Journal of Administrative and Economic Sciences • Vol 18, Issue 2 (2025) • p 375-399

Parental Role Modelling as a Determinant of Entrepreneurial Decision-making: Case from Saudi Arabia

Abdulaziz Dhehayan Aldhehayan

Department of Business Administration, College of Business & Economics, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

a.aldhehayan@qu.edu.sa

Abstract:

Drawing on theoretical frameworks such as entrepreneurial orientation (EO), social learning theory (SLT), role modelling, and family embeddedness. Based on the developed framework, this research examines the parental role modelling and family embeddedness in shaping their offspring's decision to open a new venture. Logistic regression (Logit) was employed to evaluate the study hypothesis, utilising data collected from a sample of 638 individual adults from in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). The findings, which were obtained by STATA 19 software, provide evidence that having self-employed parents serves as an important role model, confirming the influence of parental role modelling as an important predictor of entrepreneurship.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, Role modelling, Business owner, Self-employment, Social learning theory (SLT), Entrepreneurial orientation (EO), Saudi Arabia (SA)

JEL Classification codes: L26; D00

1. Introduction

There is a general agreement that entrepreneurship is a catalyst of economic development (Alfawzan *et al.,* 2024, Mathkur, 2025) and sustainability (Gerlich *et al.,* 2025). Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO), as one of the explanations for successful entrepreneurs, reveals itself through three critical dimensions, including risk-taking, innovativeness, and proactiveness (Miller, 1983). While a substantial amount of research has focused on EO at the organisational level, individual EO (particularly among young people) has been increasingly recognised as a precursor to entrepreneurial intention and behaviour (Bolton and Lane, 2012). It is important to understand when EO accelerates and decelerates, especially in the context of family-level effects, as parents and family background are well known of the foremost predictors of entrepreneurial activity.

One of the many noun aspects that have shaped EO is the family background, particularly that of an entrepreneurial parent, as it strengthens an entrepreneurial mindset in children (Lindquist *et al.,* 2015). The family unit introduces a different context in which attitudes, values and skills transfer across generations. Studies have consistently shown that children of entrepreneurs are significantly more likely to take entrepreneurial jobs themselves, which is possibly best explained as a combination of environmental factors and genetic factors (Nicolaou *et al.,* 2008). However, while the linkage between parental entrepreneurship and the entrepreneurial activity of offspring is well documented, the exact mechanisms through which entrepreneurial parents nurture EO in their offspring have received little attention. This gap in the literature is particularly urgent given the need to analyse present situations.

Furthermore, developed by Albert Bandura (1977), Social Learning Theory (SLT) is a theory of behaviour, which provides a strong lens for understanding how entrepreneurial parents affect their children's business orientation. Observational learning is a key characteristic of SLT. According to SLT, behaviours, attitudes and skills can be learnt not just directly, but also through observing and modelling significant others (especially parents). Children observe their parents' entrepreneurial behaviours, ranging from starting a business to taking financial risks, and are particularly attuned to successful parents. These observations become mental models, allowing children to absorb behaviours such as becoming a product innovator to cater to the needs of the market. When opportunities present themselves, childhood replicate these behaviours. This argument fosters an excessive focus on external environmental determinism, perhaps overlooking inherent characteristics or other influences, such as peers.

A key indicator of entrepreneurial behaviour and intrinsically linked to parental influence is the notion of Entrepreneurial Intention (EI)(Bird, 1988). Role model, and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), entrepreneurial parents carry a solid impact on their children's EI via direct (familial learning) and indirect (contextual) influences. According to EI, children watch their parents and simulate their behaviours and intention, such as risk-taking or innovativeness, by treating parents as role models (especially if they are successful) (Soleimanof *et al.,* 2021). This makes entrepreneurship a viable option for a career, increasing the desirability and more importantly the reality of EI. Building on their children's

business aspirations, parental involvement in business activities, storytelling, and resource provision (e.g., networks, capital) increase EI (Lopes *et al.,* 2021). Effects are moderated by gender dynamics; fathers exert the most influence over their sons, whereas mothers increasingly inspire their daughters, especially in collectivist cultures (Nexhipi *et al.,* 2022). Hoffmann *et al.,* (2015) argues that in collectivist societies, the parental influence is promoted while in individualistic societies, autonomy is prioritized and yet, peer inclusion, education, and economic conditions can significantly influence parent impact (Zellweger *et al.,* 2011), indicating the complex nature of EI.

Last but not least, parents may enhance transition to self-employment through their role as sources of exposure and resources (Dunn and Holtz-Eakin, 2000). Such positive experiences in the labour market rival parental wealth as a predictor of transitions from wage employment to self-employment. Children of self–employed parents see entrepreneurship as a feasible career, so observed parental success makes children of successful entrepreneurs and wealthier parents more likely to choose self-employment (Carroll and Mosakowski, 1987). Parental socialization works through informational, social and financial capital, thereby lowering the barriers to entry to start-ups (Sorenson, 2007; Schoon and Duckworth, 2012). Parents in business offer material assistance (e.g., start- up capital, loans) and non-material assets (e.g., market intelligence, connections) that gives children a competitive advantage (Criaco *et al.,* 2017). However, while aspirational sources are prevalent in developed economies in the form of aspirational entrepreneurship (Ratinho *et al.,* 2020), parental business failures can deter children through risk aversion (Bagherian *et al.,* 2025) because necessity-driven entrepreneurship in developing economies provides limited aspirational resources. Consequently, the quality and context of parental entrepreneurship is crucial in determining its effects.

In summary, this paper is an attempt to build an understanding of how entrepreneurial parents influence their children via social and observational learning, offering valuable insights for theory and practice. Thus, this research paper aims to find the research gap with an inquiry on how entrepreneur parents shape the developmental process for entrepreneurial orientation among individuals, highlighting key processes and contextual factors. The key research question of this study is: How does exposure to entrepreneurial parents, compared to non-entrepreneurial parents, enable the realisation of entrepreneurial orientation in later generations? Drawing upon theoretical lenses, including social learning theory, role modelling, and family immersion, this study aims to illuminate the processes by which parental entrepreneurship shapes the next wave of innovators. By bridging current academic literature and empirical data, this study characterises a seminal contribution to the understanding of family influences on entrepreneurship and offers findings for policy-makers and researchers who seek to enhance entrepreneurial ecosystems. Thus, the totality of EO of children of entrepreneurial parents depends largely on the performance of these entrepreneurial parents, but the challenges originating from genetic, experiential, external and situational factors prove that such a view has limitations. By bringing in these opponents, it advances the discourse, a more integrated approach to making sense of EO evolution.

2. literature review

2.1. Entrepreneurial Orientation

Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is a multi-faceted construct that describes an individual's or an organisation's tendency towards entrepreneurship, which is marked by innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking (Miller, 1983). Initially, EO was constructed to characterise the behaviour of firms; it was then modified for use in providing data on individuals possessing entrepreneurial potential (essentially, the offspring of entrepreneurial parents) (Bolton and Lane, 2012). In this regard, this part describes these three dimensions in detail, outlining how they may manifest in the children of entrepreneurial parents and providing empirical examples to reinforce (or support) their development.

