THE CHALLENGES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY AT A SELECTED GHANAIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION

by

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the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR:
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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

The objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students are components of entrepreneurship education, perceived as challenges for its implementation and growth. Consequently, most research and discussions have focused on measures to improve them even though little is known about how they constrain entrepreneurship education. Not much is also known about any positive attributes they might have.

This study sought to address this gap in literature by exploring the attributes of these educational components, and how they impacted on teaching and learning in a higher education institution in Ghana. Adopting the qualitative case study research approach, data was collected from two classroom sessions, 20 students, four teachers and a programme coordinator, using observation, focus groups and face to face interviews respectively.

The study found the educational components had positive and negative attributes that impacted favourably and adversely on teacher decisions and behaviour, and on teaching and learning. The findings points to the need for a more holistic examination of the educational components by researchers and practitioners, to also focus on their merits, to help fashion out more effective and sustainable policies and strategies for entrepreneurship education.

The study contribute to literature by shedding light on some merits of the educational components and how they enhance teaching and learning and support the aims of entrepreneurship education. Further research to replicate this study or aspects of it in other contexts and populations is recommended.

KEY TERMS DESCRIBING THE TOPIC OF THE THESIS

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TITLE OF THESIS:

The challenges of entrepreneurship education: a case study at a selected Ghanaian higher educational institution

KEY TERMS:

Entrepreneurship education;

Enterprise education;

Entrepreneurship education components;

Challenges of entrepreneurship education;

Objectives of entrepreneurship education;

Curriculum of entrepreneurship education;

Pedagogy of entrepreneurship education;

Entrepreneurship education teachers;

Entrepreneurship education students;

Entrepreneurial mind set;

Enterprise culture;

Entrepreneurial skills;

Entrepreneur;

Entrepreneurship.

ABBREVIATIONS

PC	Programme Coordinator
ET	Entrepreneurship teachers
ES	Entrepreneurship students
FG	Focus groups
USA	United States of America
UK	United Kingdom
CA	Continuous assessment
KFE	Kaufman Foundation for Entrepreneurship
EC	European Commission
WEF	World Entrepreneurship Forum
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resource Development
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
nACH	Need for achievement
WB	World Bank
MSB	Miesing, School of Business
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
QAA	Quality Assurance Agency
SFEDI	Small Firms Enterprise Development Initiative
ICT	Information Communication Technology

GWCEE	George Washington University Centre for Entrepreneurial Excellence
CF	Coleman Foundation
CAST	China Association for Science and Technology
CCYL	Chinese Communist Youth League
ACSF	All China Students Federation
CCBPC	Challenge Champion Business Plan Competition
CMoE	China Ministry of Education
KAB	Know about Business
KABEE	Know About Business Entrepreneurship Education’
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IT	Information Technology
SMEs	Small and medium scale enterprises
NUC	National Universities Commission
(NBTE)	National Board for Technical Education
PSU	Pennsylvania State University
Unisa	University of South Africa
FOE	Foundations of Entrepreneurship
FTES	Full time entrepreneur students
PTES	Part time entrepreneur students
CV	Curriculum Vitae

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship education, an educational intervention to nurture entrepreneurs and innovative individuals for business and other spheres of human endeavour, has gained momentum all over the world since its introduction at Harvard in 1947 (Kigotho, 2014; Braunerhjelm, 2014). This is evinced by the many entrepreneurship courses on offer in an increasing number of higher educational institutions across the globe, from North America, Europe, Asia, to Africa, as well as an increased research interest in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education's role in socio-economic development and on business startups (Kuratko, 2005; Isaacs et al., 2007; Liguori et al., 2018). In Africa, for instance, entrepreneurship education emerged on the higher education scene in countries such as Nigeria, Uganda, Kenya, Mozambique, and Ghana in the late 1990s (Kigotho, 2014; Eberhart, Eisenhardt & Eesley, 2014; Liguori et al., 2018). The study institution is one of the Ghanaian higher educational institutions that offers entrepreneurship education since its establishment.

The advancements in entrepreneurship education globally, are largely due to the perception that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs hold the solution for addressing the many global socio-economic ills and unprecedented unemployment levels. Proponents readily cite small businesses' contribution to the recent socio-economic successes in some developed and emerging economies (Bawuah, Buame & Hinson, 2006; Audretsch, 2014; Braunerhjelm, 2014; Liguori et al., 2018). The rapid qrowth in entrepreneurship education is also attributed to political support for entrepreneurship promotion initiatives by governments and the media (UNCTAD, 2013; Gatewood, Greene & Thulin, 2014; Kerr, Kerr & Xu, 2018; Biney, 2019; Raposo & Paco, 2011; Braunerhjelm, 2014). Similarly, the often-romanticized notion of the entrepreneur as the unique lone ranger who plays an extraordinary role of 'agent of change and innovation', and grower of business enterprises and wealth, has accelerated the evolution of entrepreneurship education (GEM, 2008; Raposo & Paco, 2011; Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2014; Braunerhjelm, 2014; Kuratko, 2017). This is summed up in the views of Schramm (2014) and Kander (2014), that entrepreneurs are the only people capable of 'nursing' national economies back to health. A feat, which according to them, is achieved by entrepreneurs first of all identifying business opportunities, and then transforming these opportunities into viable business entities that result in employment and wealth creation for themselves, their families and enterprises and ultimately their countries.

By far, a major impetus for entrepreneurship education has been the growing perception that entrepreneurial skills and competencies can be taught and learned in the classroom like any academic discipline (Drucker, 1985; Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2014; Braunerhjelm, 2014; Kuratko, 2017). This is coupled with students' growing desire for transferable skills to enhance workplace productivity and competitiveness (Wiklund et al., 2011, as cited in Audretsch, 2014). Higher education therefore became the obvious choice for introducing entrepreneurship education because of its mandate, and providing the context for nurturing independent, self-confident, and opportunity-seeking graduates with the growth mindsets for high performance and productivity wherever they find themselves (Sanchez, 2010, as cited in Raposo & Paco, 2011; Kauffman Foundation for Entrepreneurship, 2013). These same ideals of higher education reflect those of entrepreneurship education, namely, to develop critical thinkers, and innovative, problem solving graduates (Valerio, Parton & Robb, 2014).

Entrepreneurship education aims to generate awareness about entrepreneurship, foster entrepreneurship, and nurture entrepreneurial minds (Valerio, Parton & Robb, 2014; Onuma, 2016). It is delivered in stand-alone degree programmes or modules that are integrated across several disciplines (Kigotho, 2014). Entrepreneurship education is also characterized by ambiguous, diverse, and wide-ranging objectives, curriculum, and pedagogy, and heterogeneous teachers, and students (European Commission 2008; Carlsson et al., 2012; Schramm, 2014; Kander, 2014). These attributes of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students of entrepreneurship education are largely perceived as challenges or constraints that impact on its credibility as an academic discipline, its efficacy, effectiveness, and development (Kuratko, 2005; Solomon, 2007; Mueller, 2011; Neck, Greene & Brush, 2014). They have been the focus of many conferences, documents, and papers by notable entrepreneurship education advocates like Babson College, Kaufman Foundation for Entrepreneurship (KFE), and the World Entrepreneurship Forum

(WEF). They have likewise attracted several studies that have largely focused on entrepreneurship education's impact on students' entrepreneurial intentions and startups (Ronstadt, 1987; Robinson & Hayes, 1991; Gorman, Hanlon & King, 1997; Solomon, Duffy & Tarabishy, 2002; Dzisi, 2014).

Neck, Greene and Brush (2014) note that the peculiar nature of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students are direct consequences of the desire of providers to satisfy the diverse wishes and needs of stakeholders, coupled with the lack of unitary definitions of 'entrepreneurship, the entrepreneur, and entrepreneurship education' (Neck, Greene & Brush, 2014).

1.2 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

In spite of its emergence as an educational disciple over the past seventy years, the many disagreements on entrepreneurship education persist and have spilt over to the new entrants in Africa, including Ghana. These are whether entrepreneurial success can be taught or not (Arasti, 2012), the ambiguous conceptualizations of entrepreneurship, the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship education (Neck, Greene & Brush, 2014) as well as the lack of harmony on the entrepreneurship education components that have resulted in the broad and unclear objectives and curriculum (Ronstadt, 1987; Solomon, 2007; Kuratko, 2008; Mueller, 2011; Valerio, Parton & Robb, 2014), the varied instructional methodologies (Alberti et al., 2004; Schramm, 2014; Kander, 2014), and the heterogeneous teachers and students (EC, 2008; Kander, 2014).

The concerns raised about the negative attributes of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students are mainly driven by their potential adverse effect on the effectiveness and efficacy of entrepreneurship education. For this reason, they have been the focus of several studies, conferences, and papers (Joshin, 2014; Kuratko, 2003; Kuratko, 2003, Pittaway & Edwards, 2012; Carlson et al., 2012; Sexton & Bowman, 1984). The research studies, mostly quantitative in approach, have generally been descriptive and analytical, with a focus on identifying ways to improve upon them (Dzisi, 2014; Neck, Greene & Brush, 2014). However, to a large extent, they have failed to point out how the attributes of these components impact on the teaching and learning experience of teachers and students. They have also ignored any positive attributes the education components may have, such as Dzisi, (2014), whose main focus was on descriptions of the course curriculum and pedagogy, and Owusu-Ansah, (2004), who dwelt on the types and pedagogical preferences of students.

This research is therefore an attempt to address this knowledge gap and contribute to entrepreneurship education practice and policy in Ghana and elsewhere. It is a qualitative study at a higher educational institution in Ghana to identify the attributes of its entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students, and the concrete ways they impact on the teaching and learning process.

1.3 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The preceding discussion has presented the context of the problem: '*What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students, and how do they impact on teaching and learning at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution?*' This question was addressed using the literature-based hypothesis that, 'there are inherent challenges associated with the entrepreneurship education objectives, pedagogy, curriculum, teachers, and students, that impact on teaching and learning' was adopted for the study. The following sub - questions were used to address the main research question:

1. What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship education objectives at the study institution, and how do they impact on teaching and learning?
2. What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship education curriculum at the study institution, and how do they impact on teaching and learning?
3. What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship education pedagogy at the study institution, and how do they impact on teaching and learning?
4. What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship education teachers at the study institution, and how do they impact on teaching and learning?
5. What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship education students at the study institution, and how do they impact on teaching and learning?

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course objectives, pedagogy, curriculum, teachers, and students, and how they impacted on entrepreneurship education at the study institution. To achieve this aim, the research was guided by the following objectives:

1. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course objectives, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
2. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course curriculum, and how they impact on teaching and learning
3. .To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course pedagogy, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
4. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course teachers, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
5. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course students, and how they impact on teaching and learning.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.5.1 Introduction

Based on a review of literature on research methodologies, this study adopted several strategies and methods which were considered most appropriate for gathering data on the attributes of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students, and how they affect teaching and learning at the study institution.

1.5.2 Research approach, paradigm and underlying philosophies of the study

There are different research paradigms and philosophies, each of which has implications for research. The search for an appropriate research paradigm and approach for this study was influenced by the views of Holden and Lynch (2004) and Merriam (2001) that research is led by the researcher's philosophical stance and the nature of the phenomenon. For this reason, the interpretivist constructionist research paradigm was adopted on the basis of this researcher's philosophical stance that reality, is a construct of individuals' different experiences with phenomena, and is therefore plural. Another reason for the adopted research paradigm was due to its emphasis on how individuals experience and make sense of their world (Merriam, 2001; Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

On one hand, the naturalistic-interpretive-constructionist research paradigm, allowed for a direct engagement with the study participants that facilitated an understanding of their individual thoughts, perceptions and realities, and on the other, the commonalities they shared (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). The paradigm supported the production of a rich descriptive narrative of how the characteristics of the entrepreneurship programme objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students impacted on entrepreneurship education at the study institution from the research participants' perspectives, rather than from the researcher's personal or pre-determined views. It is believed that the findings from such research will provide a clearer understanding of the limitations and political, socio-economic, and cultural underpinnings of the challenges of entrepreneurship education.

Leading from the above discussion, the qualitative case study research approach was chosen for this study for a number of reasons. These were the fact that it was the most suitable for achieving the research objectives, of generating insightful information from the research participants' perceptions and experiences, and presenting them in a descriptive narrative (Creswell, 2008). Similarly, this approach's flexibility as a research process allowed for the study's use of data from multiple sources such as interviews, focus groups and observations for triangulation to enhance its reliability and trustworthiness (Merriam, 2002; Creswell, 2008). It likewise enabled the researcher to hear the research participants own stories since reality and social constructs were made by individuals in their interaction with their world (Trulsson, 1997; Kumekpor, 2000).

1.5.3 Research population and sample

This study sought to identify the nature and characteristics of the entrepreneurship course objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students and how they impacted on entrepreneurship education at the study institution. To achieve this aim, three categories of respondents were identified as having the relevant information. They were, the current and former entrepreneurship teachers; in-school students; and the entrepreneurship education programme coordinator of the study institution.

The study institution's entrepreneurship faculty was very small, and made up of a mix of about seven full tenured and adjunct lecturers drawn from both academia and practitioners. The teachers taught core and elective entrepreneurship courses at the undergraduate level. The purposive homogeneous sample method was used to select four (n=4) research participants from the past and present entrepreneurship teachers on the basis of their shared characteristics and experiences as teachers of entrepreneurship at the study institution.

The in-school students consisted of over 600 students enrolled in the study institution's undergraduate degree programme during the research who had read the 'Foundations of Entrepreneurship' (FOE) course as compulsory course. The course was structured in a way that ensured that by the end of the fourth year every undergrad would have read it. Since this study was an exploratory qualitative case study, which did not seek statistical representativeness but rather aimed at achieving theoretical generalizability, a number of purposive sampling methods were adopted for selecting the samples from the different populations (Patton, 2001; Creswell, 2008).

For instance, a sample of 20 participants (n=20) was selected from in-school students who had already read the 'Foundations of Entrepreneurship' course using the purposive homogeneous sampling method. This sampling method was chosen because being a qualitative research, the focus was not ensuring generalisations from the sample, nor proportional representation of the population. Rather, the aim of this research was to generate data from members of the population that shared the same and unique characteristics that were of interest to the researcher.

In addition to the homogeneous sampling method, the maximum variation sampling method was used to ensure that different sub-sets of the student population and the teachers were included. In the case of students, the researcher believed in having a sample that had entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs, workers and non-workers, and representative from different academic programmes since the literature emphasized the heterogeneity of entrepreneurship students. Likewise, teachers with different academic and career backgrounds were included in the sample of teachers, such as fulltime and part-time teachers, from academia or practice. Doing so made it possible to elicit data that would adequately answer the research question (Patton, 2002; Palinkas et al., 2013).

The purposive homogeneous sampling method was adopted to select two classes from the academic timetable at the time of the study for observation. One of the teachers who consented to the classroom observation also participated in the face to face interviews. None of the students in the observed classes had participated in the focus group discussions.

For this study, students of the institution's entrepreneurship education programme were considered relevant because of their unique role in the programme as learners and beneficiaries. Another reason for including them in the study was because having first-hand experience with course objectives, curriculum, pedagogy and teachers made them authentic candidates capable of describing the different ways the aforementioned variables had impacted on their experience of entrepreneurship education (Creswell, 2008). The only programme coordinator was similarly selected to participate in the research in view of the depth of institutional memory reposed in him regarding entrepreneurship education at the study institution. Entrepreneurship teachers were likewise, deemed relevant for this study because as facilitators of the educational programme, they were directly involved with the interpretation of the course objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, and teaching the students. Indeed, it can be argued that there would be no entrepreneurship education without the teachers who are the link between the entrepreneurship students and the entrepreneurship education providers and their programme.

1.5.4 Instrumentation and data collection methods

In view of the high premium placed on the collection of quality data through systematic scientific enquiry, this study was guided by strict adherence to the set of principles and procedures governing the use of the qualitative case study approach (Creswell, 2008). Additionally, since the study was about an on-going educational programme, a number of simultaneous data collection methods were used to generate a comprehensive, and descriptive information from within the research context (Merriam, 2001). These also served as methodological triangulation to reinforce and/or challenge the data during the gathering process. Ultimately, they enabled the researcher to ascertain the authenticity, honesty and depth of the responses, broaden the data base and explore emergent information during the study. They were as follows:

a. Audio and video recording/Note taking/still-picture taking

Audio, and video recordings for capturing data from face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions were used. Still photos were also taken during the focus group discussions to serve as reference points for recalling the layout and seating arrangements of the interview rooms, while the audio and video recordings were for soliciting for additional details, confirmations, or the clearing of doubts. The recordings also ensured the preservation of details and meanings from being inadvertently lost either through inaccurate interpretations of some cultural and linguistic nuances or poor note taking by hand. The audio and video recordings were complemented with the taking of hand notes to counter the possibility of technical defects or malfunctioning of electronic gadgets. To ensure their usefulness and effectiveness, trials and tutorials in the use of the electronic devises were conducted. The data produced by these methods were later transcribed and analysed for discussion.

b. Face-to-Face Interviews

This consisted of three sets of semi-structured face-to-face interviews. One was used for gathering data from in-school entrepreneurship students. The second was used to collect data from present and former entrepreneurship teachers, while the third was for gathering data from the study institution's programme coordinator of entrepreneurship education. The interviews were all conducted in English since all the respondents were highly educated and English was the official language of communication. They were facilitated by the researcher. The use of the face-to-face interview was informed by the fact that it was the most appropriate for eliciting the detailed and insightful data that was sought. It also facilitated the exploration and stimulation of latent ideas that were held by the research participants regarding how the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students impacted on the implementation of entrepreneurship education at the study institution (Kumekpor, 2002).

c. The Interview schedules/Observation Checklist

Three interview schedules were used to moderate the interviews, one for the students, the second for the teachers, while the third, was for the programme coordinator of the entrepreneurship education programme at the study institution. The interview schedules each consisted of two sections – a structured and an unstructured one. The structured section contained closed questions for eliciting specific demographic information on the respondents' educational and professional backgrounds. The unstructured section consisted of open-ended questions whose wording and order were varied for each of the data collection sessions. It was for collecting data on the respondents' perceptions of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students of the entrepreneurship education and how they had been affected by them.

The observation checklist was used to gather classroom data - the pedagogy, lesson topic, attendance, punctuality, student participation, and teacher management.

d. Documents and Artefacts

Primary data to enhance the quality of the study was gathered from relevant existing documents, such as reports, policy papers, course outlines, and textbooks that were identified during the study. Data was also sources from electronic documents, newspaper articles and magazines, pictures, and audio recordings (Merriam, 2002). These already existing documents were particularly useful for providing additional valuable insights on entrepreneurship education.

1.5.5 Data analysis and presentation

Since this was a qualitative study, data from all the data sources, it was analysed using a qualitative approach. Since this was a qualitative research, the data analysis was an interactive process conducted simultaneously with the data collection processes to ensure a good understanding and accurate interpretation of the issues raised by respondents, and also avoid the loss of data (Merriam, 2002; Creswell, 2014; Akinyode & Khan, 2018).

The data captured via audio, video and hand notes were first transcribed, then cross checked with respondents for clarifications and confirmations where in doubt and for any underlying implications (O'Connor & Gibson, 2003). The transcribed data was subsequently critically scrutinized, processed and categorized into themes and sub-themes. These were further examined for any underlying relationships and causalities after which the resulting data and findings were presented, interpreted and discussed.

1.5.6 The Researcher and research assistant

In a qualitative study, the researcher's role is of paramount importance. This is because the researcher is the 'primary instrument' for collecting and analysing all the data in the study (Merriam, 2002). For this reason, the researcher and the research assistant handled their work professionally. The researcher painstakingly addressed the needs and concerns of the research participants and avoided the manipulation and loss of data, by applying diligence during the collection, analysis and interpretation of the data. This was enhanced by the researcher's prior preparations for the study, such as, by upgrading their research skills and learning from experienced researchers. The research assistant was also given the appropriate training and guidance to execute his role of video recording the focus group discussion and classroom observation sessions.

1.6 DEFINITION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS

This study is about how the characteristics of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and student impact on teaching and learning of entrepreneurship. To ensure a common understanding of the key terms used, the following definitions are presented (Van Mil & Henman, 2016):

1. Entrepreneurship.
2. The entrepreneur.
3. Entrepreneurship education.
4. Entrepreneurship teachers and faculty.
5. Challenges of entrepreneurship education.
6. The audience of entrepreneurship education.
7. Higher educational institutions.
8. Educational components of entrepreneurship education

1.6.1 Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship has attained wide global appeal and found itself in common language and therefore ranked among the most difficult to define concepts (Audretsch, 2003; Alberti, Sciascia & Poli, 2004; World Entrepreneurship Forum, 2009; Reeves et al., 2014).

It is an economic process of change that combines entrepreneurial, economic and managerial functions for identifying, pursuing, planning and assembling resources, operating and managing business ventures for profit (Kuratko, 2017; Schumpeter, 1943; Sahlman & Stevenson as cited in Audretsch, 2003).

In this study therefore, entrepreneurship is used to refer to an entrepreneurial activity that involves operating or managing business ventures for profit.

1.6.2 The entrepreneur

To date there is no consensus on a unified definition of the entrepreneur who is the person who engages in entrepreneurship. He sees opportunities, converts them into viable businesses for profit while at the same time assuming the risks associated with business (Kuratko, 2017; Schumpeter, 1943; Abu-Saifan, 2012).

For this study the entrepreneur denotes a highly innovative and astute individual or business owner who recognizes opportunities and converts them into marketable enterprises by skilfully assembling and combining resources without being daunted by the associated financial risks.

1.6.3 Entrepreneurship education

The meaning of entrepreneurship education is also unclear, partly due to the different meanings assigned by different stakeholders on the educational and political landscape (EC, 2011; Valerio et al., 2014). For some it is the formal teaching of business knowledge and skills for business creation and self-esteem in students (Uzo – Okonkwo, 2013, as cited in Onuma, 2016; Fayolle, 2009, as cited in Arasti, 2012). Others are like the European Commission (2015) describe entrepreneurship education as any educational activity that seek to equip individuals for responsible, enterprising behaviour with the skills, knowledge and attitudes needed for goal driven and fulfilled (EC, 2015).

Entrepreneurship education is used interchangeably with entrepreneurship course to mean an educational programme that purports to impart a broad set of entrepreneurial competencies to facilitate the identification and exploitation of opportunities, and to enhance productivity in all spheres of work and human endeavour.

1.6.4 Entrepreneurship teachers

Entrepreneurship teachers, are the individuals who teach entrepreneurship courses or entrepreneurship education programmes. The term is used interchangeably with entrepreneurship lecturers, entrepreneurship educators, and entrepreneurship faculty in this study.

1.6.5 Characteristics of entrepreneurship education

These are characteristics associated with the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students such, as the lack of agreement on the curricula and pedagogies, or the heterogeneous nature of the teachers and students, or the diverse and ambiguous objectives.

1.6.6 Entrepreneurship students

The adopted definition of entrepreneurship students for this study is all students who have taken a formal academic course in entrepreneurship.

1.6.7 Higher educational institutions

Higher education is defined as a postsecondary or post- high school education provided by colleges, universities, professional schools and vocational and technical schools for students above 18 years old (Encyclopaedia Britannica; Onuma, 2016; Ghana Education Act, 2008).

For this study higher educational institutions is refer to as formal postsecondary educational centres such as polytechnics, universities and colleges that award degree, diploma and certificate qualifications. The term is used interchangeable with ‘institutions of higher learning’, ‘higher education’, universities, polytechnics and colleges.

1.6.8 Educational components of entrepreneurship education

In this study, educational components are five pillars of entrepreneurship education, namely, its objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students.

1.7 CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Following from the above, the theories and issues that underpin entrepreneurship education in higher educational institutions served as the conceptual and theoretical framework for this study. They include theories of entrepreneurship that have ignited the global interest in entrepreneurship for socio-economic development (Raposo & Paco, 2011; K.F.E., 2013; Audretsch, 2014). Also addressed are the concept and models of entrepreneurship education (Valerio, et al., 2014; Neck, et al., 2014). These are discussed in detail in chapters two and three.

1.8 ISSUES OF CREDIBILITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

According to Merriam (2001), the cardinal aim of research (qualitative or quantitative) is to produce valid and reliable knowledge (Merriam, 2001). Surprisingly, however, the validity, reliability and trustworthiness of qualitative research are often questioned (Easton, McComish & Greenberg, 2000). It is largely due to the perception that the very nature of data collection, data processing, and analysis procedures are very subjective (Easton et al., 2000). Yet, in spite of the strengths and uses of qualitative research, coupled with its rich and valuable data, its (Ibid). This has fuelled a lot of debate on how best to ensure trustworthiness. Some such as Easton et al. (2000), are of the view that the task for ensuring trustworthiness is a major responsibility of the researcher which according to Merriam (2001), can be addressed by the form and level of accounting for reliability made by the researcher in the conduct of the study. Some of these measures and strategies are minimizing potential errors in the collection and handling of data, conducting the study in an ethical manner, avoiding bias, allowing peer scrutiny of the processes, and providing an audit trail of the data collection, analysis and decision-making processes (Easton et al., 2000; Merriam, 2001).

