Chinas one-child policy*. California, United States: Stanford University Press.
- Fowler Jr, F.J. 2013. *Survey research methods*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Frels, R.K. and Onwuegbuzie, A.J. 2013. Administering quantitative instruments with qualitative interviews: A mixed research approach. *Journal of Counselling and Development*, 9 (12), pp. 184–194.
- Fu, X., Cai, L. and Lehto, X. 2015. A Confucian analysis of Chinese tourists motivations. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 32 (3), pp. 180–198.
- Fu, Y. 2019. College Students Entrepreneurship and Innovation and Entrepreneurship Education under the Background of Economic Development Mode Transformation, in *2018 8th International Conference on Education and Management ICEM 2018*. Atlantis Press.
- Fuller, D.B. 2019. Technology Transfer in China. *Technology*, 2 (6), p. 4.
- Galindo, M.Á. and Méndez-Picazo, M.T. 2013. Innovation, entrepreneurship and economic growth. *Regional Studies*, 48 (6), pp. 995-1015.
- Gao, L. 2017. The Current Situation and Enlightenment of Social Entrepreneurship Education Research in China. *Science*, 5 (5), pp. 313–317.

- Gartner, W.B. 1985. A conceptual framework for describing the phenomenon of new venture creation. *Academy of Management Review*, 10 (4), pp. 696–706.
- Gartner, W.B. 1989. Some suggestions for research on entrepreneurial traits and characteristics. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, 14 (1), pp. 27–38.
- Gartner, W.B. and Carter, N.M. 2003. *Handbook of entrepreneurship research*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Gasse, Y. 1972. 'Entrepreneurial beliefs and intentions: a cross-cultural study of university students in seven countries. *International Journal of Business*, 16 (4), p. 303.
- Ge, Y. 2011. Study of the Overseas Educational Missions in the Self-Strengthening Movement. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 9 (3), p. 77.
- GEM Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. 2018. *The 2017/18 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor GEM* Available at: <https://www.gemconsortium.org/report/gem-2017-2018-global-report> (Accessed: 28 October 2019).
- GEM Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. 2019. *China Overview: Development news, research, data*. Available at: <https://www.gemconsortium.org/economy-profiles/china> (Accessed: 24 October 2019).
- Genus, A., Iskandarova, M. and Warburton Brown, C. 2021. Institutional entrepreneurship and permaculture: A practice theory perspective. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 30 (3), pp. 1454–1467.
- George, G. and Zahra, S.A. 2002. Culture and its consequences for entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 26 (4), pp. 5–8.
- Georgescu, M.A. and Herman, E. 2020. The impact of the family background on students entrepreneurial intentions: an empirical analysis. *Sustainability*, 12 (11), p. 4775.
- Gerke, S. and Menkhoff, T. 2003. *Chinese entrepreneurship and Asian business networks*. Routledge.
- Ghulam, N. 2017. The impact of entrepreneurship education in higher education: a systematic review and research agenda. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 16 (2), 277-299.
- Gibb, A. A. 2002. In pursuit of a new enterprise and entrepreneurship paradigm for learning: creative destruction, new values, new ways of doing things and new combinations of knowledge. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 4 (3), pp. 233-269.
- Golafshani, N. 2003. Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8 (4), pp. 597–607.
- Goldstein, S.B. 2013. Culture shock. *The Encyclopaedia of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 10 (2), pp. 350–353.
- Gong, Y. 2020. Cultural adaptation challenges and strategies during study abroad: New Zealand students in China. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 1 (3), pp. 1–21.

- González-Pernía, J.L., Jung, A. and Peña, I. 2015. Innovation-driven entrepreneurship in developing economies. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 279 (10), pp. 555–573.
- Goodman, R., Meltzer, H. and Bailey, V. 1998. The strengths and difficulties questionnaire: A pilot study on the validity of the self-report version. *European Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 7 (3), pp. 125–130.
- Graue, C. 2015. Qualitative data analysis. *International Journal of Sales, Retailing & Marketing*, 4 (9), pp. 5-14.
- Grbich, C. 2012. *Qualitative data analysis: An introduction*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Green, B.F. 2008. Studying abroad: A multiple case study of nursing students international experiences. *Nurse Education Today*, 28 (8), pp. 981–992.
- Greenfield, P.M. 2016. Social change, cultural evolution, and human development. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 8, pp. 84–92.
- Greischel, H., Noack, P. and Neyer, F.J. 2018. How international mobility challenges identity development in adolescence. *Developmental Psychology*, 54 (11), pp. 21-52.
- Griner, D. and Smith, T.B. 2006. Culturally adapted mental health intervention: A meta-analytic review. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, Practice, Training*, 43 (4), p. 531.
- Gruenhagen, J.H. and Davidsson, P. 2018. Returnee entrepreneurs: do they all boost emerging economies? *International Review of Entrepreneurship*, 16 (4).p.3.
- Gu, J., Li, X. and Wang, L. 2018. *Higher education in China*. Springer.
- Gu, Q. and Schweisfurth, M. 2015. Transnational connections, competences and identities: Experiences of Chinese international students after their return “home”. *British Educational Research Journal*, 4 (16), pp. 947–970.
- Guerrero, M., Liñán, F. and Cáceres-Carrasco, F.R. 2020. The influence of ecosystems on the entrepreneurship process: a comparison across developed and developing economies. *Small Business Economics*, 10 (7), pp. 1–27.
- Guest, Gregory, MacQueen, K.M. and Namey, E.E. 2012. Introduction to applied thematic analysis. *Applied Thematic Analysis*, 3, p. 20.
- Guest, Greg, MacQueen, K.M. and Namey, E.E. 2012. Validity and reliability credibility and dependability in qualitative research and data analysis. *Applied Thematic Analysis*, pp. 79–106.
- Guillemin, M. and Gillam, L. 2004. Ethics, reflexivity, and “ethically important moments” in research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 10 (2) , pp. 261–280.
- Gungwu, W. 2007. Liuxue and Yimin: from study to migranhood. *Beyond Chinatown: New Chinese migration and the global expansion of China*, 4 (1), p. 165.
- Guo, Q., He, C. and Li, D. 2016. Entrepreneurship in China: The role of localisation and urbanisation economies. *Urban Studies*, 53 (12), pp. 2584–2606.
- Guo, S. 2022. Reimagining Chinese diasporas in a transnational world: toward a new research agenda. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 48 (4), pp. 847-872.

- Guo, Y., Guo, S., Yochim, L., and Liu, X. 2022. Internationalization of Chinese higher education: Is it westernization? *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 26 (4), pp. 436-453.
- Gurof, Y., Atsan, N. 2012. Strategic human resource management and firm performance: The mediating role of entrepreneurial orientation. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 23 (5), pp.372-381.
- Ha, L.M. 2017. General enterprising tendency GET and recommendations to boost entrepreneurship education in Sarawak. *Entrepreneurship: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools, and Applications*, pp. 448–465.
- Haggstrom, G.W. 1983. Logistic regression and discriminant analysis by ordinary least squares. *Journal of Business and Economic Statistics*, 1 (3), pp. 229–238.
- Haisley, P. 2021. Why study abroad: Differences in motivation between US and international students. *Journal of Global Education and Research*, 5 (2), pp. 185–201.
- Hammarberg, K., Kirkman, M. and de Lacey, S. 2016. Qualitative research methods: when to use them and how to judge them. *Human Reproduction*, 31 (3), pp. 498–501.
- Hammersley, M. 1993. *Social research: philosophy, politics and practice*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Hansen, C. 2000. *A Daoist theory of Chinese thought: A philosophical interpretation*. Oxford University Press on Demand.
- Hao, J., Wen, W. and Welch, A. 2016. When sojourners return: Employment opportunities and challenges facing high-skilled Chinese returnees. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 25 (1), pp. 22–40.
- Harkness, J., Pennell, B.E. and Schoua-Glusberg, A. 2004. Survey questionnaire translation and assessment. *Methodsg and Evaluating*, 54 (6), pp. 453–473.
- Harper Adams University. 2019. *Full university title and beyond*. Available at: <https://www.harper-adams.ac.uk/> (Accessed: 6 November 2019).
- Hart, M. 2020. Global Entrepreneurship Monitor: United Kingdom 2019. Monitoring Report.
- Hartley, J., Holt, J., and Swain, F. 1970. The effects of pre-tests, interim tests, and age on post-test performance following self-instruction. *Programmed Learning and Educational Technology*, 7 (4), pp. 250-256.
- Hartman, L. 1959. Positive ethical deviance inspired by moral imagination. *The Entrepreneur as Deviant*, 6 (3), pp. 343-358.
- Hassan, A. 2021. Individual entrepreneurial orientation, entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention: The mediating role of entrepreneurial motivations. *Industry and Higher Education*, 9 (22), p. 51.
- Hassan, Z.A., Schattner, P. and Mazza, D. 2006. Doing a pilot study: why is it essential? *Journal of the Academy of Family Physicians of Malaysia*, 12 (3), p. 70.
- Hatak, I., Harms, R., and Fink, M. 2015. Age, job identification, and entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28 (1), pp. 10-25.

- Hayhoe, R. 2016. *Chinas universities and the open door*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Hayton, J.C., George, G. and Zahra, S.A. 2002. National culture and entrepreneurship: A review of behavioural research. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 26 (4), pp. 33–52.
- Hazelkorn, E., Coates, H. and McCormick, A.C. 2018. *Research handbook on quality, performance and accountability in higher education*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- He, C., Lu, J., and Qian, H. 2019. Entrepreneurship in China. *Small Business Economics*, 52 (3), pp. 563-572.
- He, L. 2016. Transnational higher education institutions in China: A comparison of policy orientation and reality. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 20 (1), pp. 79–95.
- Heale, R. and Twycross, A. 2015. Validity and reliability in quantitative studies. *Evidence-based Nursing*, 18 (3), pp. 66–67.
- Healey, N. and Michael, L. 2015. Towards a new framework for analysing transnational education. *Higher Education Policy*, 28 (3), pp. 369–391.
- Heffernan, T., Wilkins, S. and Butt, M.M. 2018. Transnational higher education: The importance of institutional reputation, trust and student-university identification in international partnerships. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 3 (22), pp. 227–240.
- Hemmert, M. 2019. The distinctiveness and diversity of entrepreneurial ecosystems in China, Japan, and South Korea: an exploratory analysis. *Asian Business & Management*, pp. 1–37.
- Henley, A. 2007. Entrepreneurial aspiration and transition into self-employment: evidence from British longitudinal data. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 19 (3), pp. 253–280.
- Herdjiono, I. 2017. The factors affecting entrepreneurship intention. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Knowledge*, 5 (2), pp. 5–15.
- Herdjiono, M.V.I. 2018. Risk and Loss Averse How Entrepreneurial Intention Occur. *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal*, 24 (3), pp. 1–10.
- Hernández, T.A. 2010. The relationship among motivation, interaction, and the development of second language oral proficiency in a study-abroad context. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94 (4), pp. 600–617.
- Herrmann-Pillath, C., Feng, X. and Guo, M. 2019. Entrepreneurs and ritual in Chinas economic culture. *Journal of Institutional Economics*, pp. 1–15.
- Hilal, A.H. and Alabri, S.S. 2013. Using NVivo for data analysis in qualitative research. *International Interdisciplinary Journal of Education*, 2 (2), pp. 181–186.
- Hildum, D.C. and Brown, R.W. 1956. Verbal reinforcement and interviewer bias. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 53 (1), p. 108.
- Hoe, C.H. 2012. Development of women entrepreneurs: The case of Malaysia. *World*, 2 (6), pp. 124–145.

- Hofstede, G. 1998. Attitudes, values and organizational culture: Disentangling the concepts. *Organization Studies*, 19 (3), pp. 477–493.
- Hofstede, G. 2003. What is culture? A reply to Baskerville. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 287 (8), pp. 811–813.
- Hofstede, G. and Bond, M.H. 1988. The Confucius connection: From cultural roots to economic growth. *Organizational dynamics*, 16 (4), pp. 5–21.
- Hofstede, G. 2020. Compare countries - Hofstede Insights. Available at: <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/fi/product/compare-countries/> (Accessed: 14 January 2022).
- Holden, M.T. and Lynch, P. 2004. Choosing the appropriate methodology: Understanding research philosophy. *The Marketing Review*, 4 (4), pp. 397–409.
- Holden, R.R. 2010. Face validity. *The corsini encyclopedia of psychology*, pp. 1–2.
- Holienka, M. and Holienkova, J. 2014. Enterprising tendencies of management and psychology students: differences and common attributes. *Comenius Management Review*, 8 (1), pp. 39–52.
- Hollingsworth, A. T., and Hand, H. H. 1979. Educational guidelines for successful black, white, and Cuban entrepreneurs. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 14 (2), p.31.
- Holton, E.F. and Burnett, M.F. 2005. The basics of quantitative research. *Research In Organizations: Foundations And Methods Of Inquiry*, 10 (6), pp. 29–44.
- Hopf, C. 2004. Qualitative interviews: An overview. *A Companion To Qualitative Research*, 20 (38), p. 9.
- Hörisch, J., Kollat, J. and Brieger, S.A. 2019. Environmental orientation among nascent and established entrepreneurs: An empirical analysis of differences and their causes. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Venturing*, 11 (4), pp. 373–393.
- Hornaday, J.A. and Bunker, C.S. 1970. The nature of the entrepreneur. *Personnel psychology*, 23 (1), pp. 47–54.
- Hornaday, J. A., and Aboud, J. 1971. *Characteristics of successful entrepreneurs. Personnel Psychology*, 1 (1), pp. 413-438.
- Houghton, C. 2013. Rigour in qualitative case-study research. *Nurse Researcher*, 20 (4), p.3.
- Howorth, C., Tempest, S. and Coupland, C. 2005. Rethinking entrepreneurship methodology and definitions of the entrepreneur. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 9 (7), p.5.
- Hsieh, P.H. 2008. Why are college foreign language students self-efficacy, attitude, and motivation so different? *International Education*, 38 (1), p. 11.
- Hu, M., Eisenclas, S.A. and Trevaskes, S. 2019. Factors affecting the quality of transnational higher education in China: a qualitative content analysis on Chinese host universities self-appraisal reports. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 4 (13), pp. 306–321.

- Hu, M. and Willis, L.D. 2017. Towards a common transnational education framework: Peculiarities in China matter. *Higher Education Policy*, 30 (2), pp. 245–261.
- Hu, Q. 2018. Individualism-collectivism orientations and coping styles of cyberbullying victims in Chinese culture. *Current Psychology*, 37 (1), pp. 65–72.
- Hua, S. and Nathan, A.J. 2016. *Chinese political culture*. Routledge.
- Huang, F. 2003. Policy and practice of the internationalization of higher education in China. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 7 (3), pp. 225–240.
- Huang, G.H.C. and Gove, M. 2015. Confucianism, Chinese families, and academic achievement: Exploring how Confucianism and Asian descendant parenting practices influence childrens academic achievement, in *Science Education in East Asia*. Springer, pp. 41–66.
- Huang, Q., Liu, X. and Li, J. 2016. *Entrepreneurship in China*. Taylor & Francis.
- Huang, Q., Liu, X. and Li, J. 2019. Contextualization of Chinese entrepreneurship research: an overview and some future research directions. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, pp. 1–17.
- Huang, W., Ma, G. and Chen, X. 2019. Does the Level of Environmental Uncertainty Matter in the Effect of Returnee CEO on Innovation? Evidence from Panel Threshold Analysis, *Sustainability*, 11 (9), p. 2645.
- Huang-Saad, A., Bodnar, C. and Carberry, A. 2020. *Examining current practice in engineering entrepreneurship education*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Huber, G.P. 1995. *Longitudinal field research methods: Studying processes of organizational change*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Hughes, K.D. 2003. Pushed or pulled? Womens entry into self-employment and small business ownership. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 10 (4), pp. 433–454.
- Hung, N.T. and Yen, K.L. 2020. The role of motivation and career planning in students decision-making process for studying abroad: A mixed-methods study. *Argentine Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 29 (4), pp. 252–265.
- Hutteman, R. 2014. Developmental tasks as a framework to study personality development in adulthood and old age. *European Journal of Personality*, 28 (3), pp. 267–278.
- Ibrahim, N. and Masud, A. 2016. Moderating role of entrepreneurial orientation on the relationship between entrepreneurial skills, environmental factors and entrepreneurial intention: A PLS approach. *Management Science Letters*, 6 (3), pp. 225–236.
- Ibrahim, A. B., Soufani, K. 2005. A study of succession in a family firm. *Family Business Review*, 14 (3), pp. 245-258.
- IC BUA. 2019. International College of BUA. Available at: <https://en.bua.edu.cn/> (Accessed: 6 November 2019).
- Ishiguro, J. 2015. What influences entrepreneurial career choice? An exploratory analysis of the Sally Cairds GET2 for Japanese high school students. *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal*, 2 (11), p. 44.

- Jabareen, Y. 2009. Building a conceptual framework: philosophy, definitions, and procedure. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8 (4), pp. 49–62.
- James, W. 1904 / 2007. What is Pragmatism: A New Name for Some Old Ways of Thinking. Minnesota, USA: Filiquarian Publishing, LLC.
- Jana, L.P. 2020. Approaches to Entrepreneurship Development: A Literature Survey. *Entrepreneurship Review*, 1 (1), pp. 22–48.
- Javalgi, R.G. 2018. Identifying Motivational Factors Impacting Entrepreneurship: Evidence from an Emerging Economy. *KnE Social Sciences*, pp. 138-144.
- Jayapriya, R., Malarkodi, M. and Anjugam, M. 2019. Entrepreneurial tendency of handloom weavers in the western zone of Tamil Nadu using general enterprising tendency GET test. *International Journal of Farm Sciences*, 9 (3), pp. 77–80.
- Jena, R.K. 2020. Measuring the impact of business management Students attitude towards entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention: A case study. *Computers in Human Behaviour*, 10 (7), p. 10.
- Jensen, K.W. 2016. Chinese entrepreneur's human and social capital benefiting innovation: in China and in the Chinese diaspora. *International Journal of Business and Globalisation*, 16 (3), pp. 350–377.
- Jiang, J. and Shen, W. 2019. International Mentorship and Research Collaboration: Evidence from European-Trained Chinese PhD Returnees. *Frontiers of Education in China*, 14 (2), pp. 180–205.
- Jin, L. and Cortazzi, M. 2006. Changing practices in Chinese cultures of learning. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 19 (1), pp. 5–20.
- Jin, L.J. and Piskunova, L.P. 2021. Regional differences in mainland China after the 1970s economic reform. *Economy*, 7 (1), pp. 28–41.
- Joffe, H. 2012. Thematic analysis. *Qualitative Research Methods in Mental Health and Psychotherapy*, 1, pp.6-9.
- Johnes, J. and Li, Y.U. 2008. Measuring the research performance of Chinese higher education institutions using data envelopment analysis. *China Economic Review*, 19 (4), pp. 679–696.
- Johnson, M.L. 2009. Good research practices for comparative effectiveness research. *Value in Health*, 12 (8), pp. 1062–1073.
- Johnson, R.B. and Onwuegbuzie, A.J. 2004. Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33 (7), pp. 14–26.
- Johnson, R.B., Onwuegbuzie, A.J. and Turner, L.A. 2007. Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1 (2), pp. 112–133.
- Jones, M.K. and Zhang, Y. 2021. Pathway choices by Chinese students on business master's degrees. *Journal of Education for Business*, 96 (4), pp. 203–209.
- Jordan, P.J. and Troth, A.C. 2020. Common method bias in applied settings: The dilemma of researching in organizations. *Australian Journal of Management*, 45 (1), pp. 3–14.

- Kallas, E. 2019. Environment-readiness entrepreneurship intention model: The case of Estonians and the Russian-speaking minority in Estonia. *SAGE Open*, 9 (1), p. 59.
- Kang, O. 2004. Higher education reform in China today. *Policy Futures in Education*, 2 (1), pp. 141–149.
- Karadağ, H. 2016. The role of SMEs and entrepreneurship on economic growth in emerging economies within the post-crisis era: An analysis from Turkey. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 3 (12), pp. 287-301.
- Kazi, A.M. and Khalid, W. 2012. Questionnaire designing and validation. *Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association*, 62 (5), p. 514.
- Keevers, L.M. 2019. Practices to improve collaboration by reconfiguring boundaries in transnational education. *Journal of University Teaching & Learning Practice*, 16 (2), p. 11.
- Kemparaj, U. and Chavan, S. 2013. Qualitative research: a brief description. *Indian Journal of Medical Sciences*, 7 (2), p.67.
- Kerr, S.P., Kerr, W.R. and Xu, T. 2018. Personality traits of entrepreneurs: a review of recent literature. *Foundations and Trends in Entrepreneurship*, 14 (3), pp. 279–356.
- Keynes, J. M. 1936. *The collected writings of John Maynard Keynes*, London: Macmillan.
- Khuong, M.N. and An, N.H. 2016. The factors affecting entrepreneurial intention of the students at Vietnam national university—a mediation analysis of perception toward entrepreneurship. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management*, 4 (2), pp. 104–111.
- Killam, L. 2013. *Research terminology simplified: Paradigms, axiology, ontology, epistemology and methodology*. New York, United States: Ovid Technologies.
- Kim, J.J., Zhao, H. and Lin, S. 2019. Entrepreneurship and Innovation Trends in China. *American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy*, 65 (23), pp. 2276–2284.
- Kimmel, A.J. 1996. *Ethical issues in behavioural research: A survey*. New Jersey, United States: Blackwell Publishing.
- King, N. 2004. Using interviews in qualitative research. *Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research*, 2 (5), pp. 11–22.
- King, N., Horrocks, C. and Brooks, J. 2018. *Interviews in qualitative research*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Kirby, D.A. and Ibrahim, N. 2011. Entrepreneurship education and the creation of an enterprise culture: Provisional results from an experiment in Egypt. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 7 (2), pp. 181–193.
- Kirchhoff, B. 1994. Entrepreneurs' opportunities in technology-based markets. *Technological Entrepreneurship*, pp. 17-30.
- Kirzner, I. M. 1973. Creativity and/or alertness: A reconsideration of the Schumpeterian entrepreneur. *The review of Austrian economics*, 11 (1), pp. 5-17.
- Kitzinger, J. 1995. Qualitative research: introducing focus groups. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 31 (17), pp. 299–302.

- Klamer, A. 2011. Cultural entrepreneurship. *The Review of Austrian Economics*, 24 (2), pp. 141–156.
- Kline, P. 2014. *An easy guide to factor analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Knight Frank, H. 1921. *Risk, uncertainty and profit*. US: Signalman Publishing.
- Knight, J. 2016. Transnational education remodeled: Toward a common TNE framework and definitions. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 20 (1), pp. 34–47.
- Knobe, J. and Nichols, S. 2013. *Experimental philosophy*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Ko, S. and Butler, J.E. 2007. Creativity: A key link to entrepreneurial behaviour. *Business Horizons*, 50 (5), pp. 365–372.
- Kobayashi, D. 2013. A prediction rule for the development of delirium among patients in medical wards: Chi-Square Automatic Interaction Detector CHAID decision tree analysis model. *The American Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry*, 21 (10), pp. 957–962.
- Kock, N. 2015. Common method bias in PLS-SEM: A full collinearity assessment approach. *International Journal of E-Collaboration*, 11 (4), pp. 1–10.
- Koe, W. L. 2016. The relationship between Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation IEO and entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research*, 6 (1), pp. 1-11.
- Koh, K. Y. 1996. The tourism entrepreneur: The overlooked player in tourism development studies. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 3 (1), pp.21-48.
- Kosmützky, A. and Putty, R. 2016. Transcending borders and traversing boundaries: A systematic review of the literature on transnational, offshore, cross-border, and borderless higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 20 (1), pp. 8–33.
- Kotulski, Z. and Sobczyk, K. 1981. Linear systems and normality. *Journal of Statistical Physics*, 24 (2), pp. 359–373.
- Kozubikova, L. 2019. The impact of political factors perception on suitability of international business environment: the case of start-ups. *International Small Business Journal*, 33 (6), pp. 599-611.
- Krefting, L. 1991. Rigor in qualitative research: The assessment of trustworthiness. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 45 (3), pp. 214–222.
- Kreiser, P.M. 2015. National culture and entrepreneurial orientation. *Wiley Encyclopaedia of Management*, 7 (2), pp. 1–4.
- Krosnick, J.A. 1999. Survey research. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50 (1), pp. 537–567.
- Krueger Jr, N.F. and Brazeal, D.V. 1994. Entrepreneurial potential and potential entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18 (3), pp. 91–104.
- Kshetri, N. 2007. Institutional changes affecting entrepreneurship in China. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, 120 (4), pp. 415–432.

- Kumar, M. 2007. Explaining entrepreneurial success: a conceptual model. *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal*, 13 (1), p. 8.
- Kuper, A., Lingard, L. and Levinson, W. 2008. Critically appraising qualitative research. *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*, 3 (37), p. 35.
- Kuratko, D.F. 2016. *Entrepreneurship: Theory, process, and practice*. Oxfordshire, England, UK: Routledge.
- La Fargue, T.E. 1987. *Chinas First Hundred: Educational Mission Students in the United States, 1872-1881*. Pullman, Wash: Washington State University Press.
- Lackéus, M. (2020). Comparing the impact of three different experiential approaches to entrepreneurship in education. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior and Research*, 26 (5), pp. 937-971.
- Lafortune, J., Riutort, J. and Tessada, J. 2018. Role models or individual consulting: The impact of personalizing micro-entrepreneurship training. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 10 (4), pp. 222–45.
- Lalkaka, R. 2001. Best practices in business incubation: Lessons (yet to be) learned. In International Conference on Business Centers: Actors for Economic & Social Development. Brussels, 11, pp. 14-15.
- Lai, H.Y.T. 2013. The motivation of learners of English as a foreign language revisited. *International Education Studies*, 6 (10), pp. 90–101.
- Lai, Y., and Vonortas, N. S. 2020. Returnee academic entrepreneurship in China. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 22 (1), pp. 8-23.
- Lam, D., Paltiel, J.T. and Shannon, J.H. 1994. The Confucian Entrepreneur? Chinese Culture, Industrial Organization, and Intellectual Property Piracy in Taiwan. *Asian Affairs: An American Review*, 20 (4), pp. 205–217.
- Lambert, M.J. 1996. The reliability and validity of the outcome questionnaire. *Journal of Theory and Practice*, 3 (4), pp. 249–258.
- Lanero, A., Vázquez, J.L. and Aza, C.L. 2016. Social cognitive determinants of entrepreneurial career choice in university students. *International Small Business Journal*, 34 (8), pp. 1053–1075.
- Langowitz, N. and Minniti, M. 2007. The entrepreneurial propensity of women. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 3 (13), pp. 341–364.
- Larson, R.B. 2019. Controlling social desirability bias. *International Journal of Market Research*, 6 (15), pp. 534–547.
- Laskovaia, A., Shirokova, G. and Morris, M.H. 2017. National culture, effectuation, and new venture performance: global evidence from student entrepreneurs. *Small Business Economics*, 49 (3), pp. 687–709.
- Lau, C.M. and Busenitz, L.W. 2001. Growth intentions of entrepreneurs in a transitional economy: The Peoples Republic of China. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 26 (1), pp. 5–20.

- Lawshe, C.H. 1975. A quantitative approach to content validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 28 (4), pp. 563–575.
- Lawson, A. E. 2005. What is the role of induction and deduction in reasoning and scientific inquiry? *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 42 (6), pp. 716-740.
- Lechner, M. 2011. *The estimation of causal effects by difference-in-differences methods*. Oxfordshire, England, UK: Routledge.
- Lee, D.Y. and Tsang, E.W. 2001. The effects of entrepreneurial personality, background and network activities on venture growth. *Journal of Management Studies*, 38 (4), pp. 583–602.
- Lee, S.M. and Peterson, S.J. 2000. Culture, entrepreneurial orientation, and global competitiveness. *Journal of World Business*, 35 (4), pp. 401–416.
- Leibenstein, H. 1978. On the basic proposition of X-efficiency theory. *The American Economic Review*, 68 (2), pp. 328-332.
- Leithwood, K. and Mascall, B. 2008. Collective leadership effects on student achievement. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 4 (44), pp. 529–561.
- Leonard-Barton, D. 1995. *A dual methodology for case studies*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Leong, C.H. 2007. Predictive validity of the multicultural personality questionnaire: a longitudinal study on the socio-psychological adaptation of Asian undergraduates who took part in a study-abroad program. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 3 (15), pp. 545–559.
- Lesjak, M. 2015. Erasmus student motivation: Why and where to go? *Higher Education*, 70 (5), pp. 845–865.
- Lévesque, M. and Minniti, M. 2011. Age matters: How demographics influence aggregate entrepreneurship. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 5 (3), pp. 269–284.
- Li, C. and Chen, J. 2013. Banzhuren and classrooming: Democracy in the Chinese classroom. *International Journal of Progressive Education*, 9 (3), pp. 91-106.
- Li, F., Ding, J. and Shen, W. 2018. Back on track: Factors influencing Chinese returnee scholar performance in the reintegration process. *Science and Public Policy*, 46 (2), pp. 184–197.
- Li, L., Su, F., Zhang, W., and Mao, J. Y. 2018. Digital transformation by SME entrepreneurs: A capability perspective. *Information Systems Journal*, 28 (6), pp. 1129-1157.
- Li, J., Zhang, Y., and Matlay, H. 2003. Entrepreneurship education in China. *Education+ Training*, 45 (8/9), pp. 495-505.
- Li, J. 2019. Global Trend in Higher Education System: In the Context of China, in *Global Higher Education Shared Communities*. Springer, pp. 23–38.
- Li, J. and Matlay, H. 2006. Chinese entrepreneurship and small business development: an overview and research agenda. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 13 (2), pp. 248–262.

- Li, M., He, L. and Zhao, Y. 2019. The triple helix system and regional entrepreneurship in China. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, pp. 1–23.
- Li, W. and Li, C. 2015. Entrepreneurship Education in China. *Entrepreneurship Education and Training*, p. 27.
- Li, X. 2019. Research on the Integration of Entrepreneurship Education and Professional Education in Universities, in *4th International Conference on Contemporary Education, Social Sciences and Humanities ICCSSH 2019*. Atlantis Press.
- Liamputtong, P. 2009. Qualitative data analysis: conceptual and practical considerations. *Health Promotion Journal of Australia*, 20 (2), pp. 133–139.
- Lietz, P. 2010. Research into questionnaire design. *International Journal of Market Research*, 52 (2), pp. 249–272.
- Lin, C. 2019. The Effects of Entrepreneurship Education on Entrepreneurial Intention Among University Students in China, in *Dynamic Perspectives on Globalization and Sustainable Business in Asia*. IGI Global, pp. 328–346.
- Lin, D. 2015. Balancing formality and informality in business exchanges as a duality: A comparative case study of returnee and local entrepreneurs in China. *Management and Organization Review*, 11 (2), pp. 315–342.
- Lin, D. 2016. International knowledge brokerage and returnees entrepreneurial decisions. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 47 (3), pp. 295–318.
- Lin, J. and Plechero, M. 2019. Global innovation networks for Chinese high-tech small and medium enterprises: the supportive role of highly skilled migrants and returnees. *International Journal of Technological Learning, Innovation and Development*, 11 (2), pp. 140–154.
- Lin, P.L. 2019. Trends of Internationalization in Chinas Higher Education: Opportunities and Challenges. *US-China Education Review*, 9 (1), pp. 1–12.
- Lin, Q. 2018. Research on Entrepreneurship Education of College Students Based on Electronic Commerce, in *2018 International Conference on Social Science and Education Reform ICSSER 2018*. Atlantis Press.
- Lin, S. 2019. Regional determinants of poverty alleviation through entrepreneurship in China. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, pp. 1–22.
- Lin, S. and Xu, Z. 2017. The factors that influence the development of entrepreneurship education: Based on the case of china. *Management Decision*, 55 (7), pp. 1351–1370.
- Lin, Y.H., Chen, C.J. and Lin, B.W. 2018. The dual-edged role of returnee board members in new venture performance. *Journal of Business Research*, 90, pp. 347–358.
- Liñán, F. 2005. Development and validation of an entrepreneurial intention questionnaire EIQ. *Small Business Economics*, 56 (2), pp. 533–552.
- Liñán, F. and Santos, F.J. 2007. Does social capital affect entrepreneurial intentions? *International Advances in Economic Research*, 13 (4), pp. 443–453.

- Liñán, F., and Fayolle, A. 2015. A systematic literature review on entrepreneurial intentions: citation, thematic analyses, and research agenda. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 1 (14), pp.907-933.
- Lipset, S.M. 2018. *Promise of development*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Little, T.D., Deboeck, P. and Wu, W. 2015. Longitudinal data analysis. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*, 6, pp. 79-107.
- Littunen, H. 2000. Entrepreneurship and the characteristics of the entrepreneurial personality. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 6 (6), pp. 295–310.
- Litwin, M.S. 1995. *How to measure survey reliability and validity*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Liu, B. and Su, Y. 2016. National Access Policies for Higher Education in China: Creating Equal Opportunities in Education. *Access to Higher Education: Understanding Global Inequalities*, p. 121.
- Liu, D. 2021. Motivation factors in student decisions to study Transnational Higher Education in China: a comparative study of two Anglo-Sino programmes. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, pp. 1–21.
- Liu, J. 2012. Overseas Ambitions. *The World of Chinese*, 2 (5), pp. 42–49.
- Liu, Y. 2009. Philosophies underlying the Western and Chinese traditional cultures. *Asian Culture and History*, 1 (2), p. 158.
- Liu, Y. 2019. Contextualising Risk and Building Resilience: Returnees Versus Local Entrepreneurs in China. *Applied Psychology*.
- Liu, Y. and Almor, T. 2016. How culture influences the way entrepreneurs deal with uncertainty in inter-organizational relationships: The case of returnee versus local entrepreneurs in China. *International Business Review*, 2 (51), pp. 4–14.
- Liu, Y. and Huang, Q. 2018. University capability as a micro-foundation for the Triple Helix model: The case of China. *Technovation*, 7 (6), pp. 40–50.
- Liu, Y., Li, Y. and Xue, J. 2011. Ownership, strategic orientation and internationalization in emerging markets. *Journal of World Business*, 46 (3), pp. 381–393.
- Lloyd, V., Gatherer, A. and Kalsy, S. 2006. Conducting qualitative interview research with people with expressive language difficulties. *Qualitative Health Research*, 16 (10), pp. 1386–1404.
- Lofstrom, M., Bates, T. and Parker, S.C. 2014. Why are some people more likely to become small-businesses owners than others: Entrepreneurship entry and industry-specific barriers. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 29 (2), pp. 232–251.
- Lu, L. 2016. The Combination of Entrepreneurship-Innovation Education and Geoscience Education in China Higher Education, in *2016 International Conference on Humanity, Education and Social Science*. Atlantis Press.

- Lu, X. and Chen, G.M. 2011. Language change and value orientations in Chinese culture. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 115 (6), pp. 796-820.
- Luo, J. and Jamieson-Drake, D. 2015. Predictors of study abroad intent, participation, and college outcomes. *Research in Higher Education*, 561, pp. 29–56.
- Luo, Y. 2009. Analysis of culture and buyer behaviour in Chinese market. *Asian Culture and History*, 11, p. 25.
- Luo, Y. and Guo, G. 2015. Guanxi. *Wiley Encyclopedia of Management*, pp. 1–2.
- Lyu, J., Shepherd, D. M., and Lee, K. 2021. Teaching entrepreneurship in China: culture matters. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior and Research*, 18 (1), pp. 1031-1048.
- Ma, L. and Tsui, A.S. 2015. Traditional Chinese philosophies and contemporary leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26 (1), pp. 13–24.
- Ma, S., Wu, X. and Gan, L. 2019. Credit accessibility, institutional deficiency and entrepreneurship in China. *China Economic Review*, 5 (4), pp. 160–175.
- Ma, Z. 2019. The impact of overseas human capital and social ties on Chinese returnee entrepreneurs venture performance. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 25 (1), pp. 67–83.
- Machart, R. 2017. International Students Disconnecting from and Reconnecting with Diverse Communities: Fluidity of the Self in Sojourns Abroad, in *International Student Connectedness and Identity*. Springer, pp. 185–203.
- Magnusson, D., Bergman, L.R. and Rudinger, G. 1994. *Problems and methods in longitudinal research: Stability and change*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Mahendra, A.M., Djatmika, E.T. and Hermawan, A. 2017. The effect of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention mediated by motivation and attitude among management students, state university of Malang, Indonesia. *International Education Studies*, 10 (9), pp. 61–69.
- Mair, J., Marti, I. and Seelos, C. 2006. Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of World Business*, 4 (11), pp. 36-44.
- Marcketti, S.B., Niehm, L.S. and Fuloria, R. 2006. An exploratory study of lifestyle entrepreneurship and its relationship to life quality. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 34 (3), pp. 241–259.
- Markon, K.E., Chmielewski, M. and Miller, C.J. 2011. The reliability and validity of discrete and continuous measures of psychopathology: a quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 13 (75), p. 856.
- Marshall, A. 1920. *The economics of industry*. New York, US: Macmillan Publishers.
- Marshall, G. 2005. The purpose, design and administration of a questionnaire for data collection. *Radiography*, 11 (2), pp. 131–136.
- Mason, C. and Brown, R. 2014. Entrepreneurial ecosystems and growth-oriented entrepreneurship. *Final report to OECD, Paris*, 30 (1), pp. 77–102.