EO comprises innovativeness as its first dimension, which relates to a willingness to commit resources or time to new ideas or to an innovation or creativity or experimentation. For children of entrepreneurial parents, innovativeness often comes out as they watch their parents create new products, services, or business models. For example, a parent who modernises a traditional business model with digital technology shows their child that innovating is a route to success. This exposure creates an experimental mindset, which is essential in entrepreneurship. Soleimanof *et al.,* (2021) discovered that children with parents they perceive as passionate innovators report a greater degree of creativity and tend to achieve and pursue unconventional ideas, supporting the idea of parental modelling directly increasing this dimension of EO. The propagation of innovativeness is in line with social learning theory, where children learn creative problem-solving by observing and modelling those around them.

The second dimension, proactiveness, is defined as a future-orientated posture that involves predicting and acting on opportunities in advance of the competition (Covin and Slevin, 1989). A significant lesson from their example is that of proactiveness, that is, the ability to see a gap in the market or spot an opportunity that others note or act on, and the power of emulation that this creates for their children. A parent who takes the initiative to diversify their business to capture rising consumer trends teaches their child the importance of initiative and foresight. And there is empirical evidence supporting such links. For example, Lindquist *et al.,* (2015) found children of entrepreneurs are more proactive, possibly because they are socialised into opportunity-seeking behaviours at an early stage. Parents can support this dimension by encouraging their children to take charge of small projects like running a school fundraiser, further reinforcing this proactive orientation (Schroder and Schmitt-Rodermund, 2021).

The last diminution, risk-taking, reflects the extent to which an individual is willing to engage resources at the risk of an uncertain outcome. A child watching a parent get up from that failed business is going to become accepting of risk and understand its part of being an entrepreneur. Children are more likely to take risks if they believe that their parents' entrepreneurial activities are rewarding even if challenging. This is consistent with what was found by Nexhipi *et al.,* (2022), when they found that entrepreneurial youth in Albania are

more comfortable with uncertainty, and this was largely due to the influence of their entrepreneurial parents.

Although the relation of entrepreneurial parenthood to child entrepreneurial orientation (EO), is well-established, the perspective challenges ideologies and events that trouble its application, connectedness, and explanatory scope throughout all domains of society (Miller, 1983). These critiques raise fears about the role of entrepreneurial parents, suggesting that their value may not be as prominent and widespread as advocates and supporters have asserted.

2.2. Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory (SLT) posited by Bandura (1977) provides a coherent framework for comprehending the venture of entrepreneurial parents on their offspring's business orientation. SLT posits that individuals acquire behaviours, attitudes, and skills not merely through direct experience and through observing and imitating significant others, primarily members of their immediate social environment such as parents. From a theory of entrepreneurship perspective, it explains how children of entrepreneurs form an entrepreneurial mindset by role-modelling their parents' behaviour, internalising their ethical codes and adopting their strategies for new venture creation and opportunity recognition.

Rumjaun and Narod (2025) affirm that observational learning is central to SLT and incorporates four processes: attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation. First, there is that children need to be attentive to their entrepreneurial parents' behaviours, like starting up a new company or taking a gamble financially. When parents are perceived as successful or dedicated entrepreneurs, their actions are more salient and children are even more likely to find themselves noticing their parents. Second, retention happens when children store these observations in memory, creating mental models of entrepreneurial behaviour. For instance, kids who observe a parent creates a product around the needs of the marketplace might adopt both an interest in its utility and an internalisation of it as a future use case. Third, the child reproduces these behaviours when some new opportunity presents itself, even if exploratory, such as the wish to start a small business or try out a creative project. Finally, these learnt behaviours are put to action due to motivation spurred on either by parental encouragement or the perceived benefits of entrepreneurship (Bandura, 1986), such as autonomy or financial rewards.

That SLT matters in this area is supported by empirical evidence. Lindquist *et al.,* (2015), in an expansive paper using Swedish registry data, found that children of entrepreneurial parents are 60 percent more likely to be entrepreneurs, suggesting the effect is environmental, i.e., role modelling, rather than genetic. This resonates with SLT's focus on learned behaviour, where exposure to entrepreneurial parents makes one more familiar and prefer to be engaged in entrepreneurial tasks. These conclusions speak to the predictive capability of the theory and, more importantly, show how observations and imitations become concrete entrepreneurial characteristics.

SLT also asserts the moderating effect of family dynamics on the transfer of business behaviours. Observational learning is most effective with a high-quality model and a positive relationship with the model. Open communication strengthens the impact of parental modelling in entrepreneurial families. Children raised in consensual families, those that strike equilibrium between open communication and parental guidance, show statistically significantly greater entrepreneurial attitudes than children raised in restrictive or hierarchical families (Schroder and Schmitt-Rodermund, 2021). Consider a child with an entrepreneurial parent who regularly talks through business challenges with them vs a child whose entrepreneurial parent tries to shield them from such realities, the first child is more likely to retain and reproduce proactive behaviours than the second. It indicates that SLT processes are not automatized but conditional upon the relational context, a fine-tune critical to understanding the parental impact.

Cultural differences further refine SLT to entrepreneurial family contexts. In collectivist societies with strong family ties, parental influence on children's career paths strengthens. For instance, Nexhipi *et al.,* (2022) Such normative behaviours are shaped through the family. Furthermore, Nexhipi and his colleagues surveyed the Albanian youth and found that the family, especially if they are entrepreneurial, had a positive significant influence on entrepreneurial intention, making children observing behaviours of parents a norm. By contrast, such individualistic cultures might elevate personal choice above collective interest and weaken the modelling effect (Hoffmann *et al.,* 2015). This cross-cultural variability demonstrates that SLT is an adaptable lens to explore EO development through, considering that it is sensitive to the contextual variation in modes of observation and imitation.

However, while SLT has its strengths, it is not without its critiques in this area. It, however, has been criticised for overstressing the importance of environmental determinism, which, for instance, potentially overlooks innate attributes or the influence of outside factors such as peers and education (Nicolaou *et al.,* 2008). In addition, the theory assumes a direct effect of parent on child, when in fact entrepreneurial children may influence their parents to iterate on their practice, indicating a bidirectional relationship (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). Such limitations suggest that SLT should be complemented and integrated with alternative frameworks such as trait theory or family embeddedness to better understand and capture the multidimensionality of EO transmission. Furthermore, although social learning theory approach helps to answer why and how entrepreneurial parents shape prejudices for their children's entrepreneurial orientation, cultural, relational and individual factors moderate its strength. SLT is not comprehensive, its insights into learnt behaviour lay imperative groundwork for examining intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurship with implications for both theory and practice. Nonetheless, SLT continues to be a pillar for understanding how entrepreneurial parents promote their offspring. Its emphasis on observable stimuli aligns well with entrepreneurship's practical orientation, and its focus on motivation and context resonates with the emotive and relational nature of familial impact.

