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Social Norms and Digital Entrepreneurial Intention among Undergraduates in Laos

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Abstract

Digital platforms can lower some barriers to venture creation, but the factors associated with digital entrepreneurial intention (DEI) among undergraduates in Lao PDR require further study. This study examines attitude toward digital entrepreneurship (ATDE), subjective norms (SN), perceived behavioral control (PBC), entrepreneurial education exposure (EEE) and digital technology readiness (DTR), drawing on the Theory of Planned Behavior, Human Capital Theory and the Technology Readiness Index. Survey data from 414 undergraduates at the National University of Laos were retained after screening; 412 cases were included in the final regression. Analyses in IBM SPSS Statistics, version 26, comprised principal component analysis with Varimax rotation, reliability assessment and multiple regression. Reported measurement statistics were KMO = .924, α = .838–.927, CR = .84–.92 and AVE = .52–.69. The regression model explained 42.9% of the variance in DEI (R^2 = .429; $F(5, 406) = 61.042$, $p < .001$). All five predictors were significant. Subjective norms had the largest standardized coefficient (β = .264, $p < .001$), followed by PBC (β = .196), EEE (β = .169), DTR (β = .141) and ATDE (β = .138). The findings suggest potential value in evaluating social support, educational exposure and access to resources alongside digital skills training. These cross-sectional associations do not establish causal effects or national representativeness.

Keywords: digital entrepreneurial intention; theory of planned behavior; subjective norms; entrepreneurial education; Lao PDR

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1. Introduction

Digital technologies have redefined how ventures are conceived, financed and scaled. Digital platforms and online channels can reduce some of the resource requirements of venture creation and enable new forms of entrepreneurial activity (Nambisan, 2017; Kraus et al., 2019). These developments make digital entrepreneurship relevant to research on students' career intentions, including in emerging economies (Zhao et al., 2025).

In Lao PDR, an important question is whether familiarity with digital platforms is accompanied by an intention to create a digital business. Platform use and entrepreneurial intention are distinct, and access to digital tools does not by itself explain a student's intention to launch a venture. This study therefore examines the psychological, social, educational and technological factors associated with digital entrepreneurial intention among undergraduates at the National University of Laos.

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) explains intention through attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). Its application to student entrepreneurial intention is well established (Krueger et al., 2000; Malebana, 2014; Al-Jubari et al., 2019). Research on entrepreneurship education and digital skills also suggests the value of considering educational and technological factors alongside these constructs (Dabbous & Boustani, 2023; Abaddi, 2024). Human Capital Theory provides a basis for examining entrepreneurial education exposure (Becker, 1964; Fayolle & Gailly, 2015), while the Technology Readiness Index provides a framework for considering individuals' propensity to embrace new technologies (Parasuraman, 2000).

Three considerations motivate the present study. Empirically, relevant studies have examined students in Indonesia, Malaysia, Bangladesh, Jordan and China (Suparno et al., 2020; Al-Jubari et al., 2019; Parven et al., 2023; Abaddi, 2024; Zhao et al., 2025), providing a basis for extending research to Lao PDR. Theoretically, examining educational exposure and technology readiness alongside the three TPB constructs permits assessment of their associations with intention within a single model. Practically, institution-specific evidence can inform the design and evaluation of entrepreneurship support at Lao universities. Accordingly, this study integrates TPB, Human Capital Theory and the Technology Readiness Index into a five-predictor model of digital entrepreneurial intention. The survey retained 414 valid responses from undergraduates at the National University of Laos, with 412 cases included in the final regression. It pursues six objectives: to estimate the associations of digital entrepreneurial intention with (1) attitude toward digital entrepreneurship, (2) subjective norms, (3) perceived behavioral control, (4) entrepreneurial education exposure and (5) digital technology readiness; and (6) to identify the predictor with the largest standardized regression coefficient. The study contributes evidence from a Lao university and examines the potential relevance of social endorsement, educational exposure and technological readiness to students' entrepreneurial intentions.

2. Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

2.1. Digital Entrepreneurship and Digital Entrepreneurial Intention

Digital entrepreneurship denotes the creation and pursuit of business opportunities in which digital technologies constitute the product, the channel or the organising infrastructure of the venture (Nambisan, 2017). It differs from conventional entrepreneurship in the fluidity of its boundaries, the speed at which ventures can be tested and scaled, and the reduced significance of physical assets (Giones & Brem, 2017; Kraus et al., 2019). Entrepreneurial intention, in turn, is the conscious and planned commitment to establish a venture, and remains the most reliable proximal predictor of subsequent entrepreneurial action (Krueger et al., 2000). Digital entrepreneurial intention (DEI) applies this construct to ventures enacted through digital platforms, and is now studied as a distinct outcome rather than a variant of general entrepreneurial intention (Suparno et al., 2020; Abaddi, 2024; Zhao et al., 2025).