- Mason, M. 2010. Sample size and saturation in PhD studies using qualitative interviews. *Research in Nursing and Health*, 18 (2), pp.179-183.
- Matlay, H. 2016. Entrepreneurship Education in Asia. *International Journal of Globalisation and Small Business*, 1 (2), pp. 122–133.
- Matlay, H. 2019. The future of enterprise and entrepreneurship education. *Education+ Training*, 26 (1), pp. 58–65.
- Matlay, H., Solesvik, M. and Westhead, P. 2014. Cultural factors and entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, 19 (1), pp. 130-147.
- Matos, S. 2018. Low vs. high income entrepreneurial households: heterogeneous response to common institution environment in developing countries. *Organization Science*, 2 (12), pp. 521-539.
- Maxim, P.S. 1999. *Quantitative research methods in the social sciences*. New York, US: Oxford University Press New York.
- Maxwell, A.E. 1961. *Analysing qualitative data*. London: Methuen.
- Maxwell, J.A. 2008. Designing a qualitative study. *The SAGE Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods*, 2, pp. 214–253.
- Mayan, M.J. 2016. *Essentials of qualitative inquiry*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Mayer, S.D., Harima, A. and Freiling, J. 2015. Network benefits for Ghanaian diaspora and returnee entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurial Business and Economics Review*, 3 (3), p. 95.
- Mayer-Haug, K. 2013. Entrepreneurial talent and venture performance: A meta-analytic investigation of SMEs. *Research Policy*, 42 (7), pp. 1251–1273.
- Mazzarol, T. 2007. Awakening the entrepreneur: An examination of entrepreneurial orientation among MBA students. *Sustainability*, 10 (3), p. 691.
- Mazzarol, T. and Reboud, S. 2020. *Entrepreneurship and Innovation*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- McClelland, D. C. 1961. N achievement and entrepreneurship: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1 (4), p. 389.
- McClelland, D.C. 1987. Characteristics of successful entrepreneurs. *The journal of creative behavior*, 21 (3), pp. 219–233.
- McDaniel, C. and Gates, R. 2013. *Marketing research*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- McKay, R. 2001. Women entrepreneurs: moving beyond family and flexibility. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 7 (4), pp. 148–165.
- McLafferty, S.L. 2003. Conducting questionnaire surveys. *Key Methods in Geography*, 5 (9), pp. 87–100.
- Meadows, K.A. 2003. So you want to do research? Questionnaire design. *British Journal of Community Nursing*, 8 (12), pp. 562–570.

- Mei, H., Lee, C.H. and Xiang, Y. 2020. Entrepreneurship education and students' entrepreneurial intention in higher education. *Education Sciences*, 10 (9), p. 257.
- Meng, E.C. 2019. *Economic analysis of diversity in modern wheat*. Florida, United States: CRC Press.
- Menger, C. 1871. *Carl Menger and his legacy in economics*. US: Duke University Press.
- Mertens, W., Pugliese, A. and Recker, J. 2017. *Quantitative data analysis*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Meyers, L.S., Gamst, G.C. and Guarino, A.J. 2013. *Performing data analysis using IBM SPSS*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Miao, L. and Wang, H. 2017. *International Migration of China*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Mihás, P. 2019. *Qualitative data analysis*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Mill, J. S. 1848. *Principles of political economy with some of their applications. Social Philosophy*. London: Longmans, Green and Co.
- Miller, D. 1984. The correlates of entrepreneurship in three types of firms. *Management science*, 29 (7), pp. 770–791.
- Mills, R. 2019. Effects of Government Reform and Creative Clusters on Chinese Entrepreneurship. *Evaluation Practice*, 15 (3), pp. 283–290.
- Miranda, F.J. 2017. Academic entrepreneurial intention: the role of gender. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 9 (1), pp. 66–86.
- Misoch, S. 2019. *Qualitative interviews*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Mises, L. 1949. *Human action*. Abu Dhabi: Lulu Press.
- Mkubukeli, Z. and Cronje, J. C. 2018. Pull and push elements of entrepreneurship in south africa: a small-scale mining perspective. *Journal of Entrepreneurship and Organization Management*, 7 (3), pp.1-7.
- Mok, K.H. 2009. The growing importance of the privateness in education: Challenges for higher education governance in China. *Compare*, 39 (1), pp. 35–49.
- Mollier, C. 2008. *Buddhism and Taoism face to face: Scripture, ritual, and iconographic exchange in Medieval China*. University of Hawaii Press.
- Moody, P.R. 2007. *Conservative thought in contemporary China*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Moore, C.F. 1986. Understanding entrepreneurial behaviour: a definition and model. *Social Sciences and Law*, 10 (1), pp. 19-28.
- MOE- Ministry of Education of the Peoples Republic of China. 2019. *More Chinese study abroad in 2018 - Ministry of Education of the Peoples Republic of China*. Available at: http://en.moe.gov.cn/news/media_highlights/201904/t20190401_376249.html (Accessed: 26 October 2019).

MOE - More Chinese study abroad. 2018. Ministry of Education of the Peoples Republic of China. Available at: http://en.moe.gov.cn/news/media_highlights/201904/t20190401_376249.html (Accessed: 26 October 2019).

Morgan, D.L. 1996. *Focus groups as qualitative research*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.

Morgan, D.L. and Spanish, M.T. 1984. Focus groups: A new tool for qualitative research. *Qualitative Sociology*, 7 (3), pp. 253–270.

Morris, M. and Schindehutte, M. 2005. Entrepreneurial values and the ethnic enterprise: An examination of six subcultures. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 43 (4), pp. 453–479.

Morris, M.H., Kuratko, D.F. and Covin, J.G. 2010. Corporate entrepreneurship and innovation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 36 (4), pp. 863–887.

Morselli, D. 2018. Teaching a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship with constructive alignment in tertiary non-business contexts. *Education and Training*, 60 (2), pp. 122–138.

Mosey, S. and Wright, M. 2007. From human capital to social capital: A longitudinal study of technology-based academic entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 31 (6), pp. 909–935.

Movassaghi, H., Unsal, F. and Göçer, K. 2014. Study abroad decisions: Determinants & perceived consequences. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, 14 (1), p. 69.

Muthanna, A., and Sang, G. 2016. Undergraduate Chinese students' perspectives on Gaokao examination: Strengths, weaknesses, and implications. *International Journal of Research Studies in Education*, 5 (2), pp. 3–12.

Mwiya, B.M.K. 2014. The impact of entrepreneurship education on the relationships between institutional and individual factors and entrepreneurial intention of university graduates: Evidence from Zambia. *European Economic Review*, 54 (3), pp. 442–454.

Nabi, G. 2017. The impact of entrepreneurship education in higher education: A systematic review and research agenda. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 16 (2), pp. 277–299.

Nabi, G. 2018. Does entrepreneurship education in the first year of higher education develop entrepreneurial intentions? The role of learning and inspiration. *Studies in Higher Education*, 43 (3), pp. 452–467.

Namey, E. 2008. Data reduction techniques for large qualitative data sets. *Handbook for team-based qualitative research*, 2 (1), pp. 137–161.

Nardi, P.M. 2018. *Doing survey research: A guide to quantitative methods*. Routledge.

Naudé, W. and Rossouw, S. 2010. Early international entrepreneurship in China: Extent and determinants. *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, 8 (1), pp. 87–111.

Neumeyer, X. 2019. Entrepreneurship ecosystems and women entrepreneurs: A social capital and network approach. *Small Business Economics*, 53 (2), pp. 475–489.

- Nguyen, M. C. 2008. XTSUR: Stata module to estimate seemingly unrelated regression model on unbalanced panel data.
- Nieuwenhuizen, C. 2016. Best practice in entrepreneurship education. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 14 (3), pp. 528–536.
- Oberg, K. 1954. *Culture shock*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Obschonka, M. 2018. Confucian traits, entrepreneurial personality, and entrepreneurship in China: a regional analysis. *Small Business Economics*, pp. 1–19.
- OECD - Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. 2002. *Frascati Manual 2002: Proposed Standard Practice for Surveys on Research and Experimental Development*. OECD The Measurement of Scientific and Technological Activities. Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/> (Accessed: 28 October 2019).
- OECD - Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. 2019. *Together, we create better policies for better lives*. Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/> (Accessed: 28 October 2019).
- Ojiaku, O. C., Nkamnebe, A. D. and Nwaizugbo, I. C. 2018. Determinants of entrepreneurial intentions among young graduates: perspectives of push-pull-mooring model. *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research*, 8 (1), pp. 1-17.
- OLEary, S. 2017. Graduates' experiences of, and attitudes towards, the inclusion of employability-related support in undergraduate degree programmes; trends and variations by subject discipline and gender. *Journal of Education and Work*, 30 (1), pp. 84–105.
- Oltmann, S.M. 2016. Qualitative interviews: A methodological discussion of the interviewer and respondent contexts, in *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, p. 1.
- Oluwafunmilayo, A. M., Olokundun, M. A., Moses, C. L., and Grace, A. C. 2018. The role of prior family business background on entrepreneurial intentions. *Covenant Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 1(3), pp. 17- 30.
- Ortuño-Sierra, J. 2021. Measuring entrepreneurship in adolescents at school: New psychometric evidence on the BEPE-A. *Journal of Business Research*, 16 (4), p. 50.
- Ouellette-Kuntz, H. 1990. A pilot study in the use of the quality-of-life interview schedule. *Social Indicators Research*, 23 (3), pp. 283–298.
- Ozgulbas, N. and Koyuncugil, A.S. 2009. Developing Road maps for financial decision making by CHAID decision tree: CHAID decision tree application. *Journal of Medical Systems*, 34 (4), pp. 459-469.
- Pablo-Lerchundi, I., Morales-Alonso, G. and González-Tirados, R.M. 2015. Influences of parental occupation on occupational choices and professional values. *Journal of Business Research*, 68 (7), pp. 1645–1649.
- Palazzeschi, L., Bucci, O. and Fabio, A.D. 2018. High entrepreneurship, leadership, and professionalism HELP: a new resource for workers in the 21st century. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 9, p. 1480.

- Paray, Z.A. and Kumar, S. 2020. Does entrepreneurship education influence entrepreneurial intention among students in HEIs? The role of age, gender and degree background, *Journal of International Education in Business*, 23 (4), pp. 486-501.
- Park, A. 2011. Using Survey Data in Social Science Research in Developing Countries. *American Behavioural Scientist*, 42 (2), pp.178-200.
- Parker, S. C. 2013. Do serial entrepreneurs run successively better-performing businesses? *Journal of Business Venturing*, 28 (5), pp. 652-666.
- Parker, S.C. 2004. *The economics of self-employment and entrepreneurship*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Parker, S.C. 2018. *The economics of entrepreneurship*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Passaro, R., Quinto, I. and Thomas, A. 2018. The impact of higher education on entrepreneurial intention and human capital. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 19 (1), pp. 135–156.
- Patrick, C., Stephens, H., and Weinstein, A. 2016. Where are all the self-employed women? Push and pull factors influencing female labour market decisions. *Small Business Economics*, 46 (3), pp. 365-390.
- Patten, M.L. 2016. *Questionnaire research: A practical guide*. Routledge.
- Patton, M.Q. 1999. Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *Health services research*, 34 (2), p. 1189.
- Patton, M.Q. 2005. Qualitative research. *Encyclopedia of Statistics in Behavioural Science*, 26 (1), pp. 58–65.
- Perneger, T.V. 2015. Sample size for pre-tests of questionnaires. *Quality of Life Research*, 24 (1), pp. 147–151.
- Peters, K. and Halcomb, E. 2015. Interviews in qualitative research. *Nurse Researcher*, 2 (24), p. 6.
- Phakiti, A. 2010. Analysing quantitative data. *Continuum Companion to Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*, pp. 39–49.
- Phan, L.H. 2016. *Transnational Education Crossing Asia and the West: Adjusted desire, transformative mediocrity and neo-colonial disguise*. Taylor & Francis.
- Phan, P., Zhou, J. and Abrahamson, E. 2010. Creativity, innovation, and entrepreneurship in China. *Management and Organization Review*, 6 (2), pp. 175–194.
- Pickle, H. B., and Abrahamson, R. L. 1964. *Small business management*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Pietro, G.D. and Page, L. 2008. Who studies abroad? Evidence from France and Italy. *European Journal of Education*, 43 (3), pp. 389–398.

- Piper, A.T. 2015. Sliding down the U-shape? A dynamic panel investigation of the age-well-being relationship, focusing on young adults. *Social Science and Medicine*, 14 (3), pp. 54–61.
- Piperopoulos, P. G. 2016. *Entrepreneurship, innovation and business clusters*. Oxfordshire. UK: Routledge.
- Pistrui, D. 2001. Entrepreneurship in China: Characteristics, attributes, and family forces shaping the emerging private sector. *Family Business Review*, 14 (2), pp. 141–152.
- Pitney, W.A. 2004. Strategies for establishing trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Athletic Therapy Today*, 9 (1), pp. 26–28.
- Plehn-Dujowich, J. 2010. A theory of serial entrepreneurship. *Small Business Economics*, 35 (4), pp. 377–398.
- Poirine, B., Dropsy, V. and Gay, J.F. 2017. Entrepreneurship and social norms about thrift versus sharing: the Chinese-Tahitian experience. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 23 (5), pp. 641–657.
- Pope, C., Ziebland, S. and Mays, N. 2000. Analysing qualitative data. *Management and Organization Review*, 20 (27), pp. 114–116.
- Postigo, Á. and Lozano Fernández, L.M. 2020. Assessment of the enterprising personality: A short form of the BEPE battery. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 19 (5), pp. 617–620.
- Pouratashi, M. 2015. Entrepreneurial intentions of agricultural students: Levels and determinants. *The Journal of Agricultural Education and Extension*, 2 (15), pp. 467–477.
- Premand, P. 2016. Entrepreneurship education and entry into self-employment among university graduates. *World Development*, 7 (7), pp. 311–327.
- Press, S.J. and Wilson, S. 1978. Choosing between logistic regression and discriminant analysis. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 73 (36), pp. 699–705.
- Price, R.F. 2017. *Education in communist China*. Routledge.
- Pritchard, M. E., Wilson, G. S., and Yamnitz, B. 2007. What predicts adjustment among college students? A longitudinal panel studies. *Journal of American College Health*, 56 (1), pp. 15–22.
- Przepiorka, A.M. 2017. Psychological determinants of entrepreneurial success and life-satisfaction. *Current Psychology*, 36 (2), pp. 304–315.
- Puustinen, M. and Rouet, J.F. 2009. Learning with new technologies: Help seeking and information searching revisited. *Computers and Education*, 53 (4), pp. 1014–1019.
- QAA. 2019. Consultation on UK transnational education launched. Available at: <https://www.qaa.ac.uk/news-events/news/consultation-on-uk-transnational-education-launched> (Accessed: 6 November 2019).
- Qi, J. 2015. *Knowledge hierarchies in transnational education: Staging dissensus*. Routledge.
- Qian, S. 2020. *Chinese Culture: Its Humanity and Modernity*. Singapore: World Scientific.

- Qin, F., Wright, M. and Gao, J. 2017. Are “sea turtles” slower? Returnee entrepreneurs, venture resources and speed of entrepreneurial entry. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 3 (26), pp. 694–706.
- Qin, M., Chen, L. and Chen, Q. 2019. Research on the Current Situation and Countermeasures of College Students Entrepreneurship in China, in *2019 3rd International Conference on Education, Management Science and Economics ICEMSE 2019*. Atlantis Press.
- Qin, Z. and Deng, X. 2016. Government and family Guanxi in Chinese private firms: perceptions and preference. *Review of Managerial Science*, 10 (1), pp. 35–60.
- Raab, G., Stedham, Y., and Neuner, M. 2011. Entrepreneurial potential: an exploratory study of business students in the US and Germany. *Journal of Business and Management*, 11 (2), pp. 661-685.
- Raby, R.L., Ward, R. and Rhodes, G. 2021. Listening to the Voices of Students Who Studied Abroad: Students their agency to maximize their abroad experiences. *Journal of International Students*, 11 (3) p.11.
- Raczkowski, D., Kalat, J.W. and Nebes, R. 1974. Reliability and validity of some handedness questionnaire items. *Neuropsychologia*, 12 (1), pp. 43–47.
- Rahim, H. L., and Mohtar, S. 2015. Social entrepreneurship: A different perspective. *International Academic Research Journal of Business and Technology*, 1 (1), pp. 9-15.
- Raphael, K. 1987. Recall bias: a proposal for assessment and control. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 16 (2), pp. 167–170.
- Rapley, T. 2011 Some pragmatics of data analysis. *Qualitative Research*, 3, pp. 273–290.
- Rasmussen, E. and Wright, M. 2015. How can universities facilitate academic spin-offs? An entrepreneurial competency perspective. *The Journal of Technology Transfer*, 40 (5), pp. 782–799.
- Ratkowsky, D.A. and Giles, D.E. 1990. *Handbook of nonlinear regression models*. New York, US: Marcel Dekker.
- Ratten, V. and Usmanij, P. 2021. Entrepreneurship education: Time for a change in research direction? *The International Journal of Management Education*, 19 (1), p. 10.
- Reid, A. 2001. *Sojourners and settlers: Histories of Southeast Asia and the Chinese*. Hawaii, United States: University of Hawaii Press.
- Reshetnikova, M.S. 2018. Innovation and entrepreneurship in China. *European Research Studies Journal*, 21 (3), pp. 506–515.
- Reynolds, N., Diamantopoulos, A. and Schlegelmilch, B. 1993. Pre-testing in questionnaire design: a review of the literature and suggestions for further research. *Market Research Society Journal*, 35 (2), pp. 1–11.
- Ribeiro-Soriano, D. 2017. *Small business and entrepreneurship: their role in economic and social development*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.

- Rider, C.I. 2019. Experience and entrepreneurship: A career transition perspective. *ILR Review*, 72 (5), pp. 1149–1181.
- Robert, S.A. and Yu, M. 2018. Intersectionality in transnational education policy research. *Review of Research in Education*, 42 (1), pp. 93–121.
- Roberts, B.W., Wood, D. and Smith, J.L. 2005. Evaluating five factor theory and social investment perspectives on personality trait development. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 39 (1), pp. 166–184.
- Roberts, P., Priest, H. and Traynor, M. 2006. Reliability and validity in research. *Nursing Standard*, 20 (44), p. 8.
- Robinson, P. B. and Sexton, E. A. 1991. The effect of education and experience on self-employment success. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 9 (2), pp.141-156.
- Rodica, B., Konda I. and Starc, J., 2016. Social challenges are opportunities for sustainable development: tracing impacts of social entrepreneurship through innovations and value creation. *Economic Themes*, 53 (2), pp. 211-229.
- Rorty, R. 1982. *Consequences of Pragmatism*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Rourke, L. and Anderson, T. 2004. Validity in quantitative content analysis. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 5 (21), p. 5.
- Roztocki, N., and Weistroffer, H. R. 2015. Information and communication technology in transition economies: An assessment of research trends. *Information Technology for Development*, 21 (3), pp. 330-364.
- Ruiqing, D. U. 2013. Gaokao in Chinese Higher Education to Go or not to Go?. *Acta Universitatis Danubius. Communicatio*, 7(2), pp.39-87.
- Ryan, J. and Slethaug, G. 2010. *International education and the Chinese learner*. Hong Kong University Press.
- Say, J. B. 1845. *A Treatise on Political Economy*. Philadelphia: Grigg & Elliot.
- Sánchez-Escobedo, M.C. 2016. Research in entrepreneurship using GEM data. Approach to the state of affairs in gender studies. *European Journal of Management and Business Economics*, 25 (3), pp. 150–160.
- Sangolagi, K. and Alagawadi, M. 2016. Women entrepreneurs. *International Journal of Advancement in Engineering Technology, Management and Applied Science*, 3 (1), pp. 216–222.
- Santos, J.R.A. 1999. Cronbachs alpha: A tool for assessing the reliability of scales. *Journal of Extension*, 37 (2), pp. 1–5.
- Sapsford, R. and Jupp, V. 1996. *Data collection and analysis*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Sasaki, M. 2007. Effects of study-abroad experiences on EFL writers: A multiple-data analysis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 9 (14), pp. 602–620.

- Saunders, T. and Kingsley, J. 2016. *Made in China: Makerspaces and the search for mass innovation*, London: Nesta.
- Saunders, H. 2015. Translating knowledge into best practice care bundles: a pragmatic strategy for EBP implementation via moving postprocedural pain management nursing guidelines into clinical practice. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 24 (13-14), pp. 2035-2051.
- Schaper, M. 2010. *Entrepreneurship and small business*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Schaper, M. 2016. *Making ecopreneurs: Developing sustainable entrepreneurship*. Florida, United States: CRC Press.
- Schenker, J.D. and Rumrill Jr, P.D. 2004. Causal-comparative research designs. *Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation*, 2 (13), pp. 117–121.
- Schmitt, A., Raisch, S. and Volberda, H.W. 2018. Strategic renewal: past research, theoretical tensions and future challenges. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 20 (1), pp. 81–98.
- Schober, P., and Vetter, T. R. 2018. Repeated measures designs and analysis of longitudinal data: If at first you do not succeed—try, try again. *Anesthesia and Analgesia*, 12 (72), p. 569.
- Schumpeter, J.A. and Redvers, O. 1934. The theory of economic development. *Oxford Development Studies*, 3 (61), pp. 9-21.
- Schwarz, A. 2017. Examining the impact and detection of the "urban legend" of common method bias. *Advances in Information Systems*, 48 (1), pp. 93–119.
- Seale, C. and Kelly, M. 2004. Coding and analysing data. *Researching Society and Culture*, 2, pp. 304–321.
- Sedgwick, P. 2012. What is recall bias? *Behaviour and Research*, 3 (4), p.4.
- Sene, W.K., Yulianto, E. and Iqbal, M. 2019. The influence of entrepreneurial characteristics, entrepreneurship orientation, entrepreneurship competence on organizational capability and business performance. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 22 (2), pp. 321-332.
- Sethu, H.S. 2012. Study of entrepreneurial tendencies in Manipal University students based on GETT General Entrepreneurial Tendency Test. *Voice of Research International Journal*, 1 (2), pp. 78–83.
- Sexton, D.L. and Bowman, N. 1985. The entrepreneur: A capable executive and more. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 1 (1), pp. 129–140.
- Sexton, D.L. and Bowman-Upton, N.B. 1991. *Entrepreneurship: Creativity and growth*. New York, US: Macmillan Publishers.
- Sgier, L. 2012. Qualitative data analysis. *International Journal of Sales, Retailing and Marketing*, 4 (9), pp.5-14.
- Shams, S.R. 2017. Transnational education and total quality management: a stakeholder-centred model. *Journal of Management Development*, 36 (3), pp. 376–389.

- Shane, S.A. 2003. *A general theory of entrepreneurship: The individual-opportunity nexus*. Camberley, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing
- Shi, H.X., Shepherd, D.M. and Schmidts, T. 2015. Social capital in entrepreneurial family businesses: the role of trust. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, 21 (6), pp. 814–841.
- Shi, L., Yao, X. and Wu, W. 2019. Perceived university support, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, heterogeneous entrepreneurial intentions in entrepreneurship education. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 345 (6), pp. 868-887.
- Shi, Z. 2019. Research on the influence of cultural differences between China and Japan on employee behaviour based on Hofstede theory. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 3 (1), pp.67-82.
- Siemsen, E., Roth, A. and Oliveira, P. 2010. Common method bias in regression models with linear, quadratic, and interaction effects. *Organizational Research Methods*, 13 (3), pp. 456–476.
- Silverman, D. 2016. *Qualitative research*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Simons, L., Lathlean, J. and Squire, C. 2008. Shifting the focus: sequential methods of analysis with qualitative data. *Qualitative Health Research*, 18 (1), pp. 120–132.
- Singleton Jr, R. 1988. *Approaches to social research*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Siu, W. and Lo, E.S. 2013. Cultural contingency in the cognitive model of entrepreneurial intention. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 37 (2), pp. 147–173.
- Siu-Lun, W. 2017. Chinese entrepreneurship and economic development, in *China After Socialism: In the Footsteps of Eastern Europe or East Asia?* Routledge, pp. 130–148.
- Smith, A. 1776. Of the division of labour. *Classics of Organization Theory*, pp. 40-45.
- Smith, J. and Firth, J. 2011. Qualitative data analysis: the framework approach. *Nurse Researcher*, 18 (2), pp. 52–62.
- Smith, N.R. and Miner, J.B. 1983. Type of entrepreneur, type of firm, and managerial motivation: Implications for organizational life cycle theory. *Strategic management journal*, 4 (4), pp. 325–340.
- Smiles, S. 1859. *Self-Help: With Illustrations of Character. Conduct, and perseverance*. UK: Routledge.
- Sniehotta, F. F., Presseau, J., and Araújo-Soares, V. 2014. Time to retire the theory of planned behaviour. *Health Psychology Review*, 8 (1), pp. 1-7.
- Song, Q. and Liang, Z. 2019. New emigration from China: patterns, causes and impacts. *Modern China Studies*, 26 (1), p. 53.
- Songling, Y., Ishtiaq, M. and Thanh, B.T. 2019. Tourism industry and economic growth Nexus in Beijing, China. *Economies*, 7 (1), p. 25.
- Soomro, B.A. and Shah, N. 2015. Developing attitudes and intentions among potential entrepreneurs. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, 28 (2), pp. 304–322.

- Sorenson, O. 2017. Entrepreneurs and social capital in China. *Management and Organization Review*, 13 (2), pp. 275–280.
- Souto-Otero, M. 2013. Barriers to international student mobility: Evidence from the Erasmus program. *Educational Researcher*, 42 (2), pp. 70–77.
- Souza-Daw, T. 2019. Comparison of Transnational Education Delivery Models, in *16th International Conference on Information Technology-New Generations ITNG 2019*. Springer, pp. 625–631.
- Spanos, A. 1986. *Statistical foundations of econometric modelling*. Cambridge University Press.
- St. Pierre, E.A. and Jackson, A.Y. 2014. *Qualitative data analysis after coding*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stam, E. and van Stel, A. 2011. Types of entrepreneurships and economic growth. *Entrepreneurship, innovation, and economic development*, pp. 78–95.
- StataCorp. 2020. Stata Release 17. Statistical Software. College Station, Texas: StataCorp LP.
- StataCorp. 2011. Version 12. Stata Base Reference Manual, Vol.1 A-F, Stata Press: College Station, Texas.
- Staniewski, M.W. 2016. The contribution of business experience and knowledge to successful entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Research*, 69 (11), pp. 5147–5152.
- Steinhoff, J. 1978. Marxist transhumanism or transhumanist Marxism? *New Proposals: Journal of Marxism and Interdisciplinary Inquiry*, 12 (1), pp. 5-7.
- Stewart Jr, W.H. 2003. Entrepreneurial dispositions and goal orientations: A comparative exploration of United States and Russian entrepreneurs. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 4 (11), pp. 27–46.
- Stone, D.H. 1993. Design a questionnaire. *Journal of Management Development*, 30 (76), pp. 1264–1266.
- Stormer, F., Kline, T. and Goldenberg, S. 1999. Measuring entrepreneurship with the general enterprising tendency GET test: criterion-related validity and reliability. *Human Systems Management*, 18 (1), pp. 47–52.
- Stuetzer, M. 2018. Entrepreneurship culture, knowledge spillovers and the growth of regions. *Regional Studies*, 52 (5), pp. 608–618.
- Su, C.T. and Parham, L.D. 2002. Generating a valid questionnaire translation for cross-cultural use. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 56 (5), pp. 581–585.
- Suartha, N. and Suprpti, N.W.S. 2016. Entrepreneurship for students: The relationship between individual entrepreneurial orientation and entrepreneurial intention. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 8 (11), pp. 45–52.
- Sun, X. 2019. Does social capital influence small business entrepreneurship? Differences between urban and rural China. *The Annals of Regional Science*, pp. 1–19.

- Sutton, H. 1954. Develop student entrepreneurship, intrapreneurship for student success. *Recruiting and Retaining Adult Learners*, 23 (11), pp. 1-5.
- Sutton, J. and Austin, Z. 2015. Qualitative research: Data collection, analysis, and management. *The Canadian Journal of Hospital Pharmacy*, 68 (3), p. 226.
- Swan, J., Newell, S., Scarbrough, H., and Hislop, D. 1999. Knowledge management and innovation: networks and networking. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 70 (2), pp. 61-70.
- Sznajderska, A. 2019. The role of China in the world economy: evidence from a global VAR model. *Applied Economics*, 51 (15), pp. 1574–1587.
- Taheri, B. 2015. Quantitative data gathering techniques. *Research Methods for Business and Management*, 4 (14), pp. 913-930.
- Tang, M. 2014. Does Chinese university entrepreneurship education fit students needs? *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 6 (2), pp. 163–178.
- Tang, M. and Tang, N. 2019. Transnational education in china: students perceptions on the curriculum and delivery. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Tavakol, M. and Dennick, R. 2011. Making sense of Cronbachs alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 2, p. 53.
- Timmons, J.A. 1974. Characteristics and role demands of entrepreneurship. *American Journal of Small Business*, 3 (1), pp. 5–17.
- Timmons, J. A. 1990. New business opportunities: getting to the right place at the right time. Acton, Mass.: Brick House Publishing Company.
- Tinsley, T., and Board, K. 2014. Languages for the future: Which languages the UK needs most and why. British Council.
- Thomassen, M.L. 2019. Conceptualizing context in entrepreneurship education: a literature review. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 10 (69), p.4.
- Thompson, B. 2004. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis: understanding concepts and applications. *American Psychological Association*, 10 (6), p. 94.
- Thorne, S. 2000. Data analysis in qualitative research. *Evidence-based Nursing*, 3 (3), pp. 68–70.
- Toms, S., Wilson, N. and Wright, M. 2020. Innovation, intermediation, and the nature of entrepreneurship: A historical perspective. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 14 (1), pp. 105–121.
- Tong, T., Wu, Y. and Yao, K. 2019. New Development in Innovation and Entrepreneurship among Chinese Firms, in *Academy of Management Proceedings*. Academy of Management Briarcliff Manor, p. 14.
- Tongxin, Y., Khalid, N. and Ahmad, A. 2020. National culture and entrepreneurship: the experience of Kazakhstan and china. *Central Asian Economic Review*, 3, pp. 48–66.
- Torrance, H. 2012. Triangulation, respondent validation, and democratic participation in mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 6 (2), pp. 111–123.

- Townsend, D.M. 2018. Uncertainty, knowledge problems, and entrepreneurial action. *Academy of Management Annals*, 12 (2), pp. 659–687.
- Tripathy, S.P. and Pandey, N. 2019. Ecosystem for Social Entrepreneurship in India: Facilitating Returnee Entrepreneurs, in *Transnational Entrepreneurship*. Springer, pp. 323–339.
- Trochim, W.M. 2006. Qualitative measures. *Research Measures Knowledge Base*, 36 (1), pp. 2–16.
- Tsang, E.W. 1996. In search of legitimacy: The private entrepreneur in China. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 2 (11), pp. 21–30.
- Tu, M. 2019. The transnational one-child generation: family relationships and overseas aspiration between China and the UK. *Childrens Geographies*, 17 (5), pp. 565–577.
- Tuckett, A.G. 2005. Applying thematic analysis theory to practice: a researchers experience. *Contemporary Nurse*, 191 (2), pp. 75–87.
- Turker, D. and Selcuk, S.S. 2009. Which factors affect entrepreneurial intention of university students? *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 36 (3), pp. 60-95.
- Turkina, E. and Thai, M.T.T. 2015. Socio-psychological determinants of opportunity entrepreneurship. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 1 (11), pp. 213–238.
- Turner III, D.W. 2010. Qualitative interview design: A practical guide for novice investigators. *The Qualitative Report*, 15 (3), p. 754.
- Turner, Y. and Acker, A. 2017. *Education in the new China: Shaping ideas at work*. Routledge.
- Ufuk, H. and Özgen, Ö. 2001. The profile of women entrepreneurs: A sample from Turkey. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 25 (4), pp. 299–308.
- UKCISA. 2019. *International student advice and guidance - Studying in the UK?*. Available at: <https://www.ukcisa.org.uk/> (Accessed: 31 January 2020).
- Unger, J.M. 2011. Human capital and entrepreneurial success: A meta-analytical review. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 26 (3), pp. 341–358.
- Vaismoradi, M., Turunen, H. and Bondas, T. 2013. Content analysis and thematic analysis: Implications for conducting a qualitative descriptive study. *Nursing and Health Sciences*, 15 (3), pp. 398–405.
- Van de Ven, A.H. and Huber, G.P. 1990. Longitudinal field research methods for studying processes of organizational change. *Organization Science*, 1 (3), pp. 213–219.
- Van Maanen, J. and Van Maanen, J. 1983. *Qualitative methodology*. California, United States: SAGE Publications.
- Van Teijlingen, E. and Hundley, V. 2002. The importance of pilot studies. *Nursing Standard*, 16 (40), p. 33.

- Van Teijlingen, E.R. and Hundley, V. 2001. The importance of pilot studies. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 28 (1), pp. 1-22.
- Virick, M., Basu, A. and Rogers, A. 2015. Antecedents of entrepreneurial intention among laid-off individuals: A cognitive appraisal approach. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 53 (2), pp. 450–468.
- Visser, P.S., Krosnick, J.A. and Lavrakas, P.J. 2000. Survey research. *Journal of World Business*, 56 (4), pp.10-12.
- Vivilaki, V. and Johnson, M. 2008. Research philosophy and Socrates: Rediscovering the birth of phenomenology. *Nurse Researcher*, 16 (1), p.10
- Volovelsky, E.K. and Dana, L.P. 2019. Senior Entrepreneurs in China, in *Handbook of Research on Elderly Entrepreneurship*. Springer, pp. 227–236.
- Vuong, Q.H. 2018. Cultural additivity: Behavioural insights from the interaction of Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism in folktales. *Palgrave Commun*, 4, p. 143.
- Wadhwa, V. 2009. Anatomy of an entrepreneur: Family background and motivation. *Kauffman Foundation Small Research Projects Research*, 46 (2), pp. 368-392.
- Wah, S.S. 2001. Chinese cultural values and their implication to Chinese management. *Singapore Management Review*, 23 (2), pp. 75–83.
- Walley, K., Turner, S., Wright, G. and Tan, F. 2017. Design and management of higher education trans-national education TNE provision: ten lessons from an action research project. *Journal of Academic Development and Education*, 8, pp. 32–45.
- Walter, S.G. and Block, J.H. 2016. Outcomes of entrepreneurship education: An institutional perspective. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 3 (12), pp. 216–233.
- Wang, C.L., Tee, D.D. and Ahmed, P.K. 2012. Entrepreneurial leadership and context in Chinese firms: a tale of two Chinese private enterprises. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 18 (4), pp. 505–530.
- Wang, H. and Bao, Y. 2015. *Reverse migration in contemporary China: Returnees, entrepreneurship and the Chinese economy*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Wang, H. and Liu, Y. 2016. *Entrepreneurship and talent management from a global perspective: Global returnees*. Camberley, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Wang, H., and Miao, L. 2019. China's domestic and international migration development. Singapore: Springer Nature.
- Wang, H., Zweig, D., and Lin, X. 2011. Returnee Entrepreneurs: Impact on China's globalization process. *Journal of Contemporary China*, 20 (70), pp. 413-431.
- Wang, J. 2005. Confucian values and the implications for international HRD. *Human resource development international*, 8 (3), pp. 311–326.
- Wang, R. 2012. Chinese culture and its potential influence on entrepreneurship. *International Business Research*, 5 (10), p. 76.

- Wang, X., Li, F. and Sun, Q. 2018. Confucian ethics, moral foundations, and shareholder value perspectives: An exploratory study. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 27 (3), pp. 260–271.
- Wang, Y. 2012. Mainland Chinese students' group work adaptation in a UK business school. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 17 (5), pp. 523-535.
- Wang, W., Liang, Q., Mahto, R. V., Deng, W., and Zhang, S. X. 2020. Entrepreneurial entry: The role of social media. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 16 (1), pp. 120 - 337.
- Wardana, L.W. 2020. Determinant factors of young people in preparing for entrepreneurship: Lesson from Indonesia. *The Journal of Asian Finance, Economics, and Business*, 7 (8), pp. 555–565.
- Warner, M. 2016. *How Chinese managers learn: Management and industrial training in China*. Springer.
- Warren, C.A. 2002. *Handbook of interview research: Context and method*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Wartiovaara, M., Lahti, T. and Wincent, J. 2019. The role of inspiration in entrepreneurship: Theory and the future research agenda. *Journal of Business Research*, 10 (1), pp. 548–554.
- Watkins, M.W. 2018. Exploratory factor analysis: A guide to best practice. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 44 (3), pp. 219–246.
- Watson, R. 1998. Longitudinal quantitative research designs. *Nurse Researcher*, 5 (4), p. 41.
- Watson, R. 2015. Quantitative research. *Nursing Standard*, 29 (31), p. 44.
- Weber, R. 1918. *Evaluating entrepreneurship education*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Wei, B., Ye, D. and Wei, J. 2019. Emerging Economies: Institutions and Entrepreneurship in the Peoples Republic of China. *Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation in Emerging Economies*, p. 239.
- Wei, L. and Hu, Y. 2018. Retrospective and prospects for chinas international educational exchange in the 40th anniversary year of reform and opening up. *Frontiers of Education in China*, 13 (4), pp. 532–552.
- Wei, X. and Zhu, H. 2020. Return migrants entrepreneurial decisions in rural China. *Asian Population Studies*, 16 (1), pp. 61–81.
- Weiming, L., Chunyan, L. and Xiaohua, D. 2016. Ten years of entrepreneurship education at chinese universities: evolution, problems, and system building. *Chinese Education & Society*, 49 (3), pp. 198–216.
- Weller, C.E. 2016. Push or pull: Changes in the relative risk and growth of entrepreneurship among older households. *The Gerontologist*, 58 (2), pp. 308–319.
- Welsh, J. A., and White, J. F. 1981. Small business ratio analysis: A cautionary note to consultants. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 19 (4), p.20.