2.3. Entrepreneurial Intention

Entrepreneurial intention (EI) refers to a conscious plan to start an enterprise by an individual, which has been seen as one of the main determinants of entrepreneurial behaviour, as it is closely associated with entrepreneurial orientation (EO) (Palmer *et al.,* 2021). There are number of factors which shape EI (Maheshwari *et al.,* 2023), but the most robust and important have to do with parental influence (Patuelli *et al.,* 2020), and in particular if the parents themselves are entrepreneurs. There is consistent evidence that offspring of entrepreneurial families are more likely to develop entrepreneurial intention (EI) and pursue entrepreneurship careers, based on both direct (familial learning effects) and indirect (contextual learning effects) influence mechanisms (Lindquist *et al.,* 2015). It discusses the mechanics of EI inculcation by entrepreneurial parents in their offspring, utilising notional frameworks including social learning theory, role modelling and theory of planned behaviour, as well as empirical evidence and relevant context modifiers.

The phenomenon of EI transferring from entrepreneurial parents to their offspring is deeply embedded in socialisation processes within the family. An underpinning explanation is found within social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), explaining that children learn entrepreneurial attitudes and behaviours from the observation and imitation of their parents. By actively engaging in market opportunities, risk management, or innovation on a daily basis, entrepreneurial parents become salient role models, whose acts of business activity normalise entrepreneurship as a legitimate career option. Such behaviours tend to be overwhelming when parents display passion and success since these dimensions strengthen both the desirability and feasibility of entrepreneurship (two antecedents of EI according to the theory of planned behaviour) (Ajzen, 1991). For example, a child that witnesses their parent succeeding in a self-started business may internalise entrepreneurship as both attainable and rewarding, reaffirming the intention to pursue this path.

There are multiple ways the entrepreneurial parents affect EI (Huezo-Ponce *et al.,* 2024). Familial exposure to tangible aspects of entrepreneurship through direct involvement in family businesses provides practical experience that makes this form of capital less abstract and builds practical skills (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). For instance, kids who help with bookkeeping or customer service are picking up tacit knowledge that boosts their confidence and desire to launch their own businesses. Second, parental narratives, stories of successes, failures, and resilience, function as motivational tools that affect children's risk-launching and creativity orientation (Schroder and Schmitt-Rodermund, 2021). Third, entrepreneurial parents tend to be resource providers, offering them financial or connection, which reduces entry barriers and facilitates EI (Lopes *et al.,* 2021). These processes together cumulatively mirror the fact that entrepreneurship is not an abstract word but rather something that transpires in the family.

Parental influence on EI is subject to the influence of cultural context. In collectivist societies, characterised by a focus on supporting family units and intergenerational exchange, entrepreneurial parents have more influence on their children's careers (Hoffmann *et al.,* 2015). Nexhipi *et al.,* (2022) found that a collectivist culture, it is family background,

particularly parental entrepreneurship, which predicts EI better than individual factors such as education. In contrast, in more individualistic cultures, such as in America and in Western Europe, children might compare parental influence with individual autonomy or peer effects, leading to a potential dilution of its effect (Zellweger *et al.,* 2011). This cultural difference emphasises the need to consider social norms when investigating the parental role in EI development. Parental functions break down into role modelling in entrepreneurial behaviour, provision of resources and transmission of core values, and all of these factors have a considerable impact on the entrepreneurial intention of children. Empirical evidence validates this is strong, but it needs to be moderated by sex (gender), culture, and individual factors (Lindquist *et al.,* 2015). The role of entrepreneurial parents is a cornerstone of entrepreneurial development, as they normalise entrepreneurship and equip children with the tools necessary to pursue it.

However, external forces threaten to dethrone entrepreneurial parents. Family influence is often at the same level or lower than that of peers, education or macroeconomic conditions. Formal entrepreneurship education programmes, for instance, have been shown to cultivate innovativeness and proactiveness among students who come from non-entrepreneurial families whose influence may not be as strong (Lopes *et al.,* 2021). At the family level, which is usually the unit pointed out in family systems theory (Mele *et al.,* 2015), families practised individualism, emphasising more personal autonomy, leading the child to follow peer networks and personal interests rather than parental examples, diluting the family's roles (Zellweger *et al.,* 2011). Such alternatives influence that EI development is volitional i.e., multi-determined and not singularly governed by having entrepreneurial parents.

2.4. Resource Availability

Positive labour market experiences are as good as parental wealth in predicting a transition from a wage and salary position to self-employment (Dunn and Holtz-Eakin, 2000). Dunn and Holtz-Eakin (2000) in their study found that a son's move into self-employment is highly influenced by their parents and more-successful compared to sons of less-successful entrepreneurs and sons of the wealthiest parents are more likely to be self-employed. In addition, children who see their parents earn income through self-employment are more likely to consider self-employment a respectable alternative to conventional employment (Carroll and Mosakowski, 1987). This implies that parental influence operates through "exposure" mechanisms. Sorenson (2007) found that children of self-employed parents have access to social and financial capital that facilitates business start-up. Because relatively privileged parents are better able to facilitate the skill and financial resource acquisition needed, especially for start-up businesses (Schoon and Duckworth, 2012), relatively privileged young generation to become entrepreneurs.

Entrepreneurial parents often act as an important resource base for their children by providing both tangible and intangible support that reduces the entry barriers to entrepreneurship and increases the success probabilities. Such support may come in the form of financial capital, social connections, know-how, or moral support (Criaco *et al.,* 2017). It is the allocation of such resources that sets entrepreneurial families apart from non-entrepreneurial families, and

this provides a competitive advantage to descendants that tap into such assets. It also means that the entrepreneurial parents provide financial resources, whether seed funding or even loans, that allow the offspring to circumvent traditional barriers such as getting bank financing. For example, Zhang *et al.,* (2021) conducted in-depth interviews with 35 parent-offspring family businesses in Chinese and found that 78 percent of second generation entrepreneurs credited their business to family resources, while those receiving both financial assistance and business know-how had a 30 percent higher five-year survival rate than their counterparts not receiving similar support. Likewise, Nguyen and Phan (2020) focused on Vietnamese family businesses and revealed that parental financial status is a significant predictor of entrepreneurial intention and behaviour. In their survey of 400 students, they found that financial help from parents, usually small investments or equipment, lowers the perceived risk of starting a venture and increases intention by 18 percent.

However, resource effects are further moderated by socioeconomic context. Ratinho *et al.*, (2020) observed that, in developing economies, necessity driven parental entrepreneurship may be able to provide relatively fewer aspirational resources for their offspring to engage in opportunity driven venturing. A further opposing position focuses on the effects of parental socioeconomic status. Where Soleimanof *et al.,* (2021) point out that adverse experiences, such as seeing parents go through financial problems or losing a business, can prevent their children from developing an interest in entrepreneurship, leading them to be risk-averse instead of risk-taking. A child who witnesses the failure of a parent's venture might internalise the message that entrepreneurship is risky, subverting any positive modelling effect. These findings indicate the quality and outcome of parental entrepreneurship; instead of its mere presence, it determines its effectiveness, making the narratives more delicate (Schroder and Schmitt-Rodermund 2021).