2.2. Theoretical Foundation

The study rests on three complementary frameworks. TPB (Ajzen, 1991) supplies the motivational core: intention is a function of attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control. Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1964) explains why education and training raise entrepreneurial capability, by treating knowledge and skills as investments that improve judgement and productivity; entrepreneurial education exposure enters the model on this basis (Fayolle & Gailly, 2015). The Technology Readiness Index (Parasuraman, 2000) provides a framework for considering individual readiness to embrace technology, conceptualising readiness as the interplay of optimism, innovativeness, discomfort and insecurity toward new technology. Combining the three yields a model in which psychological, social, educational and technological antecedents are estimated simultaneously.

2.3. Hypotheses

Attitude toward digital entrepreneurship (ATDE) is a student's overall favourable or unfavourable evaluation of becoming a digital entrepreneur. TPB positions attitude as an antecedent of intention (Ajzen, 1991), and

student studies have examined its relationship with entrepreneurial intention (Malebana, 2014; Al-Jubari et al., 2019; Dabbous & Boustani, 2023).

H1: Attitude toward digital entrepreneurship is significantly associated with digital entrepreneurial intention.

Subjective norms (SN) capture perceived social pressure to perform or refrain from a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). In the present study, this construct concerns perceived endorsement of digital entrepreneurship from family, friends, peers and role models. Student entrepreneurship research supports examining subjective norms alongside attitude and perceived behavioral control (Malebana, 2014; Al-Jubari et al., 2019). The present study tests whether subjective norms are associated with digital entrepreneurial intention in the NUOL sample.

H2: Subjective norms significantly influence digital entrepreneurial intention.

Perceived behavioral control (PBC) is a student's perception of the feasibility of launching and operating a digital business, including perceived capability and access to resources. TPB identifies perceived behavioral control as an antecedent of intention (Ajzen, 1991), and entrepreneurial-intention research also highlights perceived feasibility (Krueger et al., 2000). These considerations support testing its association with digital entrepreneurial intention.

H3: Perceived behavioral control is significantly associated with digital entrepreneurial intention.

Entrepreneurial education exposure (EEE) reflects cumulative formal and informal entrepreneurial learning — coursework, workshops, mentoring, competitions and institutional encouragement. Consistent with Human Capital Theory, entrepreneurship education may help develop knowledge and attitudes relevant to entrepreneurial intention (Fayolle & Gailly, 2015; Dabbous & Boustani, 2023).

H4: Entrepreneurial education exposure is significantly associated with digital entrepreneurial intention.

Digital technology readiness (DTR) denotes confidence in, and willingness to adopt, digital tools for productive purposes. Parasuraman (2000) conceptualizes technology readiness as a propensity to embrace new technologies. Readiness should be distinguished from digital skills: Abaddi (2024) reports a negative association between digital skills and entrepreneurial intention among final-year undergraduates in Jordan, alongside a mediating role for entrepreneurial alertness. This distinction supports examining the relationship between the DTR construct measured here and digital entrepreneurial intention in the Lao context.

H5: Digital technology readiness is significantly associated with digital entrepreneurial intention.

2.4. Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 presents the resulting framework. The five antecedents are modelled as direct, linear and additive predictors of digital entrepreneurial intention; no mediating or moderating paths are specified, which is a deliberate simplification appropriate to a first empirical mapping of this population.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Research Design

The study employs a cross-sectional quantitative design with a self-administered structured questionnaire. This design permits estimation of the associations between five theoretically specified predictors and digital entrepreneurial intention. It is consistent with survey-based research in this area (Suparno et al., 2020; Parven et al., 2023; Abaddi, 2024), although it cannot establish causal direction.