- Welsh, E. 2002. Dealing with data: Using NVivo in the qualitative data analysis process, in *Qualitative Social Research*, 26 (1), pp. 58–65.
- Welter, F. 2005. *Local heroes in the global village*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Welter, F. 2017. Everyday entrepreneurship-a call for entrepreneurship research to embrace entrepreneurial diversity. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 41 (3), pp. 311–321.
- Welter, F. and Smallbone, D. 2011. Institutional perspectives on entrepreneurial behavior in challenging environments. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 49 (1), pp. 107–125.
- West, B.T. and Blom, A.G. 2017. Explaining interviewer effects: A research synthesis. *Journal of Survey Statistics and Methodology*, 5 (2), pp. 175–211.
- Westhead, P., and Solesvik, M. Z. 2016. Entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention: Do female students benefit? *International Small Business Journal*, 34 (8), pp. 979-1003.
- Whalen, B. 2015. *Assessing study abroad: Theory, tools and practice*. Sterling, United States: Stylus Publishing.
- White, D.E., Oelke, N.D. and Friesen, S. 2012. Management of a large qualitative data set: Establishing trustworthiness of the data. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 11 (3), pp. 244–258.
- White, R.T. and Arzi, H.J. 2005. Longitudinal studies: Designs, validity, practicality, and value. *Research in Science Education*, 35 (1), pp. 137–149.
- Wilkins, S. 2016. *Transnational higher education in the 21st century*. SAGE Publications Sage CA: Los Angeles, CA.
- Wilkins, S. 2018. The management of transnational higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 3 (22), pp. 206–209.
- Williams, C. 2007. Research methods. *Journal of Business and Economics Research*, 5 (3), pp. 333-347.
- Winter, G. 2000. A comparative discussion of the notion of validity in qualitative and quantitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 4 (3), pp. 1–14.
- Wooldridge, J. M. 2013. Correlated random effects panel data models. *IZA Summer School in Labor Economics*. Available at: http://www.iza.org/conference_files/SUMS_2013/viewProgram. (Accessed: 28 December 2022).
- Wong, W.K., Cheung, H.M. and Venuvinod, P.K. 2005. Individual entrepreneurial characteristics and entrepreneurial success potential. *International Journal of Innovation and Technology Management*, 2 (3), pp. 277–292.
- Worthy, E.H. 1965. Yung Wing in America. *Pacific Historical Review*, 3 (4), p. 265.
- Wright, M. and Westhead, P. 2016. The Habitual Entrepreneur. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 9 (3), p.77.
- Wu, B. and Zheng, Y. 2008. Expansion of higher education in China: Challenges and implications, *The University of Nottingham, China Policy Institute, Briefing Series*, 36.

- Wu, D.Y. and Tseng, W.S. 1985. *Chinese culture and mental health*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: Elsevier Publishing.
- Wu, H. 2019. Three dimensions of Chinas “outward-oriented” higher education internationalization. *Higher Education*, 7 (71), pp. 81–96.
- Wu, J. and Ma, Z. 2018. Misfit: The impact of overseas work experiences on returnee entrepreneurs venture capital funding in China. *Nankai Business Review International*, 9 (1), pp. 19–32.
- Wu, X. and Chia-Hung, W. 2018. A Rational Study on Developing College Students Entrepreneurship Education in China. *Transactions on Social Science, Education and Human Science*, 48 (5), pp. 1–18.
- Wu, Y. J., Wu, T., and Sharpe, J. A. 2020. Consensus on the definition of social entrepreneurship: a content analysis approach. *Management Decision*, 58 (12), pp. 2593-2619.
- Xia, Y., Li, G, Wang, C., Dong, Y, Martínez, O. S., and Crespo, R. G. 2022. Management and entrepreneurship management mechanism of college students based on support vector machine algorithm. *Computational Intelligence*, 38 (3), pp. 842-854.
- Xiao-hong, W.A.N. 2010. Germination and Practice of Yung Wings Thoughts to Develop China Through Science and Education—on the impact of overseas Chinese who returned home to donate and develop education. *Journal of Shangrao Normal University*, 4, p. 14.
- Xing, Y., Liu, Y. and Cooper, S.C.L. 2018. Local government as institutional entrepreneur: Public–private collaborative partnerships in fostering regional entrepreneurship. *British Journal of Management*, 29 (4), pp. 670–690.
- Xinhua – *China, World, Business, Sports, Entertainment, Photos and Video* | *English.news.cn* 2019. Available at: <http://www.xinhuanet.com/english/> (Accessed: 28 October 2019).
- Xiong, L. 2019. Can the government enhance the happiness of entrepreneurs? evidence from China. *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 34 (4), pp. 1–23.
- Xu, H. and Liu, L. 2019. The development of high-end service industry based on opening-up of services: a case of Beijing. *Modern Economy*, 10 (8), pp. 1897–1913.
- Xu, Z., Wang, X., Wang, X., and Skare, M. 2021. A comprehensive bibliometric analysis of entrepreneurship and crisis literature published from 1984 to 2020. *Journal of Business Research*, 13 (5), pp. 304-318.
- Yan, P. 2018. Agency theory approach for the performance of returnee entrepreneurs. *Journal of Applied Business Research JABR*, 34 (3), pp. 447–454.
- Yang, B. and Zhou, W. 2018. Practice of Applied Talent Training in Innovation and Entrepreneurship Education in Colleges and Universities, in *8th International Conference on Education, Management, Information and Management Society EMIM 2018*. Atlantis Press.
- Yang, D.T., Chen, V.W. and Monarch, R. 2010. Rising wages: Has China lost its global labor advantage? *Pacific Economic Review*, 15 (4), pp. 482–504.

- Yang, J.Y. and Li, J. 2008. The development of entrepreneurship in China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 25 (2), pp. 335–359.
- Yang, K. 2004. Institutional holes and entrepreneurship in China. *The Sociological Review*, 52 (3), pp. 371–389.
- Yang, K. 2016. *Entrepreneurship in China*. Routledge.
- Yang, L., Wang, J. and Shi, J. 2017. Can China meet its 2020 economic growth and carbon emissions reduction targets? *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 14 (2), pp. 993–1001.
- Yang, R. 2018. *The third delight: Internationalization of higher education in China*. Oxfordshire, UK: Routledge.
- Yao, L. and Hu, Y. 2020. The impact of urban transit on nearby startup firms: Evidence from Hangzhou, China. *Habitat International*, 9 (9), p. 102.
- Yonge, K.A. 1956. The value of the interview: an orientation and a pilot study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 40 (1), p. 25.
- Yu, K., Liu, Q., Zheng, Y., Zhao, T., and Zheng, D. 2016. History question classification and representation for Chinese Gaokao. In 2016 International Conference on Asian Language Processing, pp. 129-132.
- Zahra, S.A., Hayton, J.C. and Salvato, C. 2004. Entrepreneurship in family vs. non-family firms: A resource-based analysis of the effect of organizational culture. *Entrepreneurship theory and Practice*, 28 (4), pp. 363–381.
- Zain, Z.M., Akram, A.M. and Ghani, E.K. 2010. Entrepreneurship intention among Malaysian business students. *Canadian social science*, 6 (3), pp. 34–44.
- Zainuddin, M.N. and Ismail, H. 2011. Push and pull factor in an entry into an employment route: a study of nurtured entrepreneurship students. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, 13 (4), pp. 469–498.
- Zaki, I.M. and Rashid, N.H. 2016. Entrepreneurship impact on economic growth in emerging countries. *The Business and Management Review*, 7 (2), p. 31.
- Zapkau, F.B. 2015. Disentangling the effect of prior entrepreneurial exposure on entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of Business Research*, 68 (3), pp. 639–653.
- Zapkau, F.B., Schwens, C. and Kabst, R. 2017. The role of prior entrepreneurial exposure in the entrepreneurial process: a review and future research implications. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 55 (1), pp. 56–86.
- Zgheib, P. 2018. Multi-level framework of push-pull entrepreneurship: comparing American and Lebanese women. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, 24 (3), pp. 768–786.
- Zenovia, C. P., and Maier, V. 2011. Entrepreneurship versus intrapreneurship. *Journal Review of International Comparative Management*, 12 (5), pp. 971-980.
- Zenebe, A., Alsaaty, F. M., and Anyiwo, D. 2018. Relationship between individual's entrepreneurship intention, and adoption and knowledge of information technology and its

applications: an empirical study. *Journal of Small Business and Entrepreneurship*, 30 (3), pp. 215-232.

Zhai, Y. 2017. Do Confucian values deter Chinese citizens support for democracy? *Politics and Religion*, 10 (2), pp. 261–285.

Zhan, Y. 2018. Green and lean sustainable development path in China: Guanxi, practices and performance. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, 12 (8), pp. 240–249.

Zhang, C., and Guan, J. 2021. Returnee policies in China: Does a strategy of alleviating the financing difficulty of returnee firms promote innovation?. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 16 (4), pp. 12- 50.

Zhang, G.X. and Li, L.M. 2010. Chinese language teaching in the UK: Present and future. *Language Learning Journal*, 38 (1), pp. 87–97.

Zhang, W., Wang, H. and Alon, I. 2011. *Entrepreneurial and business elites of china: the Chinese returnees who have shaped modern China*. Emerald Group Publishing.

Zhang, Z. and Heydon, R. 2016. The changing landscape of literacy curriculum in a Sino-Canada transnational education programme: An actor-network theory informed case study. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 48 (4), pp. 547–564.

Zhao, G. 2019. Analysis on the Transitional Development of Entrepreneurship Education in Colleges and Universities in the Age of Mass Creation. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 16 (4), p. 120.

Zhao, W. 2019. Chinas innovation-driven growth and its emerging impact on global innovation. *Journal of Business, Economics and Law*, 15 (4), pp. 87-98.

Zheng, L. 2018. Making Modernity in China: Employment and Entrepreneurship among the New Generation of Peasant Workers. *International Journal of Japanese Sociology*, 27 (1), pp. 26–40.

Zhou, D. 2017. Talent Management for High-Quality Employee: Example of China. *International Journal of Trade, Economics and Finance*, 8 (3), pp. 48-40.

Zhou, M., and Xu, H. 2012. A review of entrepreneurship education for college students in China. *Administrative Sciences*, 2 (1), pp. 82-98.

Zhou, Y. 2008. Theoretical models of culture shock and adaptation in international students in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 3 (31), pp. 63–75.

Zhu, H.B., Zhang, K. and Ogbodo, U.S. 2017. Review on Innovation and Entrepreneurship Education in Chinese Universities during 2010-2015. *EURASIA Journal of Mathematics Science and Technology Education*, 13 (8), pp. 5939–5948.

Zhu, K. 2018. *Challenges for High-skilled Chinese Returnee Entrepreneurs-A case study in Nanjing*. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 17 (4), pp. 493-503.

Zhu, X. 2019. Entrepreneurship and industrial clusters: evidence from China industrial census. *Small Business Economics*, 52 (3), pp. 595–616.

Zhu, X. and Li, J. 2018. Conceptualizing the ontology of higher education with Chinese characteristics. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 50 (12), pp. 1144–1156.

- Zhuang, L. and Xueying Tang, A. 2012. Sino-UK transnational education in China: rhetoric versus reality. *Journal of Technology Management in China*, 7 (2), pp. 218–234.
- Ziliak, S. T. and McCloskey, D. N. 2012. Statistical significance in the new Tom and the old Tom: A reply to Thomas Mayer. *Econ Journal Watch*, 9 (3), pp. 298-308.
- Zimmermann, J. and Neyer, F.J. 2013. Do we become a different person when hitting the road? Personality development of sojourners. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 10 (53), pp. 515–530.
- Zohrabi, M. 2013. Mixed method research: instruments, validity, reliability and reporting findings. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3 (2), p.8.
- Zozimo, R., Jack, S. and Hamilton, E. 2017. Entrepreneurial learning from observing role models. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 29 (10), pp. 889–911.
- Zwan, P. 2016. Factors influencing the entrepreneurial engagement of opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs. *Eurasian Business Review*, 6 (3), pp. 273–295.
- Zweig, D. 2019. Returning to the Chinese Academy of Sciences: shortage, environment and rewards, in *Handbook on China and Globalization*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- 1000plan. 2019. Our aim is to gather the global wisdom and create the China great exploit. The Thousand Talents Plan Website. Available at: <http://www.1000plan.org.cn/en/> (Accessed: 2 November 2019).

Appendix A The TNE programme course structure and the control group course structure

Course Structure: BSc/BSc Honours International Business Management (Treatment group: sojourning students)

Year 1 All at level 4 unless indicated	Year 2 All at level 5 unless indicated	Year 3 All at level 6 unless indicated
Studied at BUA	Studied at BUA	Studied at HAU
Academic Development (A4001) Introductory Research Methods (C4001) Personal Development (R4002)	Research Methods (15)	Dissertation (30)
Marketing Management (15)	Managing People (15)	International Retailing (15)
Business Organisation and Accounting (15)	Quality and Operations Management (15)	Supply Chain Management (15)
Business Economics (15)	Business Accounting and Finance (15)	Strategic Management (15)
International Business Law (15)	International Marketing (15)	Starting and Developing a Business (15) (Level 5)
Enterprise Management (15)	Consumer Behaviour (15)	Applied International Business (15)
International Trade and Business Development (15)	E-Business (15)	New Product Development (15)
English 1 (15)	English 2 (15)	English Studies

Course Structure: BSc/BSc Honours Food Quality with Retail Management (Treatment group: sojourning students)

Year 1 All at level 4 unless indicated	Year 2 All at level 5 unless indicated	Year 3 All at level 6 unless indicated
Studied at BUA	Studied at BUA	Studied at HAU
Academic Development (A4001) Introductory Research Methods (C4001) Personal Development (R4002)	Research Methods (15)	Dissertation (30) HRPROJ
Marketing Management (15)	Managing People (15)	Food Policy, Law and Ethics (15)
Retail Consumer (15)	Food Marketing (15)	Supply Chain Management (15)
Retail Environment (15)	Food Processing, Preservation and Packaging (15)	Food Quality Management (15)
Global Food Production and Quality (15)	Agricultural Products & Food Quality (15)	Retail Buying (15)
Food and Food Materials (15)	Retail Operations (15)	European Food Innovation and Trade (15)
Food Biotechnology (15)	Hygiene and Food Safety (15)	Development of Food Products and Sensory Evaluation (15) (Level 5)
English 1 (15)	English 2 (15)	English Studies

Course Structure: BSc International Business Management (Comparison group: domestic students)

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Studied at BUA	Studied at BUA	Studied at BUA	Studied at BUA
English 1 (15)	English 2 (15)	English 3 (15)	English 4 (15)
International Trade (15)	Monetary Banking (15)	Statistics (15)	Internship In Experimental Economics (15)
International Finance (15)	Business Awareness and Business Decision (15)	Principles of Accounting (15)	Internship In Principles of Accounting (15)
Marco-economics (15)	Micro-economics (15)	Introduction to China's Foreign Trade (15)	Internship In Macroeconomics (15)
Advanced Mathematics (15)	International Marketing (15)	Customs Brokerage Practice and Customs Administration (15)	Internship In Finance (15)
Management (15)	Consumer Behaviour (15)	Portfolio Investment Studies (15)	Business English Writing Internship (15)
Introduction to Basic Principle of Marxism (15)	Introduction to Mao Zedong Thought (15)	Foundations of Ethics and Law (15)	Professional Internships (15)
Summary of Modern Chinese History (15)	Computer (15)	Situation and Policy (15)	Graduate Internships (15)

Appendix B Questionnaire for Sojourning students

This research addresses entrepreneurial proclivity and the conjectured link with the experience of foreign sojourns. Your contribution to this survey is very important. By completing this questionnaire, the data you provide will lead to a series of recommendations to help future cohorts of Chinese students. All the information which you provide will be treated in the strictest confidence. The survey has been designed so that it may be completed quickly and should take no longer than 10 minutes of your time. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Section A: Your Foreign Experience

1. Why did you study abroad? (Tick as many as apply)

- A. I wanted to broaden my horizons
- B. I wanted to experience other cultures
- C. I wanted to improve my chances of getting a good job
- D. I wanted to improve my foreign language competence
- E. I particularly wanted to study in the UK
- F. I thought that a higher level of English proficiency would improve my job prospects
- G. I particularly wanted to study at an institution with an international reputation
- H. I needed a change in my life
- I. I wanted to become more independent
- J. I wanted a better-quality education than the one offered in my home country
- K. Other (please specify)

2. Who is currently part of your social network while in the UK? (Tick as many as apply)

- A. Other students on my program
- B. Students from the UK
- C. Other international students, not from China
- D. Students back in China
- E. People from the UK who are not students
- F. My family back in China
- G. People of my generation in China who are not students
- H. Other (please specify)

3. After you graduate, do you intend to return to China? (Tick one only)

- A. Immediately
- B. In 6 months
- C. In 1 year
- D. In 2 years
- E. In 5 years
- F. Other (please specify)

4. What do you hope to do on completion of your current degree? (Tick one only)

- A. Seek a job
- B. Study a further course
- C. Join a family business
- D. Start a business
- E. Other (please specify)

5. How important are the following factors in determining what you plan to do after completing your degree? (Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row	1. Not important	2. Slightly important	3. Moderately important	4. Very Important	5. Extremely important	6. Don't know
1	Attractive salary	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Job security	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Personal interest	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Challenging work	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Flexibility of work/life balance	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Job satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Autonomy	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Other (please specify) <input type="text"/>	1	2	3	4	5	6

6. How important are the following in influencing your choice of future employment? (Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row	1. Not important	2. Slightly important	3. Moderately important	4. Very Important	5. Extremely important	6. Don't know
1	Parents	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Friends	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Social media	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	University/education	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Life experience to-date	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Employment availability	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Other (please specify) <input type="text"/>	1	2	3	4	5	6

7. Personal traits. To what extent has your life been influenced by the experience of studying and living in the UK? (Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row	1. Very little influence	2. Slight influence	3. Moderate influence	4. Strong influence	5. Very strong influence	6. Don't know
1	Increased creativity	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Self-confidence	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Determination	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Control over my own actions	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Problem solving ability	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Personal intellectual flexibility	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Willingness to take risks	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Independence	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Decision-making abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Developing a new network	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Other (please specify) <input type="text"/>	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section B: Entrepreneurial characteristics and attitudes

8. What is your long-term career plan? (Tick one only)

- A. Working in the family business
- B. Working in a large organization
- C. Working in a small organization
- D. Starting own business (please go to question 8a)
- E. Not have a plan
- F. Other (please specify)

8a. If your choice was “starting own business”, please indicate the major reasons for your choice. (Tick as many as apply)

- A. Lack of alternative jobs: I will have to start up a business because there won't be jobs available
- B. Self-achievement: to fulfil my dreams, to create something, to take advantage of my creative needs
- C. Independence: freedom to be my own boss, able to choose my own work tasks and schedules
- D. Financial success: make money
- E. Continue family tradition: my family has always run their own business(es)
- F. Other (please specify)

9. Does anyone in your family (including distant relatives) own a business? (Tick one only)

- A. Yes (please go to question 9a)
- B. No (please go to question 10)

9a. If yes, has their business-ownership made you think of having a business of your own? (Tick one only)

- A. Yes
- B. No

10. Have you studied any *small business* or entrepreneurship modules in your degree so far? (Tick one only)

- A. Yes (please go to question 10a)
- C. No (please go to question 11)

10a. If yes, please indicate how the *small business* or *entrepreneurship* modules have contributed to your knowledge and understanding? (Tick as many as apply)

- A. Increased your understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs
- B. Enhanced your practical skills in order to start a business
- C. Enhanced your ability to develop networks
- D. Enhanced your ability to identify an opportunity
- E. Other (please specify)

11. To what extent have you felt motivated to start your own business by your foreign experience? (Tick one only)
- A. To a very large extent
 - B. To a large extent
 - C. To a certain extent
 - D. To a small extent
 - E. To no extent

12. To what extent do you agree with the statement “studying overseas is an advantage when starting your own business”? (Tick one only)
- A. Strongly agree
 - B. Agree
 - C. Neither agree nor disagree
 - D. Disagree
 - E. Strongly disagree

13. To what extent might the following factors be useful in helping you start your own business? (Circle a number for each factor)

	Factor	1. Not very useful	2. Slightly useful	3. Moderately useful	4. Very Useful	5. Extremely useful	6. Don't know
1	Foreign languages	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Advanced knowledge and skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Knowledge of different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Broadened mind	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Wider social network	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Other (please specify) <input type="text"/>	1	2	3	4	5	6

14. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling a number to the right of the statement.

		1. Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither agree nor disagree	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree	6. Don't know
1.	I like to test boundaries and get into areas where few have worked before.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	I prefer doing things in the usual way rather than trying out new methods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	If I had a good idea for making some money, I would be willing to invest my time and borrow money to enable me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	I rarely daydream.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	I do not like unexpected changes to my weekly routines	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	I like challenges that stretch my abilities and I get bored with things I can do quite easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	I would prefer to have a moderate income in a secure job rather than a high income in a job that depended on my performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6

8.	I usually do what is expected of me and follow instructions carefully.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	At university, I often take over projects and steer them my way without worrying about what other people think.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Many of the bad times that people experience are due to bad luck.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	I tend not to like to stand out or be unconventional	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Sometimes I think about information almost obsessively until I come up with new ideas and solutions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	I like a lot of guidance to be really clear about what to do in work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	You are not likely to be successful unless you are in the right place at the right time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	I try to accept that things happen to me in life for reasons beyond my control.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	It is more important to do a job well than to try to please people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	If there is a chance of failure, I would rather not do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Being successful is a result of working hard, luck has little to do with it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	I believe that destiny determines what happens to me in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	I would rather work on a task as part of a team rather than take responsibility for it myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	What we are familiar with is usually better than what is unfamiliar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	I get annoyed if superiors or colleagues take credit for my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	I like to have my life organised so that it runs smoothly and to plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	When I am faced with a challenge, I think more about the results of succeeding than the effects of failing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	I think more of the present and past than of the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section C: Demographic Information

15. What is your gender? (Tick one only)

- A. Female B. Male

16. What is your age?

17. Where (city/province) were you born?

18. Which degree programme are you registered on? (Tick one only)

- A. International Business Management
B. Food Quality with Retail Management

19. What is your approximate total family average monthly household income? (Tick one only)

- A. ¥1-¥5,000
B. ¥5,001-¥10,000
C. ¥10,001-¥15,000
D. ¥15,001-¥20,000
E. ¥20,001-¥25,000
F. ¥25,001-¥30,000
G. ¥30,001-¥35,000
H. ¥35,001-¥40,000
I. ¥40,001-¥45,000
J. ¥45,001-¥50,000
K. ¥50,000 or more

20. What is/was your father's occupation? (Tick one only)

- A. Employee
B. Manager
C. Professional
D. Self-employed
E. Business Owner
F. Entrepreneur
G. Civil Servant
H. Military
I. Technician
J. Worker
K. Teacher
L. Researcher
M. Farmer
N. Unemployed
O. Other

21. What is/was your mother's occupation? (Tick one only)

- A. Employee
B. Manager
C. Professional
D. Self-employed
E. Business Owner
F. Entrepreneur
G. Civil Servant
H. Military
I. Technician
J. Worker
K. Teacher
L. Researcher
M. Farmer
N. Unemployed
O. Other (please specify)

22. Has either of your parent's occupations influenced your career decision? (Tick one only)

- A. Yes
B. No

23. What educational level did your father attain? (Tick one only)

- A. Did not go to school at all
B. Less than high school degree
C. High school degree or equivalent
D. Some college but no degree
E. Bachelor's degree
F. Master's degree
G. PhD degree
H. Other (please specify)

24. What educational level did your mother attain? (Tick one only)

- A. Did not go to school at all
B. Less than high school degree
C. High school degree or equivalent
D. Some college but no degree
E. Bachelor's degree
F. Master's degree
G. PhD degree
H. Other (please specify)

I intend supplementing the data gathered in this survey with data gathered in a series of in-depth interviews. If you would be willing to take part in an in- depth interview, please provide your name and email address below.

Name:
Email address:

Thank you for taking the time to fill in the survey.

Appendix C Questionnaire for Domestic Students (English version)

This research addresses entrepreneurial proclivity and the conjectured link with the experience of foreign sojourns. Your contribution in this survey is very important. By completing this questionnaire, the data you provide will lead to a series of recommendations to help future cohorts of Chinese students. All the information which you provide will be treated in the strictest confidence. The survey has been designed so that it may be completed quickly and should take no longer than 10 minutes of your time. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Section A: Your Career Plan

1. What do you hope to do on completion of your current degree? (Tick one only)

- A. Seek a job
- B. Study a further course
- C. Join a family business
- D. Start a business
- E. Other (please specify)

2. What is your long-term career plan? (Tick one only)

- A. Working in the family business
- B. Working in a large organization
- C. Working in a small organization
- D. Starting own business (please go to question 2a)
- E. Other (please specify)

2a. If your choice was "starting own business", please indicate the major reasons for your choice. (Tick as many as apply)

- A. Lack of alternative jobs: I will have to start up a business because there won't be jobs available
- B. Self-achievement: to fulfil my dreams, to create something, to take advantage of my creative needs
- C. Independence: freedom to be my own boss, able to choose my own work tasks and schedules
- D. Financial success: make money
- E. Continue family tradition: my family has always run their own business(es)
- F. Other (please specify)

3. How important are the following factors in determining what you plan to do after completing your degree? (Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row	1. Not important	2. Slightly important	3. Moderately important	4. Very important	5. Extremely important	6. Don't know
A.	Attractive salary	1	2	3	4	5	6
B.	Job security	1	2	3	4	5	6
C.	Personal interest	1	2	3	4	5	6
D.	Challenging work	1	2	3	4	5	6
E.	Flexibility of work/life balance	1	2	3	4	5	6
F.	Job satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5	6
G.	Autonomy	1	2	3	4	5	6
H.	Other (please specify)	1	2	3	4	5	6

4. How important are the following in influencing your choice of future employment? (Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row	1.Not important	2.Slightly important	3.Moderately important	4.Very important	5.Extremely important	6. Don't know
1	Parents	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Friends	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Social media	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	University/education	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Life experience to-date	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Employment availability	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Other (please specify) <input type="text"/>	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. How would you best describe your social network? (Tick as many as apply)

- A. Other students from the program
- B. Students from your own university
- C. Local hometown friends
- D. Other students in China
- E. Friends local to the university but not students
- F. Other (please specify)

Section B: Entrepreneurial characteristics and attitudes

6. Does anyone in your family (including distant relatives) own a business? (Tick one only)

- A. Yes (please go to question 6a)
- B. No (please go to question 7)

6a. If yes, has their business-ownership made you think of having a business of your own? (Tick one only)

- A. Yes
- B. No

7. Have you studied any *small business* or *entrepreneurship* modules in your degree so far? (Tick one only)

- A. Yes (please go to question 7a)
- B. No (please go to question 8)

7a. If yes, please indicate how the *small business* or *entrepreneurship* modules have contributed to your knowledge and understanding? (Tick as many as apply)

- A. Increased your understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs
- B. Enhanced your practical skills in order to start a business
- C. Enhanced your ability to develop networks
- D. Enhanced your ability to identify an opportunity
- E. Other (please specify)

8. To what extent have you felt motivated to start your own business? (Tick one only)

- A. To a very large extent
- B. To a large extent
- C. To a certain extent
- D. To a small extent
- E. To no extent

9. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling a number to the right of the statement.

		1. Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither agree nor disagree	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree	6. Don't know
1.	I like to test boundaries and get into areas where few have worked before.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	I prefer doing things in the usual way rather than trying out new methods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	If I had a good idea for making some money, I would be willing to invest my time and borrow money to enable me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	I rarely daydream.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	I do not like unexpected changes to my weekly routines	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	I like challenges that stretch my abilities and I get bored with things I can do quite easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	I would prefer to have a moderate income in a secure job rather than a high income in a job that depended on my performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	I usually do what is expected of me and follow instructions carefully.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	At university, I often take over projects and steer them my way without worrying about what other people think.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Many of the bad times that people experience are due to bad luck.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	I tend not to like to stand out or be unconventional	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Sometimes I think about information almost obsessively until I come up with new ideas and solutions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	I like a lot of guidance to be really clear about what to do in work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	You are not likely to be successful unless you are in the right place at the right time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	I try to accept that things happen to me in life for reasons beyond my control.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	It is more important to do a job well than to try to please people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	If there is a chance of failure, I would rather not do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Being successful is a result of working hard, luck has little to do with it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	I believe that destiny determines what happens to me in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	I would rather work on a task as part of a team rather than take responsibility for it myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	What we are familiar with is usually better than what is unfamiliar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	I get annoyed if superiors or colleagues take credit for my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	I like to have my life organised so that it runs smoothly and to plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	When I am faced with a challenge, I think more about the results of succeeding than the effects of failing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	I think more of the present and past than of the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section C: Demographic Information

9. What is your gender? (Tick one only)

A. Female

B. Male

10. What is your age?

11. Where were you born?

12. Which degree programme are you registered on?

13. What is your approximate total family average monthly household income? (Tick one only)

A. ¥1-¥5,000

B. ¥5,001-¥10,000

C. ¥10,001-¥15,000

D. ¥15,001-¥20,000

E. ¥20,001-¥25,000

F. ¥25,001-¥30,000

G. ¥30,001-¥35,000

H. ¥35,001-¥40,000

I. ¥40,001-¥45,000

J. ¥45,001-¥50,000

K. ¥50,000 or more

14. What is/was your father's occupation? (Tick one only)

A. Employee

B. Manager

C. Professional

D. Self-employed

E. Business Owner

F. Entrepreneur

G. Civil Servant

H. Military

I. Technician

J. Worker

K. Teacher

L. Researcher

M. Farmer

N. Unemployed

O. Other (please specify)

15. What is/was your mother's occupation? (Tick one only)

A. Employee

B. Manager

C. Professional

D. Self-employed

E. Business Owner

F. Entrepreneur

G. Civil Servant

H. Military

I. Technician

J. Worker

K. Teacher

L. Researcher

M. Farmer

N. Unemployed

O. Other (please specify)

16. Has either of your parent's occupations influenced your career decision? (Tick one only)

A. Yes

B. No

17. What educational level did your father attain? (Tick one only)

A. Did not go to school at all

B. Less than high school degree

C. High school degree or equivalent

D. Some college but no degree

E. Bachelor's degree

F. Master's degree

G. PhD degree

H. Other (please specify)

18. What educational level did your mother attain? (Tick one only)

A. Did not go to school at all

B. Less than high school degree

C. High school degree or equivalent

D. Some college but no degree

E. Bachelor's degree

F. Master's degree

G. PhD degree

H. Other (please specify)

I intend supplementing the data gathered in this survey with data gathered in a series of in-depth interviews. If you would be willing to take part in an in- depth interview, please provide your name and email address below.

Name:
Email address:

Thank you for taking the time to fill in the survey.

Appendix D Questionnaire for Domestic Students (Chinese version)

这项研究致力于寻找中国企业家的成功与国外留学经验的联系。您在本次问卷调查中的贡献非常重要。通过填写这份问卷，您将为本研究提供重要的数据，为创业创新给出一系列建议，用来帮助中国留学生。您提供的信息将被严格保密。本问卷的设计使您可以在 10 分钟的时间内快速完成。提前感谢您的合作。

第一部分：职业规划

1. 你希望在完成本科学位后做什么？（单选）

- A. 寻找工作
- B. 继续进修硕士课程
- C. 加入家族企业
- D. 自主创业 / 自雇
- E. 其他（请注明）

2. 你未来的职业规划是什么？（单选）

- A. 在家族企业工作
- B. 在一个大型公司工作
- C. 在一个小型公司工作
- D. 自主创业 / 自雇 （请跳至问题 2a）
- E. 其他（请注明）

2a. 如果你的选择是“自主创业 / 自雇”，请说明您作出此选择的主要原因。（多选）

- A. 缺乏合适的工作：我选择自主创业或自雇，因为没有适合我的工作
- B. 自我实现：实现我的梦想，充分利用我的创意，创造新的价值
- C. 独立：追求自由，做我自己的老板，选择我自己的工作任务，自主安排时间
- D. 财务成功：赚钱
- E. 发展家族企业：家族企业的传承和发展
- F. 其他（请注明）

3. 你未来职业规划的決定因素是什么？（请使用以下评分等级表示您对下列观点的赞同度）

	请在每行中圈选一个数字	1.非常不重要	2.不重要	3.普通	4.重要	5.非常重要	6.不知道
A.	有吸引力的薪水	1	2	3	4	5	6
B.	就业保障	1	2	3	4	5	6
C.	个人爱好	1	2	3	4	5	6
D.	有挑战性的工作	1	2	3	4	5	6
E.	工作/生活的平衡	1	2	3	4	5	6
F.	工作满意度	1	2	3	4	5	6
G.	自主性	1	2	3	4	5	6

H.	其他 (请注明) <input type="text"/>	1	2	3	4	5	6
----	----------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---

4. 你认为下列因素对你未来就业的选择有多大的影响？

	请在每行中圈选一个数字	1.非常不重要	2.不重要	3.普通	4.重要	5.非常重要	6.不知道
A.	父母	1	2	3	4	5	6
B.	朋友	1	2	3	4	5	6
C.	社交媒体	1	2	3	4	5	6
D.	大学 / 教育	1	2	3	4	5	6
E.	经验	1	2	3	4	5	6
F.	就业机会	1	2	3	4	5	6
G.	其他 (请注明) <input type="text"/>	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. 你如何描述你的人际网络？（多选）

- A. 他们是同一个专业的学生
- B. 他们是同一所大学的学生
- C. 他们是当地的朋友
- D. 他们是其他地方的中国学生
- E. 他们是本地的朋友，但不是学生
- F. 其他 (请注明)

第二部分：创业者的特点和您对创业的态度

6. 你家里(包括直系亲属及远房亲戚)是否有人是自主创业或者自雇？（单选）

- A. 是 (请跳至问题 6a)
- B. 否 (请跳至问题 7)

6a. 如果是，他们的创业模式是否让你也考虑自主创业或者自雇？（单选）

- A. 是
- B. 否

7. 在你的大学课程里，你是否学过任何 *中小型企业* 或者与 *创业* 有关的课程？（单选）

- A. 是 (请跳至问题 7a)
- B. 否 (请跳至问题 8)

7a. 如果是，请说明学习创业相关课程对你的影响。（多选）

- A. 了解了创业需要哪些素质,需要怎样的知识
- B. 培养了创业所需的技能
- C. 提升了维持人际关系和拓展人脉的能力
- D. 增强了创业机会识别，发现商机的能力
- E. 其他 (请注明)

8. 你在多大程度上感到有动力开始自主创业？（单选）

- A. 在非常大程度上
- B. 在很大程度上
- C. 在一定程度上

D. 在很小程度上 □

E. 无 □

9. 请表明您在多大程度上同意或不同意以下说法。

		1. 非常不同意	2. 不同意	3. 既不同意也不同意	4. 同意	5. 非常同意	6. 不知道
1.	我喜欢测试边界，进入以前很少有人工作过的领域。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	我更喜欢以常规方式做事，而不是尝试新方法。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	如果我有一个赚钱的好主意，我愿意投入我的时间和借钱来使我能够做到。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	我很少做白日梦。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	我不喜欢对我每周的例行工作进行意外的改变	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	我喜欢挑战，伸展我的能力，我可以很容易做到的事情感到厌烦。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	我宁愿在一份有保障的工作中拥有适度的收入，而不是在一份取决于我表现的工作中拥有高收入。	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	我通常会做人们期望我做的事情，并认真遵守指示。	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	在大学里，我经常接手项目，以自己的方式引导它们，而不担心其他人的看法。	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	人们所经历的许多坏日子都是由于运气不好。	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	我往往不喜欢脱颖而出或不按常理出牌	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	有时我几乎痴迷地思考信息，直到我想出新的想法和解决方案。	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	我喜欢很多指导，在工作中真正明确该怎么做。	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	除非你在正确的时间出现在正确的地点，否则你不可能获得成功。	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	我试着接受生活中事情发生在我身上的原因是我无法控制的。	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	做好一项工作比试图取悦别人更重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	如果有失败的可能，我宁愿不做。	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	成功是努力工作的结果，运气与此关系不大。	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	我相信命运决定了我在生活中的遭遇。	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	我宁愿作为团队的一部分来完成一项任务，而不是自己负责。	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	我们熟悉的东西通常比不熟悉的东西好。	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	如果上级或同事抢走我的功劳，我就会很恼火。	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	我喜欢把自己的生活安排得井井有条，使其顺利进行并按计划进行。	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	当我面临挑战时，我更多考虑的是成功的结果而不是失败的影响。	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	我更多考虑的是现在和过去，而不是未来。	1	2	3	4	5	6

第三部分：个人信息

10. 你的性别是什么？（单选）

- A. 女性 B. 男性

11. 你的年龄？____

12. 你的出生地？

13. 你的大学专业是什么？

14. 你的家庭平均月收入（税前）是多少？
（单选）

- L. ¥1-¥5,000
M. ¥5,001-¥10,000
N. ¥10,001-¥15,000
O. ¥15,001-¥20,000
P. ¥20,001-¥25,000
Q. ¥25,001-¥30,000
R. ¥30,001-¥35,000
S. ¥35,001-¥40,000
T. ¥40,001-¥45,000
U. ¥45,001-¥50,000
V. ¥50,000 or more

15. 你父亲的职业是什么？（单选）

- A. 职员
B. 经理
C. 专业技术人员
D. 自雇
E. 私营企业主
F. 个体户
G. 公务员
H. 军人
I. 技师
J. 工人
K. 教师
L. 研究员
M. 农民
N. 失业 / 无业
O. 其他（请注明）

16. 你母亲的职业是什么？（单选）

- A. 职员
B. 经理

- C. 专业技术人员
D. 自雇
E. 私营企业主
F. 个体户
G. 公务员
H. 军人
I. 技师
J. 工人
K. 教师
L. 研究员
M. 农民
N. 失业 / 无业
O. 其他（请注明）

17. 你父母的职业是否影响了你的职业选择？（单选）

- A. 是
B. 否

18. 你父亲的最高学历是什么？（单选）

- A. 没有接受过教育
B. 初中及以下学历
C. 高中学历
D. 大专学历
E. 本科学位
F. 硕士学位
G. 博士学位
H. 其他（请注明）

19. 你母亲的最高学历是什么？（单选）

- A. 没有接受过教育
B. 初中及以下学历
C. 高中学历
D. 大专学历
E. 本科学位
F. 硕士学位
G. 博士学位
H. 其他（请注明）

如果您愿意继续参与之后的访谈研究，请在下面提供您的姓名和电子邮件地址。

姓名：

电子邮箱：

感谢您抽出时间填写调查问卷。

Appendix E Overview of the Pilot Questionnaire Data Collected

(Time: Overseas 14 March 2017; Domestic 27 March 2017)