To ensure confidence in the results of this study, therefore, all the measures mentioned in the foregoing were adopted when and wherever they were relevant in the course of the entire study. In case studies, serious errors in data collection which can subsequently jeopardize the credibility of the findings of the study are common and can be as a result of several factors. These are the inappropriate use of equipment, the malfunctioning of equipment, poor transcription, researcher bias as well as environmental conditions. For this reason, conscious efforts were made to address or minimize the incidence of any likely errors. For instance, to prevent the failure or malfunctioning of equipment, the researcher always remembered to thoroughly check, tune and test all equipment such as cameras, audio and video recorders before every data collection session. Additional backups and spares, like batteries, were readily on hand had they been needed in the event of electric power outage during an interview session- a very real challenge in Ghana.

A number of strategies were used to address the possible cases of poor transcription, as could occur in the misrepresentation of what is actually said by respondents through the inadvertent use or omission of punctuations, or the changing, omission and/or addition of words and phrases. The main strategy was maintaining this researcher as the sole interviewer and transcriber for the study. This facilitated close contact with the data and had the added advantage of enhancing understanding and fostering familiarity with concepts, expressions and words. The potential for bias where one is tempted to see or hear what they want to instead of what is in reality was a very real threat in view of the researcher's background as an entrepreneurship teacher. However, this was addressed by meticulous and repeated checking of recordings and transcripts by the researcher and the assistance of other researchers. This strategy was successful in view of the smallness of the sampled population.

To reduce the incidence of extraneous noises on audio recordings such as beeping and ringing of mobile phones, the humming and honking sound of moving vehicles and people talking, private offices and reserved rooms were used for the interviews. This strategy also prevented interruptions or even fatal breaks by family, colleagues, staff, or clients during the interviews. In addition to this the interview sessions were planned well in advance to ensure adequate time for preparation by all parties involved.

For establishing internal credibility and avoiding researcher bias, attempts were made to ensure that the findings reflected only the data gathered from the interviews and therefore congruent with the actual reality. They included the use of triangulation and multiple data collection sources and procedures to help clarify and confirm themes and concepts as they emerged in the course of the study. A second strategy was the use of member checks such as proposed by Merriam (2001). This was achieved by cross checking the veracity of data with the people from whom they were derived - in this instance, the research participants. The credibility of the study was further enhanced by the repeated examination of the research phenomenon. Additionally, the themes, concepts and the research stages were subjected to peer examination by colleagues and faculty for their scrutiny and comments. Finally, the entire study was guided by the researcher's philosophy, worldview, and theoretical orientation (Merriam 2001).

The fact that human behaviour is always in a state of flux threatens the reliability and accountability in a study such as this one. To circumvent incidences of conflicting data arising from the researcher's bid to explain the different realities from the experiences of the researched, and also ensure credibility and trustworthiness of the study, different data sources were adopted. Examples were eliciting detailed data on the participants' profiles and social contexts, the careful selection of participants, and conducting a thorough scrutiny of the assumptions and theories underpinning the study (Merriam, 2001). A final strategy was that of an audit trail or detailed account of the data collection and analysis processes and how decisions concerning all the different aspects and stages of the research were made (ibid).

The quality of the research was enhanced by the researcher's efforts in upgrading her research skills and inculcating the attitudes of tenacity, patience, objectivity and collaboration throughout the study (Easton et al., 2000). Finally, the study was conducted in an ethical manner by first of all ensuring transparency and avoiding bias in the collection and reporting of data (Merriam, 2001) as well as by providing adequate data that supported the researcher's conclusions, since the qualitative study basically describes the people acting within specific contexts (Firestone, 1987, as cited in Merriam, 2001).

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Every research is confronted with ethical issues largely because it entails actions and decisions by the researcher regarding research units within specific social contexts and relationships. This is even more daunting in the case of qualitative research which relies on the direct personal involvement of the researcher, and close interactions between researchers and participants in all stages of the data collection and analysis processes (Sanjari et al., 2014). In a case study research, ethics is cited as a major problem in view of the high possibility of potential bias and its inherently political nature (Merriam 2001). This view is expressed very succinctly by MacDonald & Walker (1997), to the effect that at all levels…

> *what people think they're doing, what they say they are doing, what they appear to others to be doing, and what in fact they are doing, may be sources of considerable discrepancy.* (Therefore) *any research which threatens to reveal these discrepancies threaten to create dissonance, both personal and political* (MacDonald & Walker 1997, as cited in Merriam 2001, p. 43).

Since this was a qualitative case study of the limitations of the educational components of entrepreneurship education, it had to confront several ethical issues. Some had to do with privacy and anonymity, consent, intrusiveness, power and exploitation, conflict of interest, and misstating, misrepresenting, and over-interpreting data (Richards & Schwartz, 2002). In Richards and Schwartz's (2002) view, all qualitative data have many clues that can potentially point to participants' identities.

The ethical issue of power and exploitation was taken seriously because the researcher was a faculty member using her colleague teachers, superiors and students as subjects (Richards & Schwartz, 2002). It was guided by Ansah's (2015), revelation that power and exploitation is quite visible in the extremely hierarchical power structure between faculty and students on one hand, and between senior and junior faculty on the other in Ghana. This according to Ansah (2015), was due to its highly authoritarian and associated high power distance index, a characteristic of developing countries as compared to less authoritarian and socio-economically advanced societies which have very low power distance indices. Hofsede (2001), defines the power distance dimension of culture as the extent to which less powerful members of a community accept the existing unequal power distribution.

Another pertinent ethical issue that had to be grappled with was the researcher’s epistemological orientation, and professional background, and world view (Richards & Schwartz, 2002). Being an entrepreneurship education faculty member of the study institution presented a conflict of interest situation that had to be managed. This also meant she had to determine how manage information provided by research participants which may have been inaccurate or exaggerated. Other ethical issues considered by the researcher were those that could be created by poor recording, improper handling, and inaccurate interpreting of data, poor handling and use of official documents, audio-visual aids, and observations of research participants.

This researcher subscribes to the view that awareness is a powerful tool in avoiding or addressing ethical challenges. After documenting all these possible ethical challenges, the she adopted measures to address them. They included securing ethical clearance from the University of South Africa (Unisa) and permission for conducting the research from the study institution. Additionally, and in conformity with Unisa’s guidelines on ethics, she also designed an ‘ethical guide’ with guidelines and strategies to guide her actions and behaviour and those of the research participants in this study (Sanjari, et al., 2014; Appendix K). An example was the high ethical behaviour and standards that were demanded of all participants in the research (including the researcher) by the study’s research design.

Similarly, the research was guided by advice from her supervisor, faculty members of the study institution and other researchers. To address the possible infringement on privacy and anonymity of the study institution and the research participants, the research report for instance, avoided the inclusion of unique and identifying information like the name of the study institution, iconic photos and traceable verbatim quotes. Likewise issues of intrusiveness were dealt with by all parties getting the opportunity to agree on the dates, time, duration and venues for the interviews and focus group discussions in conjunction with pre-agreed privacy terms. Again, the design and conduct of the research were based on a full awareness of the researcher's biases, her philosophical considerations, and her peculiar personal and professional characteristics.

Finally, it is a fact that the threat of potential ethical infringements is always present before, during and even long after the research has been conducted. In view of this, the researcher strictly observed all the ethical guidelines and also learnt best practices from the experiences of other qualitative researchers. The researcher also maintained an audit trait for the study. Above all they remained true to their own moral compass and philosophical orientation.

1.10 CONTRIBUTION TO THE FIELD OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

The aims of research, qualitative or quantitative are numerous, but can be summed up as contributing to knowledge and literature, enhancing practice and influencing policy (Creswell, 2014; Merriam, 2001). For instance, with a focus on gathering insights and understanding phenomena from the perspective of the researched, qualitative research, contributes significantly to theory and practice of education by identifying and explaining issues or problems concerning them (Merriam, 2002). Similarly, they also contribute to policy formulation and implementation by providing valuable and insightful information to governments and institutions (Merriam, 2001).

It is the belief of this researcher that this research study has achieved all the three aims of research, namely:

a. Contributing to knowledge

b. Enhancing practice

c. Enriching policy debates and formulation

1.10.1 Contributing to knowledge

Literature on entrepreneurship education and the challenges associated with it abound but are mostly focused on North America and Europe (Kuratko, 2013; EC 2008; Wilson, 2008; KFE, 2013; Weiming, Chunyan & Xiaohua, 2016). In recent years, a number of studies have been conducted on entrepreneurship education in Ghana (Boateng, 2018; Gyan et al., 2015; Dzisi, 2014; Mordedzi, 2015). These studies have largely focused on analysis of the curriculum and instructional methodologies and their impact on graduate students' entrepreneurial intentions and outcomes. This study adds to this literature by contributing additional insights on the limitations associated with the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students, and how they impact on teaching and learning. It also contributes a Ghanaian perspective on these components of entrepreneurship education to the entrepreneurship education literature in general.

1.10.2 Enhancing practice

The insights provided by this study on the characteristics of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students, and how they impact on teaching and learning at the study institution will enhance practice in many ways. For instance, it will assist the study institution and others to develop frameworks to identify and assess these characteristics and challenges, and subsequently, to introduce strategies and measures to address them, such as setting clear and achievable objectives, designing relevant and standardized curricula and pedagogies, and designing programmes to address teachers' training needs, and students' practice.

1.10.3 Enriching policy debates and formulation

The challenges of entrepreneurship education have attracted many unresolved debates with the resultant myriad policies and models for addressing them. The findings from this study contribute to these debates and policy initiatives by highlighting pertinent issues raised by the characteristics of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and student (some of which are beneficial), and the different ways they affect teaching and learning, and the quality of entrepreneurship education.

1.11 THESIS CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter one provides the introduction and background to the study, namely, the statement of the problem, the research questions and research aims and objectives. Also included is a brief discussion on research philosophies, paradigms and approaches, and a description of the research methodology - population, sampling, data collection techniques and instruments, and data analysis processes. Issues of credibility, trustworthiness and ethics are discussed. The chapter concludes with an outline of the chapters of the thesis, and the definitions of key concepts.

Chapter two situates the study in the appropriate context and conceptual framework by discussing the theories on entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur because they are fundamental to any study on entrepreneurship education and its challenges.

Chapter three focuses on the theory of entrepreneurship education and its relevance in higher education. Also featured are the challenges of entrepreneurship education and the global trends in the practice of entrepreneurship education.

A discussion of the research philosophy, research paradigm, and methodological approach adopted for this study are presented in Chapter four. Also discussed is a detailed description of all the steps, processes and decisions made during the entire study for ensuring confidence in the results of the study. These are the selection of the study site, population, sampling, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis processes and how issues of credibility, trustworthiness and ethics were addressed.

In chapter five, a detailed analysis of the data gathered from the study is presented. Chapter six is the final chapter. It provides a summary of the study, and addresses its limitations, and contribution to the entrepreneurship education literature, practice and policy. The chapter concludes with recommendations for research on the limitations of entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students, and how the difficulties they present to teaching and learning can be addressed.

1.12 CONCLUSION

Entrepreneurship education is a growing phenomenon in higher education with the aim of creating awareness in entrepreneurship as a viable and alternate employment avenue, and also growing entrepreneurs. As a result of the many divergent interests of stakeholders, and the lack of consensus on definitions and conceptual issues, the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students of entrepreneurship education are many and lack uniformity. In literature, these have been cited being as problematic. However there is a virtual absence of research and literature on the specific challenges associated with the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students of entrepreneurship education, and whether they impact on teaching and learning. This study was an attempt to address this gap in literature by investigating the attributes of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students of entrepreneurship education and whether they impact on teaching and learning at a Ghanaian higher education institution.

To this end, this chapter has provided an overview and background to this study by presenting the research problem and questions, aims and objectives, as well as the study's underlying research philosophies and paradigms that informed the choice of the qualitative case study research approach and methodology. The credibility, trustworthiness and ethical issues encountered and addressed in the study have also been reviewed.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTS AND MODELS OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND THE ENTREPRENEUR

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to situate the study in the appropriate context and conceptual framework. First addressed is the great interest in 'entrepreneurship' and the 'entrepreneur' that cuts across academic disciplines, education, political ideologies, and socio-economic and cultural boundaries. The second focus is the resulting myriads of diverse definitions of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur, while the third is how they all impact on the practice and implementation of entrepreneurship education.

The discussion is in two parts, beginning with a look at the different definitions of entrepreneurship over the ages, its touted role in socio-economic development, and the emergence of entrepreneurship research. The second part focuses on the concept of the 'entrepreneur', the main actor in entrepreneurship and his role in entrepreneurial function and success. The choice of these topics is informed by their role in fanning the interest in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education. It is the researcher's conviction that these topics have influenced the diversity, multiplicity and the lack of consensus in the objectives, course content, instructional methods, teachers, and students, and entrepreneurship education practice. They also affect the work and effectiveness of programme coordinators and teachers, and learning for students. For these reasons, the research questions were framed by the literature on entrepreneurship, the entrepreneur in this chapter.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

2.2.1 Introduction

The last few decades have been characterised by tremendous growth in entrepreneurial activities globally and a shift from 'necessity' entrepreneurship (business for livelihood) to 'opportunity' entrepreneurship (business driven by opportunity identification and innovation) (GEM, 2018). This is attributed to the growing popularity of entrepreneurship and self-employment as important career options, the high recognition being enjoyed by entrepreneurs (GEM, 2018; Bögenhold, 2019), entrepreneurship's perceived catalytic role in socio-economic development (Acs et al., 2018), the technological and digital revolutions of the 21st century, and the race for sustainable solutions to address poverty and unemployment by governments, institutions and agencies.

2.2.2 Defining and conceptualizing entrepreneurship through the ages

A fundamental characteristic of the definition of entrepreneurship is its veiled reference to the entrepreneur. Indeed, dating back to the 12th century, entrepreneurship was a commonly used parlance for risky military adventurism engaged in by some valiant individuals (Carlsson et al., 2012). The concept takes its origin from the French word ‘entreprendre’ meaning ‘to undertake’, to attempt, or adventure (Gyamfi, 2013). Entrepreneurship, as a concept, however, appeared in classical economic theory in the 17th century. Since then, its definition has been characterized by ambiguities and the lack of agreed or precise definitions, thus placing it among the ranks of difficult to define concepts (Alberti, et al., 2004; WEF, 2009; Abu-Saifan, 2012; Di-Masi, 2015; Szaban & Skrzek-Lubasińska, 2018; Bögenhold, 2019). The lack of a unitary definition of entrepreneurship, can be likened to the search for the elusive fabled phantom animal, the heffa-lump, depicted in A. A. Milne’s ‘Winnie the Pooh’ stories. According to Kilby (1971), rather than accept defeat some hunters tried to persuade people to accept their imaginary descriptions of the Heffa-lump as reality (Kilby, 1971, as cited in Di-Masi, 2015).

Several reasons have accounted for the lack of a precise definition of entrepreneurship. They include its convoluted evolution over the last 300 years, evidenced by the shifting interest of scholars from one continent to the other, and from one discipline to the other. Another is the heterogeneous nature of entrepreneurial activity, ranging from billion-dollar enterprises to very small and precariously low-income businesses (Kerr et al., 2017; Bögenhold, 2019). It is likewise due to the different connotations assigned to entrepreneurship by different academic disciplines such as economics, psychology, business strategy and management (Szaban & Skrzek-Lubasińska, 2018) and even from one country to another.

Richard Cantillon was the first to ascribe an economic role to entrepreneurship in classical economic thought, in his 1755 ‘Essai Sur la Nature du Commerce en

General. In this essay, he conceptualized entrepreneurship as an activity involving the buying of goods at a certain price and selling them at an uncertain but higher price. Buadeau (1767) and Jean-Baptiste Say (1810) followed by extending the concept's meaning to encompass all types of self-employment, including begging and armed robbery (Szaban & Skrzek-Lubasińska, 2018). In the preceding years after Cantillon, the entrepreneurial role in economic activity and growth was however played down in classical economic theory until the beginning of the 20th century (Carlsson et al., 2012). Since then, the term entrepreneurship has been cumulatively developed into a concept through the contributions of economic theorists, behavioural scientists, sociologists, and others over the years.

In another vein, by the end of the 19th century, interest in the concept's development had shifted from Europe to America which was then emerging as a major industrial power (Carlsson et al., 2012). A leading contributor to this development was Frank Night, a prominent American economist, who postulated that the entrepreneur's ability to handle existing uncertainty and risk in any given society is what set them apart from other operators in the market (Knight, 1921, as cited in Cornelius et al., 2006; Szaban & Skrzek-Lubasińska, 2018). This transition to America was however short lived with Europe once again leading the academic discourse on entrepreneurship in the early 20th century.

Europe's renewed interest in entrepreneurship this time around was characterized by a shift in focus from entrepreneurship's mere economic role to its far-reaching impact on socio-economic development. This was begun by Joseph Schumpeter's (1912) seminal work on the 'Theory of Economic Development'. In this work, his emphasis was on change and innovation, and the removal of the existing status quo to the creation of disequilibrium in the market, by introducing new consumption patterns, markets and products leading (Carlsson et al., 2012; Valerio et al., 2014). This contrasts with the position of Cantillon and other earlier theorists who conceptualized entrepreneurship as a process that created equilibrium in the economy.

A further impetus to the development of the entrepreneurship concept was provided by the behavioural science studies on the connection between personality traits and entrepreneurial behaviour by (Gartner, 1988, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012).

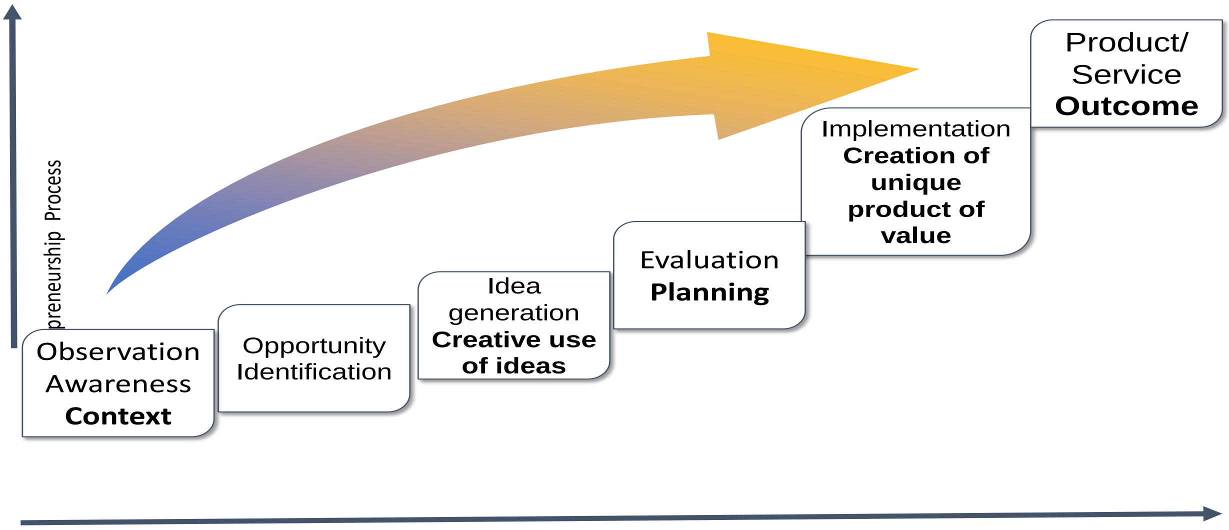
Notable among these studies was David McClelland's interest in human motivation and his first seminal work in 1961, 'The Achieving Society'. This work was an attempt to identify the causes for the varying levels of dynamism within societies of the world based on the premise that a 'need for achievement' (nACH) was critical for a country's socio-economic development. His findings suggested a positive correlation between nACH and economic development.

By far the late 20th century saw major contributions to the concepts' development, such as Schumpeter's (1943) theory of creative destruction. This was later added to by the introduction of the element of opportunity identification as the precursor to the creation of goods and services (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Carlsson et al., 2012). The Harvard Business School developed this new angle further by asserting that the pursuit of opportunity was undaunted by resource constraints (Eisenmann, 2013). A parallel string to this tapestry of definitions had earlier on been developed by Timmons (1989), by describing entrepreneurship as a process of creating and building something from almost nothing through the discernment of opportunities in the midst of seeming chaos (Timmons, 1989, as cited in Bawuah et al., 2006). This was expanded to portray entrepreneurship as a process made possible through the investment of factors of production, time, effort and risks for social and personal gain (Hisrich & Peters, 2010). Here one notices a revisiting of the element of value addition to property, assets and capital through the application of time, effort and risks for monetary and personal gain earlier on introduced by Cantillon (1755) (Hisrich & Peters, 2002; Drucker, 1985).

Furthering the process angle in the definition, Carlsson et al. (2012), postulated that the entrepreneurial process had several distinct phases including identifying and evaluating opportunity, writing business plans, managing the enterprise, and producing goods and services for the market (see Figure 1). One must point out however, that even though distinct these phases were not necessarily sequential (Carlsson et al., 2012). Others conceive of entrepreneurship as a process consisting of thirteen activities some of which overlap, beginning with the development of business ideas, business plans and business models, the formation of start-up teams, leasing facilities, sourcing of raw materials, account opening, marketing, sales, investing and saving revenue (Liao & Welsch, 2002, as cited in Pokharel, 2018).

Another addition to the search for a definition was by Stevenson et al. (1985). They argued that the entrepreneurship process was more exploratory than exploitative since it entailed the pursuit of opportunity irrespective of the resources controlled by the individual (Stevenson et al., 1985, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012). Thus, according to Ronstadt (1987), and Acs and Audretsch (2003), entrepreneurship was the skilful management of risks and resources for incremental wealth creation. (Ronstadt, 1987; Acs & Audretsch, 2003, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012).

Figure 1: The entrepreneurial process



Entrepreneurial Process timeline
(Adapted from Hisrich & Peters, 2010 p.7).

The managerial competencies dimension was again another addition to the concepts' definition in the 20th century. This appears to be the case in the European Commission's (2006), definition of entrepreneurship in terms of the business management functions of turning ideas into actual business projects of seizing opportunities, exercising creativity, innovation and risk-taking as well as planning and management (EC, 2006, as cited in EC, 2015, P. 7). Again, entrepreneurship' has now become a very broad term that is used interchangeably with venture capital, business startups, small businesses or corporate business (Eisenmann, 2013).

The definitions of entrepreneurship presented so far highlight some basic elements of entrepreneurship. Firstly, entrepreneurship has currently no unified description because of the heterogeneity of entrepreneurial activity, cultural differences, the varying sizes of entrepreneurship ventures and operations, and the impact of other disciplines (Pokharel, 2018). Secondly, it is an economic and creative process that results in the creation of products or services that are of value to both the consumer and the business owner respectively. Thirdly, entrepreneurship requires the devotion of significant amounts of time and effort for the creation of new products for the market. Another insight is the rewards that accrue from it to the entrepreneur such as independence, self-satisfaction and financial gains. Entrepreneurship is likewise associated with risks and uncertainties of investments and dynamisms in the market (Schumpeter, 1943). Finally, entrepreneurship is defined differently from one country to another such as USA's conceptualization viewing it as growth-oriented business venturing, while in Europe, Africa and Asia entrepreneurship is associated with small and medium sized enterprises.

Based on the discussion so far, this study sums up the definition of entrepreneurship as an dynamic economic process that combines the entrepreneurial actions of opportunity identification and pursuit, and the managerial functions of gathering relevant resources, operating and managing the created venture with the associated time and financial risks for social value and financial gain.

2.2.3 Entrepreneurship: Catalyst for socio-economic development

One of the reasons for entrepreneurship education's growing popularity is the perceived catalytic effect of entrepreneurship on socio-economic development based on research findings and essays (Ellis, 2011; Acs et al., 2018; Kerr et al., 2017; Ghandhi & Rainer, 2018). Some of these findings suggest that entrepreneurship contributes to economic growth by fostering competition, innovation, job and wealth creation, and the wellbeing of the citizenry (Birch, 1979; Raposo & Paco, 2011; Abu-Saifan, 2012; OECD Entrepreneurship and Business Statistics, 2015; Remund, Peris-Ortiz & Gehrke, 2017). Likewise, that it ensures stable income and profits for vulnerable groups in societies, and leads to technological change that revitalizes cities, regions, and entire economies (Audretsch, 2015, as cited in Bögenhold, 2019). A study by Birch (1979), titled 'The Job Generation Process', for instance, concluded that small firms generated most job opportunities in the United States (Birch, 1979, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012). Some of these publications even attribute the level of a country's socio-economic development to the incidence and quality of its entrepreneurial behaviour and activities (Pokharel, 2018). This notion is however contested by Acs et al. (2018) on the grounds that the low economic growth levels of less developed countries was not caused by low levels of entrepreneurial activity, but was rather due to the lack of educated high growth oriented entrepreneurs - the ones with the competencies and skills for high growth sustainable entrepreneurship.

Many have also questioned the attribution of economic growth to entrepreneurship (Valerio et al., 2014). They argue that the link between entrepreneurship and economic transformation is not as simplistic as it is often made out to be but is also influenced by many other external socio-economic factors (Ibid). To illustrate their point, they cite the unsustainability of employment net gains within the micro and small-scale sectors owing to the high failure rates of small businesses (World Bank, 2012, as cited in Valerio et al., 2014; Statistic Brain, 2015). Another argument is that entrepreneurship's role in fostering innovation and competition is more evident in the larger enterprises than in small firms because large firms are usually better resourced and therefore able to devote resources for research and business growth strategies (WB, 2012, as cited in Valerio et al., 2014).