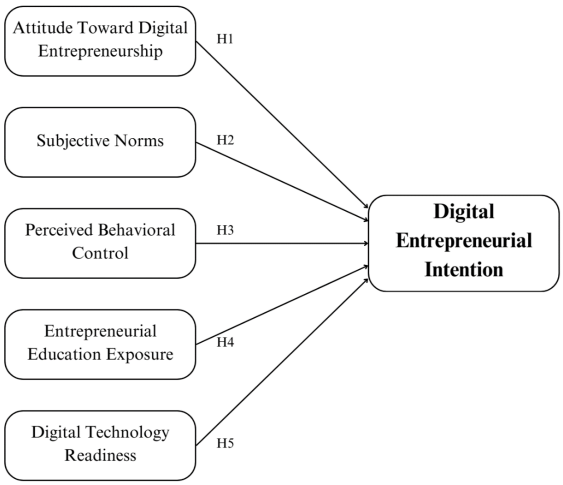


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the study.

3.2. Population and Sample

The target population comprised the 12,945 undergraduate students enrolled at the National University of Laos (NUOL) in 2026, across all faculties and years of study. Recruitment covered the Dongdok and Sokpaluang campuses in Vientiane Capital. A target sample size was set using the Taro Yamane (1967) formula at a 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error, $n = N / (1 + Ne^2)$, yielding 388 respondents; because recruitment was non-probability based, this figure served as a benchmark for adequacy of scale rather than as a basis for inference to the population. Respondents were recruited by convenience sampling: printed questionnaires were administered during class sessions across faculties on both campuses, and an online version of the same instrument was circulated through student group channels. No sampling frame of individual students was used, so the sample is not a probability sample of the target population. A total of 454 questionnaires were returned — 166 through Google Forms and 288 in printed form. Forty responses were removed during data screening because their within-respondent standard deviation fell below 0.4, indicating undifferentiated or pattern-based answering, leaving 414 valid cases (91.2% retention) for analysis. Data were collected between January and March 2026.

3.3. Instrument

The questionnaire contained seven sections: demographics, and one section for each of the five predictors and the outcome. Items were adapted from validated instruments (Al-Jubari et al., 2019; Suparno et al., 2020; Parven et al., 2023; Abaddi, 2024) and re-worded for the Lao higher-education context. All construct items were measured on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Six items each measured ATDE, SN, PBC, EEE and DTR, and eight items measured DEI, giving 38 construct items before purification. Mean scores were interpreted against equal-interval bands: 4.21–5.00 very high, 3.41–4.20 high, 2.61–3.40 moderate, 1.81–2.60 low and 1.00–1.80 very low.

3.4. Validity and Reliability Procedures

Content validity was established by adapting items from peer-reviewed instruments and through expert review by the supervising faculty, after which several items were re-worded for clarity. A pilot test with 30 undergraduates who were not part of the final sample was used to check comprehension and cultural appropriateness. The exploratory assessment of construct structure used principal component analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation, retaining items loading at or above 0.50 on a single component. Internal consistency was assessed by Cronbach's alpha against a 0.70 threshold (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), and convergent validity by composite reliability ($CR \geq 0.70$) and average variance extracted ($AVE \geq 0.50$) following Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Hair et al. (2019).

3.5. Data Analysis

Analyses were conducted in IBM SPSS Statistics, version 26. Frequencies and percentages profiled the sample; means and standard deviations described construct levels. Distributional shape was examined through skewness and kurtosis (Kline, 2011), using descriptive screening thresholds of ±1 and ±2, respectively. Multicollinearity was assessed by tolerance (> 0.30) and variance inflation factor (VIF < 3), and residual serial correlation was examined using the Durbin–Watson statistic, with 1.5–2.5 used as a screening range. Hypotheses were tested by multiple regression with the specification:

$$DEI = b_0 + b_1ATDE + b_2SN + b_3PBC + b_4EEE + b_5DTR + \varepsilon \qquad (1)$$

In Equation (1), b_0 is the intercept and b_1–b_5 are unstandardized regression coefficients. Standardized coefficients (β) were used to describe the relative sizes of the associations, with statistical significance evaluated at $p < 0.05$. Differences between the predictor coefficients were not formally tested.

3.6. Ethical Considerations

Participation was voluntary and anonymous. Respondents were informed of the study's academic purpose and gave consent before completing the questionnaire; no personally identifying information was collected, and data were reported in aggregate only.

4. Results

4.1. Respondent Profile

Table 1 profiles the 414 valid respondents. The sample is close to gender-balanced and strongly concentrated in the modal undergraduate age band, with representation across all four years of study. Students of Economics and Business Management form the largest group, followed by Engineering and Natural Sciences — a distribution that favours faculties in which business and digital content is taught, and which should be borne in mind when generalising the findings.

Table 1. Respondent profile (n = 414).