Section A: Foreign experience

1. Why did you study abroad? (Tick as many as apply)	<u>Overseas only</u>
1) I wanted to broaden my horizons	43(71.7%)
2) I wanted to experience other cultures	43(71.7%)
3) I wanted to improve my chances of getting a good job	36(60.0%)
4) I wanted to improve my foreign language competence	39(65.0%)
5) I particularly wanted to study in the UK	12(20.0%)
6) I thought that a higher level of English proficiency would improve my job prospects	24(40.0%)
7) I thought that my preferred course would be of a better quality abroad	14(23.3%)
8) I particularly wanted to study at an institution with an international reputation	14(23.3%)
9) I needed a change in my life	16(26.7%)
10) I wanted to become more independent	18(30%)
11) I wanted a better-quality education than the one offered in my home country	17(28.3%)
12) Other (please specify)	0
	<u>Mean: 17.4</u>

2. How would you best describe your social network while in the UK? (Tick as many as apply)	<u>Overseas only</u>
1) Other students from the program	29(48.3%)
2) Students from the UK	23(38.3%)
3) Other international students, not from the UK, but not from the home country either	21(35.0%)
4) Students in China	46(76.7%)
5) People from the UK who are not students	12(20.0%)
6) My family back in China	25(41.7%)
7) Young people in China who are not students	7(11.7%)
8) Other (please specify)	0
	<u>Mean:11.2833</u>

2a How would you best describe your social network? (Tick as many as apply)	<u>Domestic only</u>
1) Other students from the program	48(75.0%)
2) Students from the same university	47(73.4%)
3) Local hometown friends	48(75.0%)
4) Other students in China	20(31.3%)
5) Friends local to the university but not students	21(32.8%)
6) Other (please specify)	0
	<u>Mean: 2.8750</u>

3. After graduation, do you intend to return to China? (Tick one)
- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------|
| | <u>Overseas only</u> |
| 1) No | 0 |
| 2) Immediately | 33(55%) |
| 3) In 6 months | 7(11.7%) |
| 4) In 1 year | 8(13.3%) |
| 5) In 2 years | 7(11.7%) |
| 6) In 5 years | 5(8.3%) |
| 7) Other (please specify) | 0 |
| | <u>Mean:3.03</u> |

4. What do you hope to do on completion of your degree? (Tick one)
- | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| | <u>Domestic</u> | <u>Overseas</u> |
| 1) Seek a job | 41(64.1%) | 10(16.7%) |
| 2) Study a further course | 20(31.3%) | 38(63.3%) |
| 3) Join a family business | 0 | 2(3.3%) |
| 4) Start a business | 3(4.7%) | 9(15%) |
| 5) Other (please specify) | 0 | 1(1.7%) (travel) |
| | <u>Mean: 1.45</u> | <u>Mean: 3.78</u> |

5. How important were the following factors in determining what you plan to do after completing your degree?
(Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row		1.Not important	2.Slightly important	3.Moderately important	4.Important	5.Very important	6. Don't know	Mean
1.	Attractive salary	D O	3(4.7%) 4(6.7%)	0 5(8.3%)	6(9.4%) 13(21.7%)	29(45.3%) 21(35%)	26(40.6%) 17(28.3%)	0 0	4.17 3.7
2.	Job security	D O	1(1.6%) 5(8.3%)	1(1.6%) 6(10%)	9(14.1%) 15(25%)	21(32.8%) 18(30%)	32(50%) 16(26.7%)	0 0	4.28 3.57
3.	Personal interest	D O	4(6.3%) 2(3.3%)	0 6(10%)	12(18.8%) 14(23.3%)	20(31.3%) 16(26.7%)	28(43.8%) 22(36.7%)	0 0	4.13 3.83
4.	Challenging work	D O	2(3.1%) 6(10%)	5(7.8%) 10(16.7%)	27(42.2%) 20(33.3%)	18(28.1%) 13(25%)	12(18.8%) 11(18.3%)	0 0	3.52 3.22
5.	Flexible work work/life bal	D O	1(1.6%) 3(5%)	1(1.6%) 5(8.3%)	9(14.1%) 21(35%)	24(37.4%) 13 (21.7%)	29(45.3%) 17(28.3%)	0 1(1.7%)	4.23 3.55
6.	Job satisfaction	D O	1(1.6%) 1(1.7%)	0 3(5%)	7(10.9%) 8(13.3%)	27(42.2%) 19(31.7%)	29(45.3%) 26(43.3%)	0 3(5%)	4.31 3.95
7.	Autonomy	D O	2(3.1%) 4(6.7%)	1(1.6%) 9(15%)	17(26.6%) 20(33.3%)	27(42.2%) 13(21.7%)	17(26.6%) 11(18.3%)	0 3(5%)	3.88 3.15
8.	Other	D O	0 0						0 0
	Total	D O							28.52 25.13

6. How much influence do you think the following have on the choice of your future employment? (Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row		1. Not important	2. Slightly important	3. Moderately important	4. Important	5. Very important	6. Don't know	Mean
1.	Parents	D O	1(1.6%) 7(11.7%)	6(9.4%) 10(16.7%)	19(29.7%) 11(18.3%)	17(26.6%) 20(33.3%)	21(32.8%) 12(20%)	0 0	3.8 3.33
2.	Friends	D O	1(1.6%) 10(16.7%)	10(15.6%) 17(28.3%)	28(43.8%) 17(28.3%)	17(26.6%) 13(21.7%)	8(12.5%) 3(5%)	0 0	3.33 2.7
3.	Social media	D O	1(1.6%) 11(18.3%)	13(20.3%) 17(28.3%)	22(34.4%) 15(25%)	25(39.1%) 13(21.7%)	3(4.7%) 3(5%)	0 1(1.7%)	3.25 2.62
4.	University /Education	D O	1(1.6%) 3(5%)	3(4.7%) 5(8.3%)	12(18.8%) 7(11.7%)	27(42.2%) 35(58.3%)	21(32.8%) 10(16.7%)	0 0	4 3.73
5.	Life Experience	D O	1(1.6%) 4(6.7%)	1(1.6%) 3(5%)	6(9.4%) 5(8.3%)	26(40.9%) 31(51.7%)	30(46.9%) 15(25%)	0 2(3.3%)	4.3 3.73
6.	Employment Availability	D O	1(1.6%) 4(6.7%)	0 5(8.3%)	3(4.7%) 7(11.7%)	23(35.9%) 26(43.3%)	37(57.8%) 16(26.7%)	0 2(3.3%)	4.48 3.65
7.	Other	D O	0 0						0 0
	Total	D O							23.16 19.78

7. To what extent has your life been influence by the experience of studying and living in the UK? (Circle a number for each factor)

Overseas only

Mean:37.83

	Please circle one box in each row	1.no influence at all	2.slightly influence	3.moderately influence	4.influence	5.highly influence	6. Don't know	Mean
1	Creativity	2(3.3%)	6(10%)	18(30%)	17(28.3%)	16(26.7%)	1(1.7%)	3.6
2	Confidence	1(1.7%)	5(8.3%)	12(20%)	25(41.7%)	17(28.3%)	0	3.87
3	Determination	1(1.7%)	3(5%)	18(30%)	21(35%)	17(28.3%)	0	3.83
4	Control over my own actions	2(3.3%)	3(5%)	9(15%)	23(38.3%)	23(38.3%)	0	4.03
5	Problem solving ability	1(1.7%)	4(6.7%)	9(15%)	20(33.3%)	26(43.3%)	0	4.1
6	Flexibility	2(3.3%)	3(5%)	16(26.7%)	25(41.7%)	14(23.3%)	0	3.77
7	Willingness to take risks	4(6.7%)	9(15%)	15(25%)	21(35%)	10(16.7%)	1(1.7%)	3.35
8	Independence	1(1.7%)	5(8.3%)	4(6.7%)	21(35%)	26(43.3%)	3(5%)	3.95
9	Decision-making	3(5%)	2(3.3%)	9(15%)	24(40%)	21(30%)	1(1.7%)	3.92
10	Develop a new network	1(1.7%)	14(23.3%)	19(31.7%)	11(18.3%)	15(25%)	0	3.42
11	Other	0						0

Section B: Entrepreneurial characteristics and attitudes

8. Before you come to the UK, did you have a career plan? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Working in a family business	0	4(6.7%)
2) Working in a large organization	49(76.6%)	30(50%)
3) Working in a small organization	10(15.6%)	0
4) Starting own business	5(7.8%)	11(18.3%)
5) Not have a plan	0	15(25%)
6) Other (please specify)	0	0
	<u>Mean:2.31</u>	<u>Mean:3.05</u>

9. Does anyone in your family own a business? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Yes (please go to question 9a) 26(43.3%)	15(23.4%)	26(43.3%)
2) No (please go to question 10) 34(56.7%)	49(76.6%)	34(56.7%)
	<u>Mean:1.77</u>	<u>Mean:1.57</u>

9a. If yes, has their business-ownership made you think of having a business of your own? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u> (not applicable 49, response 15)	<u>Overseas</u> (not applicable 34, response 26)
1) Yes	8(53.3%)	20(33.3%)
2) No	7(46.7%)	6(10%)
	<u>Mean: 0.34</u>	<u>Mean:0.53</u>

10. Have you studied any *small business* or entrepreneurship modules in your degree so far? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Yes 46(76.7%)	52(81.3%)	46(76.7%)
2) No 14(23.3%)	12(18.8%)	14(23.3%)
	<u>Mean:1.19</u>	<u>Mean:1.23</u>

11. To what extent have you felt motivated to start your own business by your foreign experience? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) To a very large extent	3(4.7%)	10(16.7%)
2) To a large extent	8(12.5%)	13(21.7%)
3) To a certain extent	35(54.7%)	18(30%)
4) To a small extent	15(23.4%)	15(25%)
5) To no extent	3(4.7%)	4(6.7%)
	<u>Mean:2.92</u>	<u>Mean:3.17</u>

12. To what extent do you agree with the “studying overseas is an advantage when starting your own business”? (Tick one)

	<u>Overseas only</u>
1) Strongly agree	10(16.7%)
2) Agree	26(43.3%)
3) Neither agree nor disagree	22(36.7%)
4) Disagree	1(1.7%)
5) Strongly disagree	0
6) Don't know	1(1.7%)
	<u>Mean:3.7</u>

13. To what extent might the following factors be useful in helping you start your own business? (Circle a number for each factor)

Overseas only

Mean:20.17

	Please circle one box in each row	1.not useful at all	2. slightly useful	3.moderately useful	4. Useful	5. Very useful	6. Don't know	Mean
1.	Foreign languages	2(3.3%)	4(6.7%)	5(8.3%)	24(40%)	25(41.7%)	0	4.1
2.	Advanced knowledge and skills	1(1.7%)	3(5%)	8(13.3%)	20(33.3%)	28(46.7%)	0	4.18
3.	Knowledge of different cultures	2(3.3%)	3(5%)	13(21.7%)	21(35%)	20(33.3%)	1(1.7%)	3.85
4.	Broadened mind	2(3.3%)	4(6.7%)	9(15%)	13(21.7%)	31(51.7%)	1(1.7%)	4.07
5.	Widened social network	1(1.7%)	5(8.3%)	12(20%)	19(31.7%)	23(38.3%)	0	3.97
6.	Other (please specify)	0						0

14. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling a number to the right of the statement.

	Please circle one box in each row		1. Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither agree nor disagree	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree	6. Don't know	Mean
1.	I like to test boundaries and get into areas where few have worked before.	D O	1(1.6%) 2(3.3%)	10(15.6%) 10(16.7%)	24(37.5%) 19(31.7%)	19(29.7%) 21(35%)	9(14.1%) 8(13.3%)	1(1.6%) 0	3.34 3.38
2.	I prefer doing things in the usual way rather than trying out new methods.	D O	2(3.1%) 4(6.7%)	24(37.5%) 16(26.7%)	19(29.7%) 15(25%)	15(23.4%) 23(38.3%)	3(4.7%) 2(3.3%)	1(1.6%) 0	2.84 3.05
3.	If I had a good idea for making some money, I would be willing to invest my time and borrow money to enable me to do it.	D O	2(3.1%) 4(6.7%)	23(35.9%) 13(21.7%)	20(31.3%) 17(28.3%)	15(23.4%) 21(35%)	3(4.7%) 5(8.3%)	1(1.6%) 0	2.86 3.17
4.	I rarely daydream.	D O	5(7.8%) 3(5%)	7(10.9%) 18(30%)	22(34.4%) 16(26.7%)	16(25%) 19(31.7%)	13(20.3%) 3(5%)	1(1.6%) 1(1.7%)	3.34 2.97
5.	I do not like unexpected changes to my weekly routines	D O	2(3.1%) 1(1.7%)	9(14.1%) 11(18.3%)	21(32.8%) 15(25%)	23(35.9%) 22(36.7%)	8(12.5%) 11(18.3%)	1(1.6%) 0	3.36 3.52
6.	I like challenges that stretch my abilities and I get bored with things I can do quite easily.	D O	3(4.7%) 2(3.3%)	5(7.8%) 8(13.3%)	22(34.4%) 20(33.3%)	22(34.4%) 17(28.3%)	12(18.8%) 12(20%)	0 1(1.7%)	3.55 3.43
7.	I would prefer to have a moderate income in a secure job rather than a high income in a job that depended on my performance.	D O	8(12.5%) 5(8.3%)	10(15.6%) 23(38.3%)	25(39.1%) 11(18.3%)	13(20.3%) 18(30%)	7(10.9%) 3(5%)	1(1.6%) 0	2.97 2.85
8.	I usually do what is expected of me and follow instructions carefully.	D O	3(4.7%) 3(5%)	2(3.1%) 8(13.3%)	17(26.6%) 22(36.7%)	20(31.3%) 22(36.7%)	21(32.8%) 5(8.3%)	1(1.6%) 0	3.80 3.3
9.	At university, I often take over projects and steer them my way without worrying about what other people think.	D O	5(7.8%) 3(5%)	21(32.8%) 10(16.7%)	22(34.4%) 20(33.3%)	11(17.2%) 17(28.3%)	3(4.7%) 9(15%)	2(3.1%) 1(1.7%)	2.69 3.27
10.	Many of the bad times that people experience are due to bad luck.	D O	11(17.2%) 8(13.3%)	34(53.1%) 23(38.3%)	14(21.9%) 12(20%)	4(6.3%) 13(21.7%)	1(1.6%) 3(5%)	0 1(1.7%)	2.22 2.62
11.	I tend not to like to stand out or be unconventional	D O	1(1.6%) 3(5%)	3(4.7%) 9(15%)	15(23.4%) 17(28.3%)	25(39.1%) 17(28.3%)	19(29.7%) 13(21.7%)	1(1.6%) 1(1.7%)	3.86 3.42
12.	Sometimes I think about information almost obsessively until I come up with new ideas and solutions.	D O	2(3.1%) 3(5%)	12(18.8%) 9(15%)	21(32.8%) 16(26.7%)	20(31.3%) 21(35%)	8(12.5%) 11(18.3%)	1(1.6%) 0	3.27 3.47
13.	I like a lot of guidance to be really clear about what to do in work.	D O	1(1.6%) 3(5%)	13(20.3%) 13(21.7%)	17(26.6%) 13(21.7%)	20(31.3%) 26(43.3%)	11(17.2%) 4(6.7%)	2(3.1%) 1(1.7%)	3.33 3.20
14.	You are not likely to be successful unless you are in the right place at the right time.	D O	1(1.6%) 2(3.3%)	3(4.7%) 8(13.3%)	16(25%) 9(15%)	24(37.5%) 25(41.7%)	19(29.7%) 16(26.7%)	1(1.6%) 0	3.84 3.75
15.	I try to accept that things happen to me in life for reasons beyond my control.	D O	1(1.6%) 4(6.7%)	0 9(15%)	11(17.2%) 8(13.3%)	28(43.8%) 28(46.7%)	22(34.3%) 11(18.3%)	2(3.1%) 0	4 3.55

16.	It is more important to do a job well than to try to please people.	D O	0 1(1.7%)	11(17.2%) 7(11.7%)	25(39.1%) 19(31.7%)	23(35.9%) 22(36.7%)	4(6.3%) 11(18.3%)	1(1.6%) 0	3.27 3.58
17.	If there is a chance of failure, I would rather not do it.	D O	11(17.2%) 4(6.7%)	34(53.1%) 20(33.3%)	12(18.8%) 16(26.7%)	5(7.8%) 17(28.3%)	2(3.1%) 3(5%)	0 0	2.27 2.92
18.	Being successful is a result of working hard, luck has little to do with it.	D O	7(10.9%) 3(5%)	16(25%) 11(18.3%)	27(42.2%) 15(25%)	6(9.4%) 17(28.3%)	6(9.4%) 13(21.7%)	2(3.1%) 1(1.7%)	2.72 3.38
19.	I believe that destiny determines what happens to me in life.	D O	15(23.4%) 6(10%)	19(29.7%) 13(21.7%)	17(26.6%) 14(23.3%)	9(14.1%) 20(33.3%)	2(3.1%) 6(10%)	2(3.1%) 1(1.7%)	2.34 3.07
20.	I would rather work on a task as part of a team rather than take responsibility for it myself.	D O	0 3(5%)	5(7.8%) 3(5%)	11(17.2%) 9(15%)	30(46.9%) 27(45%)	16(25%) 18(30%)	2(3.1%) 0	3.8 3.90
21.	What we are familiar with is usually better than what is unfamiliar.	D O	2(3.1%) 2(3.3%)	5(7.8%) 11(18.3%)	27(42.2%) 19(31.7%)	20(31.3%) 19(31.7%)	8(12.5%) 9(15%)	2(3.1%) 0	3.33 3.37
22.	I get annoyed if superiors or colleagues take credit for my work.	D O	2(3.1%) 1(1.7%)	11(17.2%) 16(26.7%)	31(48.4%) 11(18.3%)	13(20.3%) 17(28.3%)	7(10.9%) 15(25%)	0 0	3.19 3.48
23.	I like to have my life organised so that it runs smoothly and to plan.	D O	0 4(6.7%)	4(6.3%) 3(5%)	16(25%) 12(20%)	22(34.3%) 26(43.3%)	19(29.7%) 15(25%)	3(4.7%) 0	3.73 3.75
24.	When I am faced with a challenge, I think more about the results of succeeding than the effects of failing.	D O	5(7.8%) 3(5%)	13(20.3%) 22(36.7%)	9(14.1%) 15(25%)	23(35.9%) 13(21.7%)	13(20.3%) 7(11.7%)	1(1.6%) 0	3.36 2.98
25.	I think more of the present and past than of the future.	D O	1(1.6%) 1(1.7%)	9(14.1%) 7(11.7%)	10(15.6%) 13(21.7%)	24(37.5%) 23(38.3%)	19(29.7%) 15(25%)	1(1.6%) 1(1.7%)	3.75 3.68

Section C: Demographic Information

15. What is your gender? (Tick one)

	Domestic	Overseas
1) Female	43(67.2%)	43(71.7%)
2) Male	21(32.8%)	17(28.3%)
	<u>Mean:1.33</u>	<u>Mean:1.28</u>

16. What is your age?

	Domestic	Overseas
1) 19	3(4.7%)	0
2) 20	7(10.9%)	5(8.3%)
3) 21	24(37.5%)	20(33.3%)
4) 22	16(25%)	17(28.3%)
5) 23	8(12.5%)	13(21.7%)
6) 24	4(6.3%)	4(6.7%)
7) 25	1(1.6%)	0
8) 26	1(1.6%)	0
9) 27	0	1(1.7%)
	<u>Mean:21.63</u>	<u>Mean:21.93</u>

17. In what city were you born?

	Domestic	Overseas
1) Beijing	45(70.3%)	52(86.7%)
2) Hunan	0	1(1.7%)
3) Guizhou	0	1(1.7%)
4) Lanzhou	0	1(1.7%)
5) Shandong	2(3.1%)	2(3.3%)
6) Shanxi	3(4.7%)	1(1.7%)
7) Liaoning	0	1(1.7%)
8) Tianjin	0	1(1.7%)
9) Anhui	5(7.8%)	0
1) Chongqing	1(1.6%)	0
2) Guangxi	1(1.6%)	0
3) Hebei	2(3.1%)	0
4) Henan	3(4.7%)	0
5) Yunnan	2(3.1%)	0

18. Which degree programme are you registered on? (Tick one)

	Domestic	Overseas
1) International Business Management	64(100%)	33(55%)
2) Food Quality with Retail Management	0	27(45%)

Business 64(100%)

19. What is your approximate total family average monthly household income? (Tick one)

	Domestic	Overseas
1) ¥1-¥5,000	14(21.9%)	7(11.7%)
2) ¥5,001-¥10,000	27(42.2%)	4(6.7%)
3) ¥10,001-¥15,000	14(21.9%)	12(20%)
4) ¥15,001-¥20,000	2(3.1%)	12(20%)
5) ¥20,001-¥25,000	4(6.3%)	8(13.3%)
6) ¥25,001-¥30,000	3(4.7%)	2(3.3%)
7) ¥30,001-¥35,000	0	3(5%)
8) ¥35,001-¥40,000	0	1(1.7%)
9) ¥40,001-¥45,000	0	2(3.3%)
10) ¥45,001-¥50,000	0	3(5%)
11) ¥50,000 or more	0	6(10%)
	<u>Mean:2.44</u>	<u>Mean:4.9</u>

20. What is/was your father's occupation?

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Entrepreneurs	12(18.8%)	22(36.7%)
2) Manager	1(1.6%)	9(15%)
3) Engineer	1(1.6%)	8(13.3%)
4) Civil Servant	4(6.3%)	6(10%)
5) Teacher	0	4(6.7%)
6) Officer	0	3(5%)
7) Policeman	0	2(3.3%)
8) Accountant	1(1.6%)	1(1.7%)
9) Army man	1(1.6%)	1(1.7%)
10) Assistant	0	1(1.7%)
11) Salesman	0	1(1.7%)
12) Worker	8(12.5%)	1(1.7%)
13) Supervision	0	1(1.7%)
14) architect	1(1.6%)	0
15) builder	1(1.6%)	0
16) chef	1(1.6%)	0
17) driver	10(15.6%)	0
18) electrician	1(1.6%)	0
19) employee	3(4.7%)	0
20) farmer	7(10.9%)	0
21) real estate	2(3.1%)	0
22) section chief	1(1.6%)	0
23) Security	2(3.1%)	0
24) senior mechanic	1(1.6%)	0
25) unemployed	5(7.8%)	0
26) village committee	1(1.6%)	0

21. What is/was your mother's occupation?

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Entrepreneurs	8(12.5%)	10(15.6%)
2) Manager	1(1.6%)	12(18.8%)
3) Accountant	4(6.3%)	3(5%)
4) Banking Staff	0	1(1.7%)
5) Civil Servant	1(1.6%)	3(5%)
6) Clerk	0	4(6.7%)
7) Doctor	0	4(6.7%)
8) Engineer	1(1.6%)	1(1.7%)
9) Employee	8(13.3%)	1(1.7%)
10) Nurse	0	5(8.3%)
11) Officer	0	1(1.7%)
12) Public	0	1(1.7%)
13) Teacher	4(6.3%)	6(10%)
14) Unemployed	18(28.2%)	6(10%)
15) Neighbourhood Committee	1(1.6%)	0
16) Farmer	7(10.9%)	0
17) Worker	6(9.4%)	0
18) Cleaner	2(3.1%)	0
19) Researcher	1(1.6%)	0
20) Pastry Cook	1(1.6%)	0
21) Sales	3(4.7%)	0

22. Has either of your parent's occupations influenced your career decision? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Yes	14(21.9%)	35(58.3%)
2) No	50(78.1%)	25(41.7%)
	<u>Mean:1.78</u>	<u>Mean:1.42</u>

23. What educational level did your mother attain? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Did not go to school at all	0	1(1.7%)
2) Less than high school degree	31(48.4%)	6(10%)
3) High school degree or equivalent	20(31.3%)	10(16.7%)
4) Some college but no degree	7(10.9%)	9(15%)
5) Bachelor's degree	5(7.8%)	28(46.7%)
6) Master's degree	1(1.6%)	4(6.7%)
7) PhD degree	0	1(1.7%)
8) Other (please specify)	0	1(1.7%)
	<u>Mean:2.83</u>	<u>Mean:5.82</u>

24. What educational level did your father attain? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Did not go to school at all	0	3(5%)
2) Less than high school degree	26(40.6%)	1(1.7%)
3) High school degree or equivalent	18(28.1%)	9(15%)
4) Some college but no degree	8(12.5%)	11(18.3%)
5) Bachelor's degree	12(18.8%)	27(45%)
6) Master's degree	0	7(11.7%)
7) PhD degree	0	1(1.7%)
8) Other (please specify)	0	1(1.7%)
	<u>Mean:3.09</u>	<u>Mean:5.98</u>

Appendix F Adapted GET2 test

No	Component	Items	Notes
1	Calculated risk-taking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> If there is a chance of failure, I would rather not do it. I like to test boundaries and get into areas where few have worked before. I would prefer to have a moderate income in a secure job rather than a high income in a job that depended on my performance. If I had a good idea for making some money, I would be willing to invest my time and borrow money to enable me to do it. What we are used to is usually better than what is unfamiliar. 	<p>negatively assessed</p> <p>positively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p> <p>positively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p>
2	Creative tendency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I rarely daydream Sometimes I think about information almost obsessively until I come up with new ideas and solutions I do not like unexpected changes to my weekly routines I prefer doing things in the usual way rather than trying out new methods I like to have my life organised so that it runs smoothly and to plan 	<p>positively assessed</p> <p>positively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p>
3	Need for achievement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I like challenges that really stretch my abilities rather than things I can do quite easily I think more of the present and past than of the future. When I am faced with a challenge, I think more about the results of succeeding than the effects of failing. I would rather work on a task as part of a team rather than take responsibility for it myself. It is more important to do a job well than to try to please people. 	<p>positively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p> <p>positively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p> <p>positively assessed</p>
4	Need for autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I usually do what is expected of me and follow instructions I tend not to like to stand out or be unconventional At university, I often take over projects and steer them my way without worrying about what other people think I get annoyed if superiors or colleagues take credit for my work I like a lot of guidance to be really clear about what to do in work. 	<p>negatively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p> <p>positively assessed</p> <p>positively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p>
5	Internal locus of control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I try to accept that things happen to me in life for a reason Being successful is a result of working hard, luck has nothing to do with it I believe that destiny determines what happens to me in life Many of the bad times that people experience are due to bad luck. You are not likely to be successful unless you are in the right place at the right time. 	<p>negatively assessed</p> <p>positively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p> <p>negatively assessed</p>

(Source: author)

Appendix G Overview of the Main Study Questionnaire Data Collected (Time 0: October 2017)

Overseas: 54 students, Domestic: 61 students

Section A: Foreign experience

1. Why did you study abroad? (Tick as many as apply)	<u>Overseas only</u>
1) I wanted to broaden my horizons	46 (85.2%)
2) I wanted to experience other cultures	42 (77.8%)
3) I wanted to improve my chances of getting a good job	34 (63.0%)
4) I wanted to improve my foreign language competence	36 (66.7%)
5) I particularly wanted to study in the UK	11 (20.4%)
6) I thought that a higher level of English proficiency would improve my job prospects	25 (46.3%)
7) I particularly wanted to study at an institution with an international reputation	13 (24.1%)
8) I needed a change in my life	16 (29.6%)
9) I wanted to become more independent	28 (51.9%)
10) I wanted a better-quality education than the one offered in my home country	21 (38.9%)
11) Other (please specify) <i>parent reasons</i>	1 (1.9%)
2. Who is currently part of your social network while in the UK? (Tick as many as apply)	<u>Overseas only</u>
1) Other students on my program	41 (75.9%)
2) Students from the UK	12 (22.2%)
3) Other international students, not from China	14 (25.9%)
4) Students back in China	34 (63.0%)
5) People from the UK who are not students	9 (16.7%)
6) My family back in China	21 (38.9%)
7) People of my generation in China who are not students	5 (9.3%)
8) Other (please specify)	0
2a How would you best describe your social network? (Tick as many as apply)	<u>Domestic only</u>
1) Other students from the program	39 (67.2%)
2) Students from the same university	38 (65.5%)
3) Local hometown friends	45 (77.6%)
4) Other students in China	20 (34.5%)
5) Friends local to the university but not students	22 (37.9%)
6) Other (please specify)	0

3. After you graduate, do you intend to return to China? (Tick one only)

Overseas only

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 1) Immediately | 27(50.0%) |
| 2) In 6 months | 9(16.7%) |
| 3) In 1 year | 12(22.2%) |
| 4) In 2 years | 5(9.3%) |
| 5) In 5 years | 1(1.9%) |
| 6) Other (please specify) <i>maybe find an internship for 2 months</i> | 0 |

Mean: 1.96

4. What do you hope to do on completion of your current degree? (Tick one only)

- | | <u>Domestic</u> | <u>Overseas</u> |
|---------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1) Seek a job | 29(47.5%) | 12(22.2%) |
| 2) Study a further course | 28(45.9%) | 40(74.1%) |
| 3) Join a family business | 3(4.9%) | 1(1.9%) |
| 4) Start a business | 1(1.6%) | 1(1.9%) |
| 5) Other (please specify) | 0 | 0 |

5. How important are the following factors in determining what you plan to do after completing your degree?
(Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row		1. Not important	2. Slightly important	3. Moderately important	4. Very important	5. Extremely important	6. Don't know	Mean
1	Attractive salary	D	1(1.6%)	0	4(6.6%)	17(27.9%)	39(63.9%)	0	4.52
		O	0	10(18.5%)	13(24.1%)	16(29.6%)	15(27.8%)	0	3.67
2	Job security	D	2(3.3%)	1(1.6%)	6(9.8%)	25(41.0%)	27(44.3%)	0	4.21
		O	2(3.7%)	6(11.1%)	20(37.0%)	16(29.6%)	10(18.5%)	0	3.48
3	Personal interest	D	2(3.3%)	0	12(19.7%)	22(36.1%)	24(39.3%)	0	4.03
		O	2(3.7%)	10(18.5%)	12(22.2%)	20(37.0%)	10(18.5%)	0	3.48
4	Challenging work	D	2(3.3%)	7(11.5%)	21(34.4%)	18(29.5%)	12(19.7%)	0	3.46
		O	3(5.6%)	12(22.2%)	20(37.0%)	14(25.9%)	5(9.3%)	0	3.11
5	Flexible work work/life bal	D	3(4.9%)	1(1.6%)	8(13.1%)	24(39.3%)	23(37.7%)	2(3.3%)	3.93
		O	2(3.7%)	11(20.4%)	11(20.4%)	18(33.3%)	12(22.2%)	0	3.50
6	Job satisfaction	D	2(3.3%)	0	5(8.2%)	27(44.3%)	26(42.6%)	0	4.18
		O	2(3.7%)	8(14.8%)	5(9.3%)	24(44.4%)	15(27.8%)	0	3.78
7	Autonomy	D	1(1.6%)	3(4.9%)	11(18.0%)	25(41.0%)	20(32.8%)	1(1.6%)	3.93
		O	3(5.6%)	9(16.7%)	21(38.9%)	13(24.1%)	7(13.0%)	1(1.9%)	3.17
8	Other	D	2(3.3%) <i>company's growth prospects; social network</i>						
		O	0						

6. How important are the following in influencing your choice of future employment? (Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row		1. Not important	2. Slightly important	3. Moderately important	4. Very Important	5. Extremely important	6. Don't know	Mean	
1.	Parents	D O	5(8.2%) 1(1.9%)	4(6.6%) 10(18.5%)	15(24.6%) 13(24.1%)	23(37.7%) 19(35.2%)	14(23.0%) 11(20.4%)	0 0	3.61 3.54	
2.	Friends	D O	3(4.9%) 2(3.7%)	79(11.5%) 15(27.8%)	26(42.6%) 21(38.9%)	18(29.5%) 13(24.1%)	7(11.5%) 3(5.6%)	0 0	3.31 3.00	
3.	Social media	D O	4(6.6%) 5(9.3%)	9(14.8%) 13(24.1%)	24(39.3%) 24(44.4%)	17(27.9%) 11(20.4%)	7(11.5%) 1(1.9%)	0 0	3.23 2.81	
4.	University /Education	D O	1(1.6%) 2(3.7%)	3(4.9%) 9(16.7%)	17(27.9%) 15(27.8%)	24(39.3%) 19(35.2%)	16(26.2%) 9(16.7%)	0 0	3.84 3.44	
5.	Life Experience	D O	0 3(5.6%)	2(3.3%) 8(14.8%)	11(18.0%) 8(14.8%)	21(34.4%) 27(50.0%)	26(42.6%) 8(14.8%)	0 0	4.11 3.54	
6.	Employment Availability	D O	2(3.3%) 1(1.9%)	0 7(13.0%)	6(9.8%) 8(14.8%)	24(39.3%) 26(48.1%)	28(45.9%) 12(22.2%)	0 0	4.20 3.76	
7.	Other	D O	3(4.9%) <i>partner; personal interest</i>							

7. Personal traits. To what extent has your life been influenced by the experience of studying and living in the UK? (Circle a number for each factor)

Overseas only

Mean:

	Please circle one box in each row	1. very little influence	2. slight influence	3. moderate influence	4. strong influence	5. very strong influence	6. Don't know	Mean	
1	Increased creativity	0	12(22.2%)	17(31.5%)	19(35.2%)	5(9.3%)	1(1.9%)	3.26	
2	Self-Confidence	1(1.9%)	8(14.8%)	12(22.2%)	21(38.9%)	11(20.4%)	1(1.9%)	3.56	
3	Determination	3(5.6%)	8(14.8%)	13(24.1%)	24(44.4%)	6(11.1%)	0	3.41	
4	Control over my own actions	1(1.9%)	7(13.0%)	11(20.4%)	26(48.1%)	9(16.7%)	0	3.65	
5	Problem solving ability	1(1.9%)	7(13.0%)	9(16.7%)	24(44.4%)	12(22.2%)	1(1.9%)	3.67	
6	Personal intellectual flexibility	0	9(16.7%)	10(18.5%)	27(50.0%)	7(13.0%)	1(1.9%)	3.54	
7	Willingness to take risks	2(3.7%)	10(18.5%)	15(27.8%)	19(35.2%)	7(13.0%)	1(1.9%)	3.30	
8	Independence	0	7(13.0%)	6(11.1%)	25(46.3%)	16(29.6%)	0	3.93	
9	Decision-making abilities	1(1.9%)	6(11.1%)	8(14.8%)	27(50.0%)	11(20.4%)	1(1.9%)	3.70	
10	Developing a new network	2(3.7%)	10(18.5%)	15(27.8%)	22(40.7%)	5(9.3%)	0	3.33	
11	Other	0							

Section B: Entrepreneurial characteristics and attitudes

8. What is your long-term career plan? (Tick one only)

	Domestic	Overseas
1) Working in the family business	2(3.3%)	0
2) Working in a large organization	44(72.1%)	32(59.3%)
3) Working in a small organization	8(13.1%)	1(1.9%)
4) Starting own business (please go to Q8a)	6(9.8%)	15(27.8%)
5) Not have a plan	1(1.6%)	6(11.1%)
6) Other (please specify)	0	0

8a. If your choice was “starting own business”, please indicate the major reasons for your choice. (Tick as many as apply)

	<u>Domestic</u> (not applicable 49 ,response 6)	<u>Overseas</u> (not applicable 39, response 15)
1) Lack of alternative jobs	0	5(33.3%)
2) Self-achievement	6(100%)	7(46.7%)
3) Independence	6(100%)	9(60.0%)
4) Financial success	2(33.3%)	6(40.0%)
5) Continue family tradition	0	3(20.0%)
6) Other (please specify)	0	0

9. Does anyone in your family (including distant relatives) own a business? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Yes (please go to question 9a)	18(29.5%)	20(37.0%)
2) No (please go to question 10)	43(70.5%)	34(63.0%)

9a. If yes, has their business-ownership made you think of having a business of your own? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u> (not applicable 43 ,response 18)	<u>Overseas</u> (not applicable 34, response 20)
1) Yes	9 (50.0%)	9(45%)
2) No	9 (50.0%)	11(55%)

10. Have you studied any *small business* or entrepreneurship modules in your degree so far? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Yes(please go to question 10a)	45(73.8%)	30(55.6%)
2) No(please go to question 11)	16(26.2%)	24(44.4%)

10a. If yes, please indicate how the small business or entrepreneurship modules have contributed to your knowledge and understanding? (Tick as many as apply)

	<u>Domestic</u> (not applicable 16, response 45)	<u>Overseas</u> (not applicable 24, response 30)
A. Increased your understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs	41(67.2%)	26(86.7%)
B. Enhanced your practical skills in order to start a business	24(39.3%)	10(33.3%)
C. Enhanced your ability to develop networks	15(24.6%)	3(10.0%)
D. Enhanced your ability to identify an opportunity	23(37.7%)	12(40.0%)
E. Other (please specify) <i>the difficulty of start a business</i>	0	0

11. To what extent have you felt motivated to start your own business (by your foreign experience)? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) To a very large extent	9(14.8%)	5(9.3%)
2) To a large extent	16(26.2%)	19(35.2%)
3) To a certain extent	23(37.7%)	10(18.5%)
4) To a small extent	5(8.2%)	14(25.9%)
5) To no extent	8(13.1%)	6(11.1%)

12. To what extent do you agree with the statement “studying overseas is an advantage when starting your own business”? (Tick one only)

	<u>Overseas only</u>
1) Strongly agree	10(18.5%)
2) Agree	19(35.2%)
3) Neither agree nor disagree	15(27.8%)
4) Disagree	6(11.1%)
5) Strongly disagree	1(1.9%)
6) Don't know	3(5.6%)
	<u>Mean: 2.26</u>

13. To what extent might the following factors be useful in helping you start your own business? (Circle a number for each factor)

Overseas only

	Please circle one box in each row	1. not very useful	2. slightly useful	3. moderately useful	4. Very Useful	5. Extermely useful	6. Don't know	Mean
1.	Foreign languages	0	6(11.1%)	9(16.7%)	24(44.4%)	15(27.8%)	0	3.89
2.	Advanced knowledge and skills	0	8(14.8%)	8(14.8%)	21(38.9%)	17(31.5%)	0	3.87
3.	Knowledge of different cultures	1(1.9%)	5(9.3%)	13(24.1%)	21(38.9%)	14(25.9%)	0	3.78
4.	Broadened mind	1(1.9%)	6(11.1%)	8(14.8%)	21(38.9%)	18(33.3%)	0	3.91
5.	Widened social network	1(1.9%)	9(16.7%)	10(18.5%)	23(42.6%)	11(20.4%)	0	3.63
6.	Other (please specify)	0						

14. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling a number to the right of the statement.