Bögenhold (2019) also draws attention to the dual reality of entrepreneurship, the fact that it offers prosperity to some while at the same time pushing many more onto the fringes of poverty and precariousness. This viewpoint is however countered by Grimm, Knorringa, and Lay (2012) and Levine and Rubinstein (2013) on the grounds that even though it is true to some extent that most enterprises offer few jobs, the sheer numbers of entrepreneurial firms make them a significant contributor of employment and income especially in the developing world (Grimmet al., 2012, as cited in Valerio et al., 2014). Thus, the debate regarding linkages between entrepreneurship and socio-economic development remains inconclusive.

2.2.4 The influencing role of factors on entrepreneurship development

The cacophony of praise for entrepreneurship's impact on socio-economic development appears to suggest that entrepreneurship just happens and is not subject to influencing factors or ecosystems. This leads us to the crux of entrepreneurship education – that as an intervention, it will result in the development of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship in every context. Research however points to the contrary, and according to Bögenhold (2019), entrepreneurship manifests in different ways and levels of intensity in different parts of the world - from continent to continent, country to country, and even from city to city within the same country for several reasons.

An obvious explanation for the variations in entrepreneurship is the different influences at play. Some of the identified factors include differences in socio-cultural, economic, religious, political and historical environments, variations in state policies, controls and laws, the socio-cultural institutions and regulations, immigration, and leadership (Buame, 1999; Raposo & Paco, 2011; Rotimi, Oppong & Oduro, 2017). According to Agwu and Onwuegbuzie (2018), socio-cultural factors like taboos, customs, tastes and consumption preferences, and demographic indices like population size and growth rate, life expectancy, employment patterns, and spatial dispersal strongly influence entrepreneurship. Furthermore, ecological, geographical, and natural resources, and technological advancements, infrastructure, opportunities and high unemployment also contribute to the development of entrepreneurship (Murnieks et al., 2016; Agwu & Onwuegbuzie, 2018; Bögenhold, 2019). A classic example is the role of population size in entrepreneurial output and wealth creation due to the fact that high populations imply large markets, high consumption patterns for goods and services and ultimately higher sales and profitability and vice versa (Agwu & Onwuegbuzie, 2018).

Individual psychological, social and demographic characteristics and backgrounds, orientation, competence, and motivation have also been identified by Freeman (1986) and Fry (1993). Max Weber (1985) even postulated that entrepreneurship was the result of the right combinations of factors such as an adventurous spirit, the Protestant ethic and the spirit of capitalism (Weber, 1985, as cited in Szaban & Skrzek-Lubasinska, 2018).

A closer look at these factors enumerated above indicate that they exert varying influences on entrepreneurship development in different jurisdictions by either serving as springboards or barriers (Johannison, 1988, as cited in Trulsson, 1997; Agwu & Onwuegbuzie, 2018). For instance, Irastorza and Peña-Legazkue (2018), argue that immigrants are more entrepreneurially inclined than the native-born citizens even though businesses founded by them are more likely to fail. This is due to liabilities associated with running an enterprise in a foreign environment as a result of the disadvantages they encounter while competing for jobs with native-born citizens. It has also been observed that children of under privileged migrants tend to be entrepreneurial as compared to their counterparts from more affluent segments of the population. Similarly, literature describes first-born or older siblings especially of poor homes as more entrepreneurial compared to younger siblings (Nguyen, 2018). This is due to the fact that they learn at an early age, to assume the responsibility roles of caregiving and managing the home in the absence of parents or guardians and be self-reliant (Ibid).

2.2.5 Summary

The discussion on entrepreneurship with regards to its definitions and conceptualization yields several insights. First is the challenges of defining entrepreneurship. Second is the fact that entrepreneurship is not homogeneous (Bögenhold, 2019). Thirdly, that sustainable entrepreneurship is more than a simple economic process of assembling and using factors of production to produce goods and services but now includes present age digital and virtual ventures (Ronstadt, 1987; Hofer & Bygrave, 1992; KFE 2013; Bögenhold, 2019). Indeed, entrepreneurship has evolved from Say's simple economic activity of buying goods at cheaper prices and selling them at higher prices to today's dynamic process led by vision, recognition, and exploitation of opportunity, and by assuming business risks (Kuratko, 2004; Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2014).

A fourth insight is that the concept of entrepreneurship has over the past 300 years evolved from the study of entrepreneurship as a mere phenomenon in economic theory to many other academic disciplines like strategic management, social-psychology and organizational theory. Again, its theoretical development was predated by its use in common language to refer to adventurism in the 12th century (Carlsson et al., 2012).

Likewise, entrepreneurship is perceived by many as a catalyst for socio-economic development by promoting employment, facilitating wealth creation, distribution, and growth in living standards. On another plane, it is also characterized by the potential risk of precariousness and poverty due to constraints such as high risk levels, low income, few social benefits, long working hours and lack of employment tenure encountered by practitioners especially at the startup stages (Bögenhold, 2019; Szaban et al., 2018).

As an academic discipline entrepreneurship also has theoretical challenges making it a hotchpotch of activities ranging from self-employment and micro enterprises with very little innovative behaviour and prospect of growth, to complex and highly disruptive and regulated industries (Acs et al., 2018; Bögenhold, 2019). There is the need therefore for more concerted effort to achieve a unified way of conceptualizing entrepreneurship to embrace its heterogeneity and many differences (Bögenhold, 2019).

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF AN ENTREPRENEUR

2.3.1 Introduction

The concept 'entrepreneur' is discussed in this section because the entrepreneur is the personification of entrepreneurship which cannot exist without him (Pokharel, 2018). It is also due to the romanticized notions held about him and the glowing descriptions of his exploits. An understanding of the entrepreneur's nature and the relationship between him and the business he creates is crucial for entrepreneurship education, so it is with an awareness of the inconclusive definition of the entrepreneur. Consequently, the focus of this discussion is on the characteristics of the entrepreneur, how he operates, how he influences the entrepreneurial process and socio-economic development and how theories of the entrepreneur evolved over the ages.

2.3.2 Defining an entrepreneur

Since its introduction into economic theory, there is still no clear and concise definition of the entrepreneur (Kerr et al, 2017; Larso, Raafaldini, & Simatupang, 2018). This can be partly attributed to the continuously changing connotations of the entrepreneur by different theorists. For instance, between the 19th century and the 20th century, the conceptualization of the entrepreneur evolved from one who merely transformed cheap economic resources into high value goods, to a highly dedicated, skilled, innovative and risk bearing individual (McClelland, 1961; Drucker, 1985; Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2014). In recent times, the entrepreneur is credited with so many additional skills, attributes and behaviour patterns. He is now variously described as an organizer and initiative taker (Shapero, 1975) and a person who recognizes and acts on market opportunities (Kirzner, 1978). The entrepreneur is also perceived as a holistic, persistent and committed leader (Timmons & Spinelli, 2008 as cited in Abu-Saifan, 2012), a strategic thinker (Carland et al., 1984), and change agent and value creator (Kao & Stevenson, 1985). Similarly, he possesses deep understanding of entrepreneurship, such as an alertness to changing price patterns, new technological possibilities, market dynamics, and how to compete in the market place (Kirzner, 2008, as cited in Szaban et al., 2018).

The above descriptions paint a picture of the entrepreneur as an exceptional and highly intelligent person with the unique skills to identify, evaluate and pursue opportunities, surmount obstacles and successfully introduces good to consumers in the market (Acs et al., 2018). He is also adept at making decisions, assembling and ensuring the efficient use of resources, and identifying ways to innovate, irrespective of technology, challenges or risks (Acs et al., 2018; Hébert & Link, 1989, as in Carlsson et al., 2012; Seymour, 2008, as cited in Larso et al., 2018).

Technically, entrepreneurs are self-employed individuals, even though not all the self-employed are entrepreneurs (Garavan & O'Cinneide, 1994). In the past entrepreneurs were mainly male daredevils with insatiable quests for wealth and fame. Currently, however, the term 'entrepreneur' has become a wide umbrella for an amorphous heterogeneous group engaged in an equally diverse range of entrepreneurial activities that include females, poor immigrants, academics, freelancers and religious (Bögenhold & Klinglmair, 2016). It also includes founders of high growth firms, individuals engaged in small business ventures, and even students (Kerret al. 2017). Entrepreneurs of today also behave differently and exhibit varied personality traits that are linked to the type of entrepreneurship they practice (Ibid).

Significantly, societal perceptions of the entrepreneur have also undergone a shift from the earlier negative notions of greed, exploitation, selfishness and disloyalty, to more positive ones such as generosity, innovativeness and creativity (Vesper & Gartner, 1997). The result is the current increased respect for entrepreneurs globally (Xavier et al., 2012).

In contemporary entrepreneurship theory, entrepreneurs are projected as the main protagonists of entrepreneurship. They initiate, found and own business enterprises which are the visible outcomes of their efforts at maximizing profit (Pokharel, 2018; Abu-Saifan, 2012). Similarly, Drucker (1985), describes them as the 'hidden' hand behind entrepreneurship. This viewpoint is likewise shared by Cole (1970) when he says that *"factors of production do not magically spring into combination to make economic enterprises" but are the result of the entrepreneur's intervention"* (Cole, 1970, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012, p. 8) through their leadership and sometimes idiosyncratic behaviour (Schumpeter, 1934; Shane & Venktaraman, 2000; Kirzner, 1979; Baumol, 1968, as cited in Pokharel, 2018; Mahmoud & Muharam's, 2014). With their supposed exceptional mind-sets, entrepreneurs, according to Abu- Saifan (2012), are *"individuals who see the world differently and envision the future better than others do (who) seize opportunities that otherwise would go unnoticed (and who) perceive and accept risks differently than others*" (Abu- Saifan, 2012, p. 2). Entrepreneurs are also portrayed as the link between invention and commercialization of goods and services as exemplified by the successful launch and commercialization of other people's inventions by Steve Jobs and Bill Gates' (Acs et al., 2018). Finally, it is believed that as a subset of society, entrepreneurs have certain unique characteristics that set them apart from the rest of the population (McClelland, 1961; Cornelius, 2006). For instance, entrepreneurs are said to have higher degrees of nACH, self-confidence and internal locus of control, higher propensity for calculated risk-taking, and higher need for autonomy, also seen as the reason for their success and growth.

Two roles of an entrepreneur can be identified from the way he is conceptualized - entrepreneurial and managerial. Significantly, the idea of the entrepreneur as the organizer of factors of production was absent in the earlier writings of Richard Cantillon (1755) and Jean-Baptist Say (1810) because their interest then was in entrepreneurship as an economic activity rather than on the person responsible for it. So by defining entrepreneurship as any form of self-employment (Say, 1810), and as a mere activity of buying cheap goods and selling them at higher prices (Cantillon, 1755), they technically excluded the important role of an intelligent individual. Schumpeter (1943) is credited as the first to give prominence to the 'person' behind entrepreneurship – the entrepreneur, in the early 20th century. He described the entrepreneur as the bearer of risks and innovation, and an agent of change whose exploits creatively modified the market dynamics (Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2014). In supporting Schumpeter for the inclusion of the entrepreneur in economic theory, Casson (1982), argued that by reducing decision-making in firms to the simple *"mechanical application of mathematical rules"* earlier conventional economic theorists had inadvertently ignored individual enterprise or initiative in entrepreneurship and the important, judgmental and coordinating role of the entrepreneur (Casson, 1982, as in Carlsson et al. 2012, p. 9). According to Baumol (1968), this substitution of a passive management group in place of an active entrepreneur created the notion that the theoretical firm was entrepreneur-less, akin to expunging *"the Prince of Denmark from a discussion of Shakespeare's Hamlet*" (Baumol, 1968, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012, p. 67).

In Casson's (1982) view, the economic theory of entrepreneurship with its focus on the entrepreneur offered a better understanding and analysis of the reasons for economic success and failure as well as the emergence and growth of firms and entrepreneurial activities (Casson, 1982, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012). It portrays entrepreneurial activity as a reflection of the entrepreneur's actions and choices such as assuming high degrees of risks with their associated uncertainties, innovativeness, boldness and creativity when confronted with a future that is unknown, and unpredictable and impracticable by the reasoning of others (Schumpter, 1943; Carlsson et al., 2012; Kirtzner, 2008, as cited in Szaban & Skrzek-Lubasinska, 2018). This according to Henrekson and Stenkula (2007) shows clearly that the entrepreneur does not operate as a mere robot who chooses strategies from a set of known alternatives with their equally predictable outcomes but is rather driven by a desire to exploit resources to address market needs for personal gain (Henrekson & Stenkula, 2007, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012). This idea is echoed by Veblen (1999) that the entrepreneur is responsible for coordinating the industrial processes to ensure efficiency and facilitate smooth operations in the workplace (Veblen, 1999, as cited in Szaban et al., 2018). According to Casson (2003), he also takes decisions and offers solutions to problems in the workplace as they appear, and exercises his skills in the reallocation of assets, and in response to disruptions, changes and competition that arise in the market (Schultz, 1975; Schmitz, 1989, as cited in Henrekson, & Sanandaji, 2018).

Arguably, as manager, the entrepreneur displays the managerial functions seen in the traditional models of the modern firm. It means that under their direction, schedules and contracts are met, best prices are fixed, and customer needs are addressed in addition to ensuring efficiency, setting goals, monitoring and systematic planning (Hisrich & Peters, 2002; Taalita, 2010, as cited in Rigley & Rönnqvist, 2010).

2.3.4 The entrepreneur as architect of socio-economic development

The work of McClelland (1961) has in no small way provided the contextual basis in support of the notion that the entrepreneur is the mover of economic development. He describes the entrepreneur as an energetic individual with a high need for achievement, a moderate risk taker and with high dedication (Abu- Saifan, 2012). Taking his lead, several studies by behavioural scientists, notably Geertz's (1963) research on social development and economic change in Indonesia, Barth's (1963) study on the role of entrepreneurs in social change in Norway, and Lipset's (1967) research on the values, education, and entrepreneurship in Latin America, all supported the notion that entrepreneurs contribute to economic growth of countries (Aparicio, Urbano & Sánchez, 2018. In recent times however, researchers like Naudé (2013), argues that the evolving empirical studies are not conclusive about the actual role of the entrepreneur in socio-economic growth, even though one cannot dispute the obvious economic strides made by the West, China, the East

Asian Tigers, and emerging economies that have been attributed to private sector led development initiatives.

On the issue of facilitating socio-economic development, literature presents the entrepreneur as a catalytic change agent whose aspirations lead to a chain of reactions, processes or events associated with enterprise creation and management that impact positively on socio-economic development (Doran et al., 2018). For instance, by growing and expanding their enterprises, entrepreneurs generate additional employment thereby reducing the menace of unemployment. Similarly, their entrepreneurial activities promote the creation of wealth and its distribution to wider segments of the population. Again, by establishing businesses across countries and regions, entrepreneurs actively help to reduce regional disparities as a result of the attendant benefits of infrastructure such as roads, electricity, housing, health services and educational facilities accrued from robust economic activity. Entrepreneurs also promote high standards of living within countries through the highly competitive and innovative goods and services they provide (Acs, 2006). Their activities also facilitate foreign and domestic trading that foster intra country and international relations and enhance world peace and harmony. Again, the actions of entrepreneurs enable the mobilization and efficient use of idle capital and resources to inject dynamism within economies and the development of new markets which ultimately result in growth in gross domestic product, per capita income and the entire economy (Cole, 1970, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012).

On another level, Carlsson et al. (2012), point to the entrepreneur's unpredictable, irrational and individualistic behaviour as crucial for achieving socio-economic change dynamic economies, even though they may seem problematic. Likewise, the classic McClelland's (1961) need for achievement imbued in entrepreneurs make them the perfect candidates to drive the vigorous entrepreneurial activity that would ensure rapid economic transformation. This is however not disputing the fact that as pointed out by Acs et al. (2018), some unethical tendencies like avoiding taxation, engaging in shadow activities and reaping illegal profits are very destructive and unproductive to society (Szaban et al., 2018).

2.3.8 Summary

The above discussion has highlighted the concept of the entrepreneur as the main protagonist of entrepreneurial action, whose psychological traits and competences entrepreneurship education seeks to nurture in its students. Literature suggests that the entrepreneur performs a distinct and unique economic function as the visionary who recognizes opportunities unobserved by others and a reformist who revolutionizes the market by initiating changes in the pattern and production methods to produce new commodities and services. Another insight on the entrepreneur is that since the market and environment are often characterized as hostile and unfriendly, it is the entrepreneur who provides the confidence to overcome the market challenges and achieve a market equilibrium. A final argument is that the entrepreneur possesses a set of psychological traits either innate or socially acquired such as need for achievement, internal locus of control, propensity to take risk and tolerance for ambiguity which enhance their performance and effectiveness as an agent of change both in the market-place and in the socio-economic, political sphere (Schumpeter, 1943). These insights have in no small way provided the impetus for entrepreneurship education.

2.4 THE ENTREPRENEURIAL MINDSET

From the beginning of the 20th century, the psychological traits or personality profiles of entrepreneurs have attracted considerable research attention. Other studies have dwelt on entrepreneurial cognition - how entrepreneurs think and compete in the market, what informs their assessments, judgments or decisions on business opportunities and the creation and management of their business ventures (Gartner, 1988, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012).

According to Astebro et al. (2014), it was Night's (1921) publication on 'risk, uncertainty and profit' that provided the impetus for empirical research on the character traits that differentiated entrepreneurs from general business managers. The earlier studies in the middle of the 20th century, focused on entrepreneurs' traits, personal motivations and preferences as compared to the rest of the population. These studies were premised on the notion that entrepreneurs have unique character traits that distinguish them from the rest of the population (McClelland, 1961). It was led by McClelland's (1961) study into the causes for the unequal economic development rates within countries of the world. Basing his studies on the hypothesis that a need for achievement (nACH) was the link between countries' underdevelopment and socio-economic development, he concluded that the higher the nACH, the higher a country's economic development. He defined 'need for achievement' as a person's desire for major accomplishments, the mastering of skills, and completing challenging goals (McClelland, 1961). McClelland's study also suggested that entrepreneurs, as a sub-set of the population, have higher degrees of nACH, self-confidence, internal locus of control, propensity to take calculated risk, need for autonomy and problem solving when compared to the rest of the population (Cornelius et al., 2006, as cited in Carlsson et al., 2012). Studies by Mueller and Thomas (2000), and Tajeddini and Mueller (2009) also concluded that societies with predominantly individualistic cultures and entrepreneurial populations showed higher levels of internal locus of control in contrast to the more collectivist cultures (Mueller & Thomas, 2000; Levine & Rubenstein, 2017). These findings correspond to the assertion by Caliendo et al. (2014), that internal locus of control determines individuals' entry and exit in entrepreneurial activity.

Collectively, these aforementioned attributes and many others such as self-efficacy, tolerance for ambiguities, high level of proactivity, innovativeness and stress tolerance (Kerr et al., 2017), self-discipline and perseverance (Jobs, 2012, as cited in Szaban et al., 2018) are classified as entrepreneurial traits that foster the entrepreneurial mindset. More recent additions to the list of entrepreneurial traits include opportunity and initiative seeking, information seeking, persistence, efficiency, goal setting, networking, monitoring and systematic planning (Hisrich & Peters, 2002; Szaban et al., 2018).

While most of these so-called entrepreneur-personality traits have positive connotations and are commendable some researchers have also alluded to negative traits like over optimism and overconfidence in entrepreneurs' own abilities and market prospects as displayed by some entrepreneurs even in the face of mounting costs and risks involved (Koudstaal, Sloof & van Praag, 2015). In recent years, studies have been conducted on different subsets of entrepreneurs to compare the entrepreneurial behaviour and mindset (Kerr et al., 2017). The studies found disparities in entrepreneurial traits and entrepreneurial intent among entrepreneurs who were already managing their own businesses, potential entrepreneurs, those who have respect for entrepreneurship and those who have no entrepreneurial intentions (Ibid).

A major criticism of these studies on personality traits is their focus on predominantly high-growth entrepreneurs (Kerr et al., 2017). Another is their failure to yield concrete scientific evidence (Ibid). Researchers like Bygrave and Zacharakis (2008) have also sounded their misgivings on the assertion that entrepreneurs possess unique character traits that are different from the rest of the population. They base their argument on the fact that entrepreneurs cannot lay claim to entrepreneurial traits since they are also found in successful people in other spheres of life, such as the need to achieve (Bygrave & Zacharakis, 2008, as cited in Rigley & Rönnqvist, 2010). Despite these dissenting opinions and findings, literature still points to an undying fascination with the entrepreneurial personality by researchers from academic disciplines like economics, psychology, management and sociology and their continuous search for linkages between entrepreneurs' character traits and their entrepreneurial functions (Kerr et al., 2017). These studies have contributed in no small measure to enhancing research in entrepreneurial characteristics through the introduction of several new concepts and methods (Ibid).

In spite of the deluge of research on entrepreneurial traits and mindset, the fundamental question of whether entrepreneurs are born or made continues to rage on. One school of thought believes that entrepreneurs are born with character traits unique only to them (Gartner, 1989; Bridge et al., 2003). Another school argues that these traits are not inherited but rather the result of nurturing, learning from experience and through contact with entrepreneurial personalities like self-employed parents and siblings (Burns & Dewhurst, 1993; Fayolle, 2003). This school argues that entrepreneurial success is influenced by level of experience in entrepreneurship (Gartner, 1989; Lamont, 1972, as cited in Rigley & Rönnqvist, 2010). On this basis, they believe that the entrepreneurial traits can be developed in several ways including learning from role models, from one's own experience, and learning in an environment that is receptive to the entrepreneurial culture, failure, and trial and error. There is also a third school, those who argue that entrepreneurs are born and made (Bolton & Thompson, 2005; Burns, 2005, as cited in Rigley & Rönnqvist, 2010). While not discounting the presence of inborn personality traits, the theorists of this school of thought also reason that some traits are implanted by socio-cultural influences, life experiences, and the activities and actions of people one comes into contact with in the market place such as clients, employees and suppliers (Burns, 2005, as cited in Rigley & Rönnqvist, 2010).

Other cognitive studies have been conducted on entrepreneurial attitudes especially risk-taking - risk aversion, risk propensity, risk preferences and risk tolerance. These studies seek answers on the predisposing factors for individuals' willingness to assume risky conditions and how they impact on their entrepreneurial performance (Kerr et al., 2017). The findings of these studies suggest that entrepreneurs, compared to the rest of the population, are not deterred from engaging in entrepreneurship despite the presence of uncertainties and risks (Hall & Woodward, 2010). Some researchers on the other hand, argue to the contrary that entrepreneurs tend to avoid risk rather than confront it (Miner & Raju, 2004, as cited in Kerr et al., 2017).

Another entrepreneurial attitude that has captured the interest of researchers is how entrepreneur thinks and competes in the marketplace (Mitchell et al., 2002). The proponents of this idea assert that the entrepreneur's thought processes are different from the rest of the population and even from one entrepreneur to the other in the face of challenges. They claim that these individuals are unfazed by challenges but are only focused on breaking barriers, by skilfully managing resources for optimum value (Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2014). According to Hagel (2016), they are preferred to those with the 'employee' mindset, whose only preoccupation is to do predefined tasks until they are told otherwise by their bosses. This is because in his opinion, what the modern world needs today are people who are unafraid of risk, can identify and address new opportunities and are driven by the need for accelerated improvement in performance and the market (Ibid).

2.5 CONCLUSION

The broader concepts of ‘entrepreneurship’ and ‘entrepreneur’ have evolved over the past three centuries across many academic disciplines. This chapter looked at the important contributions to the concepts’ development from economics, sociology, and psychology. The effect of the tortuous development of these concepts on the conceptual development of ‘entrepreneurship’ and ‘entrepreneur’, and the resultant definitional challenges and disagreements have been highlighted. It is however quite evident from literature that these shortcomings have not in any way diminished the great enthusiasm held by academia, governments, and the general public, in the importance and transformative role of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs in socio-economic development, especially, in the areas of job and wealth creation. Equally significant is the growing perception that entrepreneurial mindsets and skills can be fostered and nurtured in individuals to transform them into enterprising people and entrepreneurs. In the view of the researcher, these topics have to a large extent fuelled the growth of entrepreneurship education in higher education and contributed to the perceived challenges with its objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students, the focus of this research study.

In the following chapter (Chapter Three) the discussion focuses on entrepreneurship education, its conceptualization, and growth, and relevance in higher education. Also addressed are its characteristics, challenges, and practice in some selected regions and countries, including Ghana. It ends with the profile of the study institution.

CHAPTER THREE

ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses entrepreneurship education which has seen a dramatic growth in the last few decades (Lorz, Mueller & Volery, 2013; Solomon & Fernald, 2019) but which paradoxically, has attracted fewer studies (Neck & Corbett, 2018). Due to the limited research, the literature on entrepreneurship education reviewed for this study was fragmented and based on descriptive and exploratory research findings, conference papers, articles, textbooks and reports the programmes and courses (Alberti et al., 2004; Fayolle, 2013; Fellnhofer, 2019).