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	214	51.7
	Female	200	48.3
Age	Below 18 years	16	3.9
	18–22 years	332	80.2
	23 years and above	66	15.9
Year of study	Year 1	75	18.1
	Year 2	151	36.5
	Year 3	90	21.7
	Year 4	98	23.7
Faculty	Economics and Business Management	222	53.6
	Engineering	99	23.9
	Natural Sciences	72	17.4
	Language Education	18	4.3
	Architecture	2	0.5
	Environmental Sciences	1	0.2

4.2. Descriptive Statistics of the Constructs

Construct means are reported in Table 2. Digital technology readiness records the highest mean (M = 3.88), followed by attitude toward digital entrepreneurship (M = 3.75) and digital entrepreneurial intention itself (M = 3.69); all fall in the high band. Perceived behavioral control (M = 3.48), subjective norms (M = 3.45) and entrepreneurial education exposure (M = 3.45) sit at the lower edge of the high band. The construct means indicate relatively favourable reported technology readiness and attitudes, alongside lower average scores for social endorsement, educational exposure and perceived control. At item level, the strongest single responses

were "I believe technology makes starting a business easier" (M = 3.95) and "I believe digital technology opens new doors for entrepreneurs like me" (M = 3.93) within DTR, and "I intend to become a digital entrepreneur in the future" (M = 3.81) within DEI. The weakest were "My friends think I should become a digital entrepreneur" (M = 3.31) and "People around me encouraged me to consider digital entrepreneurship" (M = 3.36) within SN, and "I have access to the resources needed to start a digital business" (M = 3.38) within PBC. Aspiration therefore outpaces both perceived social encouragement and access to resources.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of the study constructs (n = 414).

Construct	Items retained	Mean	Interpretation
Digital Technology Readiness (DTR)	5	3.88	High
Attitude Toward Digital Entrepreneurship (ATDE)	6	3.75	High
Digital Entrepreneurial Intention (DEI)	8	3.69	High
Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC)	5	3.48	High
Subjective Norms (SN)	5	3.45	High
Entrepreneurial Education Exposure (EEE)	6	3.45	High

Note: Five-point Likert scale. Interpretation bands: 4.21–5.00 very high; 3.41–4.20 high; 2.61–3.40 moderate; 1.81–2.60 low; 1.00–1.80 very low.

4.3. Construct Validity and Reliability

The reported Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure was 0.924, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(595) = 10{,}025.93$, $p < .001$. The exploratory analysis used PCA with Varimax rotation and identified six components corresponding to the study constructs. Three items were removed: PBC4 loaded below the 0.50 threshold, DTR5 did not meet the loading criterion, and SN5 cross-loaded on multiple components. This left 35 retained items. The construct-specific loading ranges are reported in Table 3. Table 3 reports the construct-level measurement statistics. Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.838 (DTR) to 0.927 (PBC), all above the 0.70 benchmark (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Composite reliability ranged from 0.84 to 0.92 and AVE from 0.52 to 0.69, satisfying the criteria of Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Hair et al. (2019) for internal consistency and convergent validity.

Table 3. Factor loadings, reliability and convergent validity by construct.

Construct	Items retained	Loading range	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
DEI	8	.589–.801	.917	.90	.54
EEE	6	.618–.837	.902	.90	.60
ATDE	6	.538–.871	.880	.89	.52
PBC	5	.774–.861	.927	.92	.69
SN	5	.655–.775	.879	.85	.53
DTR	5	.518–.874	.838	.84	.53

Note: KMO = 0.924; Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(595) = 10{,}025.93$, $p < .001$. Principal component extraction with Varimax rotation. PBC4, DTR5 and SN5 were removed during purification. CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted. Source: survey data, 2026.

4.4. Regression Assumptions

Two cases were excluded through casewise diagnostics, leaving 412 cases for the regression. Skewness ranged from −0.561 to −0.236 and kurtosis from 0.098 to 1.143 (Table 4), within the descriptive screening thresholds of ±1 and ±2, respectively. These statistics describe the composite variables and do not establish normality of the regression residuals. Tolerance values ranged from 0.617 to 0.732 and VIF from 1.365 to 1.620, indicating no substantial multicollinearity under the selected criteria. The Durbin–Watson statistic was 2.058, close to 2; this statistic alone does not establish independence of observations recruited within classes.

Table 4. Skewness and kurtosis of the study variables (n = 412).