Providing resources is not without its disadvantages, though. Prabandari *et al.,* (2024) warn that too much involvement from parents can weaken the autonomy of their offspring. They based their research on 250 students, discovering that overdependence on parental financial or emotional support lessens perceived behavioural control, as children may view their path through life aligned with their parents as a requirement, rather than explore independently. This entanglement was most notable in behavioural creatives, with 35 percent of respondents reporting lower scores in entrepreneurial creativity the closer they were to parental support beyond a certain boundary of involvement (e.g. daily oversight or full funding). This implies a curvilinear pattern, where moderate help amplifies results, while redundant provision stifles initiative.

Overall, studies based on individual characteristics that differentiate entrepreneurs are well documented in the literature. One possible correlate of entrepreneurial behaviour that has been acknowledged and studied is parental influence on offspring entrepreneurial intention and behaviour. These conclusions reveal that parental entrepreneurial role modelling could significantly predict offspring's intentions and behaviours towards self-employment. The literature described above reveals that parent business performance has an important impact on offspring decision to become self-employed. Entrepreneurial parents' role modelling offers a broad spectrum of resources across financial, social, intellectual, and emotional

dimensions that plays a major role in shaping offspring's entrepreneurial trajectories. Thus, this study contributed to this ongoing debate by exploring the effect of parents on their children's entrepreneurial behaviour in Saudi Arabia.

Based on the above discussion, the effect for parental role modelling leads to the following hypotheses:

H: In entrepreneurial families, there is a positive relationship between the presence of parental self-employed and offspring being self-employed.

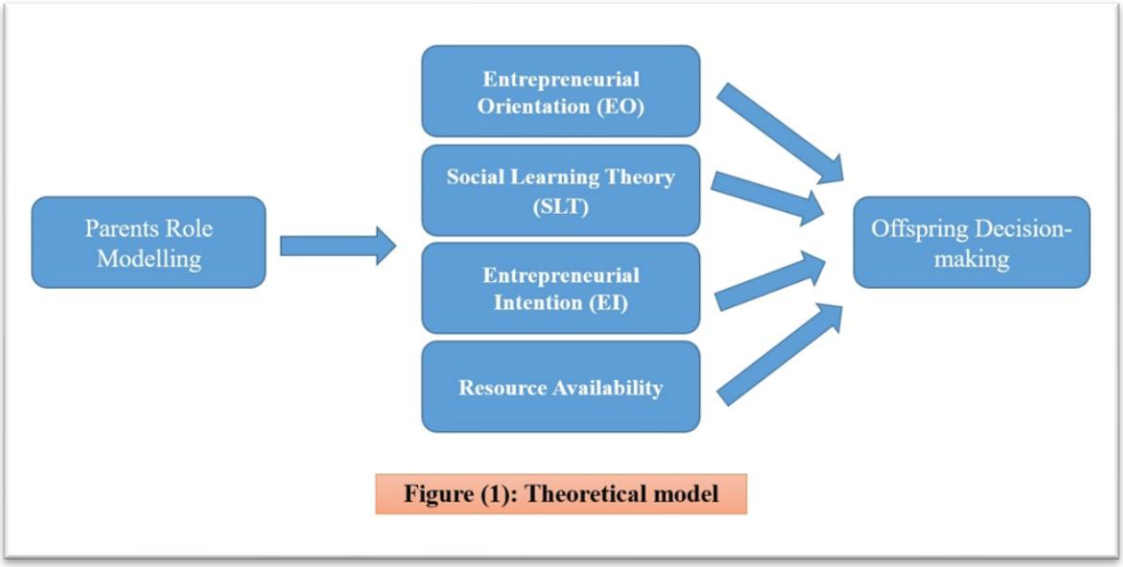

Figure (1): Theoretical model

3. Methodology

3.1. Methodology design and approach

There are various reasons that lead you to choose quantitative research. First, this research is aligned with the positivism paradigm because, as Bhattacherjee (2012) explained, most of the quantitative methods applied the positivism paradigm. Second, the current research employs an empirical research methodology (Logistic regression) where a quantitative method is used. Lastly, this study attempts to measure the relationship between entrepreneurial parents' role modelling and their offspring self-employment statues. Accordingly, the current research adopts a quantitative data approach by means of a questionnaire because this approach achieves the best alignment between the philosophy of the research and also the objects of the correlating study. The data will be gathered through quantitative and objective methods (questionnaire), and a deductive approach will be applied to analyse the data to explore the study relationships.

3.2. Sample and data collection

This study analyses the contribution of the parent's being self-employed or running their own businesses as important determinants of being classified in the entrepreneur categories. In this study, we found that a combination of a paper-based questionnaire and an online survey was more advantageous. A dual sampling methodology was implemented in this context. The initial strategy is probability sampling employing random sampling, wherein each unit of the population has an equal likelihood of being chosen for the sample. No sample points will possess a zero probability of exclusion from the sample (Bhattacherjee, 2012). The secondary data collection method employed was non-probability sampling, notably utilising the snowball technique. Arber (2001) asserts that snowball sampling is applicable solely when respondents are homogeneous and connected within a network of individuals with similar traits of interest. The first version of the questionnaire was in the English language. As Arabic is the mother tongue in Saudi Arabia, and most of the respondents were not expected to be fluent or well versed in reading and writing in English, the questionnaire was translated into Arabic by a professional translator using the forward and backward translation method.

The questionnaire was done considering the comments given in the pilot testing, and the survey in its final version was distributed on 2017 to 1,000 adults in Saudi Arabia. The questionnaire was done considering the comments given in the pilot testing, and the survey in its final version was distributed to 1,000 adults in the Kingdome of Saudi Arabia. In a bid to reduce response bias, we assured respondents of the confidentiality and fully anonymised analysis of their data. To avoid international and cultural inconsistencies, we used one country single sample (Saudi Arabia). After a comprehensive data cleaning process, a total of 638 questionnaire surveys were finally collected and included in the analysis, which provided a response rate of 63.8 percent. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) argue that a sample size of 300 is considered sufficient, 500 good, and 1000 excellent! Based on this advice, we see the final sample size of this study was 683, which is excellent.

3.3. Measures of Variables

3.3.1. The dependent variable:

For this study identifies whether an individual is currently self-employed or a business owner. The study uses a binary logit model (0-1); code as 1 for individual how is self-employed or business owner and 0 otherwise. This study notes that a limitation of our dataset is the lack of details about the participants' prior professions. We ignore individuals who had previously been self-employed but who were not actively engaged in self-employment at the time our survey took place.

3.3.2. independent variable:

We used a binary (0-1) independent variable indicating exposure to self-employed parents, which in this case meant having parents who were self-employed or business owners. Self-employed or business owners: Parents who were self-employed or small-business owners

received a code of 1 if the father or mother of the individual was self-employed or owned a business, and a code of 0 otherwise.

3.3.3. Control variable:

Multiple social and economic controls were notable determinants in the specification in the fully controlled model (see table 1) Thus, the study controlled for socio-demographic variables that may also influence how individuals respond. As described in the literature (Jonsson and Ouyang, 2023, Staniewski and Awruk, 2021, Zelekha, 2021), it was proposed that a variety of variables (dependable variables) may sway the participants, such as gender, age group, monthly income, and work experience. Therefore, in the following data analysis, we use the variables gender, educational attainment, entrepreneurship and work experience as dummies (1 = yes, 0 = no), while that of the age is measured in years and the monthly income is on an interval scale.