The first part of the discussion looks at the concept of entrepreneurship education- its definition, emergence and relevance in higher education, entrepreneurship research and entrepreneurship education models. The second part of the discussion focuses on the challenges of the educational components of entrepreneurship education. The chapter ends with highlights of the state of entrepreneurship education in some selected higher educational institutions across the world including Ghana, and the profile of the study institution**.**

3.2 CONCEPTUALISING ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

3.2.1 Introduction

In this section entrepreneurship education as conceptualized by its many stakeholders is discussed. Also addressed is its emergence and growth, and its relevance in higher education, and entrepreneurship education research. It concludes with a discussion on the generic model of entrepreneurship education**.**

3.2.2. Defining entrepreneurship education

According to Neck & Corbett (2018), entrepreneurship education is in essence the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship. It is generally a long duration educational programme in entrepreneurship, business and management with a focus on the entrepreneur, business startup and enterprise management and growth (Joshi, 2014). There are also different genres of entrepreneurship that range from single courses within academic programmes to complete stand-alone degree programmes**.**

Paradoxically, one of entrepreneurship education's major constraints is the lack of agreed definitions, models and theories (Sexton & Bowman, 1984; Sirelkhatim & Gangi, 2015). This is to some extent due to the inconclusive agreement on the nature of entrepreneurship and the person called entrepreneur (Sirelkhatim & Gangi, 2015). Also to blame are the differing objectives of entrepreneurship education itself as well as the ambiguities, confusion and difficulty of defining 'enterprise' and 'small business' (Alberti et al., 2004).

Arguably, many of the recent attempts at defining entrepreneurship education have been guided by the type of objectives and meanings of the education programmes offered by the providers. As a result entrepreneurship education is often interchanged with entrepreneurship training (Curran & Stanworth, 1989; Azim & Al-Kahtani, 2014), and enterprise education (QAA, 2018). For instance, the term 'entrepreneurship education' enjoys a wider usage in the United States of America (USA) and Canada than in Europe, according to a 1989 Durham University Business School study. In the United Kingdom (UK) on the other hand 'enterprise education' was the preferred terminology which aims to support the development of individuals' attributes, competencies and enterprising behaviour for enhanced entrepreneurial activity (Lackéus, 2015; QAA, 2018). The advocates of enterprise education conceptualize 'enterprise' as

> *a generic concept applicable across all areas of education and professional life (which) combines creativity, originality, initiative, idea generation, design thinking, adaptability and reflexivity with problem identification, problem solving, innovation, expression, communication and practical action"* (QAA, 2018, p. 6).

This definition of enterprise education which supports students to be curious, proactive, open minded, resilient, creative problem identifiers and solvers, negotiators, risk takers, managers, and initiative takers can be said to hold true for entrepreneurship education.

Entrepreneurship education, on the other hand, specifically teaches entrepreneurial skills for startups (Vesper & Gartner, 1994; Davis, Hill & Laforge, 1985). It must also be distinguished from business education described in literature as an educational process that emphasizes the teaching of business principles essential for a career in business-start-up or large firms. One reason for this distinction being that there are fundamental differences between the management of startups (the focus of entrepreneurship education) and the management of large firms (the focus of business education) (Sexton & Bowman, 1984). Another is the fact that its integrated nature, specific skills taught and focus on entrepreneurial process differentiate entrepreneurial education from traditional business education (Solomon, 2008; Vesper & McMullen, 1998).

Another possible explanation for the lack of clarity in differentiating entrepreneurship education from business education is the conceptualization of entrepreneurship as enterprise and small business management (Gautam, 2015). Labelling entrepreneurship as small business could be problematic because they are not synonymous. An example is the differences in intentions of owners of small businesses and entrepreneurial ventures. Whereas small business owners choose to keep their businesses small and generate a modest income for themselves, the owners of larger firms adopt innovative and growth-oriented approach with the goal of creating value and wealth (Okyere, 2017). This misconception between entrepreneurship education and business education can be traced to the parallel studies conducted on them by researchers especially during the 1980s. These studies covered their roles in employment generation, economic growth and transformation. Others were the factors that impact on them such as environmental, cultural, as well as personal attributes of entrepreneurs and managers like creativity, perseverance, and initiative taking (Okyere, 2017).

Going by conventional wisdom, one can become an entrepreneur if only one first learn ‘how’ (Lorz, 2011). Therefore, in general terms entrepreneurship education is defined as the acquisition of knowledge and skills for entrepreneurship (GEM, 2008). It is likewise conceptualized as active and cognitive processes designed for the acquisition, retention and use of entrepreneurial competencies (Young, 1997) or the structured and formal acquisition of entrepreneurial culture and competencies by students (Fiet, 2000). Alberti, et al. (2004) expanded on this definition by describing entrepreneurship education as the structured formal teaching of entrepreneurial competencies, concepts, skills and entrepreneurial mindset for business start-up and for developing high growth-oriented enterprises. This definition suggests that entrepreneurship education aims to impart competencies not only for employment but also to enhance the capacity of individuals to significantly contribute to society, and live rewarding self-determined lives, in addition to giving students new perspectives on self-employment and other career options (QAA, 2018).

It appears that the USA subscribes to this understanding of entrepreneurship education with their emphasis on teaching and developing entrepreneurial skills and high growth-oriented entrepreneurs (Lackéus, 2015). In contrast, Europe's entrepreneurship education aims to deliver functional management skills for small business management, firstly, enhancing individual productivity by building up their entrepreneurial capacity and mindset, and secondly, providing students with the basic principles for venturing into entrepreneurship (Lackéus, 2015; QAA, 2018). In China and Africa, entrepreneurship education programme likewise seeks to prepare students for business start-up by exposing them to entrepreneurship as an alternative source of employment, providing them with a foundational knowledge of entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial skills, and encouraging them to venture into entrepreneurship (Valerio et al., 2014).

Underlying all these conceptualizations of 'entrepreneurship education' is the inclination to narrow its focus to the mere acquisition of business skills for business that limits the operating scope of both learners and faculty (EC, 2011). However, a broader definition which sees entrepreneurship education as a process through which learners acquire a broad set of competencies for operating effectively and innovatively in all spheres of life (and not business only) can bring greater individual, social and economic benefits (EC, 2011; Lackéus, 2015).

In the view of Trulsson (1997) and the European Commission (2011), entrepreneurship education should also be approached with reference to the socio-economic context to ensure its success. This is due to the fact that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs' performance and outcomes vary in type and level from country to country and because they work in dissimilar social environments and resource constraints (Trulsson, 1997; Raposo & Paco, 2011; Rotimi, Oppong & Oduro, 2017; Bögenhold, 2019).Such an encompassing entrepreneurship education impart competences that lend themselves to application in indifferent forms of activities and life experiences. It again subscribes to the notion that entrepreneurship is an individual's ability to turn ideas into action- creativity, innovation, showing initiative, risk-taking, and the ability to plan and manage projects successfully (Abu-Saifan, 2012; Lackéus, 2015). Entrepreneurship education of this type supports everyone for day-to-day life at home and elsewhere, creates awareness and opportunities sighting abilities and likewise provides a foundation for entrepreneurs for business startups, that is, it ought to encompass life-wide and lifelong competence development (EC, 2011).

The essence of entrepreneurship education is captured very succinctly by John Dearborn, President of JumpStart Inc., that:

> *While entrepreneurship classes are designed to give budding entrepreneurs the tools to turn a new idea into reality, their value may be even greater than that: I think it gives all students the ability to view their careers and opportunities in a different light. It's so important that the benefits of an entrepreneurial-focused education are available to all students and not just those planning on entering the startup world* (John Dearborn as cited in Basu, 2014, p.1).

Thus, there appears to be a consensus on two elements in defining entrepreneurship education, a broader one that seeks to develop personal attitudes, attributes, and skills in individuals for enterprising behaviour in all spheres of life, and the narrow one that focuses on facilitating the development of skills that are relevant for setting up entrepreneurial ventures (Albornoz-Pardo, 2013; Fellnhofer, 2019).

In spite of the variations, the definitions of entrepreneurship education imply that its rationale is to foster an increased awareness of entrepreneurship and self-employment in students, in addition to equipping them with entrepreneurial competencies and attitudes for managing their businesses and for the workplace (Isaac et al., 2007; Fellnhofer, 2019). According to Ekpoh and Edet (2011), such an educational objective if properly executed is a sure recipe for addressing the chronic unemployment rates among graduates.

3.2.3. Entrepreneurship education in higher education, relevance and growth.

The growing popularity of entrepreneurship within the educational sector is a very recent development (Haara & Jenssen, 2016). Its emergence in higher education is partly attributed to Drucker's (1985) admission that entrepreneurship, like any academic discipline could be learned. Since then, others such as kuratko (2004), argue that it is possible to develop entrepreneurial outlook and enhance individual creativity in different contexts - firms, business, and non-business activities - through entrepreneurship education despite the fact that there is little evidence to suggest that entrepreneurship education actually increases entrepreneurship intent (Nabi et al., 2018).

A major boost in the drive for the relevance of university-based entrepreneurship education was initiated by the UNESCO World conference in 1998 when it advocated for the nurturing of entrepreneurial skills in higher education. There has since been a phenomenal growth in entrepreneurship education globally. It is estimated that over 1600 universities offer courses in entrepreneurship worldwide (Katz, 2003). The USA, for instance leads in this endeavour having witnessed a massive growth from a mere 16 colleges offering entrepreneurship courses in 1971 to 370 in 1993 and over 500 by 2001 (Vesper & Gartner, 1997; Dana , 2001). A similar trend has been observed in Europe, Africa, Australia and Asia (Dana, 2001). This growth in institutions and courses is also paralleled by an increase in entrepreneurship faculty tenure since the 1960s. A further advancement is the inclusion of entrepreneurship as a field of study by many academic disciplines such as economics, business, finance, marketing, psychology, and sociology, and the increased number of chairs, institutions, teachers and research in entrepreneurship education (Lorz, Mueller & Volery, 2013). Another phenomenon is the emergence of several academic journals and empirical publications on entrepreneurship globally (Dana, 1992; Katz, 2003).

Entrepreneurship education has likewise gained relevance in higher institutions of learning because of the fascination with the unique character of 'entrepreneurs'. This is based on their touted attributes and characteristics as self-confident individuals with high need for autonomy, extraordinary tolerance for risk and failure, and who are in control of their own decisions and destiny (Bawuah et al., 2006; Kerr et al., 2017; Ghandhi & Rainer, 2018) and the desire to nurture such individuals. Higher education therefore provides the platform to develop and enhance these same entrepreneurial characteristics in individuals (Othman, Hashim & Ab Wahid, 2012) without any impediments or prerequisites thereby making it accessible to all students regardless of their fields of study (Bawuah et al., 2006). Furthermore, it is argued that graduates of university entrepreneurship courses are more likely to establish their own businesses in the course of their working life as compared to other graduates (Ibid). This notion appears to support the phenomenon of Canada's growing entrepreneurs in studies conducted by Ibrahim & Ellis (1986) and Upton et al. (1995). In their studies, they found that over 70% of the graduates of university entrepreneurship programmes had either created their own businesses or joined family businesses - 40% having started their own businesses and 30% opting to work in family business. Only the small minority of 30% however worked for large corporations as employees (Upton et al., 1995). A similar observation was made by Peterman and Kennedy in their 2003 study which suggested an increase in the desire of participants to start a business after undergoing an entrepreneurship programme. Hansemark (1998) had earlier found a statistically significant growth in participants need for achievement and internal locus of control traits.

Another contributor to the emergence and growth of entrepreneurship education in institutions of higher learning, is the worldwide appeal of the enterprise culture and entrepreneurship as the driving force behind today's dynamic small businesses (Alberti Sciascia & Poli, 2004; Carlsson et al., 2012; Kerr et al, 2017; Ghandhi & Rainer, 2018). Currently, the general belief is that entrepreneurship education is relevant for fostering entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurship, which in turn impacts on the lives of individuals, firms and society at large as presented in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: The impact of entrepreneurship education

Consequently governments, students and the business-world have become advocates of entrepreneurship education (Jack & Anderson, 1999; Mitra & Matlay, 2000; Wiklund, Wright & Zahra, 2018) due to their desire for fostering entrepreneurial behaviour in future workforce and creating jobs to address rising unemployment in the economy (Deveci & Seikkula-Leino, 2018). Specifically on the part of students, entrepreneurship education's offer of entrepreneurship awareness creation and the development of entrepreneurial skills and traits for entrepreneurship as an alternative source of employment and the job market is what has sustained their interest in entrepreneurship education (Cotton, O'Gorman & Stampfi, 2000; Katrz, 2003; QAA, 2018). Similarly, the business-world's interest in entrepreneurship education is due to its need for large numbers of managerially competent and innovative individuals to introduce new business initiatives for enhanced competition and business sustainability (Othman et al., 2012).

Governments on the other hand are attracted to entrepreneurship education due to entrepreneurship's role in socio-economic development. An example is its facilitation of infrastructural expansion at regional and global levels (Lorz, Mueller & Volery, 2013). Others are its contribution to GDP growth, its role in introducing diversity in the workforce and economy through the entrepreneurial activities of minorities such as women and migrants and that of promoting specialization within the business ecosystem (Solomon & Fernand, 2019). The collapse of large firms in the mid-20th century (Storey, 1994; Timmons, 1994; Roure, 1997) and more recently, coupled with the emergence of very successful smaller and entrepreneurially vibrant firms since the 1980s (Landstrom & Harirchi, 2018) has again provided the needed impetus by governments for entrepreneurship education as a way of fast tracking the development of global entrepreneurship.

Despite the positive reviews on entrepreneurship for economic transformation, global interest in entrepreneurship education only occurred towards the close of the twentieth century (Dana, 1992). The pioneering teaching of entrepreneurship in higher education is attributed to Shigeru Fujuii, in 1938 at Kobe University, Japan (Alberti et al., 2004). This was followed by the introduction of small business management courses in the USA in the 1940's which in turn paved the way for the first course in entrepreneurship by Myles Mace at Harvard Business School in 1947 (Sexton & Bowman, 1984; Katz, 2003; Weiming, Chunyan & Xiaohua, 2016). It has since gained global relevance and recognition (Dana 1992; Lorz, et al., 2013) with many colleges and universities offering a wide array of small business management and entrepreneurship courses and programmes all over the world (Solomon et al., 2002; Weiming, et al., 2016) and an increasing demand for entrepreneurship faculty (Finkle & Deeds, 2001). Notwithstanding the phenomenal growth in entrepreneurship education worldwide, as a field of study it is relatively small and still emerging in terms of the number of courses and the number of full-time faculty doing research as compared to other academic discipline. Many courses are taught by non-tenure track faculty, often on a part-time basis (Carlsson et al., 2012). Furthermore, this rapid growth in the discipline of entrepreneurship has not been supported by an equally rapid growth in its theories and concepts. The result in an underdeveloped scientific theoretical framework around issues such as the efficacy of different teaching methods in use, the relevance of course content and the variations in focus of entrepreneurship education in different countries (Fiet, 2001; Fayolle, 2013) already alluded to.

The focus of entrepreneurship education is not simply for the education of entrepreneurs (Pittaway & Cope, 2007). It is also premised on the ideals of higher education which is to groom students for effective performance in their countries' workforce even though a common criticism of higher education is that it trains with the mindset for paid employment after school (Keogh & Galloway, 2004; Fosu & Boateng, 2013). Entrepreneurship education is recognized as the antidote to this shortcoming by redirecting students' attention to entrepreneurship as an alternative employment avenue (Othman et al., 2012) and as the vehicle for fostering entrepreneurial attitude and competencies for economic growth (Drucker, 1985; Greene & Saridakis, 2008; Harrison, 2014; Nabi et al., 2018). So coupled with the ideals of higher education, entrepreneurship education in provides the platform for training highly demanded entrepreneurial workforce in all sectors of the economy with the requisite innovation skill to cope in the fast changing and globalized knowledge economy (Potter, 2008; Nabi et al., 2018). Ironically, it is for this same reason that entrepreneurship education is relevant for higher education itself which stands to gain from an entrepreneurial workforce for the urgent need to identify new and innovative educational programmes, methods and sources of funding to supplement dwindling government and donor budgets. All these are regardless of the ambivalence about entrepreneurship education such as whether entrepreneurship can be taught or not and whether entrepreneurial spirit is innate or not.

The growing evidence to suggest that entrepreneurship education is crucial for startups and venture success and likewise that entrepreneurial skills could be acquired through entrepreneurship education (Ronstadt, 1987; Kirby, 2002; Alberti et al., 2004) makes entrepreneurship education in higher educational institutions all the more relevant today (Bawuah et al., 2006). However, in spite of all this glowing tribute about the relevance of entrepreneurship education for fostering entrepreneurship are some dissenting voices. For instance, Storey (1994) and McMullan, Chrisman and Vesper (2001) argue that research on the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial does not provide adequate evidence that entrepreneurship education was responsible for beneficiaries' entrepreneurial activities. Similarly, Schramm (2014) questions the efficacy of entrepreneurship education since the growth of entrepreneurship education and the increase in entrepreneurship teachers has not achieved any significant growth in startups and enterprise development. He however admits that the course contents may be partly to blame for this because most of them are designed by business school faculty using business school management teaching approaches that are more prescriptive and therefore not very suitable for teaching a highly unstable and unpredictable activity as entrepreneurship (Schramm, 2014). On the part of Alberti, Sciascia, and Poli (2004), the low impact of entrepreneurship education on graduates' entrepreneurial activity may be due to the inadequate and poor quality of training provided rather than its usefulness or relevance.

Again, not much attention has been directed at measuring the impact and effectiveness of entrepreneurship education programs on beneficiaries' entrepreneurial intentions and on society at large (Nabi et al., 2018). One reason for this is the absence of well-defined methods and standards of measurement for assessing the impact of entrepreneurship education (Fayolle, 2013). In Kuratko's (2004) view, this is due to several factors such as the diverse potential students of entrepreneurship education with their equally wide-ranging course objectives and programmes made up of persons with no entrepreneurial background to entrepreneurs and scholars.

All these present several difficulties to entrepreneurship education in higher education such as the stress of maintaining a balance between rigorous academic standards and a practice-based entrepreneurship education (Solomon, Duffy & Tarabishy, 2002).

3.2.4 Entrepreneurship education research

The contribution of research to the development and practice of entrepreneurship education cannot be overemphasized. Like the concepts of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur, it did not receive much academic interest in the past. Compared to mainstream entrepreneurship, there is limited research on entrepreneurship education (Neck & Corbett, 2018; Kuckertz & Prochotta, 2018). There is however a growing attraction for entrepreneurship education research which, according to Kuratko and Hodgetts (2014), has been influenced by academia's interest in the historical role of entrepreneurship in global socio-economic growth and transformation, as well as growth in its legitimacy, and its acceptance as an academic discipline.

Quite a considerable number of entrepreneurship education research have focused on the linkages between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intent (Neck & Corbett, 2018). This is despite the lack of conclusive empirical evidence to support the claim that entrepreneurship education nurtures entrepreneurs and enhances entrepreneurial skills for successful entrepreneurship (Alberti et al., 2004). These studies include one by Hansemark (1998) which found a statistically significant increase in the two main entrepreneurial traits, namely, the 'Need for Achievement' and 'internal locus of control', after a course in entrepreneurship. Similarly, Peterman and Kennedy (2003) found that attendance at an entrepreneurship programme had positive effects on both the desirability and the feasibility of starting a business in the sense that positive changes occurred in peoples' perceptions on entrepreneurship after prior entrepreneurial working experience and participating in entrepreneurship programs. Martin, McNally and Kay (2013), in their Meta-analysis of entrepreneurship education and training outcomes also identified a clear relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial skills, intentions and outcomes. In Ghana, most of the research in entrepreneurship education have similarly dwelt on its impact on graduate entrepreneurial intentions (Boateng, 2018).

Entrepreneurship education has itself been the focus of a very comprehensive empirical analysis by Solomon, Duffy and Tarabishy (2002). This study draws attention to a clear distinction between entrepreneurship education and business education, and between business entry and business management. It also outlines the major courses taught in entrepreneurship education such as the skills building ones like negotiation, leadership, new product development, creative thinking, technological innovation skills, venture development, idea protection, and tolerance of ambiguity. Solomon et al. (2002) study also identified experiential learning as the most common approach for learning entrepreneurship with the help of learning tools such as business plans, student business start-ups, consultation and interviews with practicing entrepreneurs, computer and behavioural simulations, field trips, and video and film.

Another study by Robinson and Hayenes (1991) also sought to identify the weaknesses of the entrepreneurship education system. The study's primary focus was the virtual absence of depth of most entrepreneurship programs which according to Alberti et al. (2004) should be blamed on the weak theoretical underpinnings of entrepreneurship education and its associated pedagogical models and methods. Potter (2008) however had a different opinion on this assertion. He rather believed that the weaknesses were due to differences in the nature of the higher education institution as well as the local socio-economic environment within which it is located rather than the educational programme. This according to him is evidenced by the successes of the North American and European entrepreneurship education institutions as compared to those from less endowed schools and economies (Potter, 2008). Other studies have also focused on the entrepreneur teachers, their entrepreneurial levels (Konokman & Yelken, 2014), their qualifications (Van Dam, Schipper & Runhaar, 2010), and the effect of entrepreneurship education on university-based teacher education (Chukwurah, 2010).

Even though entrepreneurship education is essentially the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship, there is only a limited number of the research focused on classroom dynamics or the teacher (Neck & Corbett, 2018), teachers' qualifications and their entrepreneurial levels (Van Dam et al., 2010; Konokman & Yelken, 2014). Most of the research has focused on entrepreneurial learning and content. Significantly, there is also little research on the constraints encountered in the practice of the entrepreneurship education as a result of its objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students, and on assessment of teaching and learning (Dzisi, 2014; Azila-Gbettor & Harrison, 2013; Gyamfi, 2014).

A common feature of entrepreneurship education research is the recourse to the wide array of theories, definitions and perspectives by the researchers in view of the fact that entrepreneurship cuts across several academic disciplines (Wiklund, et al., 2018). This is also a major constraint because of the lack of standardization in methods and theories that it presents. Similarly, entrepreneurship education has been criticized for its lack of empirical rigour and scholarship (Neck & Corbett, 2018). For instance, an extensive review of the entrepreneurship education literature by Rideout and Gray (2013), claim that most of the studies did not meet their criteria of rigour. A similar observation was made by Martin et al (2013), in their Meta-analysis of entrepreneurship education and training outcomes. However, Wiklund et al. (2018) disagree and argue that entrepreneurship education research has grown in rigour, scope and impact and additionally seen significant shifts in focus and research themes over the past few decades. Another constraint of entrepreneurship education research is that most of the available research is descriptive, fragmented and evolving. Once again this state of affairs can be attributed to the limited and often germane nature of the research questions (Sexton & Kasarda, 1991). It is also attributable to the lack of consensus in paradigms and theories of entrepreneurship education that has been alluded to.

The limited research studies in entrepreneurship education has been complemented by the large pool of research in mainstream entrepreneurship which help to shape its objectives, course content and teaching and learning approaches. They include studies in entrepreneurial strategies and the entrepreneurial traits that differentiate entrepreneurs from the rest of the population (Kerr et al., 2017), studies on the entrepreneurial process, factors that influence the fostering of the entrepreneurial skills and entrepreneurial mind-set, and the constraints of entrepreneurship (McGrath et al., 1992). Studies have also been conducted on the role of angel and venture capital financing in startups (Shepherd & Zacharakis, 2001), corporate entrepreneurship or intrapreneurship (Morris, Kuratko & Covin, 2008), minority entrepreneurs (Gundry & Welsch, 2001; Chaganti & Greene, 2002) and the socio-economic impact of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs (Kritikos, 2014). Equally significant is the increase in research on female entrepreneurship which shows women as being mostly confined to feminized professions and business areas and on the fringes of masculinized fields like technology and knowledge intensive sectors (Kelan, 2009; Meliou, Mallett & Rosenberg, 2018).

In spite of its shortcomings, entrepreneurship education research has contributed many insights on its foundational role in accelerating business startups, teaching competencies for entrepreneurship and enhancing entrepreneurial intentions and opportunity identification (Neck & Corbett, 2018).

3.2.5 The entrepreneurship education structure and models

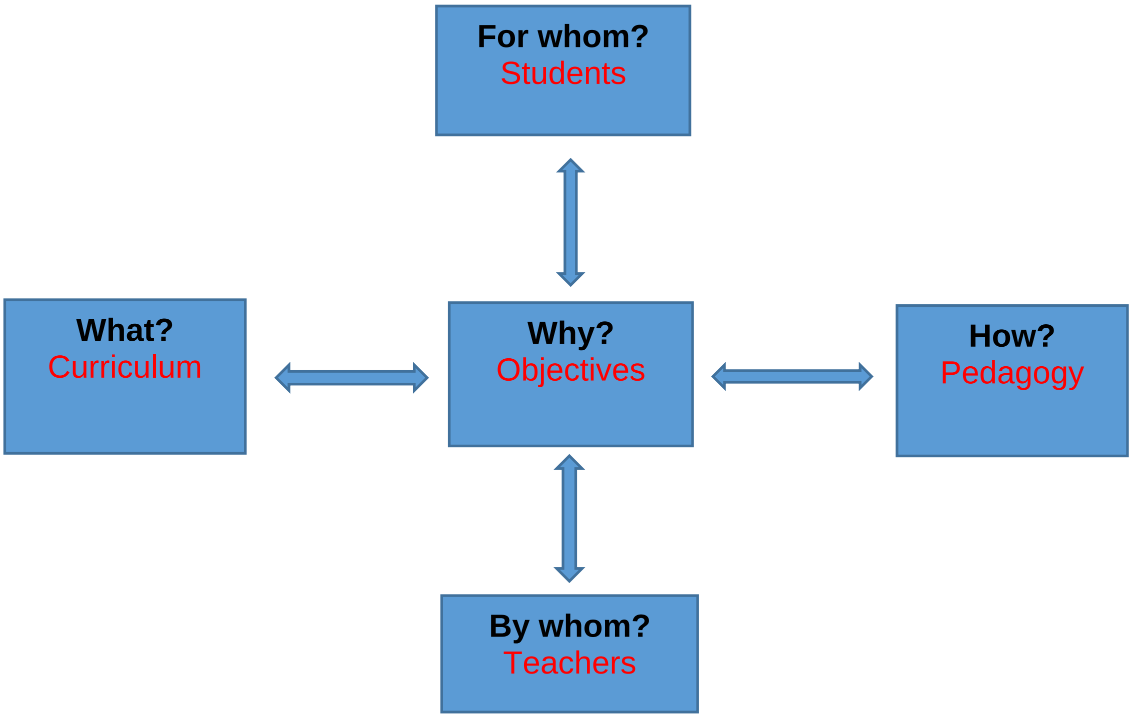
The rapid growth of entrepreneurship education over the last few decades have not helped to resolve the controversies surrounding it such whether entrepreneurial success can be taught or not, and the ambiguities associated with defining ‘entrepreneurship’, the ‘entrepreneur’ and ‘entrepreneurship education’ (Neck, et al., 2014; Kigotho, 2014). There is still inadequate knowledge of the scope of entrepreneurship education and what ought to be taught (Valerio et al., 2014), and consequently an absence of a unitary model for entrepreneurship education. This has further been compounded by the lack of agreement on the composition of its objectives, students, teachers, course content and pedagogy. (See Figure 3). It has resulted in different models of entrepreneurship education being used in different institutions and countries.