Variable	Skewness	SE (skewness)	Kurtosis	SE (kurtosis)
ATDE	−0.525	0.120	1.143	0.240
SN	−0.298	0.120	0.493	0.240
PBC	−0.236	0.120	0.098	0.240
EEE	−0.415	0.120	0.406	0.240
DTR	−0.407	0.120	0.383	0.240
DEI	−0.561	0.120	0.277	0.240

Note: Descriptive screening thresholds: skewness ±1 and kurtosis ±2. These statistics concern the composite variables.

4.5. Hypothesis Testing

The regression model is statistically significant, $F(5, 406) = 61.042$, $p < .001$, with $R = .655$, $R^2 = .429$, adjusted $R^2 = .422$ and SEE = 0.500. The five predictors jointly explain 42.9% of the variance in digital entrepreneurial intention. All five hypotheses are supported. Subjective norms had the largest standardized coefficient ($\beta = .264$, $t = 5.522$, $p < .001$), followed by perceived behavioral control ($\beta = .196$, $t = 4.464$, $p < .001$), entrepreneurial education exposure ($\beta = .169$, $t = 3.850$, $p < .001$), digital technology readiness ($\beta = .141$, $t = 3.136$, $p = .002$) and attitude toward digital entrepreneurship ($\beta = .138$, $t = 3.012$, $p = .003$). Thus, H1–H5 are supported, and the sixth objective is addressed by the observed coefficient ranking. This ranking is descriptive and does not establish that the coefficients differ significantly from one another.

Table 5. Multiple regression results for digital entrepreneurial intention (n = 412).

Predictor	B	SE B	β	t	p	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	0.419	0.198	—	2.113	.035	—	—
ATDE	0.154	0.051	.138	3.012	.003	.674	1.483
SN	0.273	0.049	.264	5.522	< .001	.617	1.620
PBC	0.184	0.041	.196	4.464	< .001	.732	1.365
EEE	0.160	0.042	.169	3.850	< .001	.729	1.371
DTR	0.147	0.047	.141	3.136	.002	.695	1.439

Note. Dependent variable: DEI. $R = .655$; $R^2 = .429$; adjusted $R^2 = .422$; SEE = 0.500; Durbin–Watson = 2.058; $F(5, 406) = 61.042$, $p < .001$.

5. Discussion

Subjective norms had the largest standardized association with digital entrepreneurial intention among the five predictors in this sample. This finding is consistent with the relevance of perceived social approval within TPB (Ajzen, 1991). Family, peer and role-model endorsement may therefore be useful areas for further investigation at NUOL. Cultural expectations and uncertainty surrounding digital entrepreneurship are possible contextual explanations, but neither mechanism was directly tested. Subjective norms also had one of the lowest construct means (M = 3.45), although this score remained within the study's high interpretation band. The combination suggests a potential area for support, rather than demonstrating the effects of an intervention.

Perceived behavioral control had the second-largest standardized coefficient. This is consistent with the importance of perceived feasibility in entrepreneurial-intention research (Krueger et al., 2000). Within PBC, confidence in developing skills had a mean of 3.56, whereas perceived access to resources had a mean of 3.38. These descriptive differences suggest that resource access deserves attention alongside skills development. They do not establish that resource provision would be more effective than skills training in increasing intention or actual venture creation.

Entrepreneurial education exposure was positively associated with intention, consistent with the relevance of education in Human Capital Theory and previous entrepreneurship-education research (Becker, 1964; Fayolle & Gailly, 2015; Dabbous & Boustani, 2023). Its mean (M = 3.45) was at the lower end of the high range, and exposure to successful entrepreneurs had the lowest item mean within the construct (M = 3.40). Universities could therefore consider evaluating opportunities for mentoring and contact with entrepreneurs. The study did not test whether role modelling or vicarious learning mediated the association between education exposure and intention.

Digital technology readiness was positively associated with intention and had the fourth-largest standardized coefficient, despite recording the highest construct mean (M = 3.88). A high mean does not establish that readiness was universal or that limited dispersion explains its coefficient size. Abaddi (2024) highlights a role for entrepreneurial alertness in the relationship between digital skills and intention, while Zhao et al. (2025) also examine alertness in a digital-economy setting. These studies suggest mechanisms for future research; they do not establish that the DTR construct measured here is a necessary condition for entrepreneurial intention.

Attitude toward digital entrepreneurship had the smallest standardized coefficient (β = .138) and the second-highest construct mean (M = 3.75). The difference between mean levels and regression coefficients indicates that favourable average evaluations need not correspond to the largest adjusted associations. However, the present results do not explain why the coefficient was smaller, nor do they identify a binding constraint on digital venture creation. The relative roles of attitudes, readiness, social endorsement and perceived control should be examined further in longitudinal and intervention studies.