A pilot testing, as one of the validity techniques, helps to recognise potential problems in the study design or procedures. It also protects against threats of construct validity, which ensures that the tools of measurement used measure the concepts being studied accurately (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Therefore, the full questionnaire was pretested with 20 individuals who participated in the questionnaire pretest and were entrepreneurs from Saudi Arabia to assess the clarity of the questions and the potential study feasibility before its actual deployment. The data were examined using the STATA (version 19) software package. The use of STATA is appropriate in social sciences, particularly economics (Ray *et al.,* 2023) and allows the examination of logistic regression (Orsini and Bottai, 2011).

3.3.4. Measures

The study currently uses the logistic regression model to test the impact of parental entrepreneurship (binary independent variable: 1 = self-employed/business owner, 0 = otherwise) on the entrepreneurship status of children (binary dependent variable: 1 = self-employed/business owner, 0 = otherwise), with control variables (age, gender, education, work experience, income) that showed a statistically significant impact of parental entrepreneurship on the entrepreneurship status of children ($\beta=0.736$, $p<0.01$). This methodology is suitable for the binary outcome and aligns with previous studies in intergenerational entrepreneurship (such as Lindquist *et al.,* 2015, Chlosta *et al.,* 2012, Dunn and Holtz-Eakin, 2000). The data were examined using the STATA (version 19) software package. The use of STATA, version 2019, is appropriate in social sciences, particularly economics (Ray *et al.,* 2023) and allows the examination of logistic regression (Orsini and Bottai, 2011).

3.4. Results

The aim of this paper is to assess whether respondents were exposed to parental self-employment or business ownership. Since the dependent variable is binary (0-1), we

performed a logit regression model to test the effect of parental self-employment or business ownership on the dependent variable respondents' entrepreneurial status. Logistic regression, or "***logistic regression***", is a statistical technique that evaluates data sets where the independent variables can be continuous, categorical, or both, and the dependent variable is categorical (usually binary; e.g., 0 or 1, yes or no, success or failure) (Hosmer *et al.*, 2013). When you want to find out how likely something is to occur or how predictors correlate to some outcome of 0/1, you use it. Therefore, to test the study hypothesis, we proposed the following logit regression equation:

Entrepreneurial status = f (parent self-employed or business owners + controls) + Ɛ.

y = β1 (parent self-employed or own a business) + β2 (age) + β3 (education level) + β4 (work experience) + β5 (income) + Ɛ

Table (1) shows the socio-demographic variables of the subject sample with its partition into two subsamples, entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs in a distribution of percentages, means and standard deviations. It indicates that non-entrepreneurs made up almost three-quarters of the respondents (n = 491), and their ages ranged between 18 and 74 years, with a mean of 35 years, whereas the entrepreneurs (n = 147) ages ranged between 22 and 61 years, with a mean of 38 years. When asked about their work experience, most of the subsample entrepreneurs (83 percent) indicated that they adjusted the level of previous work experience 10 years on average, and 17 percent of the subsample mentioned that they had no work experience. In contrast, 36 percent of the non-entrepreneur's subsample indicated previous work experience, among which the average was found to be 8 years. Regarding university credentials, just under two-thirds (67 percent) of a subsample of non-entrepreneurs held bachelor's or postgraduate degrees, whilst the rest had secured a diploma or lower-level qualification. Meanwhile, almost half of the entrepreneurs getting university education, at 49 percent, reported. Income monthly, from 500 min to 15000 max above (The average monthly income was 9474 across the total sample.) In the subsample of entrepreneurs, it rises to 11271 on average, while for non-entrepreneurs, it is given as 8936 for the non-entrepreneur's subsample.

Tables (2) illustrate the degree of Pearson correlations between all the study variables for the total sample, which is moderate and between -0.372 for income and female and 0.588 for income and age. Tables (3) shows Pearson correlations for the entrepreneur subsample. The highest correlation was found between university and female = 0.254 whereas the lowest correlation was between age and parental status = -0.071. the third table (Table 4) Pearson correlations for the non-entrepreneur subsample. It shews that income and age has the strongest relation with 0.632. On the other hand, -0.371 is the result for income correlation with female.

The base model (Model 1) has a pseudo-R^2 of 11.1 %. In the next step, I added the parental status (parents who are self-employed or own a business) independent variable (Model 2) with pseudo-R^2 of 12.6 %. As compared with the model (1), pseudo-R^2 improved to 12.6 %. It is clear from table (5) that a positive significant relationship between parental status and

entrepreneurs is exist at $p < 0.01$. Having a parent who is self-employed or has a business is significantly predictor of entrepreneur offspring. The study hypothesis ***H*** is supported and parental self-employed is confirmed as a determent of entrepreneurial decision-making (see table 5). For both subsamples the age variable is negative and non-significant (Table 5). For the two subgroups, gender and university education have negative significant signs at $p < 0.05$ for females and at $p < 0.01$ for education. Thus, only the variable is statistically significant in the model. We found that entrepreneurial respondents to model (2) show a strong effect at $p < 0.01$ in the horizontal relationship with parental status. This means that this study is significant quantitatively with respect to the fact that one of the factors in determining who will become an entrepreneur is parents who are self-employed or own a business, which we can see from the entrepreneurs' subsample.

3.5. Discussion

Perhaps this result makes sense based on other literature; for example, Soleimanof *et al.*, (2021) found that a parent's entrepreneurial passion can help mould their offspring to become business owners. Soleimanof and his colleagues posit that children regularly observe their entrepreneurial parents' actions, like starting a new business or taking financial risks. The more successful or passionate a parent is, the more salient his or her actions become, and the more attention they get. However, the study's findings disagree with some of the prior literature, which, while SLT does explain how risk-taking behaviour is learnt by children from entrepreneurial parents, it is possible that genetic predispositions also play a role in a child's willingness to take risks, making the causal story more complex. These limitations suggest that SLT should be combined with other frameworks, like trait theory or family embeddedness, to gain a deeper understanding of the complex nature of EO transmission (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003).

This study shows that gender and university have a significant negative effect. The disagreement with current literature is this. One of Hoffmann's (2015) claims is that external influences are calling into question the primacy of entrepreneurial parents. Family effects are often competed with or, in some cases, eclipsed by peers, educational and macroeconomic factors in contributing to EO (for instance, formal entrepreneurship education programmes can imbue innovators and proactiveness in individuals from non-entrepreneurial backgrounds, conceivably outweighing parental contributions (Lopes *et al.*, 2021).

Empirically, the study combines strong evidence from a variety of settings, e.g., Lindquist *et al.*, (2015) conclusion that 60 percent of kids of a parent entrepreneur become an entrepreneur and Nexhipi *et al.*, (2022) take on cultural differences. This consolidation enhances the evidence base, uncovering specific and culturally moderated effects, further refining previous assumptions. At a practical level, it provides actionable insights for educators and policymakers, including utilising entrepreneurial parents as mentors in EO-focused initiatives (Lopes *et al.*, 2021). These contributions lay a foundation for future research and interventions in this area, aiding ongoing efforts to develop entrepreneurial talent across generations.