For instance, whereas some entrepreneurship education programmes emphasize the development of socio-emotional skills like leadership, psychology of planning, personal initiative, persuasion and negotiation, others focus on developing entrepreneurial business acumen and mindsets (Kigotho, 2014), and new product development, innovation and critical thinking (Kuratko, 2004). An example is the Tsinghua University's intensive educational model whose curriculum focuses on the training of technologically inclined individuals in technology, innovation, technology commercialization and high-tech industrialization (Weiming et al., 2016). Another is the Renmin University of China's 'expanded classroom educational model which integrates classroom and practical learning courses and topics (Ibid). The European and USA entrepreneurship education models initially had business students as their target but they have now been modified to embrace students in other disciplines and departments (Gibb, 2002). The common themes of these models are new venture creation, law, networks, family business, social entrepreneurship, marketing, business plans and business financing whilst the main aims are the development of entrepreneurial traits and behaviours (Ibid). According to Gyamfi (2013), Ghana's entrepreneurship education curriculum even though varied can be classified under technical, business management and entrepreneurial skills categories featuring topics such as creativity and innovation, start-up issues, marketing research, managing people, financial planning, business plan and legal Issues, (Gyamfi, 2013; Dzisi, 2014).

In spite of the multiplicity of entrepreneurship education programmes, Linan (2004), has identified four models of entrepreneurship education programmes, with varied aims. He refers to the first one as 'Entrepreneurial Awareness Education' aimed at increasing knowledge about entrepreneurship to enhance entrepreneurial intentions. The second is 'Education for Start-Up' targeted at individuals with foundational knowledge about entrepreneurship but seeking competences to initiate their own businesses. 'Education for Entrepreneurial Dynamism', the third type, focuses on entrepreneurs interested in growing entrepreneurial businesses, while the fourth, 'Continuing Education for Entrepreneurs' programmes, has as its targets experienced entrepreneurs (Linan, 2004, as cited in Lorz, 2011). These models have different variations of objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students.

A close look at the models of entrepreneurship education indicates an emphasis on management and functional business training in most of them than on the acquisition of entrepreneurial skills like creativity, innovation, need for achievement, tolerance for ambiguities, good human relations; risk taking and perseverance which are incidentally, highly demanded in today's business world (Nieuwenhuizen & Groenewald, 2008). Additionally, these models lack maturity and uniformity with regards to the course content, structure and the entrepreneurship faculty (Weiming et al., 2016).

Figure 3: Entrepreneurship Education Structure



3.2.6 Summary

The absence of a unitary definition of entrepreneurship education has resulted in different definitions by different countries and educational institutions, and at different levels and phases of education (EC, 2011). It has also led to the situation whereby entrepreneurship education is now synonymous with a wide range of entrepreneurship programmes (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Unfortunately, these have negative impact on the delivery of entrepreneurship education and to a larger extent on the work of the coordinators and teachers of entrepreneurship education. It has also resulted in the virtual absence of its own developed paradigms or theories, leading to the situation whereby entrepreneurship education is conceptualized through the lenses of other academic perspectives (Hofer & Bygrave, 1991).

Entrepreneurship education has all the characteristic features of an educational programme including aims and objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, students and teachers which have been highlighted. Unlike most educational programmes, however, these features of entrepreneurship education are characterized by ambiguities and lack of standardization which constrain its implementation.

3. 3 CHALLENGES OF THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION COMPONENTS

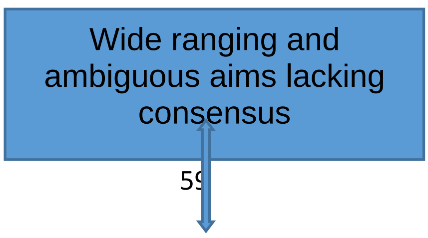
3.3.1 Introduction

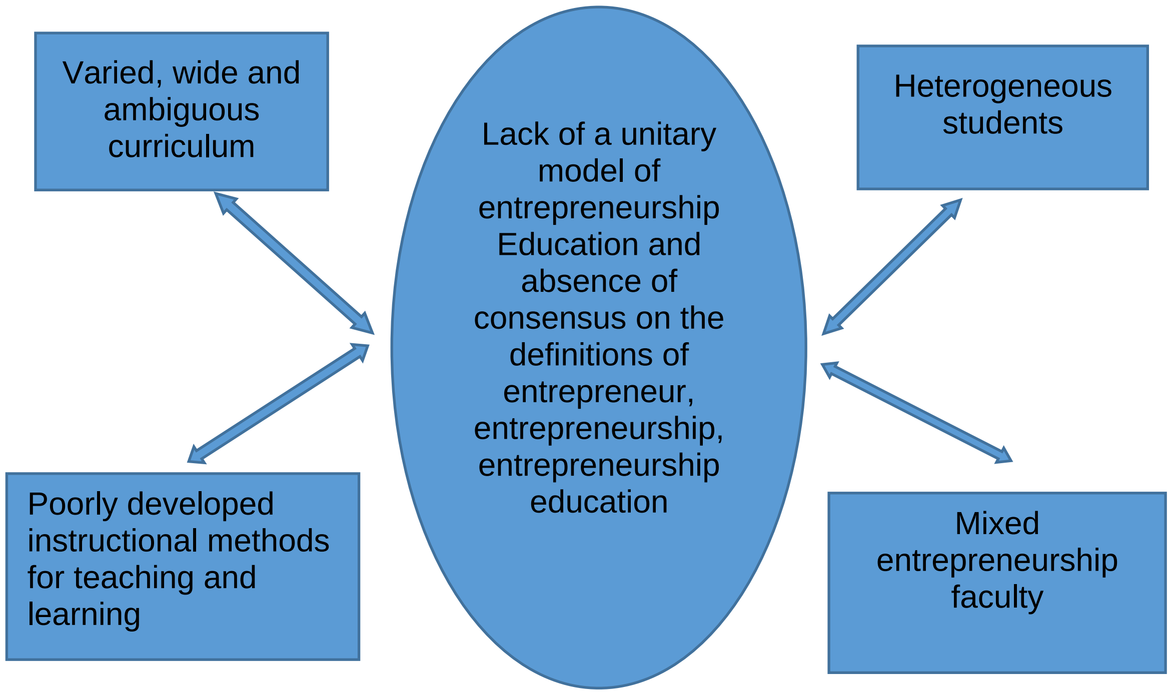
Every educational programme has a structure consisting of aims and objectives, a curriculum, target students, teachers and pedagogy. In this study, they are referred to as educational components. For entrepreneurship education the lack of consensus about its objectives, what to teach, whom to teach, who to do the teaching and how to teach and learn it have had negative impacts on its delivery (Kuratko, 2004; EC, 2008; Wilson, 2008; KFE, 2013; Weiming et al., 2016). These have resulted in the limitations of its educational components, namely, the wide ranging, un-uniformed and ambiguous aims and objectives, curriculum, and pedagogy, the heterogeneous teachers and students (Alberti et al., 2004; Joshi, 2014). The theoretical underpinnings of these challenges are presented in Figure 4.

3.3.2 Wide ranging, un-uniform, and ambiguous objectives

The objectives of any educational programme are influenced by a number of factors. In the case of entrepreneurship education, these include the absence of unitary definitions, paradigms and theories of ‘entrepreneurship’, the ‘entrepreneur’ and entrepreneurship education (Blenker et al., 2006; Weiming et al., 2016). Another is the difference in the expectations and aspirations of its constituents, notably, programme designers and coordinators, socio-political stakeholders and the students. These have led to a multitude of contrasting diverse, un-uniformed and ambiguous aims and objectives of entrepreneurship education from institution to institution, and country to country (Jack, 1999; Neck & Corbett, 2018).

Figure 4: Limitations of the Entrepreneurship Education Components





For instance, interest in entrepreneurship education by governmental and public institutions is driven by the quest for alternative avenues for rapid socio-economic growth in the face of mounting unemployment and poverty (Koch, 2003; Acs et al., 2018; Bögenhold, 2019) This quest is borne out of their acceptance of the romanticist and economic notions of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur, as well as the belief that entrepreneurial competence is teachable. They argue that societal wealth and economic growth can be accelerated through various enterprising behaviour by the workforce in the job market. An example is direct entrepreneurial activities of entrepreneurs on one hand, and the facilitating role of entrepreneurship 'aware' policy makers and public servants on the other (Koch, 2003; Blenker et al., 2006). This viewpoint shows that politicians embrace entrepreneurship education for socio-political reasons and therefore expect it to be a medium for the acquisition of either direct entrepreneurial competence or innovative competence applicable in diverse spheres of careers (Pokharel, 2018). This can be compared to the business communities' notion of entrepreneurship education as the imparting of knowledge on the fundamentals of business to a broad spectrum of students from different academic backgrounds, in order to foster innovation in small businesses, large firms, and corporations (Blenker et al., 2006).

Likewise, students' desire for entrepreneurship education on the other hand is to a large extent influenced by their diverse future career aspirations in business, the public sector and academia, or in their present careers and professions - in business or elsewhere. It is also influenced by students' diverse academic backgrounds and programmes. For instance, management and economics students expect their managerial and innovation skills to be enhanced, whereas the entrepreneurs and aspiring entrepreneurs seek skills and the tools to establish and manage business enterprises (Koch, 2003). Other students' interest in entrepreneurship are purely academic and therefore require knowledge on theories of the entrepreneur such as his characteristics and traits, the benefits and challenges of entrepreneurship, and the entrepreneur's role in socio-economic development (Ibid). The implication is that, all of these expectations have to be articulated in the entrepreneurship education objectives and aims to satisfy the needs of all students.

Some researchers also believe that apart from stakeholder influence, the objectives of entrepreneurship education are also influenced by environmental, economic, and socio-cultural contexts, hence the different models of entrepreneurship education found in different countries (Ras & Pretorius, 2007). They argue that the entrepreneurship education objectives of socio-economically developed countries like the USA which have low unemployment levels emphasize skills for enhancing worker productivity, creativity and innovation. Some of these objectives are, the acquisition of knowledge, traits and skills germane to entrepreneurship; the acquisition of skills for planning and analysing business situations; developing risk and change tolerance attitudes, as well as enterprising, self-reliance and opportunity-seeking behaviour (Blenker et al., 2006).

In the case of developing countries like South Africa on the other hand, the aims of entrepreneurship education are to foster entrepreneurship and self-employment for addressing high employment levels. Examples are the development of performance motivation and business skills, and the development of entrepreneurial skills, and attitudes for small business (Ras & Pretorius, 2007). The QAA (2018) likewise has a mixed set of aims for enterprise and entrepreneurship education based on the belief that entrepreneurship education is of great benefit to everyone. However, for optimum impact they argue that the aims should be aligned with students' academic background. Some of the QAA objectives are, to enhance students' creativity, flexibility and innovativeness, to facilitate behaviour change for responsible citizenship, enhance academic performance and employability, and increase start-up rates (QAA, 2018).

In spite of the seeming plethora of aims and objectives of entrepreneurship education, three major strains can be identified. Firstly, it seeks to create awareness about entrepreneurship in its students. Secondly it aims to develop conventional business management skills, entrepreneurial traits and competences in student, (Zeithaml & Rice, 1987; Nieuwenhuizen & Groenewald, 2008). Thirdly, it provides personal enlightenment and development of students (Nabi et al., 2018). Entrepreneurship education therefore offers the platform for acquiring knowledge about entrepreneurship as well as the competences that will enhance their capacity for enterprising behaviour.

This fact conforms to Gibb's (2002) categorization of the two personality types associated with entrepreneurship namely, the 'enterprising person' and 'entrepreneurial person'. According to him, the 'enterprising person' is one who exhibits creativity, innovation, versatility, initiative taking and leadership, whereas the 'entrepreneurial person' is a person who has the former's traits, but with the additional desire of starting his own business enterprise. This categorization is also similar to Blenker et al., (2006) presentation of two types of entrepreneurs, one as an individual who initiates business startups, and the other who does not own his own business but exhibits entrepreneurial behaviour like innovation, tolerance for change in wide ranging socio-economic contexts, commercial and non-commercial. According to Ronstadt (1987) these imply that an effective entrepreneurship programme must teach students how to behave entrepreneurially and introduce them to a network of people to facilitate their success.

Ultimately, these objectives of entrepreneurship education can be summed up as teaching and learning 'for' and 'about' entrepreneurship where the former is for developing entrepreneurial skills, competences and attitudes in students, and the latter is for developing students' understanding of entrepreneurship as a desirable alternative career path (Ringley & Ronnqyvist, 2010; Blundel & Lockett, 2011; QAA, 2018). In recent times however others such as Linton and Klinton (2019) have argued for a deviation from the 'for' and 'about' only objectives of entrepreneurship education to include 'through' and 'in' which has the added element of teaching students to mimic real life processes entrepreneurs use in their work such as reflection, experiences and actions. This call is based on their belief that entrepreneurship is a complex and unpredictable process and not the linear, planned and predictable one it is often made out to be.

The diversity and ambiguities of the aims and objectives also present a number of constraints that include the un-uniform interpretations assigned to them by teachers and students (Smith & Beasley, 2011; Arranz, Arroyabe & Fdez de Arroyabe, 2018). Others are the difficulty of measuring the objective's outcomes and selecting appropriate curriculum content and pedagogies (Smith & Beasley, 2011; Arranz et al., 2018).

3.3.3 The diverse, loaded and ambiguous curriculum

Another challenge presented to entrepreneurship education is on account of its curriculum which is usually wide ranging, diverse, broad, loaded and ambiguous. It has these features as a result of the equally problematic aims and objectives designed to address all the needs of its heterogeneous students, the absence of agreed theories and definition of entrepreneurship, and the difficulty of deciding what to teach (Fiet, 2000; Neck et al., 2014; Kigotho, 2014; Sirelkhatim & Gangi, 2015). These factors have also led to variations in what is actually taught even in common topics like entrepreneurial process, opportunity recognition, business entry strategies, business plan design, legal and tax issues, intellectual property rights and franchising which are found in most entrepreneurship education curriculum (Sexton & Bowman, 1984; Bygrave, 1994). It has likewise resulted in the lack of depth in what is taught (Robinson & Haynes, 1991).

In suggesting topics for the entrepreneurship education curriculum, Drucker (1985), argued that it should contain topics that enlighten potential entrepreneurs about the barriers to entrepreneurial careers and how to overcome them. Ronstadt (1987) on the other hand proposed that the curriculum should foster entrepreneurial behaviour in students. Similarly, Gottlieb and Ross (1997), called for the inclusion of topics on creativity, risk taking and innovation because they reflect the generally agreed essence of the entrepreneur. While some entrepreneurship education providers try to teach entrepreneurship in its entirety, others teach only certain aspects of it.

Linking the curriculum to the entrepreneurship education objectives, the topics borrowed from entrepreneurship theories aim at imparting knowledge ‘about’ entrepreneurship, whereas the management theories provide knowledge ‘in’ entrepreneurship. For this reason, a common feature of the curriculum is the adoption of a wide array of topics and programmes from many academic disciplines like psychology, management, business and law. However, the theories that have most impacted entrepreneurship education’s curriculum are largely from management and entrepreneurship with managerial topics like marketing, business planning and business management dominating (Wright et al., 1994). (See Table 1). This is nonetheless not surprising since historically, the teaching of entrepreneurship was associated with business schools, beginning at Harvard in 1947 with its emphasis on business, management, and economic theories. Blenker et al., (2006), are however unhappy with the dominance of management topics in the entrepreneurship education curriculum because of their focus on the optimization of known resources rather than on fostering entrepreneurial behaviours like opportunity recognition and exploitation of unknown resources and markets.

Table 1: Theoretical Foundations of the Entrepreneurship Education Curricula

Entrepreneurship education	**Theories**	
Goals and curricula	**Management Theory**	**Entrepreneurship Theory**

Knowledge about entrepreneurship	Emphasize traditional management theory with its focus on the management development of businesses that are already in existence.	Foundations of entrepreneurship emphasizing the evolution of the concepts through the contributions from other disciplines such as economics, sociology, psychology, management, and innovation.
Skills for entrepreneurship	Focus on imparting management skills and competencies.	Focus on developing entrepreneurial traits and competencies.

Source: Based on the researcher's synthesis of literature

Curriculum topics from entrepreneurship theory on the other hand seek to impart knowledge 'about' and 'for' entrepreneurship in order to transform students with little or no theoretical knowledge of entrepreneurship into graduates who know about entrepreneurship and who have the added advantage of acquiring skills and competences for entrepreneurship as depicted in Table 2. The topics borrowed from entrepreneurship theory in the entrepreneurship education curriculum draw attention to the entrepreneurial personality, where the entrepreneur is projected as central to the entrepreneurship process, the one who displays alertness to opportunities, is able to creatively combine resources in innovative ways and exhibits a high need for achievement and tolerance for risk. Some of the typical topics include the conceptual evolution of entrepreneurship that highlight the contributions of classical economics and behavioural traits theorists and researchers like Jean-Baptiste Say, Richard Cantillon, Joseph Schumpeter and David McClelland. Other topics are, 'opportunity recognition' and 'exploitation' and the evolving types of entrepreneurship - social entrepreneurship, intrapreneurship and extrapreneurship.

Social entrepreneurship addresses dire socio-economic problems like lack of education and poverty in more cost-effective ways using 'for profit' business practices (Thompson & Doherty, 2018; Lee-Chin Institute, 2018). Intrapreneurship on the other hand is a process whereby employees adopt the entrepreneurial behaviours of opportunity identification and exploitation, innovation, pragmatism and risk-taking to enhance organizational productivity, and competitiveness to ensure its survival in the market (Petra et al, 2019). This is supported by strategic planning, the creation of formal structures and the allocation of resources by the organisation. Extrapreneurship is another entrepreneurial activity which is based on a collaboration of shared responsibilities and costs between a business entity and an entrepreneurial individual (the extrapreneur) operating outside of the organisation. It occurs when an individual seizes opportunities to advance their careers by transforming them from employees to clients of the mother company and vice versa (Van Rooijen, 2017).

Table 2: Knowledge and Skills Acquisition Progression from the Curriculum

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Theoretical course content</th><th colspan="2">Practical course content</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Knowledge ‘about’ entrepreneurship</td><td colspan="2">Skills ‘for’ entrepreneurship</td></tr>
<tr><td>Attention formation</td><td colspan="2">Arousal of interest</td><td>Action (skills) and competence</td></tr>
</table>

Little or no knowledge and skills ‘about’ and ‘for’ entrepreneurship

Increased knowledge and competency ‘about’ and ‘for’ skills entrepreneurship

Source: Adapted from Blenker et al., 2006 p. 92

By and large, the inclusion of the topics and concepts in the curriculum ultimately ought to support students to think and behave entrepreneurially, proactively, strategically, and innovatively (Bawuah et al., 2006). Unfortunately, according to Blenker et al., (2006), even though the curriculum suggests the training of enterprising individuals, it ends up by rather teaching competences for social processes instead of for individual entrepreneurial actions and attitudes.

3.3.4 The heterogeneous students

Students are a very important component of an educational programme. They are the targets of educational programmes whose role complement the teaching and learning process. Entrepreneurship education students have varied over the years, and from institution to institution. For instance, at the onset of entrepreneurship education in higher education, entrepreneurship students were initially small business owners and managers (Gibbs, 2002). The situation is quite different today such that the student body of entrepreneurship education is now recognized as homogeneous, ranging from pure scholars at the lower levels of the academic ladder to PhDs, and students with different learning needs and aims (Brockhaus et al., 2001). The broadening of the entrepreneurship education student base is largely due to the conceptual changes that have occurred in entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur. For example, defining entrepreneurship as the pursuit of opportunity invariably makes it attractive to many people, including the already self-employed, employee managers of corporations, business management students, professionals like physicians, lawyers and accountants, business acquirers and deal brokers, and even policy makers and administrators interested in creating entrepreneurial cultures in their work place such as (Koch, 2003; Alberti et al., 2004; Blenker et al., 2006).

Such a widening of the target students of entrepreneurship education, has serious implications which if not addressed properly could lead to incongruence between student needs and expectations on one hand and course aims on the other (Gibbs, 2002). Avoiding this, first demands a deep understanding of the identities, background, characteristics, desires, expectations and diverse learning needs of all the prospective students by the providers and teachers of entrepreneurship (Alberti et al., 2004). This is because such deep insights of the students will indicate the appropriate aims and objectives of the programme, curriculum, pedagogy and even teachers for best results. For instance, most SME operators are not so enthused about university entrepreneurship programmes because of the high costs and time constraints and the view that their success and growth in business was without any previous education in entrepreneurship Mitra & Manimala, 2008). It also requires a serious examination of the lack of incongruence between the aims of higher education on one hand, and the expectations of the different categories of students. For instance, whereas higher education is premised on knowledge and information transmission the entrepreneur- students on the other hand are mostly interested in skills acquisition. The attempt to meet the needs of heterogeneous students means providing diversified aims and objectives, diversified curriculum and instructional approaches, and equally heterogeneous teachers (Kuratko, 2004).

3.3.5 The heterogeneous teachers

A basic requirement of an educational programme is the teacher, educator, or instructor. For entrepreneurship education this is an issue that continues to fuel a lot of debate. Since the introduction of formal entrepreneurship education, one of the most asked questions has been ‘who should teach’ entrepreneurship (EC, 2008; Kander, 2014), which like the other components of entrepreneurship education can be traced to the unresolved definitional issues regarding its objectives, curriculum, and pedagogy. Whereas some have advocated for entrepreneur teachers, others are more inclined towards the use of academics using various arguments. Some of the arguments against practitioners are that they are not equipped to teach, lack the appropriate academic focus and credentials (EC, 2011a; Diegoli, Gutierrez, & García-De los Salmones, 2018). In spite of this, they have the advantage of possessing a lot of concrete and invaluable examples acquired from the job and societal experiences to share with students (Gibson 2004; Fry & Van Auken, 2003; Bosma et al., 2012).. The advantage of academic teachers on the other hand is their dearth of specialist and scientific knowledge them bring to the educational process.

In a bid for balance, the entrepreneurship education faculty has unique features that set it apart from those of many other faculties. A significant one is the diversity of its teachers. This is evident from their varied employment tenures ranging from non-tenure visitors, and part-time to full-time (Carlson et al., 2012). It is also obvious from their multiple professional identities according to Bouchikhi and Kimberly (2003). Similarly, most entrepreneurship teachers are traditionally drawn from other business academic fields, practice, and backgrounds, with a relatively small number of ‘pure’ entrepreneurship faculty (Kuratko, 2003). Entrepreneurship teachers likewise, have varying theoretical knowledge about business and entrepreneurship, and practical knowledge based on experience from either their own businesses, family businesses, or entrepreneurial firms. Another characteristic, according to Katz (2003), is that many of the teachers, especially the adjuncts have no real inclination or interest for entrepreneurship research unlike those from academia that would help to advance the frontiers of entrepreneurship education by providing rich literature from their perspectives.

A major constraint of the entrepreneurship faculty is the short supply of full-time teachers to man the different academic positions (Kuratko, 2014). Linked to this is the insufficient graduate degree programmes to develop entrepreneurship teachers and the lack of security of tenure (Kuratko, 2004; Alberti et al., 2004; Katz, 2003). Another often mentioned constraint is the teachers’ inadequate skills for teaching entrepreneurship, which according to Kuratko (2004) and Isaacs et al. (2007), can be attributed to the lack of resources. Their training is also of great concern and interest in view of the effect of their skills level to the learning process and the programme's efficacy (Kuratko, 2013; EC, 2008).