The results support the relevance of TPB constructs to entrepreneurial intention in this NUOL sample. Education exposure and technology readiness were also significant when included alongside the TPB constructs, and the full model explained 42.9% of the variance in intention. Because a TPB-only model comparison was not reported, the incremental increase in explained variance attributable to the two additional predictors cannot be quantified here. The observed ranking provides a context-specific description of the associations and should be assessed in other samples before broader conclusions are drawn.

6. Conclusion

This study examined an integrated TPB–Human Capital–Technology Readiness model of digital entrepreneurial intention among undergraduates at the National University of Laos. The survey retained 414 valid responses, of which 412 were included in the final regression. All five predictors were positively and significantly associated with intention, and the model explained 42.9% of its variance. Subjective norms had the largest standardized coefficient, followed by perceived behavioral control, entrepreneurial education exposure, digital technology readiness and attitude. These findings describe associations within a non-probability sample and do not establish causality or national representativeness.

6.1. Practical and Policy Implications

For universities, the findings suggest potential value in evaluating support that combines social endorsement, educational exposure and access to resources. Peer venture clubs, alumni founder panels, family information sessions and structured mentoring could provide opportunities to strengthen perceived social support. Seed grants, campus incubation space, shared equipment and links to payment and logistics providers could address perceived resource barriers. Experiential learning through projects, competitions and contact with practising digital entrepreneurs could complement classroom teaching. The effectiveness and costs of these interventions should be evaluated rather than inferred from the coefficient ranking. For policymakers, the findings suggest that social support may merit consideration alongside finance and connectivity in initiatives for student digital entrepreneurship. Possible initiatives include public recognition of young founders and collaboration with universities on entrepreneurship learning and mentoring. The present study does not establish the comparative effectiveness of these policies or support generalization to all students in Lao PDR.

6.2. Limitations and Future Research

Four limitations bound the findings. The sample is drawn from a single institution and was recruited non-randomly, so it cannot be treated as representative of the NUOL student body, and generalisation to other Lao universities, technical colleges and provincial populations should be cautious. Faculty representation is uneven, with Economics and Business Management accounting for 53.6% of respondents, which may bias the sample toward business-aware students. The design is cross-sectional and self-reported, so causal direction cannot be established and common-method variance cannot be ruled out. Finally, the model specifies direct effects only, does not compare the extended specification with a TPB-only model, and does not test whether predictor coefficients differ significantly. The reported distributional statistics concern the composite variables; a complete assessment of regression residual assumptions is not documented here.

Future work should therefore employ probability-based sampling from institutional enrolment registers and extend coverage across institutions and regions; adopt longitudinal designs that track intention before and after entrepreneurship interventions; test mediating and moderating mechanisms — entrepreneurial alertness, self-efficacy, ICT self-efficacy and access to finance are strong candidates given recent evidence (Abaddi, 2024;

Zhao et al., 2025); and complement the survey with qualitative work on how family and peer endorsement is actually formed and expressed in the Lao context. Comparative studies across ASEAN economies at differing stages of digital maturity could test whether the observed coefficient ranking is replicated and whether measured cultural or ecosystem characteristics help explain differences.

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Writing – review & editing: Phokham Phommavong, Somchith Sompaseuth.

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Institutional Review Board Statement: The study was conducted in accordance with the institutional academic research guidelines of the Faculty of Economics and Business Management, National University of Laos. Under the applicable institutional procedures, formal ethics committee approval was not required for this anonymous, non-interventional survey, and no ethical approval code was therefore issued.

Informed Consent Statement: Informed consent was obtained from all respondents prior to participation. Participants were informed of the purpose of the study, the voluntary nature of participation, the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses, and their right to discontinue at any point without penalty. Electronic consent was recorded on the online questionnaire and written consent on the printed questionnaire before completion. All respondents, including the 16 participants aged below 18 years, were students formally enrolled at the National University of Laos and, under the applicable institutional research procedures, were competent to provide their own consent to participate in this anonymous, non-interventional survey; separate parental or guardian permission was therefore not required.

Data Availability Statement: The dataset generated and analyzed in this study is available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

Conflicts of Interest: The author(s) declares no conflicts of interest.

Generative AI Statement: The authors used generative AI to assist with language editing, manuscript revision and bibliographic checking. Responsibility for the research design, data, statistical analyses, interpretation and final content rests with the authors.

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