3.6. Implications

This paper implies four constructs as the framework, EO, SLT, EI and support and motivation, to illustrate the influence of parents' entrepreneurial status on their children decision to become entrepreneurs. Using data from the Kingdome of Saudi Arabia this study found that parental role modelling has a significant positive relationship with family's offspring become self-employed. These findings expand the entrepreneurial literature by investigating the role models and the psychology of the entrepreneur in several ways. This result confirms the findings of Soleimanof *et al.,* (2021) who found that a parent's entrepreneurial orientation can help mould their offspring to become business owners. The more successful or passionate a parent is, the more salient his or her actions become, and the more attention they get. However, although EO explains how innovation and risk-taking behaviour is learnt by children from entrepreneurial parents, it is possible that genetic predispositions also play a role in a child's willingness to take risks, making the causal story more complex. These limitations suggest that EO frameworks should be combined with other elements to gain a deeper understanding of the complex nature of EO transmission (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003).

This study examined number of individual characteristics that effect the study relationship. For example, the study found that variables such as gender and university education have a significant negative effect. These results follow the mainstream of entrepreneurship literature. In certain developing nations, embedded gender norms and stereotypes fundamentally conflict with the concept of self-employed mothers, as women are anticipated to prioritise familial care and nurturing over career pursuits (Chlosta *et al.*, 2012). Likewise, additional studies indicate that, in certain nations with nascent transition economies, institutional frameworks hinder women from establishing their own enterprises (Aldhehayan and Tamvada, 2023), implying that self-employed female role models may be scarce and incongruent with dominant gender roles and stereotypes. On the other hand, Hoffmann's (2015) claims that external influences are calling into question the primacy of entrepreneurial parents. Family effects are often competed with concealed by peers, educational or macroeconomic factors. Likewise, Wu and Wu (2008) discovered that individuals with diploma and undergraduate education exhibited a higher interest in company start-ups compared to those with postgraduate education confirming the negative association between education and entrepreneurship.

In term of income, the study found a strong positive relationship between entrepreneurship and income with p value less than 0.01. A fundamental attribute of the entrepreneurial process is risk-taking (Shane *et al.*, 2003). This notion illustrates the significant influence of risk propensity on people' income. Dohmen *et al.,* (2011) contend that a high propensity for risk-taking, as a proxy for entrepreneurship, is positively associated with income. Furthermore, Atems and Shand (2018) using US state-level data found that a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurship and income. These results are in agreement with the study results that entrepreneurs are more likely to earn higher income that non-entrepreneurs.

3.7. Limitations and future research

Although this study has got some insights on how parents with entrepreneurial wellbeing impact their children on practising entrepreneurship orientation (EO), it is hindered by the limiting conditions in order to generalise it, so it requires more elaboration in the study. Entrepreneurial orientation (EO), characterised by innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking (Miller, 1983), is a multidimensional construct that comprises many factors, such as family background, but due to the reliance on the available literature rather than new data, the current analysis has limited ability to establish causality. We justify these limitations and suggest research avenues to tackle them, thereby better unravelling this intergenerational stream.

One important limitation is the dependency on few variables that limit the study's ability to test causal relationship between parental entrepreneurship and their children. While studies show a strong correlation, in that the children of entrepreneurial parents are more likely to become entrepreneurs, the directionality and mechanism are inferred and not observed. Further, the literature frequently collates results across heterogeneous settings and samples, which may obscure disparities produced by differences in cultural, economic or family factors (Nexhipi *et al.,* 2022).

The other limitation is that parental influence may not be a universal factor in fostering entrepreneurial decision making. Negative parental experiences (e.g., business failures), for instance, can discourage children from pursuing entrepreneurship, a nuance that is relatively underspecified in this review (Schroder and Schmitt-Rodermund, 2021). Additionally, the present research is exclusive to Saudi Arabia; although it may resonate with other nations, studies in culturally distinct countries may provide markedly different outcomes. Furthermore, the study has highlighted some of the factors beyond those discussed in this paper may also influence parental self-employed, including sibling similarities, risk and time preferences, familial values, social capital, or the involvement of additional family members. Exploring this diversity is a compelling opportunity for future research. Furthermore, the study failed to adequately control for other influences, such as peers or school, that could rival or mediate parental effects. This identifies the gap to understand the wider ecosystem responsible for the development of entrepreneurial traits (Hoffmann *et al.,* 2015). The literature is also weak in terms of investigating individual differences, like personality or genetic predispositions, that could mitigate parental impact on child outcomes. Nicolaou *et al.,* (2008) state that genetic factors have a considerable influence on entrepreneurship stoic tendencies.

Future approaches can address those limitations via methodological and thematic improvements. Longitudinal studies tracing children from entrepreneurial households into adulthood could illuminate potential persistence of parental mediation on EO, identifying period-to-period fluctuations over the life course (Zellweger *et al.,* 2011). Experimental designs such as interventions where entrepreneurial parents are involved in education programmes could allow for testing of causality. Moreover, cross-cultural comparisons would help explain how parental influence is contingent upon whether a society is collectivist

versus individualistic, thus honing the family embeddedness perspective (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). Qualitative approaches (e.g., in-depth interviews with children of failed entrepreneurs) could unleash counter-narratives, enhancing the conversation (Schroder and Schmitt-Rodermund, 2021). Moreover, future research can explore more than one hypothesis that can be formulated regarding the direct and indirect relationships when control variables (e.g. gender, income, age and education) (Lindquist et al., 2015, Dunn and Holtz-Eakin, 2000).

Despite the limitations, this study lays the ground for future research on EO, SLT, EI confirming the influence of entrepreneurial parents on their offspring' future occupation. However, the limitations put forward here can be addressed in future research utilising longitudinal, experimental, and cross-cultural designs, leading to a more comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, this research examined the impact of the previous generation of founders on the subsequent generation of founders, one of several mechanisms by which parents play as their offspring role model. Parental modelling is critical for shaping children's entrepreneurship propensity towards business start-up. The best context for a child to develop their propensity for entrepreneurship is being a child of an entrepreneur. This relationship will formulate the basis for entrepreneurial pathway development, ranging from values to skills and behaviours. By synthesising theoretical constructs, including but not limited to entrepreneurial orientation, social learning theory, role modelling, and family support, this study engages with the multitude of mechanisms within that facilitate this intergenerational transference while also paying attention to challenges and contextual factors.

The results of this study confirm the association between entrepreneurial parents and their offspring entrepreneurial decision to become entrepreneurs. by being directly involved in businesses, by having passion, and by providing both tangible and intangible resources, consistent with the parents being role models embeddedness perspective. Based on the analysis of data gathered from a sample of 638 individuals from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, this study finds that self-employed parents play a significant determinant of having their children choose entrepreneurship career pathway. Thus, the empirical evidence provides a novel link between parental role modelling and their children's entrepreneurial decision-making.