	Please circle one box in each row		1. Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither agree nor disagree	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree	6. Don't know	Mean
1.	I like to test boundaries and get into areas where few have worked before.	D	7(11.5%)	5(8.2%)	25(41.0%)	18(29.5%)	6(9.8%)	0	3.18
		O	2(3.7%)	5(9.3%)	14(25.9%)	21(38.9%)	10(18.5%)	2(3.7%)	3.48
2.	I prefer doing things in the usual way rather than trying out new methods.	D	5(8.2%)	16(26.2%)	25(41.0%)	10(16.4%)	5(8.2%)	0	2.90
		O	1(1.9%)	12(22.2%)	16(29.6%)	21(38.9%)	4(7.4%)	0	3.28
3.	If I had a good idea for making some money, I would be willing to invest my time and borrow money to enable me to do it.	D	7(11.5%)	11(18.0%)	22(36.1%)	15(24.6%)	6(9.8%)	0	3.03
		O	2(3.7%)	7(13.0%)	24(44.4%)	18(33.3%)	3(5.5%)	0	3.24
4.	I rarely daydream.	D	7(13.1%)	10(16.4%)	17(27.9%)	17(27.9%)	9(14.8%)	0	3.15
		O	5(9.3%)	7(13.0%)	22(40.7%)	14(25.9%)	5(9.3%)	1(1.9%)	3.07
5.	I do not like unexpected changes to my weekly routines	D	9(14.8%)	7(11.5%)	18(29.5%)	21(34.4%)	5(8.2%)	1(1.6%)	3.05
		O	0	6(11.1%)	19(35.2%)	20(37.0%)	7(13.0%)	2(3.7%)	3.41
6.	I like challenges that stretch my abilities and I get bored with things I can do quite easily.	D	8(13.1%)	7(11.5%)	13(21.3%)	24(39.3%)	9(14.8%)	0	3.31
		O	1(1.9%)	5(9.3%)	19(35.2%)	17(31.5%)	11(20.4%)	1(1.9%)	3.54
7.	I would prefer to have a moderate income in a secure job rather than a high income in a job that depended on my performance.	D	6(9.8%)	19(31.1%)	13(21.3%)	11(18.0%)	12(19.7%)	0	3.07
		O	3(5.6%)	11(20.4%)	18(33.3%)	14(25.9%)	8(14.8%)	0	3.24
8.	I usually do what is expected of me and follow instructions carefully.	D	4(6.6%)	3(4.9%)	23(37.7%)	20(32.8%)	11(18.0%)	0	3.51
		O	2(3.7%)	6(11.1%)	22(37.9%)	17(31.5%)	6(11.1%)	1(1.9%)	3.30
9.	At university, I often take over projects and steer them my way without worrying about what other people think.	D	8(13.1%)	14(23.0%)	22(36.1%)	13(21.3%)	4(6.6%)	0	2.85
		O	1(1.9%)	10(18.5%)	22(37.9%)	16(29.6%)	4(7.4%)	1(1.9%)	3.17

10.	Many of the bad times that people experience are due to bad luck.	D O	12(19.7%) 8(14.8%)	19(31.1%) 12(22.2%)	21(34.4%) 20(37.0%)	1(1.6%) 10(18.5%)	8(13.1%) 3(5.6%)	0 1(1.9%)	2.57 2.72
11.	I tend not to like to stand out or be unconventional	D O	8(13.1%) 4(7.4%)	1(1.6%) 24(44.4%)	19(31.1%) 18(33.3%)	25(41.0%) 6(11.1%)	8(13.1%) 2(3.7%)	0 0	3.39 3.37
12.	Sometimes I think about information almost obsessively until I come up with new ideas and solutions.	D O	8(13.1%) 3(5.6%)	9(14.8%) 23(42.6%)	24(39.3%) 22(40.7%)	12(19.7%) 4(6.9%)	8(13.1%) 2(3.7%)	0 0	3.05 3.39
13.	I like a lot of guidance to be really clear about what to do in work.	D O	5(8.2%) 2(3.7%)	10(16.4%) 6(11.1%)	18(29.5%) 19(35.2%)	15(24.6%) 16(29.6%)	12(19.7%) 9(16.7%)	1(1.6%) 2(3.7%)	3.26 3.33
14.	You are not likely to be successful unless you are in the right place at the right time.	D O	6(9.8%) 2(3.7%)	3(4.9%) 4(6.9%)	14(23.0%) 16(29.6%)	24(39.3%) 22(40.7%)	14(23.0%) 8(14.8%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.61 3.44
15.	I try to accept that things happen to me in life for reasons beyond my control.	D O	4(6.6%) 1(1.9%)	2(3.3%) 5(9.3%)	8(13.1%) 17(29.3%)	26(42.6%) 16(29.6%)	20(32.8%) 14(25.9%)	1(1.6%) 1(1.9%)	3.87 3.63
16.	It is more important to do a job well than to try to please people.	D O	8(13.1%) 0	6(9.8%) 5(9.3%)	28(45.9%) 21(38.9%)	13(21.3%) 20(37.0%)	4(6.6%) 6(11.1%)	2(3.3%) 2(3.7%)	2.89 3.39
17.	If there is a chance of failure, I would rather not do it.	D O	11(18.0%) 5(9.3%)	21(34.4%) 8(14.8%)	17(27.9%) 26(44.8%)	8(13.1%) 10(17.2%)	4(6.6%) 5(9.3%)	0 0	2.56 3.04
18.	Being successful is a result of working hard, luck has little to do with it.	D O	13(21.3%) 1(1.9%)	18(29.5%) 10(18.5%)	12(19.7%) 14(25.9%)	11(18.0%) 20(37.0%)	7(11.5%) 8(14.8%)	0 1(1.9%)	2.69 3.39
19.	I believe that destiny determines what happens to me in life.	D O	12(19.7%) 5(9.3%)	9(14.8%) 6(11.1%)	18(29.5%) 21(38.9%)	12(19.7%) 15(27.8%)	9(14.8%) 5(9.3%)	1(1.6%) 2(3.7%)	2.90 3.06
20.	I would rather work on a task as part of a team rather than take responsibility for it myself.	D O	6(9.8%) 1(1.9%)	4(6.6%) 6(11.1%)	13(21.3%) 17(31.5%)	18(29.5%) 18(33.3%)	20(32.8%) 10(18.5%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.69 3.44
21.	What we are familiar with is usually better than what is unfamiliar.	D O	7(11.5%) 2(3.7%)	6(9.8%) 6(11.1%)	19(31.1%) 16(29.6%)	20(32.8%) 20(37.0%)	9(14.8%) 6(11.1%)	0 4(7.4%)	3.30 3.19
22.	I get annoyed if superiors or colleagues take credit for my work.	D O	10(16.4%) 2(3.7%)	9(14.8%) 5(9.3%)	19(31.1%) 20(37.0%)	19(31.1%) 17(31.5%)	4(6.6%) 7(13.0%)	0 3(5.6%)	2.97 3.24
23.	I like to have my life organised so that it runs smoothly and to plan.	D O	5(8.2%) 2(3.7%)	6(9.8%) 4(7.4%)	9(14.8%) 16(29.6%)	23(37.7%) 21(38.8%)	18(29.5%) 9(16.7%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.70 3.46
24.	When I am faced with a challenge, I think more about the results of succeeding than the effects of failing.	D O	9(14.8%) 2(3.7%)	10(16.4%) 6(11.1%)	16(26.2%) 25(46.3%)	17(27.9%) 16(29.6%)	9(14.8%) 4(7.4%)	0 1(1.9%)	3.11 3.20
25.	I think more of the present and past than of the future.	D O	6(9.8%) 1(1.9%)	4(6.6%) 7(13.0%)	12(19.7%) 17(31.5%)	27(44.3%) 20(37.0%)	11(18.0%) 8(14.8%)	1(1.6%) 1(1.9%)	3.49 3.44

Section C: Demographic Information

15. What is your gender? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Female	46(75.4%)	40(74.1%)
2) Male	15(24.6%)	14(25.9%)

16. What is your age?

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) 18	1(1.6%)	0
2) 19	1(1.6%)	0
3) 20	32(52.5%)	2(3.7%)
4) 21	13(21.3%)	38(70.4%)
5) 22	10(16.4%)	11(20.4%)
6) 23	1 (1.6%)	2(3.7%)
7) 24	3(4.9%)	1(1.9%)
	<u>Mean: 20.74</u>	<u>Mean: 21.30</u>

17. Where were you born?

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Beijing	46(75.4%)	45(83.3%)
2) Hubei	1(1.6%)	2(3.7%)
3) Shandong	0	1(1.9%)
4) Xinjiang	2(3.3%)	1(1.9%)
5) Henan	1(1.6%)	2(3.7%)
6) Shanxi	4(6.6%)	2(3.7%)
7) Liaoning	1(1.6%)	1(1.7%)
8) Anhui	3(4.9%)	0
9) Hebei	1(1.6%)	0
10) Yunnan	2(3.3%)	0

18. Which degree programme are you registered on? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) International Business Management	61(100%)	23(42.6%)
2) Food Quality with Retail Management	0	31(57.4%)

19. What is your approximate total family average monthly household income? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) ¥1-¥5,000	11(18.0%)	4(7.4%)
2) ¥5,001-¥10,000	19(31.1%)	10(18.5%)
3) ¥10,001-¥15,000	9(14.8%)	8(14.8%)
4) ¥15,001-¥20,000	10(16.4%)	9(16.7%)
5) ¥20,001-¥25,000	5(8.2%)	4(7.4%)
6) ¥25,001-¥30,000	3(4.9%)	6(11.1%)
7) ¥30,001-¥35,000	1(1.6%)	3(5.6%)
8) ¥35,001-¥40,000	0	1(1.9%)
9) ¥40,001-¥45,000	1(1.6%)	1(1.9%)
10) ¥45,001-¥50,000	1(1.6%)	2(3.7%)
11) ¥50,000 or more	1(1.6%)	6(11.1%)
	<u>Mean: 3.21</u>	<u>Mean: 4.89</u>

20. What is/was your father's occupation? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Employee	16(26.2%)	6(11.1%)
2) Manager	3(4.9%)	14(25.9%)
3) Professional	3(4.9%)	4(7.4%)
4) Self-employed	7(11.5%)	5(9.3%)
5) Business owner	3(4.9%)	7(13.0%)

6) Entrepreneur	1(1.6%)	1(1.9%)
7) Civil Servant	7(11.5%)	1(1.9%)
8) Military	0	2(3.7%)
9) Technician	2(3.3%)	1(1.9%)
10) Worker	4(6.6%)	6(11.1%)
11) Teacher	3(4.9%)	4(7.4%)
12) Researcher	1(1.6%)	1(1.9%)
13) Farmer	9(14.8%)	1(1.9%)
14) Unemployed	2(3.3%)	1(1.9%)
15) Other (please specify)	0	0

21. What is/was your mother's occupation? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Employee	18(29.5%)	9(16.7%)
2) Manager	3(4.9%)	7(13.0%)
3) Professional	1(1.6%)	3(5.6%)
4) Self-employed	10(16.4%)	3(5.6%)
5) Business owner	1(1.6%)	5(9.3%)
6) Entrepreneur	0	1(1.9%)
7) Civil Servant	6(9.8%)	3(5.6%)
8) Military	0	1(1.9%)
9) Technician	0	0
10) Worker	3(4.9%)	5(9.3%)
11) Teacher	5(8.2%)	7(13.0%)
12) Researcher	0	0
13) Farmer	9(14.8%)	1(1.9%)
14) Unemployed	5(8.2%)	9(16.7%)
15) Other (please specify)	0	0

22. Has either of your parent's occupations influenced your career decision? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Yes	23(37.7%)	26(48.1%)
2) No	38(62.3%)	28(51.9%)

23. What educational level did your father attain? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Did not go to school at all	1(1.6%)	1(1.9%)
2) Less than high school degree	16(26.2%)	4(7.4%)
3) High school degree or equivalent	16(26.2%)	9(16.7%)
4) Some college but no degree	9(14.8%)	8(14.8%)
5) Bachelor's degree	17(27.9%)	20(37.0%)
6) Master's degree	2(3.3%)	11(20.4%)
7) PhD degree	0	1(1.9%)
8) Other (please specify)	0	0
	<u>Mean: 3.51</u>	<u>Mean: 4.46</u>

24. What educational level did your mother attain? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Did not go to school at all	3(4.9%)	1(1.9%)
2) Less than high school degree	18(29.5%)	5(9.3%)
3) High school degree or equivalent	12(24.6%)	12(22.2%)
4) Some college but no degree	9(14.8%)	9(16.7%)
5) Bachelor's degree	14(23.0%)	20(37.0%)
6) Master's degree	2(3.3%)	7(13.0%)
7) PhD degree	0	0
8) Other (please specify)	0	0
	<u>Mean: 3.31</u>	<u>Mean: 4.17</u>

Appendix H Overview of the Main Study Questionnaire Data Collected (Time 1: June 2018)

Overseas: 54 students, Domestic: 58 students

Section A: Foreign experience

1. Why did you study abroad? (Tick as many as apply)	<u>Overseas only</u>
1) I wanted to broaden my horizons	37 (68.5%)
2) I wanted to experience other cultures	46 (85.2%)
3) I wanted to improve my chances of getting a good job	42 (77.8%)
4) I wanted to improve my foreign language competence	45 (85.3%)
5) I particularly wanted to study in the UK	18 (33.3%)
6) I thought that a higher level of English proficiency would improve my job prospects	33(61.1%)
7) I particularly wanted to study at an institution with an international reputation	18(33.3%)
8) I needed a change in my life	31 (57.4%)
9) I wanted to become more independent	40 (74.1%)
10) I wanted a better-quality education than the one offered in my home country	31(57.4%)
11) Other (please specify) <i>parent reasons</i>	1(1.9%)
2. Who is currently part of your social network while in the UK? (Tick as many as apply)	<u>Overseas only</u>
1) Other students on my program	37(68.5%)
2) Students from the UK	15(27.8%)
3) Other international students, not from China	12(22.2%)
4) Students back in China	32(59.3%)
5) People from the UK who are not students	10(18.5%)
6) My family back in China	24(44.4%)
7) People of my generation in China who are not students	12(22.2%)
8) Other (please specify)	0
2a How would you best describe your social network? (Tick as many as apply)	<u>Domestic only</u>
1) Other students from the program	39(67.2%)
2) Students from the same university	38(65.5%)
3) Local hometown friends	45(77.6%)
4) Other students in China	20(34.5%)
5) Friends local to the university but not students	22(37.9%)
6) Other (please specify) <i>People meet from internship or part-time</i>	1(1.70%)

3. After you graduate, do you intend to return to China? (Tick one only)

	<u>Overseas only</u>
1) Immediately	19(35.2%)
2) In 6 months	11(20.4%)
3) In 1 year	17(31.5%)
4) In 2 years	6(11.1%)
5) In 5 years	0
6) Other (please specify) <i>maybe find an internship for 2 months</i>	1(1.9%)
	<u>Mean: 3.98</u>

4. What do you hope to do on completion of your current degree? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Seek a job	27(46.6%)	10(18.5%)
2) Study a further course	29(50.0%)	43(79.6%)
3) Join a family business	0	0
4) Start a business	2(3.4%)	1(1.9%)
5) Other (please specify)	0	0

5. How important are the following factors in determining what you plan to do after completing your degree?
(Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row		1.Not important	2.Slightly important	3.Moderately important	4.Very Important	5.Extremely important	6. Don't know	Mean	
1.	Attractive salary	D	1(1.6%)	0	4(6.6%)	17(27.9%)	39(63.9%)	0	4.29	
		O	1(1.9%)	10(18.5%)	7(13.0%)	27(50.0%)	9(16.7%)	0	3.61	
2.	Job security	D	2(3.3%)	1(1.6%)	6(9.8%)	25 (41.0%)	27(44.3%)	0	4.24	
		O	1(1.9%)	10(18.5%)	10(18.5%)	23(42.6%)	10(18.5%)	0	3.57	
3.	Personal interest	D	2(3.3%)	0	12(19.7%)	22(36.1%)	24(39.3%)	1(1.6%)	4.10	
		O	0	7(13.0%)	12(22.2%)	15(27.8%)	20(37.0%)	0	3.89	
4.	Challenging work	D	2(3.3%)	7(11.5%)	21(34.4%)	18(29.5%)	12(19.7%)	1(1.6%)	3.53	
		O	1(1.9%)	16(29.6%)	15(27.8%)	17(31.5%)	5(9.0%)	0	3.17	
5.	Flexible work work/life bal	D	3(4.9%)	1(1.6%)	8 (13.1%)	24(39.3%)	23(37.7%)	2(3.3%)	4.10	
		O	1(1.9%)	11(20.4%)	13(24.1%)	15(27.8%)	14(25.9%)	0	3.56	
6.	Job satisfaction	D	2(3.3%)	0	5(8.2%)	27(44.3%)	26(42.6%)	1(1.6%)	4.29	
		O	1(1.9%)	5(9.0%)	10(18.5%)	15(27.8%)	20(37.0%)	3(5.6%)	3.72	
7.	Autonomy	D	1(1.6%)	3(4.9%)	11(18.0%)	25(41.0%)	20(32.8%)	1(1.6%)	3.95	
		O	1(1.9%)	8(14.8%)	12(22.2%)	17(31.5%)	12(22.2%)	4(7.4%)	3.35	
8.	Other	D	3(4.9%) <i>Good working environment; social status; benefit</i>							
		O	2(3.7%) <i>future development; the opportunities of development</i>							

6. How important are the following in influencing your choice of future employment? (Circle a number for each factor)

	Please circle one box in each row		1. Not important	2. Slightly important	3. Moderately important	4. Very Important	5. Extremely important	6. Don't know	Mean	
1	Parents	D	5(8.2%)	4(6.6%)	15(24.6%)	23(37.7%)	14(23.0%)	0	3.48	
		O	4(7.4%)	10(18.5%)	14(25.9%)	18(33.3%)	8(14.8%)	0	3.30	
2	Friends	D	3(4.9%)	7(11.5%)	26(42.6%)	18(29.5%)	7(11.5%)	0	3.03	
		O	3(5.6%)	15(27.8%)	21(38.9%)	11(20.4%)	3(5.6%)	1(1.9%)	2.87	
3	Social media	D	4(6.6%)	9(14.8%)	24(39.3%)	17(27.9%)	7(11.5%)	0	3.24	
		O	7(13.0%)	14(25.9%)	19(35.2%)	10(18.5%)	3(5.6%)	1(1.9%)	2.72	
4	University /Education	D	1(1.6%)	3(4.9%)	17(27.9%)	24(39.3%)	16(26.2%)	0	3.71	
		O	0	8(14.8%)	14(25.9%)	22(40.7%)	10(18.5%)	0	3.63	
5	Life Experience	D	0	2(3.3%)	11(18.0%)	21(34.4%)	26(42.6%)	1(1.6%)	4.09	
		O	1(1.9%)	7(13.0%)	6(11.1%)	24(44.4%)	16(29.6%)	0	3.87	
6	Employment Availability	D	2(3.3%)	0	6(9.8%)	24(39.3%)	28(45.9%)	1(1.6%)	4.33	
		O	1(1.9%)	7(13.0%)	8(14.8%)	25(46.3%)	13(24.1%)	0	3.78	
7	Other	D	1(1.6%) <i>partner</i>							
		O	2(3.7%) <i>holiday time/ what I like</i>							

7. Personal traits. To what extent has your life been influence by the experience of studying and living in the UK? (Circle a number for each factor)

Overseas only

Mean:

	Please circle one box in each row	1. very little influence	2. slight influence	3. moderate influence	4. strong influence	5. very strong influence	6. Don't know	Mean	
1	Increased creativity	0	7(13.0%)	17(31.5%)	18(33.3%)	12(22.2%)	0	3.65	
2	Self-Confidence	1(1.9%)	6(11.1%)	11(20.4%)	22(40.7%)	14(25.9%)	0	3.78	
3	Determination	0	6(11.1%)	13(24.1%)	22(40.7%)	12(22.2%)	1(1.9%)	3.69	
4	Control over my own actions	1(1.9%)	4(7.4%)	13(24.1%)	22(40.7%)	13(24.1%)	1(1.9%)	3.72	
5	Problem solving ability	0	4(7.4%)	10(18.5%)	21(38.9%)	18(33.3%)	1(1.9%)	3.93	
6	Personal intellectual flexibility	0	5(9.3%)	9(16.7%)	24(44.4%)	15(27.8%)	1(1.9%)	3.85	
7	Willingness to take risks	1(1.9%)	4(7.4%)	14(25.9%)	21(38.9%)	12(22.2%)	2(3.8%)	3.61	
8	Independence	1(1.9%)	2(3.8%)	9(16.7%)	20(37.0%)	21(38.9%)	1(1.9%)	4.02	
9	Decision-making abilities	0	4(7.4%)	9(16.7%)	21(38.9%)	19(35.2%)	1(1.9%)	3.96	
10	Developing a new network	0	4(7.4%)	14(25.9%)	27(50.0%)	8(14.8%)	1(1.9%)	3.67	
11	Other	1(1.9%) <i>emotion control</i>							

Section B: Entrepreneurial characteristics and attitudes

8. What is your long-term career plan? (Tick one only)

	Domestic	Overseas
1) Working in the family business	2(3.3%)	0
2) Working in a large organization	44(72.1%)	26 (48.1%)
3) Working in a small organization	8(13.1%)	4(7.4%)
4) Starting own business (please go to Q8a)	6(9.8%)	23(42.6%)
5) Not have a plan	1 (1.6%)	1(1.9%)
6) Other (please specify)	0	0

8a. If your choice was "starting own business", please indicate the major reasons for your choice. (Tick as many as apply)

	Domestic (not applicable 55, response 6)	Overseas (not applicable 31, response 23)
1) Lack of alternative jobs	1(16.7%)	0
2) Self-achievement	6(100%)	21(91.3%)
3) Independence	6(100%)	12(52.2%)
4) Financial success	2(33.3%)	11(47.8%)
5) Continue family tradition	0	1(4.3%)
6) Other (please specify)	0	0

9. Does anyone in your family (including distant relatives) own a business? (Tick one only)

	Domestic	Overseas
1) Yes (please go to question 9a)	34(58.6%)	18(33.3%)
2) No (please go to question 10)	24(41.4%)	36(66.7%)

9a. If yes, has their business-ownership made you think of having a business of your own? (Tick one only)

	Domestic (not applicable 24, response 34)	Overseas (not applicable 36, response 18)
1) Yes	12 (35.3%)	14(77.8%)
2) No	22 (64.7%)	4(22.2%)

10. Have you studied any *small business* or entrepreneurship modules in your degree so far? (Tick one only)

	Domestic	Overseas
1) Yes(please go to question 10a)	46(79.3%)	36(66.7%)
2) No(please go to question 11)	12(20.7%)	18(33.3%)

10a. If yes, please indicate how the small business or entrepreneurship modules have contributed to your knowledge and understanding? (Tick as many as apply)

	Domestic (not applicable 12, response 46)	Overseas (not applicable 18, response 36)
A. Increased your understanding of the attitudes, values and motivation of entrepreneurs	44(95.7%)	31(86.1%)
B. Enhanced your practical skills in order to start a business	19(41.3%)	28(77.8%)
C. Enhanced your ability to develop networks	11(23.9%)	12(33.3%)
D. Enhanced your ability to identify an opportunity	21(45.7%)	17(47.2%)
E. Other (please specify)	0	0

11. To what extent have you felt motivated to start your own business by your foreign experience? (Tick one only)

	Domestic	Overseas
1) To a very large extent	5(8.6%)	9(16.7%)
2) To a large extent	12(20.7%)	20(37.0%)
3) To a certain extent	23(39.7%)	14(25.9%)
4) To a small extent	12(20.7%)	11(20.4%)

12. To what extent do you agree with the statement “studying overseas is an advantage when starting your own business”? (Tick one only)

	<u>Overseas only</u>
1) Strongly agree	11(20.4%)
2) Agree	21(38.9%)
3) Neither agree nor disagree	18(33.3%)
4) Disagree	2(3.7%)
5) Strongly disagree	0
6) Don't know	2(3.7%)
	<u>Mean: 3.65</u>

13. To what extent might the following factors be useful in helping you start your own business? (Circle a number for each factor)

Overseas only

	Please circle one box in each row	1.not very useful	2. slightly useful	3.moderately useful	4. Very Useful	5.Extermely usefuf	6. Don't know	Mean
1.	Foreign languages	1(1.9%)	4(7.4%)	8(14.8%)	20(37.0%)	20(37.0%)	1(1.9%)	3.94
2.	Advanced knowledge and skills	0	5(9.3%)	6(11.1%)	21(38.9%)	21(38.9%)	1(1.9%)	4.02
3.	Knowledge of different cultures	0	3(5.6%)	10(18.5%)	22(40.7%)	18(33.3%)	1(1.9%)	3.96
4.	Broadened mind	0	3(5.6%)	9(16.7%)	19(35.2%)	22(40.7%)	1(1.9%)	4.06
5.	Widened social network	0	4(7.4%)	11(20.4%)	16(29.6%)	22(40.7%)	1(1.9%)	3.98
6.	Other (please specify)	1(1.9%) <i>The broadened critical thinking skills</i>						

14. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling a number to the right of the statement.

	Please circle one box in each row		1. Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither agree nor disagree	4. Agree	5.Strongly agree	6. Don't know	Mean
1.	I like to test boundaries and get into areas where few have worked before.	D O	4(6.9%) 1(1.9%)	6(10.3%) 4(7.4%)	24(41.4%) 20(37.0%)	22(37.9%) 20(37.0%)	2(3.4%) 7(13.0%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.21 3.50
2.	I prefer doing things in the usual way rather than trying out new methods.	D O	1(1.7%) 3(5.6%)	14(24.1%) 14(25.9%)	29(50.0%) 16(29.6%)	11(19.0%) 16(29.6%)	3(5.2%) 4(7.4%)	0 1(1.9%)	3.02 3.04
3.	If I had a good idea for making some money, I would be willing to invest my time and borrow money to enable me to do it.	D O	0 3(5.6%)	17(29.3%) 10(18.5%)	22(37.9%) 21(38.9%)	14(24.1%) 15(27.8%)	5(8.6%) 4(7.4%)	0 1(1.9%)	3.12 3.09
4.	I rarely daydream.	D O	5(8.6%) 3(5.6%)	12(20.7%) 11(20.4%)	15(25.9%) 18(33.3%)	19(32.8%) 17(31.5%)	7(12.1%) 3(5.6%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.19 3.02
5.	I do not like unexpected changes to my weekly routines	D O	5(8.6%) 0	10(17.2%) 3(5.6%)	17(29.3%) 19(35.2%)	22(37.9%) 22(40.7%)	4(6.9%) 8(14.8%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.17 3.63
6.	I like challenges that stretch my abilities and I get bored with things I can do quite easily.	D O	5(8.6%) 0	3(5.2%) 6(11.1%)	24(41.4%) 17(31.5%)	20(34.5%) 24(44.4%)	6(10.3%) 6(11.1%)	0 1(1.9%)	3.33 3.59
7.	I would prefer to have a moderate income in a secure job rather than a high income in a job that depended on my performance.	D O	3(5.2%) 2(3.7%)	18(31.0%) 15(27.8%)	22(37.9%) 18(33.3%)	7(12.1%) 17(31.5%)	8(13.8%) 1(1.9%)	0 1(1.9%)	2.98 2.96

8.	I usually do what is expected of me and follow instructions carefully.	D O	0 1(1.9%)	4(6.9%) 3(5.6%)	20(34.5%) 21(38.9%)	23(39.7%) 23(42.6%)	11(19.0%) 4(7.4%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.71 3.39
9.	At university, I often take over projects and steer them my way without worrying about what other people think.	D O	2(3.4%) 3(5.6%)	20(34.5%) 15(27.8%)	25(43.1%) 17(31.5%)	10(17.2%) 13(24.1%)	1(1.7%) 4(7.4%)	0 2(3.7%)	2.79 2.98
10.	Many of the bad times that people experience are due to bad luck.	D O	11(19.0%) 9(16.7%)	25(43.1%) 19(35.2%)	15(25.9%) 18(33.3%)	3(5.2%) 4(7.4%)	4(6.9%) 2(3.7%)	0 2(3.7%)	2.38 2.37
11.	I tend not to like to stand out or be unconventional	D O	1(1.7%) 0	1(1.7%) 7(13.0%)	17(29.3%) 20(37.0%)	31(53.4%) 19(35.2%)	8(13.8%) 7(13.0%)	0 1(1.9%)	3.76 3.52
12.	Sometimes I think about information almost obsessively until I come up with new ideas and solutions.	D O	3(5.2%) 0	9(15.5%) 2(3.7%)	22(37.9%) 21(38.9%)	19(32.8%) 20(37.0%)	5(8.6%) 9(16.7%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.24 3.65
13.	I like a lot of guidance to be really clear about what to do in work.	D O	1(1.7%) 4(7.4%)	7(12.1%) 4(7.4%)	14(24.1%) 20(37.0%)	27(46.6%) 20(37.0%)	9(15.5%) 5(9.3%)	0 1(1.9%)	3.62 3.30
14.	You are not likely to be successful unless you are in the right place at the right time.	D O	4(6.9%) 2(3.7%)	3(5.2%) 6(11.1%)	11(19.0%) 13(24.1%)	26(44.8%) 23(42.6%)	14(24.1%) 8(14.8%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.74 3.52
15.	I try to accept that things happen to me in life for reasons beyond my control.	D O	1(1.7%) 2(3.7%)	0 5(9.3%)	4(6.9%) 15(27.8%)	29(50%) 24(44.4%)	24(41.4%) 7(13.0%)	0 1(1.9%)	4.29 3.50
16.	It is more important to do a job well than to try to please people.	D O	2(3.4%) 2(3.7%)	11(19.0%) 8(14.8%)	26(44.8%) 20(37.0%)	17(29.3%) 12(22.2%)	1(1.7%) 10(18.5%)	1(1.7%) 2(3.7%)	3.02 3.35
17.	If there is a chance of failure, I would rather not do it.	D O	11(19.0%) 6(11.1%)	16(27.6%) 11(20.4%)	13(22.4%) 25(46.3%)	13(22.4%) 8(14.8%)	5(8.6%) 2(3.7%)	0 2(3.7%)	2.74 2.70
18.	Being successful is a result of working hard, luck has little to do with it.	D O	5(8.6%) 3(5.6%)	24(41.4%) 5(9.3%)	16(27.6%) 19(35.2%)	6(10.3%) 17(31.5%)	7(12.1%) 9(16.7%)	0 1(1.9%)	2.76 3.41
19.	I believe that destiny determines what happens to me in life.	D O	9(15.5%) 6(11.1%)	18(31%) 5(9.3%)	18(31%) 29(53.7%)	10(17.2%) 11(20.4%)	3(5.2%) 2(3.7%)	0 1(1.9%)	2.66 2.93
20.	I would rather work on a task as part of a team rather than take responsibility for it myself.	D O	5(8.6%) 2(3.7%)	2(3.4%) 2(3.7%)	12(20.7%) 13(24.1%)	22(37.9%) 20(37.0%)	17(29.3%) 14(25.9%)	0 3(5.6%)	3.76 3.70
21.	What we are familiar with is usually better than what is unfamiliar.	D O	0 2(3.7%)	6(10.3%) 5(9.3%)	23(39.7%) 23(42.6%)	24(41.4%) 20(37.0%)	4(6.9%) 2(3.7%)	1(1.7%) 2(3.7%)	3.40 3.19
22.	I get annoyed if superiors or colleagues take credit for my work.	D O	2(3.4%) 2(3.7%)	13(22.4%) 8(14.8%)	23(39.7%) 22(40.7%)	13(22.4%) 17(31.5%)	6(10.3%) 3(5.6%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.09 3.19
23.	I like to have my life organised so that it runs smoothly and to plan.	D O	0 1(1.9%)	3(5.2%) 2(3.7%)	18(31.0%) 15(27.8%)	26(44.8%) 22(40.7%)	11(19.0%) 12(22.2%)	0 2(3.7%)	3.78 3.69

24.	When I am faced with a challenge, I think more about the results of succeeding than the effects of failing.	D	0	11(19.0%)	15(25.9%)	19(32.8%)	13(22.4%)	0	3.59
		O	3(5.6%)	13(24.1%)	19(35.2%)	16(29.6%)	2(3.7%)	1(1.9%)	2.98
25.	I think more of the present and past than of the future.	D	5(8.6%)	4(6.9%)	16(27.6%)	25(43.1%)	8(13.8%)	0	3.47
		O	2(3.7%)	2(3.7%)	20(37.0%)	21(38.9%)	8(14.8%)	1(1.9%)	3.61

Section C: Demographic Information

15. What is your gender? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Female	43(74.1%)	40(74.1%)
2) Male	15(25.9%)	14(25.9%)

16. What is your age?

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) 18	0	0
2) 19	0	0
3) 20	8(13.8%)	2(3.7%)
4) 21	31(53.4%)	38(70.4%)
5) 22	10(17.2%)	11(20.4%)
6) 23	5 (8.6%)	2(3.7%)
7) 24	3(5.2%)	1(1.9%)
8) 25	1(1.7%)	0
	<u>Mean: 21.43</u>	<u>Mean: 21.30</u>

17. Where were you born?

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Beijing	43(74.1%)	45(83.3%)
2) Hubei	1(1.7%)	2(3.7%)
3) Shandong	0	1(1.7%)
4) Xinjiang	2(3.4%)	2(3.7%)
5) Henan	1(1.7%)	2(3.7%)
6) Shanxi	4(6.9%)	1(1.7%)
7) Liaoning	1(1.7%)	1(1.7%)
8) Anhui	3(5.2%)	0
9) Hebei	1(1.7%)	0
10) Yunnan	2(3.4%)	0

18. Which degree programme are you registered on? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) International Business Management	58 (100%)	23(42.6%)
2) Food Quality with Retail Management	0	31(57.4%)

19. What is your approximate total family average monthly household income? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) ¥1-¥5,000	8(13.8%)	4(7.4%)
2) ¥5,001-¥10,000	19(32.8%)	10(18.5%)
3) ¥10,001-¥15,000	9(15.5%)	8(14.8%)
4) ¥15,001-¥20,000	10(17.2%)	9(16.7%)
5) ¥20,001-¥25,000	5(8.6%)	4(7.4%)
6) ¥25,001-¥30,000	3(5.2%)	6(11.1%)
7) ¥30,001-¥35,000	1(1.7%)	3(5.6%)
8) ¥35,001-¥40,000	0	1(1.9%)
9) ¥40,001-¥45,000	1(1.7%)	1(1.9%)
10) ¥45,001-¥50,000	1(1.7%)	2(3.7%)
11) ¥50,000 or more	1(1.7%)	6(11.1%)
	<u>Mean: 3.33</u>	<u>Mean: 4.89</u>

20. What is/was your father's occupation? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Employee	13(22.4%)	6(11.1%)
2) Manager	3(5.2%)	14(25.9%)
3) Professional	3(5.2%)	4(7.4%)
4) Self-employed	7(12.1%)	5(9.3%)
5) Business owner	3(5.2%)	7(13%)
6) Entrepreneur	1(1.7%)	1(1.9%)
7) Civil Servant	7(12.1%)	1(1.9%)
8) Military	0	2(3.7%)
9) Technician	2(3.4%)	1(1.9%)
10) Worker	4(6.9%)	6(11.1%)
11) Teacher	3(5.2%)	4(7.4%)
12) Researcher	1(1.7%)	1(1.9%)
13) Farmer	9(15.5%)	1(1.9%)
14) Unemployed	2(3.4%)	1(1.9%)
15) Other (please specify)	0	0

21. What is/was your mother's occupation? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Employee	15(25.9%)	9(16.7%)
2) Manager	3(5.2%)	7(13%)
3) Professional	1(1.7%)	3(5.6%)
4) Self-employed	10(17.2%)	3(5.6%)
5) Business owner	1(1.7%)	5(9.3%)
6) Entrepreneur	0	1(1.9%)
7) Civil Servant	6(10.3%)	3(5.6%)
8) Military	0	1(1.9%)
9) Technician	0	0
10) Worker	3(5.2%)	5(9.3%)
11) Teacher	5(8.6%)	7(13%)
12) Researcher	0	0
13) Farmer	9(15.5%)	1(1.9%)

14) Unemployed	5(8.6%)	9(16.7%)
15) Other (please specify)	0	0

22. Has either of your parent's occupations influenced your career decision? (Tick one only)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Yes	21(36.2%)	24(44.4%)
2) No	37(63.8%)	30(55.6%)

23. What educational level did your father attain? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Did not go to school at all	1(1.7%)	1(1.9%)
2) Less than high school degree	16(27.6%)	4(7.4%)
3) High school degree or equivalent	16(27.6%)	9(16.7%)
4) Some college but no degree	9(15.5%)	8(14.8%)
5) Bachelor degree	14(24.1%)	20(37%)
6) Master degree	2(3.4%)	11(20.4%)
7) PhD degree	0	1(1.9%)
8) Other (please specify)	0	0
	<u>Mean: 3.43</u>	<u>Mean: 4.46</u>

24. What educational level did your mother attain? (Tick one)

	<u>Domestic</u>	<u>Overseas</u>
1) Did not go to school at all	3(5.2%)	1(1.9%)
2) Less than high school degree	18(31%)	5(9.3%)
3) High school degree or equivalent	12(20.7%)	12(22.2%)
4) Some college but no degree	9(15.5%)	9(16.7%)
5) Bachelor degree	14(24.1%)	20(37%)
6) Master degree	2(3.4%)	7(13%)
7) PhD degree	0	0
8) Other (please specify)	0	0
	<u>Mean: 3.33</u>	<u>Mean: 4.17</u>

Appendix I Eigenvalues of the correlation matrix of adapted GET2 test

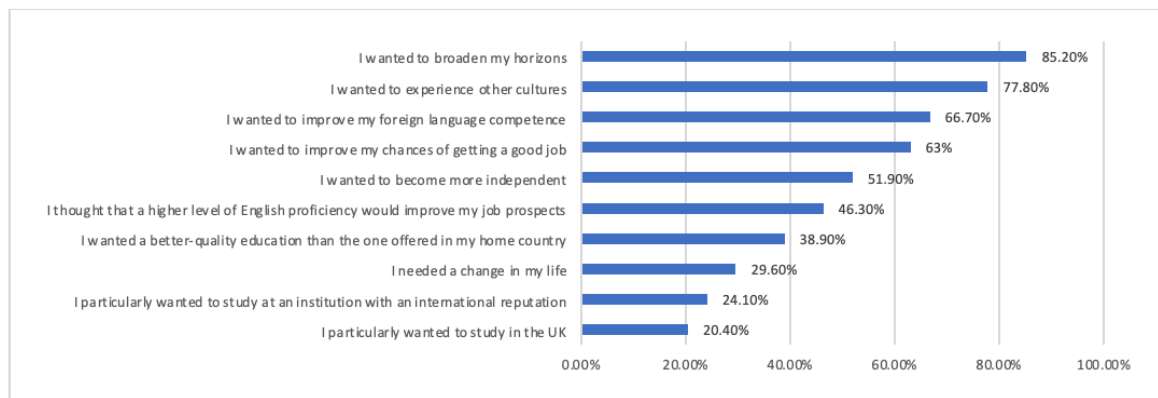
Component	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
Calculated risk-taking	5.8	1.8	0.4108	0.4108
Creative tendency	4.0	1.6	0.3355	0.7463
Need for achivement	2.4	0.4	0.1441	0.8904
Need for autonomy	2.0	0.4	0.0731	0.9634
Internal locus of control	1.6		0.0366	1.0000

Appendix J The Foreign Sojourn

Questions regarding the foreign sojourn were asked only of the sojourning group. The questions were intended to generate a rich picture about the students' overseas study experience. Some of these questions took the form of multiple choice, where the students could give as many responses as appropriate, and some questions were Likert scales, that allowed the students the opportunity to choose only the one option that best aligns with their view.