A number of proposals have been advanced for addressing the constraints of the entrepreneurship faculty. Among them are the European Commission Expert Group on Education and Training for Entrepreneurship which has advocated for more investments into the training and development of entrepreneurship teachers and researchers' pedagogical skills in case method and action-oriented teaching **(**EC, 2008**)**. In a similar vein, the SFEDI National Occupational Standards for Enterprise Educators (2016) asserts that the role of the entrepreneurial teacher is to enhance students' engagement and experience in and out of the classroom. To this end the teacher, must additionally be able to plan and effectively deliver the curricula on enterprise or entrepreneurship education, inspire, and motivate students to become enterprising and entrepreneurial, help student to develop networks among themselves and major stakeholders while at the same time benefiting from their teaching experience (SFEDI, 2016). The QAA (2018), on their part insist that entrepreneurship teachers embody entrepreneurial behaviour such as being inclusive leaders, innovative, enterprising, engaging and reflective to foster these same attributes in their students. According to Kuratko (2005), this will make them "… *the guardians of the true meaning and intent of the word entrepreneurship*" (Kuratko, 2005, p. 588). Entrepreneurship teachers must be entrepreneurial in outlook and behaviour if they are to prepare entrepreneurially minded students for successful entrepreneurship and work in today's dynamic and complex world. (Ozgen, 2012; Kuratko, 2014). Solomon (2007) adds that the entrepreneurship teachers must also be individuals capable of combining academic rigour with real-life examples and experience**.** This is because the absence of academic rigour may likely create the untenable scenario of teachers selecting and using only cases that appeal to them rather than for the topics' academic relevance to the disadvantage of students (Schramm, 2014).

Again, entrepreneurship teachers are expected to possess a wide range of skills. Among them are skills for designing and using effective learning processes and tools to teach the curriculum topics and to address the programme's aforementioned aims and objectives. For example, judging by the topics in the entrepreneurship education curriculum, teachers are required to play many roles. Among these are to act as facilitator and tutor, manage role-plays and simulations, structure exercises and supervise hands-on projects (Koch, 2003). In view of the heterogeneous students, entrepreneurship teachers have the added responsibility of addressing their diverse learning needs and earning their confidence by adapting the course content or curriculum in such a way that they suit students' varied backgrounds and expectations (Koch, 2003). Similarly, the diverse disciplinary background and expectations of the students is complimented by the appointment of teachers from different disciplines, academia, and practice and policy makers (ibid).

Who the teacher is, and his expected role, is the crux of the heterogeneous nature of the entrepreneurship faculty. The assumption is that the entrepreneurship teacher's role defers to some extent from that of the traditional university teacher who simply transfers knowledge and assesses amount of learning. According to Fiet (2000a), the teacher of entrepreneurship plays the role of both manager of the curricula and the teaching and learning process as well as coach. In supporting this idea, Blenker et al. (2006), in a study of six European entrepreneurship education programmes, discovered that entrepreneurship teachers did indeed play several roles such as the combined roles of consultant, adviser and role model. According to them assuming such a role is quite challenging for entrepreneurship teachers since it entails changes in attitudes and behaviour like ceding some control and responsibility to the students and devoting more time for planning lessons. Similarly, guiding and offers alternatives instead of dictating what is learned as the only right way can be quite as displayed by the traditional teacher can be very challenging (Jonsson & Jonsson, 2002, as in Blenker et al.,, 2006).

The ambiguities surrounding the roles and expectations of entrepreneurship faculty continue to fuel the ongoing debate about who is qualified to teach entrepreneurship. In contributing to this debate, Fiet (2000a) for instance assert that academic teachers are best suited for teaching entrepreneurship because they are likely to be more familiar with theory-based content and also have experience in the relevant pedagogical skills. In support for this notion, Kuratko (2014) advocates for a conscious and concerted effort to develop academic faculty in entrepreneurship with the appropriate skills and knowledge for teaching and contributing research to support the development of entrepreneurship education (Kuratko, 2014; Kander, 2014]). According to Ozgen (2012), this is necessary since entrepreneurship teachers, like all teachers must be conversant with different definitions and theoretical constructs of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship education research and also skilled in the use of the relevant teaching and learning approaches.

Linked to this is the merit of using entrepreneurs as facilitators of entrepreneurship education as against using pure academic faculty. One school of thought argues for entrepreneurs to be the ones to teach entrepreneurship since they are best qualified to tell the stories about entrepreneurial activities, insights and behaviour. Another school on the other hand believes that entrepreneurship ought to be taught with a more scholarly and theoretical perspective. Brush (2014) however suggests a combination of the two positions as the most appropriate because according to her entrepreneurship which entails the acquisition of knowledge, entrepreneurial skills and mindset, must be learned through entrepreneurial activity that is firmly grounded in theory (Kuratko, 2004).

There is no gainsaying the importance of entrepreneurships teachers in entrepreneurship education. Indeed, their personalities as well as the pedagogy they adopt contribute in great measure to the success of entrepreneurial learning (EC, 2011b; QAA, 2018). This, therefore, to some extent, also calls for a mastery of the knowledge and skills for teaching entrepreneurship which currently include the ability to use both the traditional and student-centred methods. Similarly, it also requires an in-depth knowledge about entrepreneurship education with regards to its aims, benefits and appropriate pedagogies among others (EC, 2011b; QAA, 2018). The teachers must themselves be entrepreneurial in mindset, be open-minded and possess entrepreneurial skills (Pihie & Bagheri, 2011; Kuratko, 2014) - the same skills they seek to impart in their students of entrepreneurship education. This is due to the fact that entrepreneurship learning is an experiential process that requires students to practice the real life roles, tasks and behaviours of the entrepreneur in the identification and exploitation of opportunities and in dealing with the challenges of managing a business venture. Given such a scenario, it would not be far-fetched to recruit entrepreneurship teachers from different academic disciplines such as mathematics and history if they are given the necessary training in entrepreneurship and first-hand information about the daily operations of entrepreneurial firms.

3.3.6 The varied pedagogy

An educational programme's pedagogy is determined by a number of factors like its aims and objectives, the demographic characteristics of its students and the curriculum. The same holds true for entrepreneurship education whose components have resulted in its unstandardized myriads of instructional methodologies, (Pittaway & Edwards, 2012; Ozgen, 2012; Kuratko, 2014; Sirelkhatim & Gangi, 2015). Among these pedagogies are the traditional teacher-centred approach, the enterprising approach, the integrated, and the methods approaches (Neck & Greene, 2011), causational approach based on planning and prediction (Daniel 2016), and design thinking approach (Koh et al., 2015; Val et al., 2017; Linton & Klinton, 2019), some of which are discussed below.

The traditional teacher-centred pedagogy, the dominant approach dates back to the 1940s when entrepreneurship education was first introduced at Harvard, despite its many shortcomings (Gyamfi, 2013; Daniel, 2016). Basically, this pedagogical approach relies on a one-way transmission of knowledge and information from an 'all-knowing' instructor to' ignorant' students (Lourenco & Jones, 2006). The main teaching methods for this approach are the lecture form focused on textbooks, and formal assessment procedures like written examinations. A major criticism of this pedagogical approach is the fact that it offers students little room to explore and engage in individual learning activities and projects (Pittaway & Edwards, 2012). Another is its inappropriateness for teaching skills like decision-making, entrepreneurial skills and attitudes, and motivation. This is because skills acquisition is best supported by active learning methods where the teacher plays a facilitating role by assisting and guiding students to explore, experiment, experience, self-direct, and construct their own learning (Nabi et al., 2017; Linton & Klinton, 2019; Neck & Greene, 2014). Additionally, the teacher-centred pedagogy does not adequately address the disparity in learner needs when used for teaching the heterogeneous entrepreneurship students holding diverse academic, social backgrounds and learning needs (Gorman et al., 1997).

Several approaches have been recommended to address the aforementioned shortcomings of the teacher-centred pedagogy by higher educational institutions. One example is the learner-centred enterprising or action-oriented approach which aims to meet the multiple learner needs and expectations (Koch, 2003; Lourenco & Jones, 2006). This pedagogical approach, depicted in Table 3, is rooted in the cognitive learning theories which describe learning as dynamic, active, constructive, goal-oriented, transformative, and self-led and self-constructed (Wittrock, 1986, as cited in Lourenco & Jones, 2006). Activities used in this approach include problem-solving and reflection, experiential learning like games, simulations and real life practice, all of which are supposed to engender deep and lasting learning. For its proponents, this approach offers a favourable platform for enhanced learning because of the opportunity it gives students to construct their own knowledge in a dynamic and simultaneous process. This process involves acquiring information, analysing it, and then synthesizing and reconstructing it for their individual benefits (Alavi 1994, as cited in Lourenco & Jones, 2006; Marton, 1975, as cited in Greene, 2011). It focuses on the thinking process of entrepreneurs, and the entrepreneurial mind-set by teaching students to think entrepreneurially and develop decision-making skills for managing business ventures (Greene, 2011). Topics best suited for this approach are 'entrepreneurship, entrepreneur, the entrepreneurial traits, and business plan writing.

Table 3: Enterprising Learning Approaches

Types of Pedagogy	**Learning activities**
Multiple/holistic learning perspective	Learn by doing, learn from mistakes, Learn from stakeholders' feedback and interaction, Learn to deal with pressure, ambiguity and complexity, Learn to find problems as well as design solutions, Learn from discovery, Learn from formal and informal environment.
Problem-based learning methods	Learn to deal with complexity, ambiguity and multi-functional roles.

Action learning and experiential learning approaches	Competition Role-play, scenario, simulation and games. Visioning, creativity and opportunity identification activities. Learning from reflection or critical incidents Multi-media case studies methodologies Presentations and discussions.

Source: Adaptation of enterprising approaches to entrepreneurship education (Lourenco & Jones, 2006, p.117).

Another approach for addressing the shortcomings of the traditional teacher-centred approach and the diverse learner-needs of the heterogeneous students, is Babson College's integrated model. It is a collaborative and complementary learning model based on the teacher-centred and learner-centred pedagogies to assist students to learn how to act, anticipate, think, solve problems and innovate in unknown futuristic domains (Neck & Greene, 2011). This approach also supports students' individual personal needs and preferences thereby ensuring that no learner is disadvantaged in the teaching of any course or subject (Koch, 2003). It for instance, addresses the needs of regular students who are more interested in theories and scientific knowledge, as well as those of the entrepreneur students whose overriding interest is to improve their competency skills for self-employment.

Some of the adopted methods used in this model are the conventional lecture and seminar methods, self-reflection, visits to entrepreneurial firms, entrepreneur guest speakers and role-play exercises (Lourenço & Jones, 2006) as presented in Table 4. The use of role models and successful entrepreneurs in this model is based on the assumption that the mindsets, beliefs and ideas of individuals are in many ways influenced by their social environment (Blundel & Lockett, 2011). In the same way "*an individual's entrepreneurial self-identity, attitudes, and ways of thinking are not set in stone (but are) to varying degrees,… open to the influence of other people, and can be modified by circumstances*" (Blundel & Lockett 2011, p. 310) such as through contacts with entrepreneurs, enterprising people, and entrepreneurial family members (Peterman & Kennedy, 2003; Weber, Graevenitz & Harhoff, 2009). Similarly, constructed on the notion that humans learn effectively from the everyday mistakes, challenges, and adversities they encounter in life, this model is used for teaching tolerance for setbacks, challenges, and failures - normal occurrences of running business enterprises - a fact alluded to by most successful entrepreneurs as the reason for their success (Blundel & Lockett, 2011).

The supporters of this model argue that the use of role models and entrepreneurs in entrepreneurship education offer concrete support and guidance to students in the form of mentorship that help them to overcome some of the challenges faced by emergent entrepreneurs and those making career choices (Sullivan, 2000, as cited in Nieuwenhuizen & Groenewald, 2008; Graevenitz & Harhoff, 2009). Similarly, the use of small group learning methods like peer exchange and group project work, and workshops, support the collaborative process of addressing complex business problems (Taylor, Jones & Boles, 2004, as cited in Nieuwenhuizen & Groenewald, 2008).

Table 4: Integrated Teaching and Learning Methods

A **Mode of Knowledge transfer**	**B** **Indirect application of Knowledge**	**C** **Direct application of knowledge**
Lectures	Group work/workshops	Role plays
Practical tasks	Project course	Simulations
Private study of literature	Presentations/ discussions	Cooperation with enterprises
Essays and degree dissertations	Case studies	Internships
	Presentations/success stories	Business plan seminars
	Excursions	

Source: Classification of teaching and learning methods (Koch 2003 p. 644)

A third pedagogical approach, for entrepreneurship education is the process approach which conceptualizes entrepreneurship as a sequential or linear process. It emphasizes the different stages of a business venture from its conception to when its products enter the market – that is from opportunity identification to the business's management to its exit. It makes use of methodologies such as 'starting business' for teaching students real-world business creation and management practice, entrepreneurial thinking, and functions, opportunity identification and evaluation, business and marketing planning, resource acquisition, and management and a mix of classroom lectures, textbooks, group exercises, business plans writing and case studies among others (Bygrave & Hofer, 1991). The main advantage of this approach is the fact that the case study method improves the decision-making skills of the learners. However, a major challenge is the lack of sufficient training of entrepreneurship teachers to handle it as it entails a significant amount of energy and time. Another difficulty with this approach is its attempt to teach entrepreneurship, which is neither a linear nor predictable activity as if it were an anticipated linear managerial process. The plausibility of this approach has also been questioned with regards to the best time for introducing it in the programme, whether at the beginning or at the end (Greene, 2011).

Another approach to counter the teacher-centred one for teaching entrepreneurship is ‘design-based learning’. The proponents of this approach argue that it is appropriate for training students to think entrepreneurially, become creative and capable of identifying opportunities (Greene, 2011). This is based on the belief that as an applied discipline, entrepreneurship ought to adopt the design-based curricula to facilitating, nurturing and developing crucial skills like observation, problem sighting and solving, critical thinking, creativity and value creation and feedback in entrepreneurship students (Greene, 2011; Pittaway & Edwards, 2012).

Next is the entrepreneur approach, proposed by Ozgen (2012) whose emphasis is on developing the basic character traits and psychological motives of the entrepreneur, namely, need for achievement, high internal locus of control, risk, and ambiguity tolerance. It also seeks to develop strong psychological motives for personal consulting, sales and marketing, empathy and finding ideas (Ibid). The entrepreneur approach, is not without some criticisms. The main one being whether it has the ability to circumvent the ambiguities in determining who is an entrepreneur and what are the character traits that qualify one as a successful entrepreneur.

There is likewise, another alternative approach to the teacher-centred one referred to as the method approach which proposes teaching entrepreneurship as a discipline. It is in fact a composite of the other approaches but highlighting creativity, constant practice, experiential learning and how to distinguish oneself in the entrepreneurship environment (Kuratko, 2014). It relies on the notion that entrepreneurship is a way of thinking and being. One merit of this approach is its suitability for all environments and contexts. It uses learning tools like project starting and implementation, games and simulation, design-based learning and reflective evaluation, business plans, student business start-ups, consultations and interviews with practicing entrepreneurs, computer simulations, environmental scans, field trips, films and video (Kuratko, 2014). The man challenge of this approach is that it must necessarily include post-action evaluation to be beneficial to the students.

'Method and design' is another pedagogical approach that seeks to address the major shortcomings and defects of the earlier ones highlighted, which according to Linton and Klinton (2019), teach entrepreneurship from the business administration perspective. Conceptually, the 'method and design' approach is a merger of Neck and Greene's (2011) methods approach and Pittaway and Edwards' (2012) 'design approach'. The overriding contention of this approach is that entrepreneurship is a very uncertain and unpredictable enterprise, and therefore very different from business management that predicts the future along a linear process with known inputs and outputs. The claim of advocates is that this approach focuses on the nurturing of entrepreneurial mindsets and creativity and innovation skills, central to entrepreneurship, but not linear. They further argue that the method and design approach affords students the opportunity to combine reflective exercises with real world experimentation, practice and interaction with the market place (Linton & Klinton, 2019).

The European Commission (2011) is not left out in the search for an appropriate pedagogy for entrepreneurship education. It subscribes to the active student-centred approach as the most appropriate for fostering discovery and action using real world activities, and exercises and experiential learning. They reason that the development of entrepreneurship competencies in individuals goes beyond mere knowledge acquisition for running a business to include attitudinal and behavioural change (EC, 2011). They also believe that entrepreneurship is a transversal competence which should be taught as a theme (Ibid). All of these topics are difficult to teach using the known traditional teaching and learning approaches that cast the learner in the role of passive recipient (EC, 2011).

The discussion so far, shows the impetus for the search for new and more robust pedagogy devoid of ambiguities and easily adaptable by entrepreneurship teachers in different contexts and capable of meeting the demands of an evolving entrepreneurship education programme (Solomon, Duffy & Tarabisky, 2002; Kuratko, 2008; Neck, Greene & Brush, 2014). In support, Gibb (1993) argues for linking entrepreneurship education to real world issues like feelings, attitudes and values, hands-on experience, learning by-doing exercises like problem-solving and creativity. Similarly, they should include active and participatory student-centred pedagogies such as, business plan competitions, internship programmes, serminars, workshops, consultation with entrepreneurs and computer simulations (Solomon et al., 2002; Gyamfi, 2013). The new approaches must be the melting pot for entrepreneurial learning where students get to understand and develop business and entrepreneurial skills, mindset, traits and behaviours,- the very essence of entrepreneurship educations (Garavan & O'Cinneide, 1994; Bawuah, Buame & Hinson, 2006). To ensure balance, these inductive learning methodologies must be complimented with deductive learning methodologies like the traditional theory-based lecture method for the teaching of core entrepreneurship concepts (Fiet, 2000b).

Possible areas to explore further is how best to take advantage of the emergence of ICT (Kuratko 2003). This is because it promises to offer new opportunities and methods for teaching entrepreneurship and the sharing of information to address some of the resource and time constraints of entrepreneurship education. For example, the use of technology to address the inadequacy of textbooks (Solomon et al., 2002). Even in the USA less than 50% of institutions use methods such as online assistance and distance learning for entrepreneurship (Kuratko, 2003). This will be a major feat because these constraints threaten entrepreneurship education's effectiveness and efficacy since entrepreneurship is a complex and multi-functional activity which needs more time to teach, experience and learn (Curran & Stanworth, 1989; Garavan & O'Cinneide, 1994 in Kuratko, 2004). Several institutions in the USA such as George Washington and Ball State universities have already adopted this approach by offering distance learning programmes in entrepreneurship (Solomon et al., 2002).

3.3.7 Summary

The educational components of entrepreneurship education were addressed in this section due to relevance for the efficacy, evolution and growth of entrepreneurship education. These were the diverse, broad, and ambiguous objectives, curriculum and pedagogy, and the heterogeneous teachers and students.

3.4 GLOBAL TRENDS IN ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

3.4.1 Introduction

This section presents entrepreneurship education in practice and context from a cross section of higher educational institutions in North America, where it began, then Europe, Asia and Africa, and finally Ghana.

3.4.2 Entrepreneurship education in North American and Europe

As has been stated already in this paper, entrepreneurship education emerged on the higher education landscape in the USA. It remains the leading provider with over 1,600 institutions, including Stanford University, the Berkeley University of California, and Babson College, offering more than 2,200 courses at undergraduate and graduate levels (Solomon, et al., 2002; Katz, 2003; Potter, 2008; GWCEE, 2014). The USA also has the highest student enrolment, over 277 endowment positions, 44 refereed academic journals, 100 established funded centres, and entrepreneurship chairs or professorships (Kuratko, 2004). According to Solomon (2008), this growth trend of the USA's entrepreneurship education is due partly, to the general dissatisfaction with business education which critics claim fails to nurture entrepreneurial and creative individuals capable of growing enterprises and wealth.

A similar trend is found in Canada and Europe which have also seen an increase in colleges, students and courses (Potter, 2008; Duffy & Stevenson, 1984). However, unlike Western Europe, only a few higher education institutions in Central and Eastern Europe offer entrepreneurship education (Potter, 2008). Germany, in Central Europe introduced entrepreneurship education into their tertiary schools' curriculum in 1998 which has since developed.

In Canada, Ontario alone offers over 72 undergraduate and 42 graduate entrepreneurship courses, most of them by business and engineering faculties (Sá, Kretz, Sigurdson, 2014). Likewise, in the USA, most of the entrepreneurship education programmes are found in the universities' business and management departments. The trend of entrepreneurship education in the USA is presently towards the integration of entrepreneurship across different academic disciplines due to entrepreneurship's impact on many subjects outside business school (Potter, 2008).

In the USA, entrepreneurship education is currently focused on developing high growth-oriented ventures, therefore the emphasis is on courses and topics on entrepreneurial skills, mindset and behaviour (Potter, 2008; GWCEE, 2014). The most common ones are entrepreneurship, business planning, entrepreneurial finance, new venture creation, innovation, business model canvas, social entrepreneurship, feasibility, ethics, harvesting, and lean start-up methods. Some less popular courses are franchising, family business and small business financing. Similarly, in Western Europe there is a noticeable shift in courses towards growth entrepreneurship and inter-disciplinary programmes (Potter, 2008). Entrepreneurship education in Canada also emphasizes entrepreneurial skills and mindset, and offers courses similar to the USA such as the introduction and principles of entrepreneurship, new venture creation and development, entrepreneurship strategy, small and family business entrepreneurship and innovation management, social entrepreneurship, and technological entrepreneurship (Sá, et al., 2014).

There has also been a significant growth in online courses in the USA, in view of their flexibility and cost effectiveness, which to a large extent has been facilitated by readily available online resources. However, the patronage is low probably because of the challenge of providing experiential learning opportunities to students online (GWCEE, 2014). Likewise, the USA entrepreneurship education programme has witnessed the emergence of academic institutions such as Babson College, which have committed themselves for the advancement and development of entrepreneurship as a discipline and research (Brush, 2014).

Entrepreneurship education in Europe and Canada, unlike in the USA, is government-led in response to policies for the promotion of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial individuals (Sá et al., 2014). Canada's entrepreneurship education initiative, additionally enjoys massive support and partnerships from many entrepreneurship centres or hubs, institutions and individuals such as the North-Western Ontario Innovation Centre, the Centennial College Centre of Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurs-in-residence, and the University of Windsor's Law Technology and Entrepreneurship Clinic (UWLTEC). The UWLTEC for instance, provides business and intellectual property law advice to the community and student entrepreneurs (Sá et al., 2014). The other partner bodies in Canada similarly provide a network of experienced practitioners and programmes, incubations and extracurricular activities, such as seminars, workshops, business plan and venture capital competitions, award speaker series, internships, mentoring and coaching for the students. They additionally, advice and serve as programme consultants to faculty, staff and student start-ups, and in some institutions, even help in admissions and act as competitions judges. On the part of the USA, entrepreneurship education likewise, receives a significant amount of funding for courses from external sources and grants like alumni and non-alumni entrepreneurs, the federal government, the Coleman Foundation (CF), the Kauffman foundation and many other private donors and individuals.

The entrepreneurship faculty in the USA programme is characterized by the mix of full time, adjuncts, non-tenure and part-time teachers even in the resourced schools (Kuratko, 2003). A significant practice is the growing use of experienced entrepreneur-teachers, to complement the activities of the academic based faculty. Similarly, the entrepreneurship faculties are receiving a lot of support and encouragement for designing their own teaching methods and approaches (Potter, 2008). Learning is additionally facilitated mostly through the use of academic journals and periodicals, textbooks, websites, extra-curricular activities like entrepreneur speakers, business plan competitions, and entrepreneurship clubs and elevator pitch competitions. Others are discussions and lectures from small business owners and the increasing availability of student internship support programmes. The use of computer simulation, counselling, blogging and twitter are however minimized. Unlike the USA, Europe's entrepreneurship pedagogy is dominated by traditional classroom methods, but with is a growing use of case studies, role-play and simulations, especially, the West (Potter, 2008).

In Eastern Europe, the challenges encountered in entrepreneurship education are mainly inadequate entrepreneurship faculty, an over reliance on the traditional passive and academic teaching methods and funding (Potter, 2008). This also applies to the USA and Canada who additionally lack teachers with adequate theoretical knowledge and teaching skills (Vanevenhove, 2013).

3.4.3 Entrepreneurship education in Asia

There has been an observed growth in entrepreneurship education in many higher educational institutions in Asian countries like Malaysia, China and India (Rahim et al., 2015). They are all government led such as Malaysia's, government Higher Education Entrepreneurship Development Policy for developing entrepreneurial students to ensures the economic transformation of the country into a high-income economy (ibid).

According to Rehman and Elahi (2012), India is one of the pioneering providers of entrepreneurship education in the developing world that is focused on self-employment generation and the establishment of SMEs. Entrepreneurship education became the vehicle for transforming India's agrarian economy to a more diversified one in the 1960's and 1970's with the active involvement of government and financial institutions (Rehman & Elahi, 2012). Later in the 1980s and 1990's the focus of entrepreneurship education was shifted from self-employment generation to entrepreneur training programmes in technology and management institutions. Since then other groups like NGOs, industry operators and consultants entered the entrepreneurship education space as students (Rehman & Elahi 2012). In a similar vein, China's economy has seen tremendous socio-economic growth and transformation during the last four decades, especially after its entrepreneurship drive (Weiming et al., 2016). This led to the introduction of entrepreneurship education in China at all educational levels from 1997, from primary to higher education (Ibid). It is thus a relatively new programme as compared to the West.