Table (1): Socio-demographic statistics:

Entrepreneurs (*N*=147)					Non-Entrepreneurs (*N*=491)				
Variable	**Obs.**	**(*P*)**	**(*M*)**	**(*SD*)**	**Variable**	**Obs.**	**(*P*)**	**(*M*)**	**(*S.D*)**
Age: 22 to 61 year:	147	23.04	38.19	8.87	***Age:*** 18 ***to 74 year:***	491	76.95	34.95	11.41
Gender:					***Gender:***				
Female	15	10.20			***Female***	162	32.99		
Male	132	89.80			***Male***	329	67.01		
Work experience (years):					***Work experience (years):***				
Yes	122	82.99	10.44	9.81	***Yes***	313	63.75	8.60	10.10
No	25	17.01			***No***	178	36.25		
University Education:					***University Education:***				
Yes	72	48.98			***Yes***	328	66.80		
No	75	51.02			***No***	163	33.20		
Monthly income (₪):					***Monthly income (₪):***				
500	2	1.36	1.36		***500***	85	17.31	17.31	
1499.5	2	1.36	2.72		***1499.5***	31	6.31	23.63	
3999.5	6	4.08	6.80		***3999.5***	16	3.26	26.88	
5999.5	14	9.52	16.33		***5999.5***	48	9.78	36.66	
7999.5	17	11.56	27.89		***7999.5***	28	5.70	42.36	
9999.5	14	9.52	37.41		***9999.5***	59	12.02	54.38	
11999.5	31	21.09	58.50		***11999.5***	62	12.63	67.01	
13999.5	18	12.24	70.75		***13999.5***	41	8.35	75.36	
15000	43	29.25	100.00		***15000***	121	24.64	100.00	

Table (2): Pearson Correlation for total sample (*n*=638):

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Entrepreneurs	1.000						
Parental status	0.074	1.000					
Age	0.125	-0.208	1.000				
Female	-0.214	0.033	-0.242	1.000			
University Education	-0.155	0.018	0.090	0.225	1.000		
Work Experience	0.174	-0.112	0.390	-0.276	0.099	1.000	
Income	0.219	-0.123	0.588	-0.372	0.153	0.568	1.000

Table (3): Pearson Correlation for Entrepreneurs subsample (*n*=147):

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Entrepreneurs	.						
Parental status	.	1.000					
Age	.	-0.071	1.000				
Female	.	0.112	0.013	1.000			
University Education	.	0.249	0.003	0.254	1.000		
Work Experience	.	-0.007	0.078	0.033	0.081	1.000	
Income	.	-0.007	0.144	-0.009	0.175	0.240	1.000

Table (4): Pearson Correlation for Non-Entrepreneurs subsample (*n*=491):

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Entrepreneurs	.						
Parental status	.	1.000					
Age	.	-0.260	1.000				
Female	.	0.038	-0.257	1.000			
University Education	.	-0.046	0.140	0.191	1.000		
Work Experience	.	-0.159	0.431	-0.291	0.143	1.000	
Income	.	-0.170	0.632	-0.371	0.206	0.592	1.000

Table (5): The effect of Parental *status* on the likelihood of individual being an Entrepreneur.

Variables	***Model (1)*** ***Entrepreneurs***	***Model (2)*** ***Entrepreneurs***
Parental status		0.736***
		(0.232)
Age	-0.0104	-0.00427
	(0.0110)	(0.0113)
Female	-0.778**	-0.787**
	(0.310)	(0.312)
University Education	-0.928***	-0.996***
	(0.216)	(0.220)
Work Experience	0.418	0.471*
	(0.269)	(0.273)
Income	0.747***	0.760***
	(0.191)	(0.190)
Constant	-7.181***	-7.728***
	(1.544)	(1.555)
Observations	638	638
R-squared	0.111	0.126

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05

References

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(2), 179–211.

Aldhehayan, A., and Tamvada, J. P. (2023). Religiosity and risk-taking: evidence from Islam. *Journal of Management, Spirituality & Religion, 20*(5), 473-498.

Aldrich, H. E., and Cliff, J. E. (2003). The pervasive effects of family on entrepreneurship: Toward a family embeddedness perspective. *Journal of Business Venturing, 18*(5), 573–596.

Alfawzan, A., Tamvada, J. P., Aldhehayan, A., Temouri, Y., and Pereira, V. (2024). The impact of Islamic religiosity on innovation propensity. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 207*, 123598.

Atems, B., and Shand, G. (2018). An empirical analysis of the relationship between entrepreneurship and income inequality. *Small Business Economics*, *51*(4), 905-922.

Bagherian, S. S., Strano, S. M., Soleimanof, S., Carr, J., and Feyzbakhsh, A. (2025). Entrepreneurial identity formation in family firms: the transgenerational impact of parents' fear of failure. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 1-36.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological review*, *84*(2), 191.Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist, 37*(2), 122–147.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Prentice Hall.

Bhattacherjee, A., (2012). Social science research: Principles, methods, and practices.

Bird, B. (1988). Implementing entrepreneurial ideas: The case for intention. *Academy of Management Review, 13*(3), 442–453.

Bolton, D. L., and Lane, M. D. (2012). Individual entrepreneurial orientation: Development of a measurement instrument. *Education + Training, 54*(2/3), 219–233.

Boyd, N. G., and Vozikis, G. S. (1994). The influence of self-efficacy on the development of entrepreneurial intentions and actions. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, *18*(4), 63-77.

Carroll, G. R., and Mosakowski, E. (1987). The career dynamics of self-employment. *Administrative science quarterly*, 570-589.

Chereau, P., & Meschi, P. X. (2022). Deliberate practice of entrepreneurial learning and self-efficacy: The moderating effect of entrepreneurial parental environment as role modeling. Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development, 29(3), 461-483.

Chlosta, S., Patzelt, H., Klein, S. B., and Dormann, C. (2012). Parental role models and the decision to become self-employed: The moderating effect of personality. *Small Business Economics, 38*, 121-138.

Covin, J. G., and Slevin, D. P. (1989). Strategic management of small firms in hostile and benign environments. *Strategic Management Journal, 10*(1), 75–87.

Criaco, G., Sieger, P., Wennberg, K., Chirico, F., and Minola, T. (2017). Parents' performance in entrepreneurship as a "double-edged sword" for the intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurship. *Small Business Economics*, *49*, 841-864.

Gerlich, C., Kanbach, D. K., and Kraus, S. (2025). Sustainable corporate entrepreneurship as a catalyst for sustainability–a systematic literature review. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 14657503241307138.

Dey, D., Haque, M. S., Islam, M. M., Aishi, U. I., Shammy, S. S., Mayen, M. S. A., ... and Uddin, M. J. (2025). The proper application of logistic regression model in complex survey data: a systematic review. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, *25*(1), 15.

Dohmen, T., Falk, A., Huffman, D., Sunde, U., Schupp, J., and Wagner, G. G. (2011). Individual risk attitudes: Measurement, determinants, and behavioral consequences. *Journal of the european economic association*, *9*(3), 522-550.

Dunn, T., and Holtz-Eakin, D. (2000). Financial capital, human capital, and the transition to self-employment: Evidence from intergenerational links. *Journal of labor economics*, *18*(2), 282-305.