J.1 Study abroad motivation

Before they studied abroad (at Time 0) the students were asked “*Why do you want to study abroad?*” in order to provide a baseline measure of their motivation for studying abroad. They were given a range of possible answers and they could choose as many as applied. They were also given the opportunity to add their own answers. The data relating to motivations for studying abroad are shown in Figure J.1. The most important motives for studying abroad were “*I wanted to broaden my horizons*” and “*I wanted to experience different cultures*”, followed by the desire “*to improve my foreign language skills*” and “*improve the chances of getting a good job*”. The statements with which the respondents agreed the least were “*I particularly wanted to study at an institution with an international reputation*” and “*I particularly wanted to study in the UK*”.



(Source: author)

Figure J.1 Motivation – reasons for study abroad

J.2 Intention to return home

The sojourning students were asked “*After you graduate, do you intend to return to China?*” after 1 year of study abroad (at Time 1) and the answers are summarised in Table J.1. Most of the respondents (37.0 per cent) indicated that they would return to China immediately and all the respondents said that they would return to China in the long term, e.g., after they finished a further course or had obtained some work experience. From the results, it can be assumed that respondents think that finding a job or starting a business in China is more feasible for them than moving abroad permanently. These results are consistent with Hao *et al.* (2016) who reported that in recent times more Chinese students are returning home after studying abroad, because of the strength in China’s job market as well as its favourable domestic policies toward returnees.

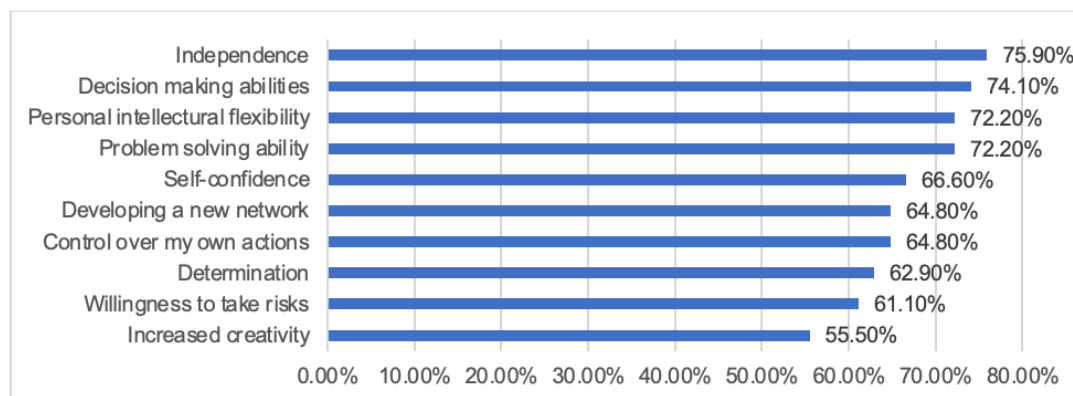
Table J.1 Intention to return to China after studying abroad

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
No	0	0
Immediately	20	37.0
In 6 months	11	20.4
In 1 year	17	31.5
In 2 years	6	11.1
In 5 years	0	0

(Source: author’s own, 2019)

J.3 Benefits of studying abroad

In order to elicit the students’ views regarding the perceived benefits of the study abroad experience, they were asked “*to what extent has your life been influence by the experience of studying and living in the UK?*”. The data generated is presented in Figure J.2.



(Source: author’s own, 2019)

Figure J.2 Perceived benefits of studying abroad

According to the sojourning students, the most valued benefit of studying abroad is that they have developed *independence*. The whole experience of studying abroad makes individuals more independent. Students also reported that after the study abroad experience, they have accumulated a wide range of new skills and abilities such as *decision-making abilities*, *personal intellectual flexibility* and *problem-solving ability*.

These findings are consistent with those of Dwyer and Peters (2004) who found that studying and living in a new country and culture provides a host of mental and practical benefits, such as creative and innovative tendency, need for achievement, need for autonomy, an internal locus of control, flexibility, problem solving ability, risk-taking propensity, confidence and determination. Living in an unfamiliar country with a different culture, the human brain will have to deal with unexpected situations, forcing it to form new connections and ideas, and strengthening a person’s overall mental and practical capabilities. Furthermore, these results further support the idea that career choices are associate with cultural values. In individualistic cultures (e.g., the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, and Canada), the individual is viewed as an independent entity, whereas in collectivistic cultures (e.g., China, Korea, Japan, Costa Rica, and Indonesia), the individual is viewed as an interdependent entity. Decisions in individualistic cultures are based on the individual's “personal interest”, whereas in collectivist cultures, decisions are made in conjunction with in-groups (e.g., family, significant others, and peers) with the primary goal of optimizing the interests of the group.

J.4 Influence of study abroad on entrepreneurship

Table J.2 presents Time 1 data relating to the sojourning students’ perceptions of studying abroad with their perceptions of starting a business. Although many students (33.3 per cent) “*neither agree nor disagree*” that studying abroad is an advantage when starting a business, the majority (59.3 per cent) either “*strongly agree*” or “*agree*”.

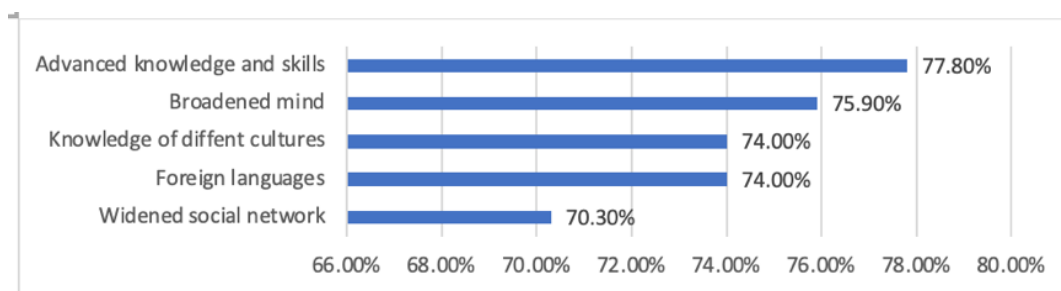
Table J.2 Studying overseas is an advantage when starting own business

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	11	20.4
Agree	21	38.9
Neither agree nor disagree	18	33.3
Disagree	2	3.7
Strongly disagree	0	0
Don't know	2	3.7

(Source: author)

This finding has important implications for the development of study abroad programmes, as the majority of those who have studied abroad agree that the opportunity is a positive experience that enriches their education and life and is also advantageous when starting their own business. The cross-cultural experience may stimulate an individual's human capital and help individuals to generate diverse ideas in order to create an entirely new product or business.

In order to further explore how various aspects of the study abroad experience may facilitate entrepreneurship, the sojourning students were asked at Time 1 “To what extent might the following factors be useful in helping you start your own business?”. The data generated by this question is presented in Figure J.3. It is apparent that the sojourning students believed that the study abroad experience provided them with *advanced knowledge and skills*, *a broadened mind*, *knowledge of different cultures*, *foreign languages competence* and a *widened social network*. Such benefits may facilitate entrepreneurship by providing entrepreneurial knowledge, practical skills and soft skills to enable the students to start their own business.



(Source: author)

Figure J.3 Factors in helping start own business

This is because cross-cultural experiences can facilitate the understanding and development of entrepreneurial proclivity, such as the knowledge, skills and abilities to become an entrepreneur. This positive outcome provides a rationale for investment in higher education TNE programmes to encourage more students to participate in study abroad programmes.

References for Appendix J

Dwyer, M.M. and Peters, C.K. 2004. The benefits of study abroad. *Transitions abroad*, 37 (5), pp. 56–58.

Hao, J., Wen, W. and Welch, A. 2016. When sojourners return: Employment opportunities and challenges facing high-skilled Chinese returnees. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 25 (1), pp. 22–40.

Appendix K Word copy of the Stata “Do” file: denoting “Don’t Know” responses in the GET

Word copy of the Stata “Do” file: Do_Tiantian_03-12-2018

This shows how new variables were created for the ststistical analysis. In particular, it shows how the variable T_Get was corrected to remove the influence of component variables in which “Don’t know” had been coded as zero.

*****Tiantian - 03-12-2018.*****

*****Creating response variables with 0s excluded (i.e. Don't Know responses).*****

```
generate RevQ14_2a=RevQ14_2 if RevQ14_2!=0
generate RevQ14_4a=RevQ14_4 if RevQ14_4!=0
generate RevQ14_7a=RevQ14_7 if RevQ14_7!=0
generate RevQ14_8a=RevQ14_8 if RevQ14_8!=0
generate RevQ14_10a=RevQ14_10 if RevQ14_10!=0
generate RevQ14_13a=RevQ14_13 if RevQ14_13!=0
generate RevQ14_15a=RevQ14_15 if RevQ14_15!=0
generate RevQ14_17a=RevQ14_17 if RevQ14_17!=0
generate RevQ14_19a=RevQ14_19 if RevQ14_19!=0
generate RevQ14_21a=RevQ14_21 if RevQ14_21!=0
generate RevQ14_23a=RevQ14_23 if RevQ14_23!=0
generate Q14_1statements_test_boundariesa=Q14_1statements_test_boundaries if
Q14_1statements_test_boundaries!=0
generate Q14_5statements_ideas_unusuala= Q14_5statements_ideas_unusual if
Q14_5statements_ideas_unusual!=0
generate Q14_6statements_challengesa= Q14_6statements_challenges if
Q14_6statements_challenges!=0
generate Q14_9statements_take_projectsa = Q14_9statements_take_projects if
Q14_9statements_take_projects !=0
generate Q14_11statements_new_ideasa = Q14_11statements_new_ideas if
Q14_11statements_new_ideas !=0
generate Q14_12statements_new_solutionsa = Q14_12statements_new_solutions if
Q14_12statements_new_solutions !=0
generate Q14_14statements_investa = Q14_14statements_invest if
Q14_14statements_invest !=0
generate Q14_16statements_try_new_ideasa = Q14_16statements_try_new_ideas if
Q14_16statements_try_new_ideas !=0
generate Q14_18statements_lucka = Q14_18statements_luck if
Q14_18statements_luck !=0
generate Q14_20statements_different_thnka = Q14_20statements_different_think if
Q14_20statements_different_think !=0
generate Q14_22statements_take_credita = Q14_22statements_take_credit if
Q14_22statements_take_credit !=0
```

*****Recalculating T_Get to exclude 0s (denoting "Don't Know" responses to the 25 entrepreneurial tendency questions).*****

```
generate T_Get_rev = RevQ14_2a + RevQ14_3 + RevQ14_4a + RevQ14_7a +
RevQ14_8a + RevQ14_10a + RevQ14_13a + RevQ14_15a + RevQ14_17a +
RevQ14_19a + RevQ14_21a + RevQ14_23a + Q14_1statements_test_boundariesa +
Q14_5statements_ideas_unusuala + Q14_6statements_challengesa +
Q14_9statements_take_projectsa + Q14_11statements_new_ideasa +
Q14_12statements_new_solutionsa + Q14_14statements_investa +
```

```

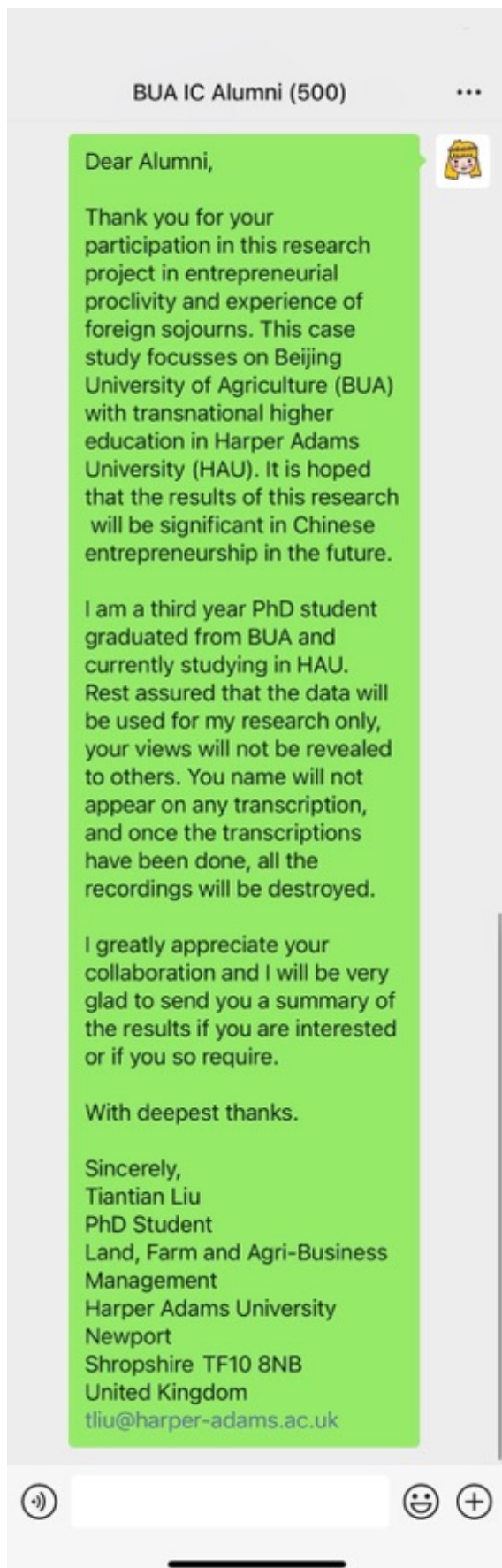
Q14_16statements_try_new_ideasa + Q14_18statements_lucka +
Q14_20statements_different_thnka + Q14_22statements_take_credita +
Q14_24statements_adapt_change + Q14_25statements_start_projects
label variable T_GET_rev "Sum of entr. tendencies, excluding zeros (i.e. DKs)"
*****For Wave 1.*****
generate T_Get_rev_W1 = RevQ14_2a + RevQ14_3 + RevQ14_4a + RevQ14_7a +
RevQ14_8a + RevQ14_10a + RevQ14_13a + RevQ14_15a + RevQ14_17a +
RevQ14_19a + RevQ14_21a + RevQ14_23a + Q14_1statements_test_boundariesa +
Q14_5statements_ideas_unusuala + Q14_6statements_challengesa +
Q14_9statements_take_projectsa + Q14_11statements_new_ideasa +
Q14_12statements_new_solutionsa + Q14_14statements_investa +
Q14_16statements_try_new_ideasa + Q14_18statements_lucka +
Q14_20statements_different_thnka + Q14_22statements_take_credita +
Q14_24statements_adapt_change + Q14_25statements_start_projects if Wave_1==1
*****For Wave 2.*****
generate T_Get_rev_W2 = RevQ14_2a + RevQ14_3 + RevQ14_4a + RevQ14_7a +
RevQ14_8a + RevQ14_10a + RevQ14_13a + RevQ14_15a + RevQ14_17a +
RevQ14_19a + RevQ14_21a + RevQ14_23a + Q14_1statements_test_boundariesa +
Q14_5statements_ideas_unusuala + Q14_6statements_challengesa +
Q14_9statements_take_projectsa + Q14_11statements_new_ideasa +
Q14_12statements_new_solutionsa + Q14_14statements_investa +
Q14_16statements_try_new_ideasa + Q14_18statements_lucka +
Q14_20statements_different_thnka + Q14_22statements_take_credita +
Q14_24statements_adapt_change + Q14_25statements_start_projects if Wave_2==1

*****Creating indicator variables for econometric analysis.*****
quietly tabulate Q15Gender, generate(Gen_)
quietly tabulate Q16Age, generate(Age_)
quietly tabulate Q17Hometown, generate(HT_)
quietly tabulate Q19Monthly_income, generate(Inc_)
quietly tabulate Q20Father_occupation, generate(FOc_)
quietly tabulate Q21Mother_occupation, generate(MOc_)
quietly tabulate Q24Father_education_level, generate(FEd_)
quietly tabulate Q23Mother_education_level, generate(MEd_)
quietly tabulate Q10Entrepreneurship_modules, generate(Mod_)
quietly tabulate Q9Family_business, generate(FB_)

*****Combining Father Occupation = Self-employed, Business Owner, and Entrepreneur into
a single DV.*****
generate F_Occ_Entr = 0
replace F_Occ_Entr = 1 if FOc_4==1| FOc_5==1| FOc_6==1
*****Combining Mother Occupation = Self-employed, Business Owner, and Entrepreneur
into a single DV.*****
generate M_Occ_Entr = 0
replace M_Occ_Entr = 1 if MOc_4==1| MOc_5==1| MOc_6==1

```

Appendix L Initial message with the BUA IC alumni group in the Wechat



Appendix M Interview questions (English version)

Interview schedule for BUA returnee entrepreneurs

Interviewee details:

Name:

Age:

Gender:

Hometown:

Year of Graduation:

Major field of study:

Degree title:

Interview number:

Date and time:

Interview duration:

Open questions:

1. What is your career history to date?
2. What is the nature of your business?

Questions about overseas study:

3. Why did you choose to study abroad?
4. Which aspects of the overseas experience did you enjoy?
5. Which aspects of the overseas experience did you dislike?
6. What do you consider to be the greatest achievement of your study abroad?
7. In consideration of biggest barriers that you experienced while studying abroad how did you overcome them?
8. What did you learn/take away from the overseas experience?
9. Would you recommend the "study abroad" to other Chinese students and why?

Questions about career plan:

10. What was your career plan before studying abroad?
11. Did the overseas study experience influence your career plans?

Questions about entrepreneurship:

12. In your view, what is an entrepreneur and what is entrepreneurship?
13. Do any of your family members, including your parents and relatives, have their own business or are self-employed?
14. Did you study small business management or entrepreneurship as modules, parts of modules, or as short courses as part of your degree programme?

- 14a. If yes, do you think that the entrepreneurship education made you a better entrepreneur? In what way?
15. What were the reasons for setting up your own business?
16. Do you think that you would have still started your own business if you hadn't studies abroad?
17. Do you think the overseas experience influenced your entrepreneurial capabilities / personality traits?
18. Do you think that students who study abroad have particular attributes that mark them out as entrepreneurs (strengths)? If yes, can you elaborate on the answers and identify any weaknesses associated with studying abroad (*i.e. Guanxi*)?
19. Do you regard the overseas education that you received as an advantage or disadvantage in terms of supporting you to start your own business?
20. What do you value most about your overseas education?
21. Do you regard the year(s) you spent abroad as a good investment?
22. Did studying abroad prepare you for starting your own business? If yes, how and why?
23. Do you think that locally educated entrepreneurs have particular strengths or weaknesses? If yes, what and why?
24. Do you have any additional comments or observations about your business, entrepreneurship in general, enterprise in China, your degree programme, or your time studying abroad?

THAT IS THE END OF THE INTERVIEW. THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND ASSISTANCE.

Appendix N Interview questions (Chinse version)

北京农学院国际院校友访谈大纲

姓名：	日期时间:
年龄：	采访时长:
性别：	采访编号:
出生地：	
毕业年份：	
专业：	
受教育程度：	

1. 到目前为止，你的工作经历是什么？
2. 你目前创业的领域是什么？
3. 你为什么选择出国留学？
4. 留学生活中你最喜欢的方面是？
5. 你最不喜欢海外经历的哪些方面？
6. 你认为你在国外学习的最大成就是什么？
7. 你在国外学习时遇到的最大障碍是什么？你是如何克服它们的？
8. 你从出国留学中学到了什么？
9. 你会推荐其他中国学生去留学吗？为什么？
10. 你出国留学前的职业规划是什么？
11. 海外学习经历对你的职业规划有哪些影响？
12. 在你看来，如何定义创业以及创业者？
13. 你的家庭中，包括父母以及其他亲属，有自己创业（包括自雇，个体户）的吗？
14. 你在大学里学过创新创业或者企业管理的课程吗？你参加过创业相关的培训吗？
 - 14a. 如果是的话，你认为创业课程对你的创业有帮助吗？请具体说一下在哪些方面有帮助。

15. 你创业的动机是什么？
16. 如果没有出国留学，你认为自己还会创业吗？
17. 你觉得留学的经历对你的（创业）能力和你整体的性格有影响吗？
18. 你认为海归在创业时有特别的优势吗？如果是的话，你可以具体的谈一下有哪些优势吗？你认为作为海归回国创业有哪些劣势吗？
19. 你认为在国外的教育最大的价值和意义何在？
20. 你认为出国留学是一个不错的投资吗？
21. 总的来说，你认为出国留学对你的创业有帮助吗？如果是的话，请阐述一下具体原因。
22. 你认为没有出国留学经历的创业者与海归创业者相比，他们有哪些优势或者劣势？
23. 对于创业以及出国留学，你还有其他心得体会想与我分享的吗？

今天的采访到此结束，感谢您的时间和帮助。

Appendix O Blank copy of the Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

Project Title: Chinese entrepreneurial proclivity and the conjectured link with the experience of foreign sojourns: an empirical study involving undergraduate students based in Beijing

STATEMENT BY PARTICIPANT

- 1) I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

- 2) I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason. If I withdraw from the study, the data that I have submitted will also be withdrawn at my request.

- 3) I understand that the information that I will submit will be confidential, and used only for this study

- 4) I agree to take part in the above study

.....
Name of Participant Date Signature

.....
Name of Researcher Date Signature

Appendix P Sample Interview transcript from one returnee entrepreneur (Chinese version)

Interview No: 1
Date and time: Monday 14 01 2019 12:00 – 14:00
Length of Interview: 45 mins
Name: Participant J
Age: 30
Gender: Male
Hometown: Beijing
Year of Graduation from Harper: 2011
Major field of study in Harper: IBM
Final Degree: MSc Project Management – Manchester University

TL: 到目前为止，你的工作经历是什么？

Participant J：毕业前在一家投资银行实习了三个月，是家里介绍的。然后我是在一家互联网咨询公司工作了1年，后来去了国内的投资银行工作了两年半，后来从投行出来去了一家互联网媒体公司，在公司中做内部创业，做了一年。后来刚好16年遇到一个好的机会，就和当时的同事一起辞职创业，做了安可。

TL：你能不能大概聊聊安可投资，或者说你目前创业的领域是什么？

Participant J：因为中国过去的20年经济发展很快，互联网的普及，渗透率做得很好，所以有很多的互联网的创业公司，在飞速的增长，然后这些互联网公司，在前期，它没有很强的盈利能力，所以它需要很多的外界资本去支持它，用股权的方式去帮这些人融到钱，然后未来通过上市的方式退出，再让这些投的人撞一下了，所以在这个过程中就相当于给这些公司提供了一个专业的一个投资（investment banking）的服务，就相当于 financial advisor，就去给他们融资提供建议，帮助他们去对接一些投资人，所以这是我们的工作。我们的具体的业务是帮助公司去梳理他们的商业模式，然后去做他们的未来的财务的预测，包括竞争的分析，竞争力的分析等等。然后如果最后融了一笔钱，我们能从这笔钱里收2到3个点这样子。相当于其实就是帮这些初创公司和投资人之间建立一个桥梁。然后他们是标品，放的是股权。

TL: 那你刚才说，你们是互联网创业公司，你们只做互联网吗？

Participant J：是的，我们只做互联网和一些消费。

TL: 好的，接下来一个问题是，你当初为什么选择出国留学？

Participant J：我选择出国留学有几个原因，第一点，在国内的这个教育体制里面，我已经认识到我自己不会是清华北大那种出类拔萃的，所以就希望去不同的地方看一看，然后走一个差异化的路线，想开阔视野。就是在国内的教育体系里，上一个一般的学校，没什么太大的意思，未来没什么前途。然后第二点，去学习不同的文化，出去看看，多见识见识，开阔视野。我当初选择去曼大读研，就是想去一个大城市，找一个好毕业的专业，想在舒适区待着。

TL：留学生活中你最喜欢的方面是什么？

Participant J：一共有四个方面。第一点，在学习方面，我喜欢英国开放式的教学方式，不是一个以结果导向，就有只有正确和不正确这种答案，它是一个相对开放的过程，启发你自己

去找答案。第二点，是生活方面，就是去国外能够看到国外的生活，看到那些人当地的人尤其同龄人的生活。因为我当时在足球队，所以跟他们踢球能够看到他们的那种对生活的态度，我觉得这个是我在国内看不到的。我觉得他们在生活和工作之间的平衡比我们好。第三点，是交友层面，在研究生期间，我结交到一些不错的同学和朋友，来自中国不同的城市，我们现在还保持着很不错的关系。第四点，在个人层面，自己的这种锻炼，第一次出国，刚开始会觉得很寂寞很孤独，但是在一个相对困难的情况下，你的心智也会变得成熟。这个在后来工作以后，回想起那个时候吃的一些苦啊，都是人生的财富。

TL：你最不喜欢海外经历的哪些方面？

Participant J：有两个障碍，一个是语言，一个是文化。我觉得一个是语言障碍，导致你在跟别人交流不自信，然后导致你跟别人的沟通没法变得很深入。你的了解只能在表面。另外一个就是文化的障碍。你不太喜欢去酒吧，不太能接受别人的一些生活方式，能够站在别人的立场去理解这种状态，所以我觉得在你做很多的决策和思考问题的时候，你还是一个中国人的角度去想这些事情，我觉得这些都是挺遗憾的事儿。我自如果自己小孩，会让他更早去出国留学，接受西化的东西。让他有机会独立在国外生活一段时间，我相信他能更好的去理解这里面的生活，这个是我觉得我留学生活中的一个障碍。

TL：你认为你在国外学习最大的成就是什么？

Participant J：我觉得第一个是学业，最后拿了 2：1，当时三年里 IBM 专业没有一个男生拿到 2：1。第二个是我在食堂打工，解决了自己的经济问题。我在一个相对差的环境下锻炼了自己。重新理解了钱的意义。你会知道挣每一分钱的意义是不一样的。当你花家里的钱的时候，你不知道这个钱来得不容易。在自己挣钱的这个过程，尤其当你坚持下来，我觉得这个对我是一个挺深刻的影响。第二个影响是，我明确我将来一定不要做这个类型的工作，你一定要想办法用智商去赚钱，因为你靠卖体力赚钱，你不会比别人干得更好，你也不可能挣很多的钱。我觉得让我理解了钱和工作的意义。第三，在足球队我得到当地同龄人的认可，因为当时我们三四个中国人一块去参加的足球队，但他们都没有坚持下来。然后当时我觉得，不管是学业还是餐厅多忙，我还是想把这件事坚持下来，因为第一锻炼身体也是我的兴趣，然后我觉得在那个过程中，我从不被接受到慢慢被接受了，我觉得这个过程算是一个突破。包括后来我在曼城读研的时候，我作为中心，去组织这些这个欧洲人，韩国人，巴基斯坦人一起来踢比赛。我觉得生活方面，在 Harper 这一年，我觉得自己还是挺无聊的，然后没有去欧洲，这是一个挺大的遗憾。但是我在曼城的时候，我跟当地的小伙伴每周都会去有些活动，比如说跳伞，开车，蹦极，骑马，出海，我觉得体验了不同的生活，回国后，基本都是一辈子也就这么一次。当时的友谊，在那种情况下那种无忧无虑的经历和体验。我觉得学业上，技能方面，我倒没觉得自己有什么多大的成绩。但是感受生活，课外做的这些事，包括去打工，都是我留学经历中的成就。

TL：你从出国留学中学到了什么？

Participant J：第一，我觉得是思考问题的方式会改变，思考问题的方式更多元化。以前是中式的思维，现在就变成了综合的。对待生活的态度不再是一元的，对成功的理解也更多元。因为中国人还是很压抑，把钱放在第一位。第二，我觉得我学到了自己在一个相对孤独和无助的环境，生存的能力。

TL：你会推荐其他中国学生去留学吗？为什么？

Participant J：我会推荐。我觉得就是一种不同的经历。如果我觉得我的小孩在 A 地，如果他去了另外一个地方，跟 A 的体验是差不多的，那就没有必要了，但我觉得如果在 B 的体验和 A 是明显不一样，我会让他自己去体验，去选择。我不会说 A 和 B 哪个好，而最后是他自己去感受哪个更适合他。我觉得这个其实是留学给我带来的变化。

TL：你出国留学前的职业规划是什么？

Participant J：完全没有，当时也没有想过未来做什么。我觉得这也是整个中国教育体系最大的缺陷。我现在很多同事是清华，北大，人大的，在他们很早的时候，他们通过社团，都会知道之前的学长的工作情况，学长也会分享一些求职信息。他们会在大一大二大三的时候都会利用各种暑假时间在实习，积累工作经验。好的学校，大家对找工作这件事情的意识会越早，一般的学校，大家也没有考虑，到时候再说，我认为中国百分之七八十的学校的的学生都没有这个找工作的概念。

TL：海外学习经历对你的职业规划有什么影响？

Participant J：留学结束的时候，我父母给我介绍了实习，通过实习，我就一下看明白了我自己想要什么，在那三个月实习中，我知道了应具备什么样的技能，经历之后才能在工作中脱颖而出。所以我就知道我自己该去补哪些技能，应该去补哪段经历。我当时隐约地知道自己应该学一些财务模式，金融类的知识。

TL：在你看来，如何定义创业以及创业者？

Participant J：创业就是你自己要承担所有的事情，这件事情从头从 0 到 1 创造出来。你要从明天开始，如果你要去注册一个公司，你要去税务局，去工商局，去研究，去社保开账户，你要给你的员工发工资，给你员工定目标，给公司订目标，去找房子租房房子，去找客户，然后把这个产品服务做好，产品服务做好了，怎么去开发，怎么去跟税务局打交道，每天去报税，所有的细节都要自己经历一遍。你去大公司，只要坐在那完成上面交代的任务，但创业是从头开始，所有事情都要经历，里面都只有自己懂了，才能够把这个问题解决好，因为没有人能帮你。

TL：你的家庭中，包括父母以及其他亲属，有创业的吗？

Participant J：我爸就是创业的。是大工头，包工头，帮那种大公司，安装摄像监控。

TL：那你觉得你爸的经历对你有影响吗？

Participant J：没有太大的影响。因为我爸对工作没有一个上进心，我爸就是赚点钱就行了。

TL：你创业的动机是什么？

Participant J：创业跟家里这个背景没有什么关系，创业其实是因为第二份工作经历。我在那个互联网创业公司，有个内部创业，但当时我觉得不太适合我。然后当时我一个选择就是回到一个大的成熟的体系继续工作，但我当时就觉得不太甘心，因为你其实已经在自主创业，或者说内部创业，其实已经经历了一半的创业体验，唯一的差异其实就是自己出来做这个，还是留在公司做什么。然后当时我的同事，也是我现在的同事，他们还是挺支持我出来做，然后自己成立了公司。相对被动的机遇出现了一个主动的选择。

TL：你在大学里学过创新创业的课程吗？

Participant J：学过，但我认为没有什么用。因为我觉得学校学的东西，它只是一个相对的理论框架，我觉得真正有用的是演讲的能力，做幻灯片的能力，做研究的能力。我觉得这是一些基本的锻炼，包括跟人沟通的这些能力，最快速的解决问题的能力。学到的理论知识它有一定的用，但不是说最有用的东西。因为你学到的东西，读的文章也都是二手的资料，与工作中的实际经历也不一样。你真正的工作是要解决这个问题，在学校里教的这个方法，让你能有一个思路，但不能直接帮助你去解决这个问题。我认为 Harper 的 IBM 专业应该加强金融知识的学习，因为我认为财务是一种思维逻辑，它会让你在分析问题的时候，能从三张表的角度上去想这件事情，我觉得不管做任何工作，包括家庭理财，人生。我觉得 marketing 是有用的，我觉得市场营销是帮助你理解一个产品的定位，然后怎么去做宣传，我觉得他在很多的工作上都会用到，我们现在去访谈一些用户，怎么去设计这个问卷。我觉得学校应该去找一些有过工作经历的人，企业家真正去分享，最鲜活的知识 and 真正的应用，去学校里面去授课或者定期分享。我觉得所有的这些课程，都应配合很鲜活的案例，让听的人明白这件事情未来是怎么应用的，大家就能知道我要不要认真学，我学这些东西到底真正的意义是什么。因为你光给他讲理论的知识，没有任何意义。

TL: 如果没有出国留学，你认为自己还会创业吗？

Participant J：我认为更多的是性格，性格会决定你是一个喜欢坐在一个舒适的环境里，还是做自己想做的事情，但是同时你的家境可能会决定了你在做这个选择的时候你的成本，因为有的人性格很适合创业，但是他受制于很强的客观原因，他做这个会受到阻力。有的人他家里条件很好，但他的性格愿意呆在舒适区，那对他来讲机会成本并不是那么的高。所以我觉得创业跟人本身有关系，这个人的性格，环境，当时所在的时间点，状态。

TL：你觉得留学对你的能力和性格有影响吗？

Participant J：在性格方面，有独立，自主性，愿意敢于冒险，敢于挑战，创新的思维，批判性思维。我认为通过出国留学的过程，我认识到成功不是一个一元化的模式，生活和工作的平衡，这个是和国内最大的不一样。因为出国留学，比如说我读研究生，我遇到了很多很优秀的人，他们有很强的上进心。我们现在每年也会聚会，然后在深圳在广州在其它地方，我觉得每次我见他们，他们的变化，对认知的提升，会给我带来一种动力和压力，我觉得我也应该跟他们一样，要不会跟他们的状态脱节。因为家长花了钱让你进了一个门槛更高的一个圈子，也会遇到一些不错的人。你跟一些相对上进的人后来保持一些关系，这个也会在你工作中造成一些潜移默化的影响。更多的是一种经历上的丰富。创业本身就是一条很辛苦很孤独的路。

TL：你认为海外的经历在创业时有特别的优势吗？

Participant J：我认为曼大的研究生学位，在帮助我进那个比较好的投行的时候有一定的帮助，在当时我没有工作经验的情况下，有一个敲门砖。实际上是出国留学给我最直接的影响，是在我找工作的时候给我一个好的背景，人家可以接受你。现在面试的时候，我去招别人的时候，我可能也跟在有出国留学经历的人有简单的交流。我觉得出国留学本身它和创业没有那么强的关系。如果说倒退 20 年前或者 30 年前，像张朝阳他们出去，他们可能看到一些国外的东西，因为我看到现在一波七几年的创始人，就是 70 年到 80 年之间的一个创始人，他们是真的能够把一些美国和国外的东西带到中国，利用信息不对称，创业，自己做事情赚到了钱。我觉得那个红利是很显而易见的，但我觉得对于 80 年出生的，基本上前面已经有 2 到 3 拨人就是出国回来，然后且把一些市场上有的机会也做了七七八八了，所以其实已经很少有人再说出来创造一个新的。在国外真的读书然后回来创业，那是在三四十年前出国的人，我觉得当时是很显而易见的，我觉得最近十年这个市场所有的坑基本上被别人占着差不多。

TL：你认为出国留学是一个不错的投资吗？

Participant J：你在国外的经历，英语还可以，你掌握一些信息，一些知识和技能，然后回国结合国内的工作和方法，可能有优势。但我觉得对于很多一般的学校，最近的这5到10年，我已经认为文凭这个东西没有任何的价值，因为人家知道你在高考里面就已经是这样的人了，然后你读书也是因为你很有钱。出国留学可能更多的是给你一个敲门砖，让你有了更多选择的机会，我觉得这个其实是一种比较客观和理性的一种回答。生活的方式，心态，对生活的理解。你自己是一个很有野心的人，那你最后一定会选择一个难度大的工作，牺牲掉很多东西去实践它。如果你是一个随遇而安的人，那你最后可能会在一个地方上班，朝九晚五的生活。最终还是你的性格决定命运。留学让你在支配或者做选择的时候，多了一些丰富的东西。

TL：对于创业以及出国留学，你还有其他心得体会吗？

Participant J：个人的性格决定了你之后做什么。我觉得人的意义是说你来到这个世界，然后你可能前20年或者十几年获取，然后从20年以后，你就要付出，然后到了真正可能五六十岁以后，然后你再变成获取的人。我自己的信仰和我的价值观是，我来到这个世界上，我是去创造一些东西，然后去承担，我要为这个社会创造一些有价值的东西，具体我的行业，就是说帮助一些优秀的企业家去融到了钱，他们把这些钱去开发更好的产品，去创造更多的社会的岗位，去提升这些工作效率。但创业的好处是说你可控，因为所有事情你做不做这个事情，你想以什么样的方式做，和谁做你都可以决定。我觉得这个是创业能给我带来的一种自由。但创业带来的不好，就是说所有的事，我都要想到，你要承担的更多，要付出的更多，但是你当然回报更多。挣钱不是工作最重要的事情。要有真正的目标，愿景。我希望能创造价值、然后我觉得出国留学让我对于一些事情的反思或想法会变得更升华，我觉得就不仅是钱的层面上，我觉得对于生活和工作理解在变化。中国人，大家就是为了工作而工作，所有事情都是父母安排，最终还是性格决定你想成为一个什么样的人，会去选择什么样的路。我觉得出国留学，接受更好的教育，父母有资源能给你介绍很好起点的工作，我觉得这些都是为了让你能够站在更高的地方去看到底想要什么。让你有机会去选择。很多人其实他没有出国留学，没有接受过这些东西，它其实是没有这个选择的机会。因为学校里，没有人给你讲这些道理。为什么好的学校，都是强的人，这些强烈的目标感觉很像，大家就有一个信息的传递，因为这个世界就是一个信息不对称，你在这个学校天天觉得自己还学到一些东西，但其实人家的时间和人家信息获取的密度要比你好得多。对于学校，在曼大，会经常组织校园招聘，学长会发布一些他的工作机会，给一些刚毕业的人，然后这中间也有一个交流的平台，大家互相帮助。

Appendix Q Sample Interview transcript from one returnee entrepreneur (English version)

Interview No: 1.