Currently, entrepreneurship education is offered as elective courses in most of India's management institutions, whereas it is offered as a compulsory course for final year students in the emerging business schools (Basu, 2014). The courses being offered are similar to the traditional business courses including entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship strategy, and new venture creation. In China on the other hand, entrepreneurship education began with the introduction of extracurricular activities in the form of business plan competitions by a few innovative universities, the first being the top of the league Tsinghua University (Li & Li, 2015). According to Weiming et al. (2016), the almost 400 projects from over 120 universities which participated in this competition initiated a wave of innovation and entrepreneurship in higher education nationwide and the entire country. Also introduced were counselling, entrepreneurship courses and entrepreneurial talents training later in 2002. Entrepreneurship modules such as venture management and entrepreneurial financing in nine colleges including Tsinghua University, Chinese People's University, Wuhan University, Shanghai Jiao Tong University and Beijing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics were also introduced (Li & Li, 2015). This culminated in the extension and mainstreaming of entrepreneurship education in 2012, to many other universities in China, to develop entrepreneurial individuals for the workforce for an accelerated transformation of the Chinese economy.

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China's entrepreneurship education programme is supported by both governmental and private agencies through the entrepreneurial knowledge and skills training, guidance and venture capital for entrepreneurship students such as the Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, and Shanghai Technology Entrepreneurship Foundation for Graduates (Fan, Zhang & Qiu, 2012).

The main challenges of entrepreneurship education in India are the lack of standardization and indigenous experience, trained teachers, pedagogical limitations, and the short-term nature of its objectives (Dutta, 2012). In a bid to address these shortcomings, a 'foundations of entrepreneurship' course emphasizing managerial entrepreneurship, corporate entrepreneurship, and extrapreneurship has been introduced (Basu, 2014). Another challenge is cultural issues which run counter to the principles and practice of entrepreneurship such as the belief in accepting the status quo as a given which ought not to be altered for the sake of inner peace and healthy family relations. Other challenges are time, financial and bureaucratic constraints encountered in business start-ups such as the eighty-nine days it takes to register a business in India compared to the USA's five days, and the high cost of registering a business (Rehman & Elahi, 2012).

Similarly, a major challenge of China's entrepreneurship education is the shortage of capable and stable entrepreneurship faculty (Fan et al., 2012) most of whom are drawn from the traditional academic disciplines, namely, economics and business administration. Another constraint is the irrational and ambiguous curricula taught using the traditional classroom teaching method that offers very little room for practice and active participation of students. Similarly, the number of courses on offer are limited (Weiming et al., 2016). Linked to this is the fact that in spite of the numbers, only a limited number of universities offer entrepreneurship (Li & Li, 2015). Another drawback to entrepreneurship education in China is the lack of enthusiasm exhibited by the lower-level managers of the schools and colleges. Again, for many years, a shortcoming of the Chinese entrepreneurship education was its focus on entrepreneurial knowledge and theories to the neglect of entrepreneurial quality or character.

A number of initiatives, modifications, and models have been introduced to enhance entrepreneurship education's capacity for nurturing entrepreneurial individuals in China. They include initiatives like entrepreneurial parks, and real-world entrepreneurial platforms where students can experience and practice the art of entrepreneurship (Weiming et al., 2016). Some of the entrepreneurship education models introduced to boost entrepreneurship education are the Tsinghua University's 'intensive educational model' which focuses on high technology, innovation and industrialization, and the Renmin University's 'expanded classroom educational model', which is an integration between classroom and extracurricular practical courses (Ibid). To address the inadequate training of teachers, a series of training programmes have been provided for entrepreneurship teachers in China that have led to appreciable increases in entrepreneurship faculties (Li & Li, 2015). One such training programme is at the Beijing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics to equip teachers with skills for creating entrepreneurship awareness and enhancing students' entrepreneurial capacity and competence. In this programme, teachers cover areas like the entrepreneurship curriculum and content, coaching principles and facilitating innovative experiments. Another training programme is the 'Know About Business Entrepreneurship Education' (KABEE) programme begun in 2008 in partnership with the ILO and the All-China Students Federation (ACSF), and which has trained over 4,045 teachers from more than 1,008 universities. Its aim is to promote Chinese entrepreneurship education using knowledge gained from best practices and international experiences. Additionally, course textbooks for teachers and students have been published (Li & Li, 2015). The teacher training has also been facilitated by the creation of university students KAB clubs and KABEE bases in many universities that offer students the opportunity to learn first-hand about entrepreneurship through practice (Li & Li, 2015; Weiming et al., 2016). To ensure the future growth of entrepreneurship education in China, external resources, and improvement in the curriculum and the teaching approaches are being provided. More attention is also being focused on social entrepreneurship education in order to nurture students to become socially responsible through the acquisition of social entrepreneurial skills to address social ills (Bastin, 2014).

3.4.4 Entrepreneurship education in Africa

Though entrepreneurship education is quite recent in Africa, its popularity is growing like the rest of the world. This is evident from the increasing number of universities providing it in countries such as Kenya, Nigeria, Ethiopia and Mozambique targeting undergraduate and postgraduate students in response to governmental policy direction to end graduate unemployment (Gerba, 2012; Kigotho, 2014; Owusu-Ansah, 2014). In Nigeria, this interest in entrepreneurship education is also due to the perception that the traditional university education does not fully equip students for self-employment (Nwangwu, 2007, as cited in Ekpoh & Edet, 2011). Similarly, in Mozambique, entrepreneurship education's popularity has resulted in the enrolment of more than half of the country's higher education students in three institutions offering it - the Instituto Superior de Ciências e Tecnologia de Moçambique (Higher Education Institute of Science and Technology of Mozambique - HEISTM), the Pedagogical University, and the Eduardo Mondlane University (Kigotho, 2014).

Countries like Kenya and Mozambique have integrated entrepreneurship education in all the universities. In Kenya, this includes the Strathmore University, and the

Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. Its entrepreneurship education curriculum was designed by the National Universities Commission (NUC) in July 2004. Most of the entrepreneurship education programmes in Kenya for instance are one semester core modules for undergraduate students (Owusu-Ansah, 2014). Strathmore University has also incorporated entrepreneurship and innovation courses into most of its academic programmes in its commerce and management schools. In a similar move, the ESNEC, has likewise mainstreamed 'entrepreneurship and business creation' and 'business plan' courses in all its degrees programmes (Libombo, Dinis & Mário Franco, 2015). In Mozambique, some institutions have contributed to the development of entrepreneurship education through the introduction of various programmes. For example, the HEISTM is exposing students to entrepreneurship through workshops and business plan competitions in its Empresa Junior programme. The Eduardo Mondlane University on the other hand, by mainstreaming of entrepreneurship education, requires all its enrolled students to read entrepreneurship modules irrespective of their area of study while at the same time providing stand-alone entrepreneurship degree programmes (Kigotho, 2014; Libombo et al., 2015). In 2008, this university also opened another entrepreneurship school, the Escola Superior de Negócios e Empreendedorismo de Chibuto (ESNEC), to develop entrepreneurial human resource for high productivity in the workplace and for creating and managing business ventures (Libombo et al., 2015). Similarly, even though entrepreneurship education was initially introduced in business schools in Ethiopia, it has now been integrated into the curricula of many fields of study (Gerba, 2012).

In Africa, entrepreneurship education claims to prepare students for entrepreneurial pursuits and other careers (Valerio et al., 2014). Consequently, universities like Jomo Kenyatta and Strathmore have linked their entrepreneurship education to incubator programmes that offer support services ranging from networking, and mentorship to potential funding from the private sector. They likewise offer courses that emphasize socio-emotional skills like leadership, psychology of planning, personal initiative, persuasion and negotiations, while others concentrate purely on the development of business acumen and entrepreneurial mindset (Valerio et al., 2014). Additionally, skills development courses such as communication, creativity, critical thinking, assessment, problem-solving, networking, and time management are offered.

There is gradual shift of the entrepreneurship curriculum to focus on entrepreneurial mindset and attitudes in Mozambique. The reason for this is to foster innovation in Mozambicans for the workplace and for the country's socio-economic developmental needs. Consequently, entrepreneurship and business-related courses have been introduced to develop entrepreneurial attitudes and behaviour and the desire for entrepreneurship as an alternative career. To achieve this aim, courses offered by ESNEC, for instance, include management and leadership, agro-business and commercial agriculture, retail and finance. Similarly, the ESNEC is mainstreaming courses like 'entrepreneurship and business creation' and business plan in all its degrees programmes. In the case of Nigeria, whose aim for entrepreneurship education is self-employment rather than job seeking, all students are mandated to pass specific courses in entrepreneurship before graduation. Some of these courses are about the definition, and purpose of entrepreneurship, key entrepreneurial competences, business ideas generation, starting and managing a business, the role of investment and support agencies, business planning and succession plan (NBTE, 2007, as cited in Nnadozie, Akanwa & Nnadozie, 2013).

Attempts are also being made to facilitate the further growth of entrepreneurship education in Africa through collaborations between higher education and other stakeholders. For example, in Mozambique, the Pedagogical University, in partnership with UNIDO, has developed an entrepreneurship course for training secondary school teachers to teach entrepreneurship. Similarly, the ESNEC also has many collaborations with industry and market that are meant to enhance the skills of school graduates and SME operators, and meet the needs of the workplace and industry as well (Libombo et al., 2015). Examples are its partnerships with SMETOOLKIT and Business Edge which teach students, teachers and business owners in the use of management tools, in addition to business management, administration, hotel services, English and computer skills (Ibid). The ESNEC also focuses on the training of entrepreneurship teachers to enhance teaching and learning.

Among the constraints of entrepreneurship education in Africa is the worrying phenomenon of entrepreneurship's low rating as a decent and viable career choice, especially for the educated (Olomi, 2009). This is illustrated by the excessive pressure brought to bear on school graduates by parents to look for white colour jobs in Nigeria (Unachukwu, 2009). Another is the issue of very little research for assessing the impact of entrepreneurship education on small business creation in Africa (Schoof, 2006). Again, there is a lack of adequate research and data on youth employment generation through entrepreneurship (Ibid). There is also a lack of understanding of the aims of entrepreneurship education among the stakeholders like the government. Entrepreneurship education in Nigeria, according to Ajagbe et al. (2016) is also constrained by inadequate resources, funding, equipment, and lecture spaces, as well as poor learner concentration, limited time, and lack of practical workshops. Additional challenges cited for Nigeria are the educational system which breeds dependency instead of autonomy and growth mindsets, poor infrastructural facilities like roads and water which negatively impact on entrepreneurship (Unachukwu, 2009).

3.4.5 Entrepreneurship education in Ghana

Entrepreneurship education in Ghanaian tertiary institutions, largely concentrated in the private universities, began in the late 1990's in response to a governmental call for higher education to help address the graduate unemployment canker plaguing the country (Fosu & Boateng, 2013; Gyamfi, 2013; Owusu-Ansah, 2014; Boateng, 2018). It was also boosted by the global trend, and belief that entrepreneurship education facilitates the acquisition of entrepreneurial behaviour and managerial skills for business startups to graduates, and an awareness of self-employment as an alternative path. The University of Ghana and the study institution were among the first to introduce entrepreneurship education by offering entrepreneurship as core course for all freshmen in their Business Schools (Bawuah et al., 2006). Since then, most of the other institutions offer entrepreneurship education from their business schools (Bawua et al., 2006). They include the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), the Entrepreneurship Training Institute, and the Methodist University, university of Cape Coast, University for Development studies and The University of Professional Studies (Gyamfi, 2013). Some institutions like the

Entrepreneurship Training Institute in Accra, offer entrepreneurship at both the undergraduate and graduate degree levels (Owusu-Ansah, 2014).

Currently, Ghanaian institutions offer entrepreneurship either as stand-alone courses, as components of other courses, as core or elective courses (Mordedzi, 2015; Owusu-Ansah, 2014). According to Gyamfi (2013), there are variations in the course contents used by the different institutions but can be grouped under technical, business management and entrepreneurial skills categories. They include topics on creativity and innovation, start-up issues, marketing research, managing people, financial planning and business plan (Ibid). The KNUST has also introduced initiatives through collaborations with the Kumasi Business Incubator (KBI), and the Enterprise Centre to run courses in small business management (Kissi et al., 2015). In the polytechnics, the curricula focus on creating entrepreneurs but significantly pays less attention to entrepreneurial behaviour (Mordedzi, 2015), and rather emphasizes theoretical topics such as Introduction to entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs, entrepreneurial ventures, innovation, finance for entrepreneurs, legal issues, marketing, business plan and SMEs (Dzisi, 2014).

The entrepreneurship education pedagogy in Ghanaian institutions is largely teacher centred and cognitive, consisting of lectures with very little practical methods like case studies, guest speakers and practicing entrepreneurs, discussions, field work (Mordedzi, 2015; Dzisi, 2014; Azila-Gbettor, & Harrison, 2013). The most common form of assessment is the end of semester and mid-semester examinations (Gyamfi, 2013).

Entrepreneurship education in Ghana faces constraints such as ineffective course contents and teaching techniques because according to Gyamfi, (2013), the courses have not been very successful in imparting the required skills and competences. Others are high student-teacher ratio, lack of infrastructural facilities, and lack of co-curricular and practical activities like entrepreneurship clubs, business plan competitions, internships and business incubators (Mordedzi, 2015; Dzisi, 2014). Similarly, Mordedzi (2015), cites the absence of curriculum content in areas such as change and stress management, family business, information technology, organisational design, and social entrepreneurship. He also points to the flaws in the teacher-centred and assessment of learning outcomes, saying they fail to equip students with the enterprise culture to transit smoothly from school to self-employment (Mordezi, 2015). Dzisi (2014), likewise, refers to the inadequate transfer of indigenous knowledge, the focus on examination for assessing the programme's outcome, the reliance on foreign textbooks, lack of attention to students from science and engineering backgrounds. Azila-Gbettor, & Harrison, (2013) refer to the constraint of insufficient time on the academic timetable and cost of education. Students in polytechnics, claim that topics do not reflect the reality in the Ghanaian business environment and call for increase in credit hours, books, seminars and workshops to build capacities, and soft loans from government for statups, symposia, fairs, and the use of indigenous business examples (Dzisi, 2014; Gyan et al., 2015). It is worthy of note that the entrepreneurship students found the programme interesting and beneficial for business startup and self-employment even though they claim the courses are largely abstract and technical, Gyan et al., 2015).

Entrepreneurship education in Ghana is gradually recording an increase in research in major areas like the curriculum, pedagogy, and the impact of entrepreneurship education on graduate students' entrepreneurial intentions (Dzisi, 2014; Gyan et al., 2015; Gyamfi, 2013; Boateng 2018). The findings of the impact studies suggest a positive correlation between entrepreneurship education and business startup, coupled with the growing graduate unemployment in Ghana (Gyamfi, 2013; Boateng, 2018; Gyan et al., 2015).

3.4.6 Summary

Entrepreneurship education is a global phenomenon being promoted by countries and higher education all over the world. In this section entrepreneurship education practice in higher educational institutions were presented by highlighting their key curriculum, aims and operational challenges, their similarities, and differences. Featured in this discussion were examples from North America, Europe, Asia, Africa and Ghana.

3.5 THE PROFILE OF THE SELECTED STUDY INSTITUTION

The study institution is one of the Ghanaian higher educational institutions that has responded fully to the Ghanaian government's proposed policy of mainstreaming entrepreneurship education in its undergraduate programmes. It was established in the early 2000 in Accra, but now has satellite campuses in Tema, Takoradi and Kumasi. The institution offers three academic programmes, namely Evening Regular Bachelor Programmes, Day-Time Regular Bachelor Programmes and Top-Up Bachelor Programmes (day and evening) in addition to graduate programmes. Academic programmes offered include Accounting, Human Resources Management, Marketing, Business Administration, economics, and entrepreneurship.

All the satellite campuses were opened ten years later. The Tema Campus is in the coastal city of Tema, and offers only evening undergraduate programmes. The Takoradi Campus is in Takoradi, another coastal city on the west coast of Ghana. The two campuses of Kumasi are in the middle belt of Ghana. The Accra Campus is the largest of the campuses.

Since its establishment to provide degree programmes to workers and business executives, 'Foundations of Entrepreneurship' is offered as a core module by all undergraduate students. Another entrepreneurship programme - Bachelor in Entrepreneurship - was also offered as a stand-alone degree programme, for small business owners for a number of years (Buame & Hinson, 2006). The Bachelor in Entrepreneurship programme offered students the opportunity to read additional entrepreneurship modules such as Social Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurship and Innovation, Entrepreneurship and Opportunity Recognition and New Venture Creation.

Over the years an average of over 600 students have passed out of the college annually with a basic knowledge in entrepreneurship.

3.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on entrepreneurship education's emergence and growth in higher education. The first part of the discussion looked at the concept of entrepreneurship education, its definition, advent and relevance in higher education, entrepreneurship education research and entrepreneurship education models. The second part discussed the limitations of the entrepreneurship education components, while the third part presented the state of entrepreneurship education in higher education in some parts of the world including Ghana. The chapter ended with the study institution's profile. The following chapter presents the research methodology for the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

A question posed by Lincoln and Guba (1985), as cited by Gaus (2017) and subsequently answered by Murcott (1997), provides the setting for this chapter. The answer to this pertinent question, namely: "*How can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences that the research findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to*"? (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 290) is succinctly provided by Murcott (1997) when he advises that the methodology chapter of a research paper should give a detailed description and explanation of all germane issues of the research, namely, how the research was conducted, what strategy was adopted and the rationale for the selection, what research design and techniques were used and the justification for doing so. Similarly, Silverman (2013) refers to the need to recognize as well as explain the theoretical underpinnings of the methodologies selected for the study, all of which enhance the credibility and validity of the research.

In line with the viewpoints cited above, and taking a cue from Gaus (2017), this chapter presents the research philosophy, the research paradigm and methodological approach that were adopted for this study, which consists of a detailed description of all the steps, processes and decisions made during the entire study. The discussion begins with a description of the study's adopted research process followed by its epistemological and ontological underpinnings. This leads to the justification for the choice of the qualitative case study approach for this study. Next is an account of the study's research design and the data collection and analysis procedures. The chapter concludes with how the study ensured reliability and validity in the data analysis and the research findings. Issues of ethics, trustworthiness, credibility, transferability, dependability, and limitations of the study are dealt with in the discussions in the different sessions.

4.2 THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH PROCESS

4.2.1 Introduction

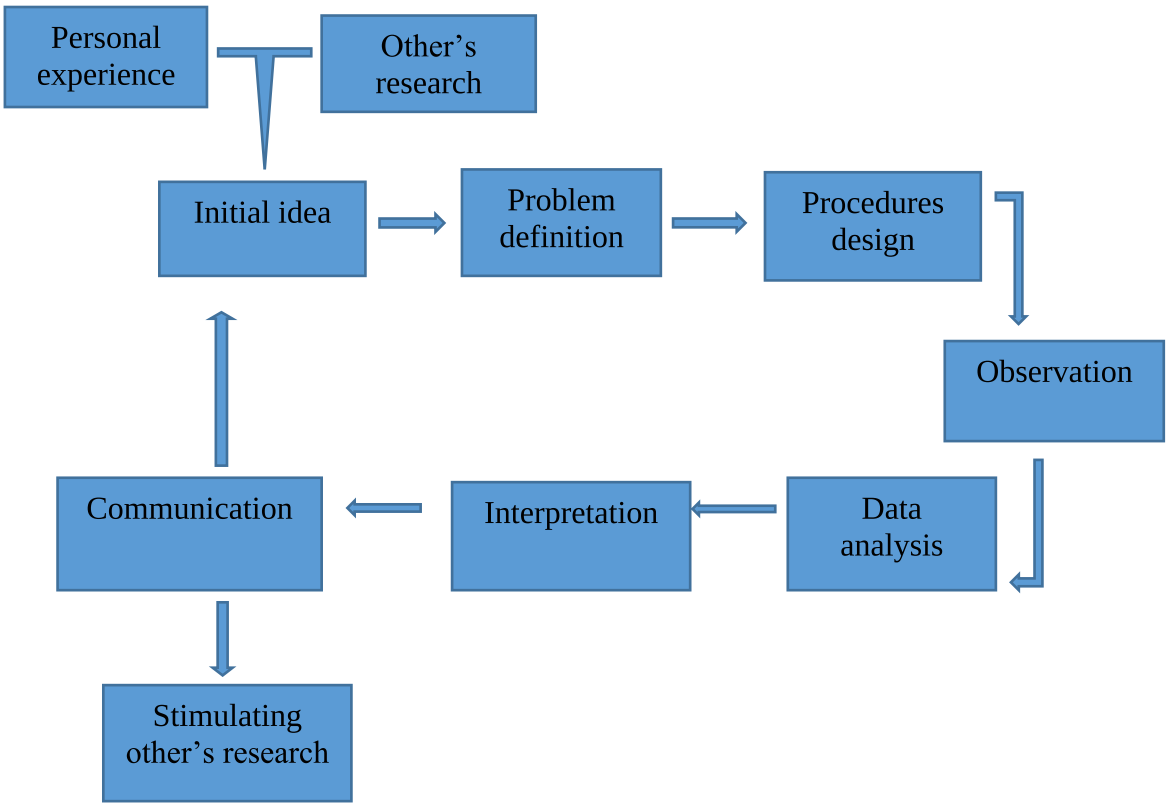
Empirical research is the observation and measurement of a phenomena for the purposes of acquiring knowledge from experience (not from theory or belief) and which is verifiable through replication (Pennsylvania State University, 2019). According to Singh and Walwyn (2017), the three core dimensions of research are firstly a process or activity, secondly that it aims to generate new knowledge and thirdly that it is scientific and objective. Similarly, the key features of an empirical research design consist of the specific research questions that it seeks to answer, the definition of the research population and research participants, the phenomena that is being studied as well as a description of the entire process adopted for the study, namely, the selection criteria for the research questions and study context, the data collection procedures, the data analysis procedure and the research findings or results (PSU, 2019). Thus, empirical evidence is therefore data generated from observation, measurement, experience and many other data collection tools and procedures (Hussey & Hussey, 1997; Aliyu et al., 2015).

4.2.2 Stages in the empirical research process

As already stated, one characteristic of empirical research is its implied offer of verification and replication made possible by the detailed description of the research process (Gaus, 2017). The research process used for this study was informed by the works of researchers such as Glacer (1978), Graziano and Raulin (2009), Lacey (2006) and Bukvova (2009). Their process models begin with reading widely on the general and specific literature on the topic, settling on a specific research question, adopting a research design and method, collecting and analysing the data, and finally disseminating the findings as illustrated in Figures 5 and 6. (Graziano & Raulin, 2009; Lacey, 2006).

As depicted in Figure 5, since Graziano and Raulin (2009) as cited in Bukvova (2009)*,* define science as a process of enquiry based on observation and reasoning or rationalism, their research process begins with the generation of ideas from their own personal experience and existing research. This is followed by the clear definition of the problem and the research question. This then leads to the selection of the appropriate research design to answer the research question, the determination of the research participants, the data collection, and the data analysis procedures. The data is then subsequently collected, analysed, interpreted and finally communicated to the scientific community whose interest in the findings may lead to further research by other researchers (Graziano & Raulin, 2009, as cited in Bukvova, 2009).

Figure 5: The Research Process (Bukvova, 2009, p. 6)



Lacey (2006) on the other hand presents a research process that begins with defining the research question from an idea or hunch as shown in Figure 6. This is followed by a review of existing research literature on the topic, further refinement of the research question and the selection of the research design and method that match the research question. All these initial preparations provide the background for the research proposal. In view of the fact that Lacey's (2006) research process was designed for the nursing field with its ethical and legal issues regarding access and use patients' data, the gaining of access to data was treated as a separate step on its own after the proposal preparation stage. The next stages are the adopted sampling, data collection and data analysis methods.

Lacey's (2006) research process ends with the sharing of the research findings in publications for appropriate actions by stakeholders (Bukvova, 2009). It is interesting to note that even though the Lacey model was designed for the medical field, the stages in the model have a general application to other disciplines and in particular to this study on the challenges of entrepreneurship education.