Gibson, D. E. (2004). Role models in career development: New directions for theory and research. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65*(1), 134–156.

Gürol, Y., and Atsan, N. (2006). Entrepreneurial characteristics amongst university students: Some insights for entrepreneurship education and training in Turkey. *Education+ training*, *48*(1), 25-38.

Hinton, P. R. (2024). *Statistics explained*. Routledge.

Hoffmann, A., Junge, M., and Malchow-Møller, N. (2015). Running in the family: Parental role models in entrepreneurship. *Small Business Economics*, *44*(1), 1–18.

Hoffmann, A., Junge, M., and Malchow-Møller, N. (2015). Running in the family: Parental role models in entrepreneurship. *Small Business Economics*, *44*(1), 1–18.

Hosmer Jr, D. W., Lemeshow, S., and Sturdivant, R. X. (2013). *Applied logistic regression*. John Wiley and Sons.

Huezo-Ponce, L., Montes-Merino, A., and Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, P. I. (2024). Entrepreneurial Parents, Children Too? A Latin-American Vision from the Entrepreneurial University.

In *Entrepreneurship, Innovation, and Technology: A Holistic Analysis of Growth Factors* (pp. 381-407). Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland.

Jonsson, S., and Ouyang, Q. (2023). Effects of cultural origin on entrepreneurship. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, *216*, 308-319.

Lindquist, M. J., Sol, J., and Van Praag, M. (2015). Why do entrepreneurial parents have entrepreneurial children? *Journal of Labor Economics*, *33*(2), 269–296.

Lopes, J. M., Oliveira, M., Oliveira, J., Sousa, M., Santos, T., and Gomes, S. (2021). Determinants of the entrepreneurial influence on academic entrepreneurship—Lessons learned from higher education students in Portugal. *Education Sciences*, *11*(12), 771.

Maheshwari, G., Kha, K. L., and Arokiasamy, A. R. A. (2023). Factors affecting students' entrepreneurial intentions: a systematic review (2005–2022) for future directions in theory and practice. *Management Review Quarterly*, *73*(4), 1903-1970.

Mathkur, N. (2025). The Role of Venture Capital and Angel Investor Networks for Supporting Entrepreneurship as a Catalyst for Saudi Economy, *18*(1), 347-361.

Mele, C., Pels, J., and Storbacka, K. (2015). A holistic market conceptualization. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *43*, 100-114.

Miles, M.B., Huberman, A.M., Huberman, M.A. and Huberman, M., (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. sage.

Miller, D. (1983). The correlates of entrepreneurship in three types of firms. *Management Science, 29*(7), 770–791.

Moussa, N. B., and Kerkeni, S. (2021). The role of family environment in developing the entrepreneurial intention of young Tunisian students. Entrepreneurial Business and Economics Review, 9(1), 31-45.

Nabi, G., Walmsley, A., and Akhtar, I. (2021). Mentoring functions and entrepreneur development in the early years of university. *Studies in Higher Education*, *46*(6), 1159-1174.

Nandram, S., and Samsom, K. J. (2007). Entrepreneurial behavior: new perspectives gained through the critical incident technique. *Available at SSRN 982852*.

Nexhipi, O., Prendi, L., and Musabelli, E. (2022). Parents' influence on entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of Positive School Psychology*, *6*(3), 1455–1465.

Nguyen, J. H., and Phan, H. V. (2020). Carbon risk and corporate capital structure. *Journal of Corporate Finance*, *64*, 101713.

Nicolaou, N., Shane, S., Cherkas, L., Hunkin, J., and Spector, T. D. (2008). Is the tendency to engage in entrepreneurship genetic? *Management Science, 54*(1), 167–179.

Ogunsade, A. (2017). *The influences of institutional environment on individual entrepreneurial orientation and venture creation among Nigerian youths* (Doctoral dissertation, De Montfort University).

Orsini, N., and Bottai, M. (2011). Logistic quantile regression in Stata. *The Stata Journal*, *11*(3), 327-344.

Palmer, C., Fasbender, U., Kraus, S., Birkner, S., and Kailer, N. (2021). A chip off the old block? The role of dominance and parental entrepreneurship for entrepreneurial intention. *Review of Managerial Science*, *15*(2), 287-307.

Patuelli, R., Santarelli, E., and Tubadji, A. (2020). Entrepreneurial intention among high-school students: the importance of parents, peers and neighbors. *Eurasian Business Review*, *10*, 225-251.

Prabandari, A. A. S. S., Udayani, N. N. W., Triyansyah, G. A. P., Dewi, N. P. E. M. K., Widiasriani, I. A. P., and Wulandari, N. L. W. E. (2024). Artikel Review: Aktivitas Daun Benalu (Dendrophthoe pentandra (L.) Miq) Sebagai Antioksidan dengan metode DPPH (2, 2-Diphenyl-1-Picrylhydrazyl). *Indonesian Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, *4*(2).

Ratinho, T., Amezcua, A., Honig, B., and Zeng, Z. (2020). Supporting entrepreneurs: a systematic review of literature and an agenda for research. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, *154*, 119956.

Rumjaun, A., and Narod, F. (2025). Social learning theory—albert bandura. In *Science education in theory and practice: An introductory guide to learning theory* (pp. 65-82). Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland.

Schoon, I., and Duckworth, K. (2012). Who becomes an entrepreneur? Early life experiences as predictors of entrepreneurship. *Developmental psychology*, *48*(6), 1719.

Schroder, E., and Schmitt-Rodermund, E. (2021). Following the footsteps that inspire: Parental passion, family communication, and children's entrepreneurial attitudes. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *36*(5), 106–123.

Shane, S., Locke, E. A., and Collins, C. J. (2003). Entrepreneurial motivation. *Human resource management review*, *13*(2), 257-279.

Soleimanof, S., Morris, M. H., and Jang, Y. (2021). Following the footsteps that inspire: Parental passion, family communication, and children's entrepreneurial attitudes. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *45*(4), 811–837.

Sorenson, J.B. (2007). Closure versus exposure: Mechanisms in the intergenerational transmission of selfemployment. In M. Ruef and M. Lounsbury (Eds.), *Research in the sociology of organizations* (pp. 83–124).

Staniewski, M. W., and Awruk, K. (2021). Parental attitudes and entrepreneurial success. *Journal of Business Research, 123*, 538-546.

Tabachnick, B. G., and Fidell, L. S. (2001). SAS for Windows workbook for Tabachnick and Fidell: using multivariate statistics. *(No Title)*.

Wu, S. and Wu, L. (2008) The impact of higher education on entrepreneurial intentions of university students in China. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 15 (4), 752-774.

Zelekha, Y. (2021). What stands behind the gender gap in entrepreneurship? Untangling the intergenerational parental role. *Plos one*, *16*(12), e0261108.

Zellweger, T., Sieger, P., and Halter, F. (2011). Should I stay or should I go? Career choice intentions of students with family business backgrounds. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *26*(5), 521–536.

Zhang, X., and Dou, J. (2021). Family firms and regional development: evidence from China. In *Family Business and Regional Development* (pp. 210-234). Routledge.