Date and time: Monday 14/01/2019 12:00 -- 14:00

Length of Interview: 60 mins

Name: Participant J

Age: 30

Gender: Male

Hometown: Beijing

Year of Graduation from Harper: 2011

Major field of study in Harper: IBM

Final Degree: MSc Project Management -- Manchester University

TL: What is your work experience so far?

Participant J: I worked as an intern in an investment bank for three months before graduation, which was introduced by my family. Then I worked in an Internet consulting company for one year, and then I worked in an investment bank in China for two and a half years. Then I went to an Internet media company from an investment bank and started my own business within the company for one year. Later, I just met a good opportunity in 16 years, so I resigned and started my own business together with my colleagues at that time and became an encore.

TL: Can you talk a little bit about encore investments, or what are your current areas of entrepreneurship?

Participant J: Because China in economic development quickly in the past 20 years, the popularity of the Internet, do a very good permeability, so there are a lot of Internet start-ups, in rapid growth, then these Internet companies, in the early, it is not a strong profitability, so it need a lot of outside capital to support it, with a stake in the way to help these people to raise money, and then the future through the way of the listed out, and let these people against it, so in the process is quite so provides the company with a professional investment (investment baking) service, It is equivalent to financial advisor, which provides Suggestions for their financing and helps them connect with some investors. Therefore, it is our job. Our specific business is to help companies to sort out their business model, and then to do their future financial forecast, including competitive analysis, competitive analysis and so on. And then if we end up with a certain amount of money, we can take 2 or 3 points of that money. It's about building a bridge between these start-ups and their investors. And then they're the standard, they're putting equity.

TL: So, you said you were an Internet start-up. Do you only do the Internet?

Participant J: Yes, we only do Internet, and some consumption.

TL: Ok, the next question is, why did you choose to study abroad in the first place?

Participant J: I choose to study abroad for several reasons. First, in the domestic education system, I have realized that I will not be outstanding like Tsinghua or Peking University, so I hope to go to different places to have a look, and then take a different route to broaden my horizon. It is to be in domestic education system, go up an average school, without too big meaning, future does not have future. Secondly, to learn about different cultures, to go out

and see more and broaden my horizon. I chose to go to the university of Manchester for postgraduate study. I just want to go to a big city, find a good major for graduation and stay in the comfort zone.

TL: What is your favourite aspect of studying abroad?

Participant J: There are four aspects. First of all, in terms of learning, I like the British open teaching method, which is not a results-oriented, there is only the right and the wrong answer, it is a relatively open process, inspired you to find the answer. The second point is the aspect of life, that is to go abroad to see the life abroad, to see the life of the local people especially their peers. Because I was on the football team at that time, I could see their attitude towards life when I played with them. I think this is something I can't see in China. I think they have a better balance between life and work than we do. The third point is about making friends. During my graduate study, I have made some good classmates and friends from different cities in China, and we still maintain a good relationship. Fourthly, on a personal level, when you go abroad for the first time, you will feel very lonely and lonely at first, but in a relatively difficult situation, your mind will also become mature. This after work, recall that time to eat some bitter ah, feel is the wealth of life.

TL: What do you dislike most about your overseas experience?

Participant J: There are two barriers, one is language, the other is culture. I think one is the language barrier, which causes you to be not confident in communicating with others, and then causes you to not be able to communicate with others deeply. You only know at the surface. Another is cultural. You don't like going to bars very much, and you can't accept some lifestyles of others, and you can understand this state from the perspective of others. So I think when you make a lot of decisions and think about problems, you still think about these things from the perspective of Chinese people, which I think is a pity. If I had a child of my own, I would let him go abroad earlier to study and accept westernization. Let him have the opportunity to live in a foreign country independently for a period of time, I believe he can better understand the life here, which I think is an obstacle in my study abroad life.

TL: What do you think is your greatest achievement in studying abroad?

Participant J: I think the first one was study, and I got 2:1 in the end. In the past three years, no boy in IBM major got 2:1. The second is that I work in the canteen to solve their own economic problems. I trained myself in a relatively poor environment. A new understanding of the meaning of money. You will know that the meaning of every penny is different. When you spend your family's money, you don't know how hard it is to come by. In the process of making money by myself, especially when you stick to it, I think it has a profound influence on me. The second influence is that I make it clear that I will never do this type of work in the future. You must try to make money with your IQ, because you make money by selling your physical strength. You can't do better than others, and you can't make a lot of money. I think it made me understand the meaning of money and work. Thirdly, I was recognized by my local peers in the football team, because at that time we three or four Chinese went to the football team together, but they did not stick to it. At that time, I felt that no matter how busy I was with my studies or the restaurant, I still wanted to stick to it, because the first exercise was also my interest. Then I felt that in that process, I was never accepted and gradually accepted, and I thought this process was a breakthrough. And then when I was a graduate student at Manchester city, I was the center, organizing these European, Korean, Pakistani players to play together. I think in terms of life, in Hubble's year, I thought I was pretty boring, and then I didn't go to Europe, which is a big pity. However, when I was in Manchester city, my local friends and I would go to some activities every week, such as skydiving, driving, bungee jumping, horseback riding and going to sea. I felt that we had experienced a different life, and after returning to China, we would go to such activities for the rest of our lives. The friendship

of the time, the carefree experience in that situation. I don't think I've accomplished much academically, or technically. But feeling the life and doing these things after school, including working, are the achievements of my overseas study experience.

TL: What have you learned from studying abroad?

Participant J: First of all, I think the way of thinking will change and the way of thinking will become more diversified. What used to be Chinese thinking is now integrated. The attitude toward life is no longer unitary, the understanding of success is more diverse. Because Chinese people are still depressed and put money first. Second, I feel I have learned my ability to survive in a relatively lonely and helpless environment.

TL: Would you recommend other Chinese students to study abroad? Why is that?

Participant J: I would highly recommend it. I think it's a different kind of experience. If I think my child is in A, if he goes to another place and has the same experience as A, then there is no need, but I think if the experience in B is obviously different from A, I will let him experience and choose by himself. I won't say which is better, A or B, but it's up to him to feel which is better for him. I think this is actually the change brought by studying abroad.

TL: What is your career plan before studying abroad?

Participant J: Not at all. I didn't think about what I would do in the future. I think this is also the biggest flaw in the entire Chinese education system. Many of my colleagues are from Tsinghua university, Peking University and Renmin university of China. When they were very young, they would know about the work situation of their former upperclassman through the association, and the upperclassman would also share some job-hunting information. In their freshman, sophomore and junior years, they will use all kinds of summer vacation time to practice and accumulate work experience. Good schools, we will find the awareness of the job earlier, the general school, we have not considered, and then say, I think 70 or 80 percent of the school students in China do not have this concept of job hunting.

TL: How has your study abroad influenced your career planning?

Participant J: At the end of my study abroad, my parents introduced me to the internship. Through the internship, I immediately understood what I wanted. During the three months of internship, I knew what skills I should have, and then I could stand out in the work. So, I knew which skills I needed to develop and which experiences I needed to develop. I had a vague idea that I should learn something about financial models, about finance.

TL: In your opinion, what defines entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship?

Participant J: Starting a business is doing all the work yourself, from zero to one. You want to start from tomorrow, if you want to go to register a company, you want to go to the revenue, to industrial and commercial bureau, to study, to open accounts of social security, you have to pay for your employees, give employees you set goals, to the company target, go looking for a house to rent a house, go looking for customers, and then the products and services, product service ready, how to develop, how to deal with tax bureau, to declare dutiable goods every day, all details are to experience it again. You go to a big company, as long as you sit there to complete the task assigned above, but starting a business is to start from scratch, everything has to go through, which only you understand, can solve the problem, because no one can help you.

TL: Are there any entrepreneurs in your family, including parents and other relatives?

Participant J: My dad started his own business. It's a big foreman, a contractor, helping a big company like that set up cameras.

TL: Do you think your dad's experience has influenced you?

Participant J: Not much. Because my dad doesn't have an ambition for his job, he just makes some money.

TL: What motivates you?

Participant J: Starting a business has nothing to do with your family background. I was at the Internet start-up, and I had an inside job, but I didn't think it was right for me. Then I was an option is to return to a large mature system continue to work, but I don't feel too freely, at that time because you are in their own businesses, or internal entrepreneurship, actually has gone through half of entrepreneurial experience, the only difference is there to do this, what to do or to stay at the company. And then my colleagues at that time, my colleagues now, they still supported me to come out and start their own company. A relatively passive opportunity presents an active choice.

TL: Did you take any courses in innovation and entrepreneurship in college?

Participant J: Yes, but I don't think it's useful. Because I think what I learned in school, it's just a relatively theoretical framework, and I think what's really useful is the ability to speak, the ability to make slides, the ability to do research. I think this is some basic training, including the ability to communicate with people, the ability to solve problems quickly. The theoretical knowledge learned is useful, but not the most useful. Because what you learn, the articles you read are all second-hand materials, which are different from the actual experience in work. Your real job is to solve the problem, and the method that you're taught in school gives you an idea, but it doesn't directly help you solve the problem. I think Harper's IBM major should strengthen the study of financial knowledge, because I think finance is a kind of thinking logic, which enables you to think about it from the perspective of three tables when analysing problems. I think no matter what job you do, including family finance, life. I think marketing is useful. I think marketing is to help you understand the positioning of a product and how to promote it. I think it is used in many jobs. I think the school should find some people with work experience, entrepreneurs to really share, the most vivid knowledge and real application, go to the school to teach or regularly share. I think all of these courses should be combined with vivid cases, so that the audience can understand how this thing is applied in the future, so that they can know whether I should learn it seriously or not, and what is the real meaning of learning these things. Because you just tell him theoretical knowledge, there is no meaning.

TL: Do you think you would have started your own business if you hadn't studied abroad?

Participant J: I think is more of a character, the character will decide you are a like sitting in a comfortable environment, or do you want to do things, but at the same time, your family may determine what are you doing this option when your cost, because some people character is very suitable for business, but he is subject to strong objective cause, he will do this by resistance. There are people in his family who are well off, but who have the disposition to stay in their comfort zone, and that's not so high an opportunity cost for him. So, I think entrepreneurship has something to do with the person, the personality, the environment, the time, the state.

TL: Do you think studying abroad has affected your ability and character?

Participant J: In terms of personality, I am independent and independent, willing to take risks and challenges, innovative thinking and critical thinking. I think through the process of studying abroad, I realize that success is not a unified model, and the balance between life and work

is the biggest difference between China and the United States. Because of studying abroad, for example, when I was a graduate student, I met a lot of excellent people who were highly motivated. We meet every year now, in Shenzhen, in Guangzhou and other places. I think every time I see them; their changes and the improvement of cognition will bring me a kind of motivation and pressure. I think I should be the same as them. Because your parents spent money to get you into a circle with a higher bar, you will meet some nice people. You have relationships with people who are relatively motivated, which can have a subtle impact on your work. It's more of an enriching experience. Entrepreneurship itself is a very hard and lonely road.

TL: Do you think the overseas experience has a particular advantage when it comes to starting a business?

Participant J: I think the graduate degree from the university of Manchester was helpful in helping me get into that better investment bank. At that time, I didn't have much work experience, so it was a steppingstone. In fact, the most direct impact of studying abroad is that it gives me a good background when I look for a job, and people can accept you. Now in the interview, when I recruit others, I may also have a simple communication with people who have studied abroad. I think studying abroad itself is not so strongly related to starting a business. If back 20 years or 30 years ago, like Yanhong Li, the founder of Baidu, or Jack Ma, the founder of Alibaba. They went out, they might see some foreign things, between 70s to 80s, they are really able to take something the United States and abroad to China, the use of information asymmetry, entrepreneurship, do your own things to make money. I think that dividend is very obvious, but I think for 80 years of birth, basically there have been two or three groups of people go abroad to come back, and then some of the opportunities in the market have also done, so in fact, very few people have come out to create a new. I really studied in a foreign country and then came back to start my own business. That was people who went abroad 30 or 40 years ago. I think it was very obvious at that time.

TL: Do you think studying abroad is a good investment?

Participant J: Your experience abroad, your English is good, you can master some information, some knowledge and skills, and then come back to China combined with the domestic work and methods, may have advantages. But I think for many ordinary schools, in the recent 5 to 10 years, I have thought that the diploma has no value, because people know that you are already such a person in the college entrance examination, and then you study because you have money. Studying abroad may be more of a steppingstone for you and more opportunities for you to choose. I think this is actually a more objective and rational answer. The way of life, mentality, understanding of life. If you are an ambitious person, you will definitely choose a difficult job and sacrifice a lot to practice it. If you're a happy-go-lucky person, you may end up working somewhere, from 9 to 5. In the end, your character determines your destiny. Studying abroad allows you to control or make a choice, some more rich things.

TL: What else do you know about entrepreneurship and studying abroad?

Participant J Your personality determines what you do next. I think the meaning of being human is that you come into the world, and then you may take it in the first 20 or 10 years, and then after 20 years, you have to give it away, and then after 50 or 60 years, you become the person who takes it. My own belief and my sense of values is, I came to this world, I'm going to create something, then go to bear, I want to create something of value for the society, specific to my industry, to say I help some outstanding entrepreneurs to raised money, they use the money to develop better products, to create more social positions, to improve the work efficiency. But the nice thing about starting a business is that you can control it, because you can decide whether or not you want to do it, how you want to do it, and who you want to do it with. I think this is a kind of freedom that entrepreneurship can bring to me. But the bad thing

about entrepreneurship is that everything, I think, you have to take on more, you have to pay more, but of course you give back more. Making money is not the most important thing in a job. Have a real goal, a vision. I want to create value. Then I think studying abroad will make my reflection or ideas on some things sublimate. I think it is not only on the level of money, but also my understanding of life and work is changing. Chinese people work just for the sake of their work. Everything is arranged by their parents. Ultimately, it is the personality that determines what kind of person you want to be and what kind of road you will choose. I think studying abroad, getting a better education, and parents having resources to introduce you to a good starting point are all for you to see what you want from a higher place. It gives you a choice. A lot of people actually he did not go abroad to study, did not accept these things, it is the opportunity that does not have this choice actually. Because no one at school tells you that. Why good school, it is strong person, these intense goal feel very similar, everybody has a message to deliver, because this world is an information asymmetry, you are in this school every day feel oneself still learn a few things, but actually the density that somebody else's time and somebody else's information get wants much better than you. As for the school, in the university of Manchester, it will often organize campus recruitment, and the seniors will release some job opportunities to some fresh graduates. Then there will be a communication platform for everyone to help each other.

Appendix R Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Dear Alumni,

Thank you for your participation in this research project in entrepreneurial proclivity and experience of foreign sojourns. This study focusses on Beijing University of Agriculture (BUA) with transnational higher education in Harper Adams University (HAU). It is hoped that the results of this research will be significant in Chinese entrepreneurship in the future.

I am a third year PhD student graduated from BUA and currently studying in HAU. Rest assured that the data will be used for my research only, your views will not be revealed to others. Your name will not appear on any transcription, and once the transcriptions have been done, all the recordings will be destroyed.

I greatly appreciate your collaboration and I will be very glad to send you a summary of the results if you are interested or if you so require.

If you agree to take part in this research, please sign the attached form.

With deepest thanks.

Sincerely,
Tiantian Liu

PhD Student
Land, Farm and Agri-Business Management
Harper Adams University
Newport
Shropshire TF10 8NB
United Kingdom

tliu@harper-adams.ac.uk

Appendix S Coding of interview responses

1) "Why did you choose to study abroad?"

With this question, the researcher wanted to know what motivates students to decide to study abroad. For example, from the literature, students may decide to study abroad to broaden their horizons, to experience a different culture, to increase their chances of getting a good job, to improve their foreign language skills, to study in the UK, to study at an internationally recognised institution, to change their lives, to become independent, to receive a better-quality education than in their own country, etc.

Motivation factors/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Opportunity to see the world	10	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I want to see the outside world". 2. "I hope to see different places". 3. "I want to study abroad not only because of study, more importantly, it is about going abroad and being able to explore the unknown, see the life of people who live there, especially our peers". 4. "I want to study abroad to explore myself and the world". 5. "Since I was in primary school, I have often travelled abroad with my family, when I am going to the university, I want to study abroad because I am hoping to have a deeper understanding of foreign life". 6. "I want to study abroad to see the outside world. Go out and have a look". 7. "Overseas life is very attractive to me, and I am dreaming for it. I used to watch a lot of foreign movies and imagines what the life is in the foreign countries. I want to go out and have a look of the world". 8. "Study abroad is about visiting developed countries; I want to see the outside world and learn their culture and advanced methodology". 9. "I think study abroad can give me a new height and perspectives, and a new understanding about life". 10. "Study abroad is about go out and have a look. Learn something from others".
Broaden horizons	6	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Enrich life experience and accumulate the ability to survive in different cultures and environments". 2. "I want to study abroad to broaden my horizons". 3. "Study abroad is all about broadening my horizons and experiencing new cultures". 4. "I want to study abroad to broaden the horizons and gain a new perspective". 5. "I want to study broad to broaden my mind, learn new skills and discover different cultures". 6. "I expected my study abroad would expand my intellectual horizons and enable me to experience another culture first-hand".
Language skills	5	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I choose to study abroad mainly want to improve my English ability, because I believe the English is very important in today's job market. English is a tool which can be used in everywhere. Undergraduate study is about learning one major subject, it may be not the same subject area when I do my master's degree or start my work, but every major need English ability". 2. "Studying abroad is the best way to learn a language". 3. "Because my English is good compared to my peers, and I want to study abroad to improve my speaking skills". 4. "I want to study abroad because I think it is a great opportunity to deepen my foreign language-learning journey. I had one year to be fully immersed in the English language. I try to make native friends there to practise the language. I made efforts to bring English more fully into my life".

		5. "I want to study abroad to improve my English languages proficiency".
Experience something different	4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I choose to study to try and add something different in my life". 2. "I want to study abroad to experience a different style of education and life". 3. "I want to study abroad to experiencing new cultures and meeting people from all different background". 4. "I think by study abroad, I will be able to do something I have never had an opportunity to do in my life. Study abroad means I get chance to experience a lot of new things".
Increase the international job prospects	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I choose to study aboard to finishes my degree and I believe having a degree from a foreign university will give me a greater chance in finding a better job in a large organisation when I return to China after graduation". 2. "When I choose to study at Beijing University of Agricultural, I learned about this TNE program. I think this program is very good to me, because my grade is average, I think I might become more competitive compared to the local peers when I received the overseas study in the UK".
Time effective	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Study abroad is a high investment high return thing. It's more time efficient to go to the UK as they provide one year of full-time study for the postgraduate courses". 2. "I choose to study abroad particular in the UK because it is very cost and time effective. Undergraduate and postgraduate courses in the UK tend to be shorter than in other countries which can help to keep the cost of tuition fees and living expenses down".
Become more independent	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I want to become more dependent on myself". 2. "Away from my parents' guidance, I could learn the ability of how to survive on my own".
Differentiation routes compare to local students	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Study abroad is a differentiation route compared to the local students; it may give me an important competitive advantage in the marketplace".
Avoid "Gaokao"	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I choose to study abroad to avoid some of the pressure of the Chinese National Higher Education Entrance Examination, because if the entrance examination results are not ideal, I cannot go to a good university".
Need change of life	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I want to study abroad because I want a change in my life".
Know myself	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I choose to study abroad because I think traveling can help me know and find myself which is good for the soul".
Parents decision	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "It was my parents' decision to study abroad, my parents greatly influenced my move to enrol in another country".
Learning advanced knowledge	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I want to study abroad to learn the advanced skills and knowledge".

2) *"Which aspects of the overseas experience did you enjoy?"*

The "cross culture engagement" was the most popular response mentioned by 6 participants to this question. "Developing independence and standing on my own feet" was mentioned by 5 out of the 12 participants. Other enjoyable factors included the teamwork and interpersonal relationship, the sense of freedom, the high-quality education in the UK, the opportunity of learning more about me, broaden and expanded the horizons, engage in social activities and open-minded thinking.

Enjoyable factors/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Cross-culture	6	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I most enjoy the ideas of cross cultures, the international experience brings me closer to other cultures, ideas, values, beliefs, and religions, which I never think about or experience before". 2. "I enjoy the opportunity to be able to interact with people from diverse culture background, different countries, races, and beliefs. I can witness a completely new way of life. During study abroad, I have a better understanding and appreciation for my own culture and history". 3. "Though the multicultural engagement, I learned the difference between Britain and China because I had never been abroad in my entire life, that is, more than 20 years. I realize Britain is more advanced than China in some respects at that time when I study abroad, they have higher degree of civilization and more advanced infrastructure". 4. "It is the first time I leave my parents and my home in my life. When I arrive in the UK, I am fascinated by the distinct cultural perspectives. I found incredible new foods, customs, traditions, and social atmospheres". 5. "I enjoy the culture including the social etiquette and customs in the UK. The social atmospheres are very friendly, the interpersonal communication is simple and direct. The UK people lay great emphasis on their privacy and opinions. They are very direct in expressing themselves. However, Chinese tend to be more obedient. When doing business, the UK people are very focused on doing things, there is not so many traps like Guanxi in China". 6. "I enjoy the new culture, new language, new people, and new surroundings".
Independent	5	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I most enjoy the intendent feelings during the study abroad journey, I enjoy being independent and mature, and grow as a person". 2. "I enjoy the complete independent feelings. I start learning the art of being Independent". 3. "I enjoy the independent thinking and the ability to solve problems independently". 4. "I enjoy the independence. Live independently and make your own decisions. No matter I feel sad or happy, I can make all the decisions by myself. Independent living means controlling and directing my own life". 5. "The Chinese parents are more controlling over children compare to the Western parents. I most enjoy the independent decision making and stand on my own feet".
Teamwork	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "In China, there is a saying that 'One depends on one's parents while at home; One depends on one's friends while away from home.', I enjoy the teamwork and the sense of team spirt while study abroad". 2. "I enjoy the interpersonal relationship with different people".
Freedom	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I enjoy the sense of freedom in every atmosphere of life". 2. "For the first time ever, I have total freedom to be who I want to be".
High quality education	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "The liberal, professional, and rigorous of UK education system". 2. "Education is the centre piece of my study abroad trip, I most enjoy the high-quality education in the UK which more focus on the softer skills, that is different from the education I received at home".
Learn more about myself	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I enjoy to knowing myself during the study abroad process. It gives the opportunity for me to really get to know myself, my strengths, and weaknesses, and to identify my goals, ambitions, desires, dreams, and begin working to achieve them. It allowed me to set up a structured plan and put into action". 2. "I most enjoy the opportunity to learn more about myself. Throwing myself into a completely new environment help me to figure out what I am good at, as well as what I am not so good at".
Broaden horizons	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Going abroad help me to broaden my horizon, that is one thing that I mostly enjoy, including traveling and seeing many new places".
Diverse social activities	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "When study abroad, I got the chance to join a lot of sports clubs and doing part-time jobs, integrated in the social life of the UK".
Open minded	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I enjoy the opportunities for open-minded thinking".

3) *“Which aspects of the overseas experience did you dislike?”*

Dislike factors/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Loneliness	5	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “At Harper, everyone is busy with the postgraduate application and HRP project. It is also difficult to build friendships with foreigners. I feel I have lost a lot of good friends at home because of the overseas study. In China, my local friends have close and intimate network. The friendship relies on meeting each other frequently, but if I do not see them for a few months or a year, we become distant”. 2. “In Chinese university, they normally have the graduation ceremony and alumni group, the graduates forms the close contact network. I think the network system in Harper (IC BUA) is very weak, in fact, I have very few friends left after the overseas study”. 3. “I have a lot of free time during the overseas study which I don't know how to get along with myself. Harper is a relatively boring place”. 4. “I love to play and hang out with friends. I like big cities compare to village. I don't like Harper's environment. It's lonely and boring”. 5. “I am introverted and have social anxiety disorder. I don't like to communicate with strangers, and I am passive in making new friends, not to mention making friends with foreigners. I don't like to seek others for help when I face difficulties. I was always afraid that I would make mistake and be laughed by others (lose face, Mianzi). I think I have depression and inferiority when I study overseas, I experience the inner suffering.”
Homesick	3	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Living on chicken and vegetables for dinner every night because I don't know how to cook, and I am too lazy to learn”. 2. “Watching my friends still at home having fun doing all the things”. 3. “I feel very upset about leaving my home country”.
Culture shock	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Everything from food and weather is differ from those in China. I don't like the British pub culture. Pub culture is an important part of British student life. I don't like the ways that Pubs are a place to go to socialise, relax and have a drink”. 2. “I don't feel comfortable going to the pub, however pub is one of the most important and typical elements of British culture”.
Language barriers	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “I found very difficult to understand what lectures speak and trying to communicate”.

4) "In consideration of biggest barriers that you experienced while studying abroad how did you overcome them?"

Barriers factors/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Culture	9	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Studying abroad is a great experience but full of challenges. I have experience new ways of life, attitudes, and cultural norms. I think the Chinese and the UK people have different habits and preferences, different background, different conceptions, and different ways of interacting". 2. "The common stereotype of Chinese people is quiet, passive, and introverted. As a Chinese, I am more introverted and not good at communicating with people from other countries. We have passive attitude towards socialising with foreigners". 3. "The unspoken norm in China like behaviour, gestures, tone of voice, interact are so different compared to the UK. I seriously do not like drinking or clubbing. I cannot go to the clubs. It is disgraced. This is a serious cultural conflict". 4. "I feel dissatisfied with the friendships with local students, and I find it very challenging to socialise with students of other nationalities". 5. "I think culture is a big barrier to me when I study abroad. I don't like to go to bars or club to socialise, we have different social habits (e.g., drinking alcohol). I can't accept some western lifestyles; I find it difficult to understand the culture norms from the perspective of local people. I think when I make decisions and think about a problem, I still use the Chinese way and look at things from the Chinese perspective". 6. "Influenced by the traditional Chinese culture, Chinese students fears of peer disapproval and face sensitivity (lose face). I have little interaction with sojourning students. In daily life, Chinese people tend to stick together and have no chance to have a deep understanding of British culture". 7. "I have experienced social difficulties, lack of communications with local people due to the limitation of language, introversion and different interactional norms and patterns. I found difficult to social interaction with local people". 8. "The barrier is the cultural conflict, when discussions proceed to in-depth issues like ideologies, there is huge differences in the way of thinking, the view of life, the world view and value system, the cultural identity, and the way of doing things". 9. "When I first arrived in the UK, I felt a big culture shock. Although before going abroad, the university had arranged some lectures and training to prepare us for the study abroad trip. However, the life and cultural differences are not something we can learn from the lecture or book. I imagine myself as a foreigner, imitating their conversation and living habits. Force myself to get integrate into that environment".
Language	7	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "The biggest barriers I experienced is language barriers. I can only talk about plain stuff with foreigner". 2. "My English language skills (speaking) were very limited and basic when I first arrived in the UK. Although we have been study English for many years and we took the IELTS test, we have hardly spoken English in the public. There is no chance for us to practice day to day English with natives. When I first arrived, I couldn't speak good English, for example, I don't know how to explain to the staff in the bank that I would like to have some change. As a result, I have been carried a lot of £50 notes with me for long time. It is very difficult for me to get through day-to-day situations". 3. "I think the biggest barrier is the language, which causes me lack of confident in communicating with others, and not be able to communicate with others in detail. It is because of language fluency, and about self-confidence. We only talk about plain stuff, and we can only know the surface of the English culture". 4. "Language. It is the crucial factor". 5. "My oral English is not good, so I must pay more efforts in practice my speaking. This put on a lot of pressure on me. One is English conversation, and the other is academic writing". 6. "I have trouble communicating with my HRP supervisor especially in

		exchange the ideas". 7. "I feel more confidence at expressing my ideas in my native language. I found difficult to express myself using English".
Different learning and teaching style	6	1. "Studying abroad is a great experience but full of challenges. We need to adapt to a learning teaching style. We tend to be much more deferential and obedient which is embedded within Chinese culture, where in the UK, it is normal to challenge the lecturer in the class." 2. "When I first started my overseas study, I was not familiar with the way of critical thinking, learning patterns, and academic writing skills, I am not get used to have debate and discussion in the class." 3. "When I study in China, I don't need to read a lot of literature, for example, reading a lot of books or journal articles, and collect first-hand information and primary data. The way of thinking is more empiricism in China and based on experience and personal opinions, rather than giving argument supporting by evidence and compare with existed research. The way of learning and thinking in the UK is very different from China." 4. "When I first left China and study in the UK, the way of learning and thinking is a big obstacle to me. The foreign teaching style are distinctly different from China. Learning in China are very exam orientated and have focused on rote learning." 5. "There is a huge difference in learning style between the UK and China. Chinese students do not tend to ask as many questions. In Chinese culture questioning may be seen to represent a challenge to the teacher." 6. "There were significant differences in learning approaches between China and the UK."
Social network	2	1. "During the study abroad, I have made very few friends and have poor interpersonal relationship with other foreign students". 2. "During the study abroad time, I feel like I lost a lot of good friends in China."
Lack of confidence	1	1. "I am introverted and have social phobia. I was always afraid that people will be laughed at me about my English. I was a little depressed."

5) "What do you consider to be the greatest achievement of your study aboard?"

Greatest achievement/ Node	Number of quotes
Study	7
Independent	5
Broaden the horizon	4
Part-time job	4
Challenge myself	2
Multinational culture	2
Language ability	2
Communication skills	1

6) "What did you learn/take away from the overseas experience?"

Outcome factors/ Node		Number of quotes	Example quote
Practical skills	Research and analysis	6	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "During studying abroad, I developed my research and analytical skills in the process of report writing, I need to read a lot of publications and materials, analyse the article in detail, considering rational behind the article and using data to support the argument." 2. "I have developed the analytical skills during my study abroad, I learned to use approaches and methods to identify and evaluate a certain situation. I try to apply this skill at work, I trying to see things from different perspectives, doing research online to find more data and information about the situation. This skill become a tool in my life, and I use it during my study, work, and personal life to help me with the decision-making process. I tend to do research when I see a new concept or facing a new situation before deciding." 3. "I learned from the study abroad the skills of report writing, data collection, finding and acquiring information from the internet, critical thinking, and analysis, which still helps me a lot these days." 4. "I need to deal with all sorts of questions and assignments in the overseas study. I learned to using books and journals, using the Internet to find the information that I needed." 5. "After the report writing and complete my HRP, I am being able to quickly find information during the work, review, and analysis the information I found from different sources and recognize key patterns." 6. "The skills I learned from study abroad is very beneficial, the report writing experience is difficult in the beginning, however it enables me to search for appropriate information and evaluate it, and I have learned to make good use of information to resolve a problem."
	Communication and presentation skills	4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "During the study abroad, I learned how to communicate especially in a foreign language, and actively listening to other people's thoughts and taking them on board. The presentation during the class in study abroad helped me with the presentation skills to present my ideas and information clearly. I learned how to do the PowerPoint slides, being confidence and delivering my ideas with the audience to get my message across." 2. "I have developed my communication skills during the study abroad, it allows me to understand and be understood by others during the workplace. I can effectively communicate ideas to others, delivering my message to the customers, giving, and receiving critical feedback with others." 3. "The most important thing I learn from studying abroad is the communication between people and

			<p>getting along with each other in life.”</p> <p>4. “I have developed my skills of effective communication with other people during my study abroad.”</p>
	Critical thinking	3	<p>1. “I have developed my critical thinking skills during the study abroad, instead of repeating things from the book or from the class, I try to develop my own opinions based on what I read or learn.”</p> <p>2. “After study abroad, I developed my critical thinking skills, it is about identifying the purpose behind the writer or designer, considering why they do it or write it in that way. “</p> <p>3. “Critical thinking skills are very useful in the workplace and helped me a lot in decision making. This skill helped me to make good decisions by evaluating information critically, fairly, and objectively, rather than purely accept everything others say or write on the Internet. I will read a lot of data to analysis the problem and given the logical rational.”</p>
	Teamwork	2	<p>1. “During the overseas study, we have a lot of group discussions and teamwork in seminars and tutorials. I have learned to work as a team.”</p> <p>2. “I have learned to work as a team, engaging with others, make contribution to the team and working with others. We have team assignments in the overseas study. Working as part of a team, writing each part individually and put them together helps me to develop my skills in communication, collaboration During my work, I need to work closely with my employee, and it helps me to work well with others.”</p>
	Self-management skills	2	<p>1. “I think I have learned my ability to survive in a relatively lonely and helpless environment. Those life skills help me get through life better and get on with other people. The things I learn from life experience is more valuable than the hard skills I learned from formal education.”</p> <p>2. “I need to make most of my time and organise my life. Different from study in China, there is no supervision from the teacher, it is all about being able to organise, plan and manage the study and learning by myself. I must work independently and manage my own time.”</p>
	Problem solving skills	2	<p>1. “Studying about is something outside my comfort zone, I don’t have my parents or friends with me, I need to make my own decisions and facing the problem by myself.”</p> <p>2. “Ability to solve problems independently.”</p>
	Independent learning	1	<p>1. “The pressure from study is huge and it required the ability of independent thinking and learning. The teacher only covers the essential knowledge in the class, to write the assessment, I need to learn by myself, and read a lot of materials around the subject.”</p>
Hard skills	Advanced knowledge	2	<p>1. “I have gained professional knowledge of business administration and be able to apply it in practical work.”</p> <p>2. “I have gained the specialized theory system to support my work.”</p>
	Language	2	<p>1. “Communicating in a foreign language.”</p> <p>2. “Learning new language and new things.”</p>
	Independent	14	<p>1. “Over the study abroad, I learned to take initiative and be active, make own decisions.”</p>

<p>Personality traits</p>			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. "Far away from friends and family, I must learn how to rely on myself in difficult and challenging situations. I have learned a lot about myself during the process." 3. "The independence makes me become stronger and more resilient as a person." 4. "I have learned how to thrive in a place without any support from family or friends." 5. "By studying abroad, I am forced to survive on my own, I need to do my own grocery shopping, cooking, cleaning, make new friends, and learn how to survive on your own, which makes me more independent and stronger. When I stay at home, I live with my parents, and I have the convenience of rely everything on them." 6. "I become my own boss in my own life. I can make all the decisions without any one's permission." 7. "During the study abroad, I need to overcome the difficulties from life and study independently." 8. "In the study abroad process, I have encountered all kinds of problems, both in life and study, I need to solve them by myself." 9. "I can think independently, make decisions independently, and solve problems independently." 10. "During my study, I have worked in the canteen, I become more independent and earn the money for my living cost." 11. "I worked in the canteen and earned the money for the plane ticket back to China." 12. "It is the first time I am living on my own. I become more independent and self-reliant. Friends and family are not there to offer immediate support. I need to rely on myself to solve any problem."
	<p>Open minded</p>	<p>9</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Studying abroad makes me to see the world and appreciate how diverse the world truly is. I learn about different culture, and I started learning to appreciate my own culture." 2. "I think the way you think will change during study abroad. The way you think will become more diverse. Before I study abroad, what I used to think about a thing is the Chinese way of thinking, but now, it is more integrated with the western way of thinking. The attitude toward life is no longer unitary, the understanding of success is more diverse, however, the Chinese people still put money first as being successful in life." 3. "Study abroad helps me to know other cultures. I got the chance to observe the different customs and traditions and experience different perspective on life. I have changed my old way of thinking." 4. "Studying abroad makes my thinking become more open. I have new understanding of money and new understanding of life and work." 5. "After study abroad, I am more willing to try new things or to hear and consider new ideas." 6. "The study abroad experience helps me to shape my views on life, my views about the world. It helps me with opening the mind to other people, cultures, and ways to live life." 7. "I realise success is not a single pattern or single definition." 8. "Study abroad gives me an international perspective, I become more tolerant to different cultures, beliefs, and races."

			9. "I became more aware of the differences that exist between the Chinese and British culture."
Brave	4		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I think study abroad gives me the courage which I do not have when I am at home. I think going abroad for a period gives me courage from the inside out. I am not worried about the unknown." 2. "During the study abroad time, I used to write a paper of 2000 or 3000 words every week, which is more intense than that of Chinese universities. I think I can accomplish anything I want no matter how difficult they are. I survived during the study abroad time when I have faced a lot of difficulties and challenges, and this inspired me when I first start my business, and inspired me even today, no fear about the future." 3. "Study abroad have stretched the limits of my fear." 4. "I have learned to accepting uncertainty. Uncertainty is the source of many fears."
Responsibility	4		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "It is the first time in my life that I am way from my family and going to a new country. I feel very lonely at the beginning, but I become more mature and take responsibility of myself." 2. "I have a lot of free time with myself, I learned to manage my own time and my money. I need to plan my one-year expense in advance. Plan how much money I can spend weekly, monthly, and save for vacation trips." 3. "It is all up to myself and I need to take responsibility for my own learning and living." 4. "I need to work towards my own goals, meeting assignments deadlines and taking responsibility for my own academic success."
Self-challenge	5		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "When I first start work, I have worked in the government and NGOs, I have faced many challenges. Now when I start my own business, I still facing new challenge every day, but I choose to keep challenging myself to the limit. There is all kinds of difficulties in the work, but I can solve it with calm. I think it has everything to do with the experience of studying abroad." 2. "Study aboard makes me a stronger person because it forces me out of my normal comfort zone. During my study, I have worked in the canteen, I had to get up early every day, and I had to face the pressure of studying while working. Many people choose to live an easy life in their comfort zone, but I challenge myself and stick to it." 3. "I was equipped with skills to handle challenge in an unstable environment." 4. "Work under pressure to achieve my goals." 5. "Studying abroad is very challenging, but it's also the perfect opportunity for personal growth."
Persistence	4		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Study abroad changes my attitude towards life, I become more persistence and perseverance. The education system of studying in the UK has greatly influenced me and made me insist on doing many things." 2. "You will know that the meaning of money, you will understand every penny matter. When you spend parents' money, you don't understand how hard you need to work to earn the money. In the process of

			<p>making money by myself, I think it has a profound influence on me. It teaches me to be persistence.”</p> <p>3. “I joined the football team in the university, I was recognized by my local peers. In the beginning, there is three or four Chinese students in the team, we joined together, but they did not stick to it, and they quit. No matter how busy I was for my study or working part-time at the cantante, I wanted to stick it to the end.”</p> <p>4. “Do not quit or give up when facing pressure and difficulties.”</p>
	Need for autonomy	3	1. “In China, we are used to learn knowledge from books, while universities in the UK lay more emphasis on application and practical skills and require our self-autonomy.”
	Creative thinking	2	<p>1. “I become more creative and think outside the box. I think study abroad makes me more flexible, creative, and complex thinkers.”</p> <p>2. “I think study abroad encourages me to explore the more creative side of myself.”</p>
	Self-confidence	2	<p>1. “Look back, I have accomplished a list of things and challenges. I can say I did that. The overseas experience boosts my self-esteem, and I become more confidence.”</p> <p>2. “I think studying has made me much more confident in myself. Confident in my language abilities, confident in my adaptability. I used to be lack of confidence and questioning myself, but the overseas experience has encouraged me to think differently.”</p>
	Flexibility	2	<p>1. “I become more flexible in unfamiliar situations.”</p> <p>2. “Everything is so different in the UK compared in China, I need to be flexible and open to adapt the changes. The life teaches me to be flexibility and adaptability.”</p>
	Passion	2	<p>1. “Study abroad teaches me that life is full of adventures, I am still young, and I should do something that I truly love.”</p> <p>2. “Study abroad fuels passion for exploration.”</p>
	Calculated risk taking	1	1. “I could take a closer look at the outside world and know how to manage risk.”
	Need for achievement	1	1. “I feel a huge sense of achievement when I look back at my year in the UK.”
	Positive	1	1. “Study abroad gives me a positive mindset.”
	Less materialistic	1	1. “Study abroad teaches me that I may become happier and less stressed if I am not putting too much focus on earning money. I could take more time for family, friends, play and the things I enjoy.”
	Comprehensive quality	1	1. “Studying abroad can make you become a person with high comprehensive quality, a comprehensive person, instead of just knowing learning and studying.”
Interpersonal skills	Broaden horizons	7	<p>1. “You can meet people from different backgrounds and cultures.”</p> <p>2. “It is very interesting to have a chance to know the culture of different countries.”</p> <p>3. “Study abroad have increased the range of my knowledge, understanding and experience.”</p> <p>4. “It is the first opportunities in my life I could travel to another country and experience new cultures.”</p>

			<p>5. "Study abroad is a once in a lifetime experience which have broadens my horizons. I have seen and learned new things that I would never have."</p> <p>6. "I got the chance to feel something different, experiencing new culture and see the world."</p> <p>7. "The only real way to understand a culture is to live among its people. I got the chance to experience new opportunities and horizons."</p>
Know myself	6		<p>1. "I become more self-awareness".</p> <p>2. "I think studying abroad is not only for getting a better education, but more importantly, you learn more about yourself and knowing your strength, weakness, and potential. Parents give you all the support and resources they can provide to help you to stand in a good starting point, but it is all about you to explore and work to become a stronger and better person. You can make the decision to choose your life."</p> <p>3. "Study abroad helps me to realize who I truly am, and who I want to be."</p> <p>4. "The exploration of oneself and the world."</p> <p>5. "Only through experiencing, you can know what your limit and your strength is. You will be able to know yourself better."</p> <p>6. "Though overseas study, I can understand my strengths and weaknesses. The experience of studying abroad makes me find myself and discover myself."</p>
Make lifelong friend	2		<p>1. "In terms of making friends, during my overseas study, I have made some good friends from different cities in China, and we still maintain a good relationship now."</p> <p>2. "When I am doing my postgraduate study, I met a lot of good people who were highly motivated, and they have excellent quality. We still meet every year now, they come from Shenzhen, Guangzhou, and other places. I think every time I see them; their changes and improvement will bring me a kind of motivation and pressure. I think I should be the same as them. Our parents spent money to get us into a better environment, we have the chance to meet some nice people and make lifelong friends. These all become our human resources in the future. We have good relationships with people who are highly motivated and hardworking, which can have a subtle impact on your work."</p>
Stimulate my potential	1		<p>1. "Study abroad have stimulated my potential and ability to try a lot of new things."</p>

7) "What was your career plan before studying abroad?"

Career plan/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Work at a large organization	6	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "My plan was to work full time at my hometowns in Henan in an engineering company after I graduate from university." 2. "Before studied abroad, I want to find a stable job in my hometown to work in a large organisation, to have a fixed salary." 3. "Get a job in marketing in a foreign company." 4. "My plan as a student is to work in a big foreign company related to food. Have a steady income every month. But after I worked in the company, I found I didn't like the atmosphere of working in the company. It is not something for me." 5. "I want to work in a foreign company, have a stable job, enjoy the high benefits and bonus. Especially my mother wants me to find a stable job". 6. "Before I am going abroad, I want to be a lawyer or a scientist. During my study abroad, I want to go to a famous enterprise or a big company."
Do not have plans	5	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "It is like every coin have two side. I am not a strict planner, but my personality also makes it easier for me to seize opportunities and be less constrained by my own planning. It gives me more flexibility." 2. "I don't have any plans. Not at all. I didn't think about what I would do in the future. I think lack of career plan is also the biggest flaw in the entire Chinese education system." 3. "Influenced by my father, I knew before studying abroad that I didn't want to work for others, but I didn't have a clear idea of what I should do." 4. "I didn't think about my career plan before I went abroad. I just play every day and enjoy life." 5. "I don't have any career plan before study abroad, if I did not go abroad to study, I may work in the family business."
Start my own business	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I never think about working for others. I want to start my own business and be my own boss."

8) "Did the overseas study experience influence your career plans?"

Change in career plan/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
No		
Positive influence	7	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "After returning to China, I have a relatively keen insight into domestic and foreign markets, which has a great impact on my career choice. I decide to start my own business because of the new market opportunity." 2. "After studying abroad, I didn't want to work for others and didn't like working in a company, so I went to an NGO, which is a Non-profit organization." 3. "After study abroad and returning to China, although there are so many jobs in the Chinese marketplace, I want to do what I like, and I want to be my own boss." 4. "The dream of starting my own business has always been there. When I start my first day at PWC company, I knew I am not belonging there. I am seeking changes and opportunity all the time." 5. "If I did not go abroad to study, I will not start a business, I think I will just listen to my parents' words, follow their expectations to find a stable job. I won't focus much on what I like to achieve and what I truly want." 6. "After study abroad, I release starting my own business is also a good choice and is another possibility which I never think about before." 7. "The fundamental changes studying abroad gives me is knowing I am an entrepreneur at heart."

9) "In your view, what is an entrepreneur and what is entrepreneurship?"

Entrepreneurship definition/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Definition	12	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Entrepreneur is someone who has creative solution to existing problem. Entrepreneurship is to come up with new idea or approach, create new business with better products. Personality will determine whether you prefer to sit in a comfortable environment, or you choose to do what you want to do no matter what difficulties you will encounter. At the same time, your family background may determine your resources and influence you when you make the choice, because some people are very suitable for entrepreneurship (with high enterprising tendency) but they are subject to strong objective reasons, like lack of resources and they will be hindered in doing this. Or there are some people they have high intention to start their business, their family is wealth and can provide them the resources they needed, but they have low enterprising tendency, they prefer to stay in their comfort zone, they won't be a successful entrepreneur. Overall, I think entrepreneurship has something to do with the person, the personality, the environment, the time, the opportunity, and the circumstances." 2. "First, you need to love what you do or have passion on it. An entrepreneur is facing problems all the time and finding solutions to overcome difficulties. It is doing what he like and keep doing it. I think being an entrepreneur is to have a career that you want to do and having a passion and motivation to pursue it. You pursue this dream and working towards to make your dream true. The whole process is entrepreneurship." 3. "Starting a business is a brave decision. The process of starting a business is full of accomplishment and the difficulties. They constantly come and go and interact. The entrepreneurship is an ongoing process with no end or finishing line. Entrepreneurs are people who need strong psychological quality, high emotional intelligence and excellent professional knowledge of business, leadership, and management." 4. "Starting a business is all about taking care of the business by yourself, creating things from zero to one. You need to know how to register a company, you need to go to the revenue, go to the industrial and commercial bureau, you need to study all the policy and regulations, you need to learn how to open an accounts of social security, you have to pay for your employees, making goals for the employees and the set vision for the company, you need to set the monthly company target, looking for a good location and rent a place for your company, doing market research, finding the right customers, design the products and services, keep adjusting and developing the product, deal with tax bureau, declare dutiable goods every day, etc. you need to experience all the process by yourself and may experience this again and again. However, if you go to a big company, if you sit there to complete the task the manager assigned to you, you finish your work. Starting a business is to start from scratch, you need to go through everything by yourself, or at least you need to understand and be familiar with the process. You need to be prepared to solve problems, sometimes there is no one can help you." 5. "I come to this world is for going to create something. I think the entrepreneur is about creating something new to make value for the society, especially the industry you are working with. As for my job, I helped some outstanding entrepreneurs to raise money, and they can use the money to create some new product, develop better services, create more positions, and improve the work efficiency." 6. "The best thing of being an entrepreneur or starting a business is that you can control everything, you can control all the risk, you make all the decision, you can choose whether you want to do something, you can decide how you want to do it, and who you want to do it with. I

		<p>think this is the freedom that only entrepreneurship can bring to me. I am my own business and choose my own destiny. But the bad thing about entrepreneurship is that you need to face and manage everything by yourself, you must pay more time, energy, resources in order to gain more profit. Making money is not the most important thing in my job but making value to the society is what I think the meaning of my job. it is more about self-achievement, self-satisfactory, I like to set goals and working hard to achieve it. I always have a vision.”</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. “Entrepreneurship is about the behaviour and process to create new organizations, business models or products with a clear understanding of its own capabilities and social trends. Entrepreneur is someone who have a solid theoretical system and can make ideas become a reality. It is more self-autonomy, you set a goal, make efforts, and work hard to achieve it by continually exploring the current market, improving the current field and industry.” 8. “Starting a business is not only about making money. Creating a new brand, establish it in the market, maintains the brand recognition in the market, build the brand loyalty with the customer, make the sustainable development. These achievements are greater than simply making money, and you can receive more satisfaction during the process. You create something from zero to one. Entrepreneurship is a growth and on-going process. If a business is 10 years old, it is not a start-up. Entrepreneurship is about achieve the dream, create something new, be persistent during the process of creating, find a suitable path for the business. The period between the creation of a brand and its maturity is called entrepreneurship.” 9. “My understanding of entrepreneurship is starting a new business rather than manage or grow a business. I will start a new business when I see the right opportunity in the market which I can gain profit and make money, but once the business is mature and stable, I will not put my whole heart and energy into it. I will look for new business opportunities. I enjoy the process of going from zero to one, I will create it, develop it to maturity, and then I may hire someone else to manage the company and I will leave to find new opportunities and start new projects and business again.” 10. “I think starting a business is all about focusing on details, you go from zero to one, starting a business and finding a direction by yourself. The details can be small or big, it all involves deal with business license, determine the company strategy, go through the product life cycles, and then start all over again. It is very hard to start a business, it is even harder to make the money and cover all the running cost of the company. You need to have a strong heart and resistance to start a business. Independent entrepreneurs take all the risks and make all the decision, there is no one to shares the responsibilities.” 11. “Being an entrepreneur is about depending on your contacts in the past, using the past resources, using all your savings in the bank, including customer resources, financial resources, and knowledge about the market, without the dependence on mature enterprise. Without any protection or support, you need to independently solve the problems, when no one pays you the regular wages, how do you make enough money to feed yourself or even to support the family. In the beginning, a new entrepreneur will face numerous problems. When you first start a business, you need to have enough knowledge about start-up, business management, you need to know how to register a company, what is tax affairs, legal affairs and finance, etc. all of these things need to be learned and understood, you have to know everything in order to start a business, not only the knowledge about entrepreneurship or business management. You need to consider tax, business operation cost, rent, water and electricity, and labour cost.” 12. “I am very lucky that I can do something I really like in my life, and the thing I do could reflect my value. The most important thing is that I am happy, and I have passion about it. A lot of people start a
--	--	---

		business for the sake of the financial reason, but I do it because I like it, because of happiness. The financial reward comes to the second."
--	--	--

10) *“Do any of your family members, including your parents and relatives, have their own business or are self-employed?”*

Entrepreneurship background/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Family business	10	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “My family run a small engineering company in China, and it has been trading for more than a decade.” 2. “My father runs his own business. He runs a contractor company to help other big company to set up cameras.” 3. “My parents run their own business. Most of the family members are entrepreneurs.” 4. “My father started his own business from scratch, and this had a great influence on me. My father’s experience is very inspiring. He never stays in one field. He teaches me to be brave and just do it. Never stay in the comfort zone and you should always challenge yourself. You need to continually think about the future direction of your company and adopt it with the trend of current market, it is not about enjoy the success after creating a brand. It is about having a sense of crisis to think about future changes and how to make a timely response and adjustment before the changes. Be insists and persistence, flexible and adjustable.” 5. “My father is an entrepreneur, and my mother is a housewife and doesn’t work. My father started his first business when he was 16.” 6. “My father runs his own business in car service.” 7. “My mother is an entrepreneur, and her career has a great influence on me. She teaches me to be my own boss and choose my own destiny. I don’t think I am suitable, or I can be survive working in an organization system. I’m a very assertive person. I started my own business because of my personality and my family background.” 8. “My parents are entrepreneurs.” 9. “My father is an entrepreneur and his experience have a great and stable influence on me.” 10. “My parents are entrepreneurs.”
Non-entrepreneur background	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Not at all. My father works in the Department of Agriculture in China. My mother is an English teacher.” 2. “Not at all. My father works in the military system and my mother works for civil service.”

11) *“Did you study small business management or entrepreneurship as modules, parts of modules, or as short courses as part of your degree programme? If yes, do you think that the entrepreneurship education made you a better entrepreneur? In what way?”*

Entrepreneurship education/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Research and analysis	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “The entrepreneurial education trained me to thinking analytically. It involves the whole process for gathering and processing information. This skill helps me to determine the needs of my target customers users and doing the market research before taking any actions. Depending on my findings, I can determine the feasibility of my business idea without purely rely on emotion or experience.”

12) "Do you think the overseas experience influenced your entrepreneurial capabilities / personality traits?"

Influence factors/ Node		Number of quotes	Example quote
Personality traits	Independent / need for autonomy	9	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "My parents used to make all the big decisions for me in my life, for example, what subject I should choose for my degree, what university I should apply, however, I learn to become more independent on the decision making and I take control in every aspect in my life." 2. "Being far away from home, I must face and solve everything independently while I study abroad. While in China, there are too many people can help me when I am facing some difficulties, but in the UK, no one can help me and even money cannot solve the problem. It certainly changed my personality my independence and autonomy has been greatly strengthened." 3. "I become much more independent and establish a higher level of maturity because of study abroad, I need to manage my own life for the first time in my lives." 4. "Being in a completely new place and new country makes me become more independent and mature, and I have become more confident and grow as a person." 5. "It is my first experience of living away from my parents and home, I have admitted that studying abroad made me feel more free, independent, and resourceful. Being far away from home forces me to become more independent and take initiatives in my life." 6. "I become more independent after study abroad as I have learned to stay on my own feet and take control in my life." 7. "Study abroad made me more independent and open to new experiences. In China, even if I was living in a university accommodation, I could travel back home every week, there is only a one-hour driving. I don't need to cook for myself while in China as there is many restaurants available near the campus. However, going abroad meant I had to do my own grocery shopping and cooking." 8. "When I am in China, if something happens or I am facing some difficulties, my friends or parents are there to help me. But when I am study abroad, I am on my own. At first it was very challenging, but this experience shapes me to become a better person. I depend less on other people and dependent on myself." 9. "Being independent just become a nature."
	Gain new perspectives	7	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "After I see the world and live in another culture for years, my view about the world is not as narrow as before. Study abroad have changed the way I look at things and changed the way of thinking. I gained a more rational understanding of things abroad and exposure to different culture." 2. "During overseas study, I can see the full scope of what is happening and what opportunities is there around the world. In China, I am being restricted of only can hear one voice and one belief, which gives me a very narrow perspective." 3. "Look at things from a different perspective makes me a better person with a greater mindset. When you see less, you're thinking can be narrow and delusional, but when you have the chance to see more, you will know better about your capability, your strength and weakness, you will become more down-to-earth, you

			<p>were aware of your own limitations. You will know better about what you can do within your ability and set realistic goals. Keep your feet on the ground. That's the way it should be.”</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. “The overseas experience changes me in the way of thinking and changes my mindset. When I need to find a solution of the problem, I will search and read a lot of data first, and then detailed analysis the information with rational, I tend to see things from more than one perspective.” 5. “People who know me well think that I have a broader perspective after study abroad. They think I can see things in a more logical way with more than one perspective. They think I have an open mind with open vision.” 6. “After study abroad, I have a better understanding and appreciation for the different culture and value system around the world, I learned to respect people with different belief, customs, and history.” 7. “Because of the accumulation of knowledge and life experience, I become more rational and mature in the ways of thinking. Exposure to a new culture lets me gain a broad and sophisticated worldview and diversifies my thoughts and values.”
	Brave and confidence	4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Before study aboard, I used to fear about taking the challenge or meeting new changes. I become brave and willing to try new things.” 2. “Studying abroad is very helpful and beneficial for starting a business and helping me shaping my personality. In terms of getting along with other people, making new friends in the new environment. Study abroad benefits me in the long-term. I become brave and not overcautious.” 3. “After study abroad, I learned that there are endless possibilities in life. Nothing and nobody can stop me to do what I like; the only fear is fear itself.” 4. “I have become more independent and mature, more confident and grow as a person.”
	Discover and finding myself	4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Study abroad provides me with great experiences, but most importantly, learning who I really am. Studying abroad taught me the good and bad aspects of myself.” 2. “I have personally learned so much about myself that I would have never learned if I had not studied abroad. The amount of growth that takes place over study abroad is incredible. It has helped shape who I am today in such a major way, and it has formed my opinions and values I hold closest to my heart.” 3. “I was completely out of my comfort zone. it taught me about myself and what I could do. Studying abroad has allowed me to grow and find myself.” 4. “Studying abroad has helped me to learn much more about myself. It has made me far more self-sufficient and independent than I thought I could be.”
	Open-minded	4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Study abroad experience helps me to shape my views on life, it helps with opening the mind to other people, cultures, and ways to live life. The influence of personality is to become more tolerant, able to understand and tolerate the existence of various people, view, culture, and things.” 2. “I became more aware of the differences that exist between the Chinese and British culture. I am no longer the closed-minded girl that I left as. I am now a well-rounded, open-minded young woman who will continue

			<p>to grow and mature as time goes on. I am more easily accept different culture, customs, styles, and things.”</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. “I become more tolerant, more open-minded, and outgoing towards new people. Studying abroad allowed me to explore a new culture, see a new part of the world and open my mind.” 4. “Overseas study gives me an international perspective, I become more tolerant to different cultures, beliefs, and races.”
	Resilience	4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Study abroad teaches me to become more resilience when I am facing difficult challenges under different circumstances. I learned to keep moving forwards and maintained a positive attitude.” 2. “Study abroad have influenced my personality, helped me to have a positive attitude about life, being persistence and perseverance under pressure. I used to write a paper of 2000 or 3000 words every week during my study in Harper, which is more intense than in the Chinese universities. The education system of studying in the UK has greatly influenced me and made me insist on doing many things.” 3. “I had a lot to overcome during my studying abroad time, including culture shock, home sick, struggling with the language, what did not kill me makes me stronger. I become significantly more resilience and cope with change more easily.” 4. “Exposure to entirely different country make me more aware about myself, the world, and my own country. I realize just how strong and resilient I am.”
	Positive attitude	4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Study abroad have changed my attitude; I always have the positive attitude to learn. Study abroad gives me an open mind, positive attitude, and high level of adaptability.” 2. “Soft power including the interpersonal communication, emotional intelligence, and positive attitude.” 3. “Positive attitude to life and to strangers, I will smile and say hi to the people I don’t know when I study abroad, but not in China.” 4. “More positive and optimistic life attitude.”
	Comfort zone	4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Many people choose to live an easy life in their comfort zone, but I challenge myself and stick to it.” 2. “To become more courageous, autonomous, to explore oneself, to explore the world. Although there are many people who study abroad, they will experience different challenges and push away from their own comfort zone.” 3. “Challenge yourself to stay out of your comfort zone. That spirit has always helped me start my own business.” 4. “Far away from the help of our parents, far away in a strange country and environment. Live in a completely foreign cultural, many challenges are waiting. It requires me to step out of my comfort zone.”
	Creative	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “I become more creative and think outside the box. “ 2. “I think I am creative, because it is important to keep improving efficiency in my business, and more importantly I need to find new idea with the e-liquid to have the unique selling point in the market. This leads to innovative production that generate profits.”
	Calculated risk-taking	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Study abroad makes me become a risk taker, I have risk control and awareness. I am not afraid to pushing boundaries and taking risks.”

Skills	Problem solving skills	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I think my problem-solving ability improved within study abroad. The experience I have with different cultures forces me to generate creative ideas and link seemingly unrelated concepts." 2. "Stepping outside of my comfort zone, study abroad helped me to develop problem solving skills and discover that I can handle the unexpected."
	Vision	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Study abroad gives me a sense of my own identity and a vision of where I want to go in life." 2. "Studying abroad is helpful and beneficial for starting a business. People who go abroad do a lot of things with vision and in the long run. A clear dream, along with the courage to act and follow through. A lot of current Chinese entrepreneurs do not have a vision, they do not have a vision to guide their day-to-day decisions, they just run the company for the profit."
	Teamwork	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Study abroad builds better teamwork skills."
	Adaptability	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Overseas experience helps me build my adaptability and an ability to cope with foreign languages."

13) "What were the reasons for setting up your own business?"

Motivation factors/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Opportunity	11	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I initially worked as a lab supervisor in the E-Cigarette company in the UK. After working for three years, I found there is a good opportunity in manufacturing hardware and liquids of this e-cigarette in China, because it is all made in China and export to the UK. This changed my mind to quit my job and return to China. I opened a local E-Cigarette company by firstly selling online." 2. "I have working experience and could see the opportunity in producing it with lower cost. I want to put new products onto the market, and I can see there is a gap in the market." 3. "I find a gap in the market which I could work to push the current industry forward with new innovations and ideas." 4. "I see a new business opportunity, and I am not satisfied with the current market, not satisfied with the existing brand in the market to show the image of the product. I believe my brand can achieve something unique and I want to make a new brand for the market. That is the reason I started my own business instead of joining or franchising." 5. "At that time, I first spend a long of time doing market research and found that the existing model in Beijing was very old and underdeveloped. I believe there was a market for it and my idea could deliver greater value to customers. My research tells me that there will be many customers who will willing to pay for my service." 6. "I think there are more opportunities in the film and television industry, so a friend and I set up an investment consulting company specializing in equity financing and project financing for film and television companies." 7. "I was always looking for opportunities to start my business and I quit my previous job to be an entrepreneur when I meet a good partner." 8. "I start my own business because of the dissatisfaction with the existing English training market. In China, the language training is for taking exams, however, I want to help students to learning though playing and help them to understand the purpose of learning English, which is using them as a tool rather than for exam."
Self-achievement	5	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "After I come back from overseas, I worked in an institution and became the President of the branch school. However, I found that I needed to follow the instructions of the President of the head school, and many of my ideas could not be fully implemented. The president from the headquarters has typical way of Chinese thinking and value

		<p>system, we can't work together, so I think I'd better come out and start my own business to maximize the realization of my own ideas.”</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. “I feel satisfied to establish and building something of my own. Instead of working for others, I feel self-actualization for being my own boss, make profits though own leadership, abilities, ideas, and efforts.” 3. “I want to prove myself and my ability to my father.” 4. “Opportunities for promotion in a big company are very few.” 5. “The motivation lies in the desire to have a bigger stage to maximize my potential. If I work in a company and follow the instructions from the manager, I may become a very good employee in 10 or 20 years, but I don't want to live my life in this way.”
Do what I love	5	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “I feel satisfied to establish and building something of my own. Instead of working for others, I feel self-actualization for being my own boss, make profits though own leadership, abilities, ideas, and efforts.” 2. “Lego education enables children to go abroad to participate in various competitions. I think it is very interesting and satisfaction, which attracts me to start my own business.” 3. “I don't like to work for others and obey the conventional rule. The motivation of being an entrepreneur is about doing what I love and the desire to make a meaningful difference.” 4. “I love to wake up each morning knowing I am getting to do exactly what I love.” 5. “Do what you love, and the money will follow.”
Intrapreneur	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “I have been doing intrapreneurship in the company for one year and decide to start my own business.” 2. “Starting a business has nothing to do with my family background. I was working at the Internet start-up after I come back from overseas study, and my work involves an intrapreneurship project, but I didn't think what I do every day was right for me. I was standing in a cross-road and facing two options, the first one is to return to the large matured system in the company, and continue to work with the large organization, but I don't feel I can maximize my ability working as an employee,, The second option I have is to start my own business, because working as intrapreneur is very similar as being an entrepreneur, I have actually gone through half of the entrepreneurial experience, the only difference is I have the entire freedom and autonomy to make decision. At that time, my colleagues in the intrapreneur team have the same idea and thoughts, they supported me to come out and start my own company. I conclude my motivation of being an entrepreneur as a relatively passive opportunity presents an active choice.”
Role model	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “The motivation of being an entrepreneur goes back to the time when I study at Harper, my mentor and supervisor Douglas had a huge impact on me. He is not only my teacher but more like my friend, my mentor in life. He is behaviour makes me feel that the teacher is not only teach student's knowledge, but influence your belief, value and ways of thinking and viewing things. In China, we are used to 100% obey and respect our teachers. We are used to never object to the teacher's opinion about the textbook content. However, in the UK, we are encouraging to raise different opinion and ideas, and being critical and independent thinking. Therefore, I want to be such a teacher after I come back to China and. I want China could have more teachers who pays attention to students, give chances for different ideas, teach them with positive life attitude and pay attention to their emotional problems. Because in China, the teacher left after class, there is no communication between the students and the teacher.”
Money	1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Although money is not everything, one of the reasons that I become an entrepreneur because of the potential to make a lot of money.”

14) “Do you think that students who study abroad have attributes that mark them out as entrepreneurs (strengths)?”

Attributes/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Independent thinking	6	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Having studied abroad, I become more independent in making decision.” 2. “I have gain self-sufficiency and learn how to think on my own feet.” 3. “By studying abroad, I arrive in a new country, get to explore new environments. One of the biggest advantages of studying abroad is that I learn how to adapt to new environment and surroundings, which are different from my hometown, somewhere I am get used to. The new environment pushes me to meet new challenge, get out of my comfort zone and develop myself. Take full responsibility for everything in my life and career.” 4. “Study abroad helps me to unlock my own hidden entrepreneurial spirit, I have become more courageous, autonomous, and living my full potential.” 5. “Every great entrepreneur is an independent thinker who paved their own path. Study abroad changed my way of thinking, I learn not to imitate or copy a successful existing business model, but to innovate, to think independently.” 6. “Being an independent thinker enable me to increase my performance, productivity, efficiency and to reach a greater level of self-awareness.”
International perspective and global connection	7	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “We have more creative idea to catch up with the market, especially oversea market.” 2. “I can look at international boundaries, trade, global economics and how to negotiate with diverse cultures. Overseas study has broadened my world view and help me see things different perspectives.” 3. “I tend to learn the advanced technology and model from the Western countries and adopt it my business. The Chinese market is influenced by the Western countries, and then Asia countries like Japan and South Korea, then influenced by the domestic trend. I adopt the western culture and technology and reform with my business.” 4. “My business involves the interact with the investment bank, most of the employees of the investment company have the overseas study background, included the account manager or the President of the bank. The overseas study experience gives me the same background with the people I am doing business with. The communication will be much easier and the business culture, business etiquette rule will be” 5. “People who study abroad do things in a very international way. The resources or client are normally from large foreign companies, while local people from state-owned enterprises may experiencing difficulties in finding these resources. Those without overseas background may facing problem in business etiquette such as Email conversation, the way of doing business and culture.” 6. “Study abroad gives me a unique insight into consumer mindset. It helps me to develop a respect for diversity and a global perspective, which helps me work well in cross-cultural business environments.” 7. “Studying abroad gives me a broad perspective and understanding of the world. It helps me think the big picture and opens the eyes to see more potential and possibilities.”

Language ability	2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "With the advantages of returning to China to start a business, I can easily communicate with foreign clients and enterprise using English fluently." 2. "Language skills is a strength when doing my business. My business involves international projects with international company, I can communicate with mu client without barriers. The overseas experiences help me improved my overall language communication ability."
International outlook	3	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "I think the postgraduate degree of the University of Manchester is helpful for me to get into the investment bank for my first job. At that time, I didn't have much work experience, so it was a steppingstone. In fact, the most direct impact of studying abroad is that it gives me a good background and international outlook, and people from international organisations will easily accept you. Now in the interview, when I recruit others, I may also have a good impression and easier communication with people who have studied abroad." 2. "Studying abroad is like a steppingstone in life and allows me to have more choices when deciding. It gives me a global vision and global outlook to build a multinational team." 3. "Study abroad gives me a good impression for others, it gives me a professional appearance, a confidence in my abilities, a positive and lasting impression."

15) "What do you value most about your overseas education? What is the biggest difference between Chinese education and the UK education?"

Difference between Chinese education and UK education/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Education system difference (Exam oriented vs Practical oriented)	9	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "The British education system developing individual talents and encourages diversity, it is different from the traditional Chinese education system, which neglect the cultivation of personality and innovation ability." 2. "British education pays more attention to the cultivation of soft skills and personal ability in the process of education, while Chinese education pays more attention to the inculcation of knowledge and the mastery of hard skills." 3. "Britain have better education systems than China and I think I can get better education though study abroad. The Chinese have examination-oriented education while the UK have practical education." 4. "Most of us is the only child in the family, we bear the responsibility of being our parents' and grandparents' hope for the future. Competition for employment in China is intense." 5. "The Chinese education system is exam-oriented, the British education system is more inclined to application, there is a lot of case study and analysis during my overseas study." 6. "The Chinese education system is exam-oriented, the British education is quality education, it is a comprehensive education. The most important part of the Chinese students' lives is their exam score. They believe that high score will secure them a better University and better career in the future." 7. "The British education is closer to the industry and real business. Assessment methods and teacher selection are to cultivate talents for enterprises. The entrepreneurship education in China is still under development and focus on the textbook but isolated from the real business world, it still influenced by the traditional Chinese education"

		<p>system.”</p> <p>8. “There is a significant deference between education system in the UK and China, Chinese students can be lazy and sit around doing nothing during their undergraduate, they only study before their exam. However, the study in the UK is very intense, we used to have three papers or assignments in one month. We learned to write essay, doing the presentation, do experiments, doing the case study analysis, the English ability improves dramatically. The Chinese education focus on memorize information and repeat it, but the British education focus on research and analysis.”</p> <p>9. “Chinese education is high-pressure, test-centred schooling. UK education is students are independent, free to speak their mind and have activities to choose from.”</p>
Independent thinking	3	<p>1. “The British education encourages independent thinking and critical thinking and encourages diversity. It is different from the traditional Chinese education system which lack of creativity and independent thinking.”</p> <p>2. “The British education trained the students with the ability to think independently.”</p> <p>3. “In China, teachers prefer to teach knowledge to students. The students care more on the results rather than on the learning process. The teachers tend to give one single and standard answer to one question.”</p>
The value system and the way of thinking	2	<p>1. “Chinese people believe pragmatic, most of them see money and family as the most important things in life. The purpose of the entire high school learning is for Gaokao, which the Chinese students considered it as life changing. After study abroad, my attitude toward life is no longer unitary, the understanding of success is more diverse. Chinese people put money first and think having money represented success.”</p> <p>2. “The Chinese believes saving and the importance of making enough money to take care of yourself, your family, and your future. The parents want their child to choose one of four careers, for example, accountancy, medicine or doctor, computer engineering or law. Chinese people work just for the sake of working and making money, everything is arranged by their parents.”</p>
School size and individual care	2	<p>1. “In the UK, the teachers take good care of the students, and the class capacity is very small, the teacher have enough energy to pay attention to every student, which is very difficult to do in China. For an average class in China, it is a small class if we have 30 to 50 students, and the typical class can often have up to 70 – 80 students.”</p> <p>2. “Due to the different education system, Chinese and British teaching relationship and teaching approach is very different. There is no teamwork or report in the Chinese class. However, we have a lot of report and presentation in the form of group during study abroad, the results from the overall team will be the result of the module and will be recorded. The class discipline, learning time, class capacity, tutorial time is very difference between the two system. The class capacity is too large in China, one tutor needs to take 10-20 students in China, and the workload is too large. In Chinese class, the teacher speaks more, and the students listen more, without much interaction. The relationship between teachers and students is just like that between parents and children. The teachers are highly respected by students and students are used to obeying the teachers. However, in the UK, the relationship between the teacher and student is more equal. The class is much smaller. The teaching approach is more personal and friendlier. The teachers encourage students to be critical and raise questions and different ideas. The difference perspective is encouraged and normally the teacher encourages us to believe that there is not only one right answer. The classes are for everyone, students can ask questions at any time and have a lot of interaction with teachers.”</p>
Critical thinking	2	<p>1. “The UK education system tries to develop students as a whole and encouraging critical thinking. However, the Chinese education system</p>

		<p>focuses on achieving high grades in assessments, with memorisation of textbooks.”</p> <p>2. “The UK education system encourages critical thinking. However, the typical Chinese class has a teacher-led approach, and the students learn by memorising information through repetition and note-taking. Students normally passively receive the information. Normally there is no student engagement or discussion during the class.”</p>
--	--	---

16) “Do you regard the year(s) you spent abroad as a good investment?”

Good investment/ Node	Number of quotes	Example quote
Lifetime benefits	7	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Studying abroad is a profound, life-changing experience. It expands my horizons and my world view. I gain a deeper understanding of myself and the world. I think the ability to be independent and communicate with people in foreign countries is beneficial to work, entrepreneurship and life.” 2. “Study abroad helps me to broaden my mind and get to know myself. I learn to appreciate and respect other cultures. I appreciate the different culture, customs, unique regulations, policies and systems that differ from China.” 3. “Studied abroad gives me stronger communication and interpersonal skills, higher levels of adaptability, and greater creativity and independent.” 4. “The benefit is long-term and will be with me the whole life. Study abroad experience helped me to become a better entrepreneur and a better person indeed.” 5. “Studying abroad can make you become a person with high comprehensive quality, a comprehensive person, instead of just know how to study.” 6. “The study abroad experience, and the ability I learned from it, can last a lifetime.” 7. “Studying abroad is a good investment because it will affect you for the rest of your life. Long after my study abroad experiences are over, I can still feel a strong impact of that experience on my personality and life.”
Once in a life experience		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “When I was in Manchester city, my local friends and I would go to some activities every week, such as skydiving, driving, bungee jumping, horseback riding and going to sea. I felt that I had experienced a different life. After returning to China, I would never have the chance to go to such activities for the rest of my lives.” 2. “Because the experience is different. No matter how many years I spent in China, I won’t have the similar experience. Studying abroad is not only about experiencing different country and cultures. It helps me discover more about myself. Studying abroad allows me to grow as an individual and become more independent, responsible, and prepared for the unexpected challenge. It is a life-changing experience. An experience that will challenge you, change you, and motivate you for the rest of the life, study abroad is well worth the time, money and effort.”