Figure 6: The Research Process (Bukvova, 2009, p. 4)

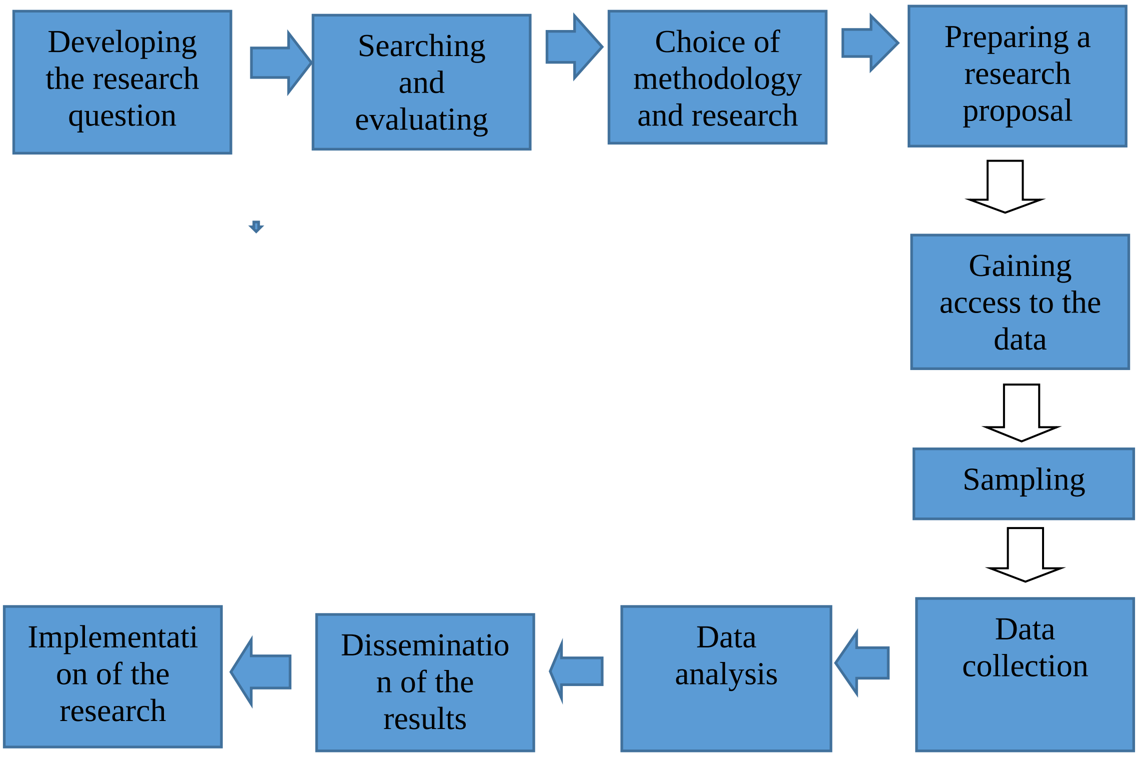
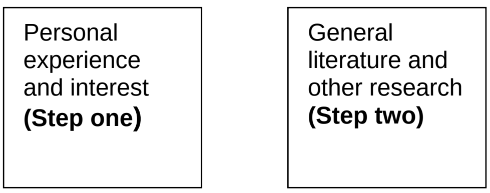
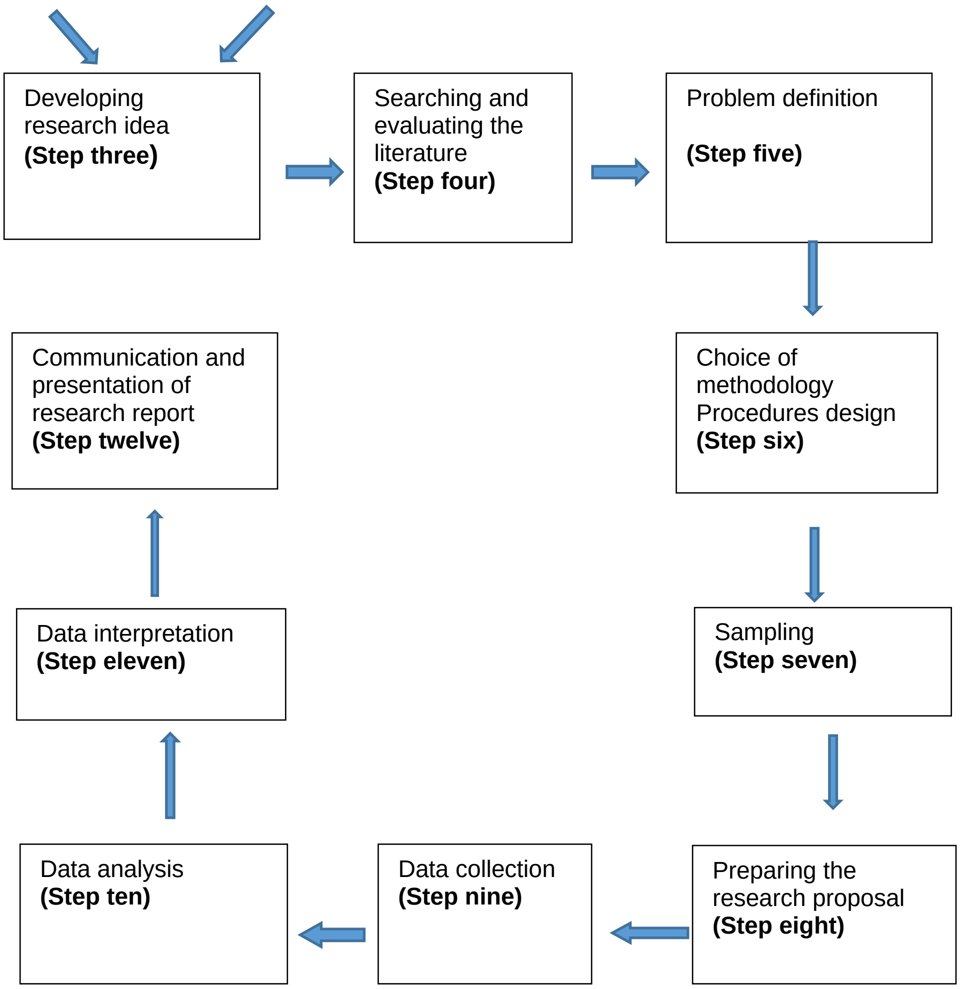


Figure 7 below describes the research process that was followed for this study. On the basis of the above references, this study began with a reading of the available literature on entrepreneurship education in general leading to a focus on its challenges. The researcher's interest in this study was occasioned by personal experience and association with entrepreneurship education as a member of an entrepreneurship faculty, the concepts of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur, the ongoing debates on whether entrepreneurs are made or born and whether entrepreneurship can be taught as a discipline as shown in the first, second and third steps in Figure 7.

Figure 7: This Study's Research Process (adapted from Bukvova 2009, pp. 4 & 6)





The researcher's initial interest in 'the training needs of entrepreneurship teachers', was finally modified to focus on the 'challenges of entrepreneurship education' after the identification of a knowledge gap in the literature with regards to the Ghanaian and African context as presented in steps 4 and 5 in Figure 7.

Steps six and seven in Figure 7 on the other hand illustrate the research design and procedures respectively selected for the study. This paved the way for the writing of the research proposal, its presentation and its acceptance as required by the Unisa PhD research module guidelines in step eight. The actual data collection, data analysis and data interpretation then followed in steps nine, ten and eleven respectively. The final stage of this research process was the writing up of the research paper and submission. The entire process was guided by a responsiveness to ethical and validity considerations.

4.3 UNDERLYING PHILOSOPHIES OF AND APPROACHES TO THE STUDY

4.3.1 Introduction

Mohajan (2018), asserts that research must entail "*an explicit, disciplined, systematic, (planned, ordered, and public)" enterprise if it is to attain credibility*" (Mohajan, 2018, p.1). According to Shaughnessy, Zechmeister & Zechmeister (2012), this is guaranteed by the selection and adoption of the most appropriate research design that adequately answers the research question. Empirical or scientific enquiry is also underlined by a particular paradigm, worldview or set of assumptions about the world (Kuhn, 1962, as cited in Slevitch, 2011) that provide the necessary "*philosophical grounding for deciding what kinds of knowledge are possible and how we can ensure that they are both adequate and legitimate*" (Maynard, 1994, p. 10).

Research paradigms are defined by epistemological, ontological, and methodological considerations, namely, the basic belief about knowledge and how it is derived, the form and nature of reality and how researchers look for knowledge respectively (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The framework and limits of research therefore encompass beliefs, values, procedures and techniques (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Trochim & Donelly, 2006). In this regard, this section discusses the philosophical underpinnings of research in general and ends with the justification for the logic and grounding for this study's epistemological and ontological assumptions for the adopted research design – the qualitative, constructivist, interpretivist case study.

4.3.2 Epistemological, ontological and methodological considerations

Epistemology refers to the philosophical study of the nature, origin, and scope of human knowledge, deriving its roots from the Greek words 'episteme' (knowledge) and 'logos' (reason) (Martinich & Stroll, [Britannica]; Crotty, 1998; Maynard, 1994). In broad terms it is signifies the creation and dissemination of knowledge from sources such as perception, introspection, memory, reason, and testimony rather than psychological factors like desires, prejudices, and biases (Steup & Ram, 2020). According to Stanley and Wise (1990) questions commonly addressed by epistemology include "*who can be a `knower', what can be known, what constitutes and validates knowledge, and what the relationship is or should be between knowing and being (that is, between epistemology and ontology)*" (Stanley & Wise, 1990, p. 26).

Ontology on the other hand is the study of the nature, structure and science of being or 'what is' (Crotty, 1998; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008; Aliyu et al., 2015) and what it means to be (Newman & Benz, 1998; Perry, 1998; Aliyu et al., 2015). Taking its source from Greek 'onto' (being) and 'logia' (science, study, or theory) it focuses on the study of reality (Slevitch, 2011). As the underlying source of people's worldviews ontological assumptions are therefore central to all types of research (Olsen, 2004; Aliyu et al., 2015) because they describe existing entities and the relationships that exist among different categories of being (Guba & Lincoln, 1989 as cited in Slevitch, 2011). This, according to Aliyu et al. (2015) is the basis of all research made possible by knowledge of what is, what exists in reality from the point of view of both the researcher and the researched. Furthermore, having a clear view about reality enhances a researcher's methodological choices (Lohse, 2017; Maarouf, 2019).

Together epistemology and ontology provide the philosophical basis for research and the search for and the acquisition of knowledge. Whereas ontology provides the theoretical basis for understanding 'what is', epistemology offers the means to understanding "*what it means to know*" (Crotty, 1998 p.10). Thus, empirical enquiry is guided by philosophical assumptions regarding the nature of reality (ontology) and knowledge (epistemology), the principles regulating scientific investigation (methodology), and the procedures, tools and techniques used for the actual study (research methods). As argued by Guba and Lincoln (1994), "what we believe about reality defines what we construe as legitimate knowledge and how we obtain it, which in return, defines our principles of scientific investigation, which sequentially define the research techniques we apply" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, as cited in Slevitch, 2011, p. 5) in research, whether qualitative, quantitative or mixed.

4.3.3 The researcher's personal epistemology

It is evident from the discussion so far that an awareness of the theories of knowledge helps to provide a deeper understanding of a researcher's worldview referred to as personal epistemologies, which in turn enhance research outcomes (Singh & Walwyn, 2017). There is therefore a clear link between research, epistemology, and knowledge because research ultimately results in the generation of new knowledge. Furthermore, since "epistemology considers the nature, limits, and justification of human knowledge…an understanding of epistemology is pertinent to undertaking research" (Hofer & Pintrich, 2004, as cited in Singh & Walwyn, 2017 p. 3). In a similar vein, Moon and Blackman (2014) note that an understanding and acknowledgement of a researcher's assumptions enhances a study's integrity and validity (Moon & Blackman, 2014) by providing the needed justification of a researcher's methodological choices (Cameron, 2011). It also facilitates an understanding of a researcher's research design and methodology since personal epistemologies affect how we think and reason. For instance, whereas objectivists regard reality as single and independent of the observer, constructivists, on the other hand, see reality as plural in view of their belief that reality is constructed by the individual's unique interaction with phenomenon (Singh & Walwyn, 2017; Aliyu et al., 2015). Additionally, Billet (2009) also believes that an awareness of one's assumptions reduces the incidence of bias in data acquisition and analysis as well as the selection of the research context since these "beliefs are active in, constitutive of, and influence the way in which we learn and work" (Billet, 2009 as cited in Singh & Walwyn, 2017, p. 1). However, one cannot discount the probable use of inappropriate research approaches by researchers for their research studies on the basis of their personal epistemologies (Singh, 2017). According to Arbnor & Bjerke (1997), knowledge can be generated in several ways because reality as reposed in individuals is varied in the sense that:

> *every human being…carries around certain ultimate presumptions ... about what his or her environment looks like, and about his or her role in this environment. These presumptions … (though) normally quite unconscious and very difficult to change will have a bearing both on how we look at problems and on how we look at existing and available sets of techniques and at knowledge in general (Arbnor & Bjerke 1997, p. 7).*

This implies that as human beings, researchers' research approaches are also to a large extent influenced by their own philosophical stance and the social science phenomenon under investigation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Merriam, 2002). Their beliefs and assumptions, world views (Creswell, 2014), philosophical traditions, epistemologies and ontologies (Crotty, 1998) research paradigms (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011), orientations to research (Merriam 1998), and mode of enquiry (Kumar, 2014) invariably direct the course and nature of their research studies. In short, researchers' assumptions "about reality (ontology), how knowledge is obtained (or increased epistemology), and the methods of gaining knowledge" are what direct the course of the research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 21) and how the researcher makes meaning from his interaction with his environment.

4.3.4 Research paradigms

The different philosophical worldviews have resulted in a number of research paradigms or approaches that some argue contribute to the choice of research designs and methods whether quantitative, qualitative, or mixed (Merriam, 1998; Crotty, 1998; Cresswell, 2014). These include the positivist or objectivist paradigm, postpositivism, interpretivism and constructionism, critical theory, transformative and pragmatism, and hermeneutics. On his part, Crotty (1998) contends that the different research paradigms as proposed by some researchers are confusing, sometimes contradictory, and often erroneously regarded as analogous terms. He consequently refrains from a categorization of research paradigms and instead argues that what others have described as distinctive research paradigms are in effect hierarchical levels of decision making that characterise the research design. He sums these hierarchical levels as methods, methodology, theoretical perspective and epistemology. According to him, methods are the techniques or procedures used for data collection and analyses whilst the methodology refers to the strategies, design processes and plans that underpin the choice and use of the methods in relation to the expected outcomes. The theoretical perspective in Crotty (1998), describes the philosophical stance that informs the choice of methodology and provides the context and logical grounding for the research process whereas epistemology refers to the theory of knowledge that is embedded in both the theoretical perspective and the methodology.

In summary, it can be said that the purposes of research give an indication of the research paradigm, the choice of methods to use and the researcher's assumptions about reality and epistemological stance (Cresswell, 2014; Merriam, 1998). Similarly, two fundamental questions crucial to research are first, about the proposed methodologies and methods to be adopted, and second, about the justification for the choice and use of the methodologies and methods adopted (Crotty, 1998). These questions lead to a presentation of some of the basic research paradigms that underpin research, namely positivism, and interpretivism.

Positivism holds that truth resides in objects independent of human consciousness, and that authentic knowledge is scientific knowledge generated from the positive affirmation of theories through the use of the rigorous natural scientific method (Crotty, 1998). Positivist epistemology therefore claims that meaning and reality are not the product of human consciousness but that phenomena exist regardless of whether someone is aware of them, and/or recognises their existence or not. This viewpoint has its roots in ancient Greek philosophy, and rose to prominence in Scholastic realism in the Middle Ages and the age of the Enlightenment.

According to the positivist tradition, phenomenon can only be understood through measurement and evidence obtained through scientific enquiry, facts, theories, laws, observation, experimentation, comparison, and deductive reasoning (Hammersley, 2013) backed by the researcher's posture of detachment from the study participants or research context. Positivism aims at the applicability and generalization of research results. For this reason, one may be inclined to place a high premium on the validity and reliability of research findings based on positivism which is one of its key strengths (Pham, 2018; Johnson, 2014; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011).

In spite of this some limitations of positivism include the fact that due to its emphasis on measurement, it cannot truly measure phenomena such as human attitudes and intentions which are impossible to observe (Hammersley, 2013). Another is the lack of flexibility it accords respondents that prevents them from providing authentic responses that accurately reflect their personal circumstances rather than the predesigned answers provided by the researcher (Pham, 2018).

Interpretivism/constructionism epistemology on the other hand reject the objectivist claim that meaning and reality are not derived from human consciousness, but that objects exist regardless of whether someone is aware of them, recognises their existence or not. This is based on the argument that there is nothing like objective truth waiting to be discovered by humans (Hammersley, 2013). According to Crotty (1998), what indeed is the case is that truth or reality is rather the outcome of human beings' engagement or interaction with the different phenomena within the world. This in short, means that meaning is constructed, developed, and transmitted by human beings as they interact with their world or social context (Crotty, 1998). Thus, the interpretivist perspective is based on the relativist ontology that a phenomenon may have multiple interpretations rather than the notion of a single truth determined only by a process of measurement (Pham, 2018). It posits that reality consists of "*multiple, intangible mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific in nature … dependent for their form and content on the individual persons or groups holding the constructions ..*." (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, pp. 110-111). Some variants of this research paradigm are hermeneutics, phenomenology and symbolic interactionism (Hughes, n.d.).

Some strengths of the interpretivist and constructionist paradigm are that their focus on understanding phenomena through different contexts and cultures help to address issues of researcher bias that may likely occur in positivism (Pham, 2018). Another strength of this paradigm is the fact that it enables the studying of phenomena in their natural setting and context through grounded theory, case study, and ethnography that generate authentic insider insights and information on the research object (Tuli, 2010). According to Crotty (1998) and Guba and Lincoln (1994) this epistemology presents subjects and objects of research as partners in the search for knowledge and meaning. It also makes it possible to identify and accept the multiple and subjective meanings or realities with regards to phenomenon within a historical and social perspective such as from one culture to the other, from one historical era to the other or from one person to the other (Creswell, 2014; Hammersley, 2013). Ultimately, Interpretivism and constructionism aim at capturing, understanding and interpreting data from within the research context through research participants' perceptions, opinions, feelings and viewpoints. Similarly, the research methods and processes that fall within the constructionist paradigm, such as, interviews, facilitate probing of participants' thoughts, perceptions, perspectives, values, or prejudices that may yield additional useful insights (Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007).

Common weaknesses associated with this paradigm include the fear that findings may be coloured by the researcher's own interpretation and worldview to the detriment of an objective presentation of the actual realities of the researched phenomenon. Pham (2008) also cites the difficulty of generalizing the findings of interpretivist research to other contexts.

In considering the two research paradigms discussed, the interpretivist paradigm became the obvious choice for the research study for several reasons. Among these were the flexibility of allowing for the phenomenon to be studied within its naturally occurring context. Another was facilitating the unearthing of the different and shared realities of teachers, students and the programme coordinator about the challenges of entrepreneurship education. Adopting the interpretivist paradigm also enabled the use of multiple data collection techniques and procedures, and the avoidance researcher bias. The researcher was convinced that these strengths reduced the often cited weakness of researcher subjectivity. Similarly, since the aim of this study was not about generalizability of the findings, Pham's (2008) criticism of interpretivist research findings not being generalizable was untenable.

4.3.5 The qualitative and quantitative research methodologies dichotomy

The research methodology outlines the general logic and theoretical perspective of a study and embodies the nature of the research and guides the selection and adoption of the research methods of a study (Long, 2014). According to Bogdan and Biklen (2007) and, Lincoln and Guba (1985), these are the specific strategies, procedures and techniques used to gather, analyse and interpret data for a study.

The three main research methodologies used in research are quantitative, qualitative, and the mixed methodology – based on a combination of strategies from the qualitative and quantitative domains (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014). The qualitative and quantitative research methodologies are underpinned by the scientific philosophies of interpretivism and constructivism which is based on the idealist tradition, and positivism, premised on the realist perspective respectively (Long, 2014; Sale et al., 2002).

On the basis of the ontological position of positivism, quantitative research argues that reality is single, objective and tangible, and exists independently of human perception (Slevitch, 2011; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This research approach is likewise grounded on the epistemological premise that knowledge is derived from existing facts rather than peoples subjective or value laden perceptions. For this reason, quantitative research uses methodologies that focus on measurement, the analysis of causal relationships, and arriving at generalizations that are verifiable (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) and cast the researcher in the role of an observer (Long, 2014).

Qualitative research, on the other hand, ontologically views reality as multiple and the result of human beings' intersubjective construction and interpretation of reality (Slevitch, 2011; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). It is based on the epistemological proposition that reality is made manifest through the combined social and cognitive subjective constructs held by the researcher and the researched. In the views of Hellstrom (2008) and Slevitch (2011), reality is thus, a reflection of people's interest, understanding and interpretation of phenomena. Additionally, qualitative research is grounded on the epistemological premise that "*facts cannot be separated from values, (and that) absolute objectivity is … unattainable and truth (is) a matter of socially and historically conditioned agreement"* (Smith & Heshusius, 1986, as cited in Slevitch, 2011 p. 7). This implies that reality only comes into being when researchers decide to focus on it (Smith, 1983) and takes it form and character from how human beings perceive and interpret it rather than as it really is (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Going by this point of view, Slevitch (2011) argues that valid truth then becomes a measure of a researcher's credibility and how far his statements correspond to the realities of the researched.

The methodological foundation of the qualitative research paradigm can therefore be summed up as a focus on rich and detailed description of phenomenon within context through the use of meanings, interpretation and specific processes (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) since social phenomena can only be understood by describing its nature (Smith, 1983). In this endeavour, the researcher can only offer his interpretation of the realities of the researched based on their shared values, interests, purposes and understanding of the phenomenon (Bryman, 1988; Slevitch, 2011). This is because according to Smith & Heshusius (1986), there is no such thing as objective interpretation of reality in a situation whereby human expression is always context bound (Smith & Heshusius, 1986, as cited in Slevitch, 2011).

Qualitative research does not seek objectivity and generalizability because they are ontologically and epistemologically unattainable. It instead focuses on transferability of knowledge by providing detailed rich descriptions of the phenomena as experienced within their settings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Sale et al., 2002). In view of this, sample size in qualitative research is of little relevance since the selection of samples are evaluated on the basis of their ability to provide the expected, detailed rich information and not of their representativeness of a larger group (Hellström, 2008). Consequently, qualitative research adopts methods such as ethnography, phenomenology, hermeneutics, and case studies that facilitate close contact and interaction between the researcher and the researched within their own context using focus group discussions, interviews and observation and content analysis (Hellström, 2008; Slevitch, 2011; Long, 2014).

Between the two extremes (quantitative and qualitative research approaches) is the mixed research which is based on multiple epistemological and ontological perspectives rooted in pluralism and pragmatism. It consists of a combined set of quantitative and qualitative research methodologies (Long, 2014).

4.3.6 The qualitative case study approach

A case study research is a systematic search to understand and describe or explain a phenomenon from the point of view of the research participants in their everyday context (Henning, Resburg & Smit, 2004; Merriam, 2001). It is therefore ideal for exploratory and descriptive studies (Adom, Yeboah & Ankrah, 2016). Stake (2011) likewise describes case study as both a process and a product of learning about phenomena. Due to its focus on the phenomena’s natural context case study research is said to be a naturalistic design. The case study approach also makes it possible to conduct in-depth, multi-faceted studies for deep appreciation of complex issues or contemporary phenomena in their natural real-life context (Crowe et al., 2011). According to Stake (2011), findings from case studies can contribute to theory testing and theory development by either establishing, strengthening or eve weakening historical explanations of a phenomena that can allow for theoretical generalisations (as opposed to statistical) beyond the particular case studied. Case study research uses multiple sources of data such as questionnaires, interviews, focus groups and observation for purposes of data triangulation (Stake, 2011). This is a major advantage because it enhances the credibility of data gathered (Yin, 2003; Adomet al., 2016).

A case is selected for various reasons such as interest and uniqueness, randomly or representativeness (Stake, 2011). It is also selected on the basis of its accessibility to the researcher with regards to the research participants and the institution as well as ethics (Ibid). They are approached differently based on the researcher's epistemological viewpoint, which may be either interpretivist, critical or positivist or a combination (Stake, 2011).

Stake (2011) highlights three types of case study, namely, intrinsic, instrumental and collective. The intrinsic case study focuses on a single unique case which is usually of interest to the researcher, whereas the instrumental and collective focus on a single case in an attempt to gain broader insights on phenomena, and multiple cases, respectively.

Unfortunately, the large volumes of data generated from the multiple sources present data management challenges in addition to time and resource constraints (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Yin, 2003; Stakes, 2011). Adom, et al. (2016) and Stake (2011) believe these constraints are easily addressed by clearly defining the confines and context of the research topic and creating computerized data bases and avoiding the temptation to collect more data than is really needed and setting aside adequate time for data analysis and interpretation. Case study research has also been described as lacking scientific rigour and generalizability. These can however be addressed by the use of theoretical sampling, respondent validation and ensuring transparency in the research process (Stake, 2011).

4.4 THE STUDY'S RESEARCH DESIGN

All research is based on logic and process and therefore has either an implicit or explicit research design (Yin, 2003). The research design of a study is the actual framework that outlines the plan, direction and specific research approach for gathering and analysing the data that are expected to answer the research questions (Creswell, 2014; Edmunds & Kennedy, 2012). It is the strategic framework for action linking the research questions to the research process (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002) thereby enhancing the validity of the research findings (Mouton, 2008). It likewise informs and shapes the selection and adoption of specific research methods for the desired outcome as has been done in this research study's design.

Different research designs are adopted to suit the purpose and objectives of the research and the different research paradigms. For instance, whereas positivism or quantitative research view research designs as fixed with standard conditions and methods (Campbell & Stanley, 1967), others perceive them as a series of logical progressions or tasks that are necessary for the planning and conduct of research studies right from the formulation of the problem to the discovery of findings or theory (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). Such research design models with identifiable beginnings, goals and prearranged intermediary tasks are consequently, more suited for quantitative research. This is because they are linear and *"made up of one-directional sequences of steps that represent what is seen as the optimal order for conceptualizing or conducting the different components or activities of a study"* (Maxwell 2012, p. 214). They are not suitable for qualitative research because of its reflexive, flexible, and non-sequential logic and process (Grady & Wallston, 1988; Maxwell, 2012; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). Similarly, according to Maxwell (2012) and Yin (2003), qualitative research requires a broader and less restrictive design that uses flexible approaches allowing for the simultaneous collection and analysis of data, the development of theory, and modifications of the research process in response to changing situations or new data that emerge in the course of the study that critics claim as an absence of design. Becker et al. (1961) for instance, argue in their qualitative study of medical students that, conclusions based on a narrow definition of the term 'design' to imply features of elaborate prior planning instead of the broader sense of having order, system, and consistency in procedures that are indications of the presence of a design (Becker et al., 1961). An example is the detailed description of the problem and the theoretical and methodological commitments of a research study.

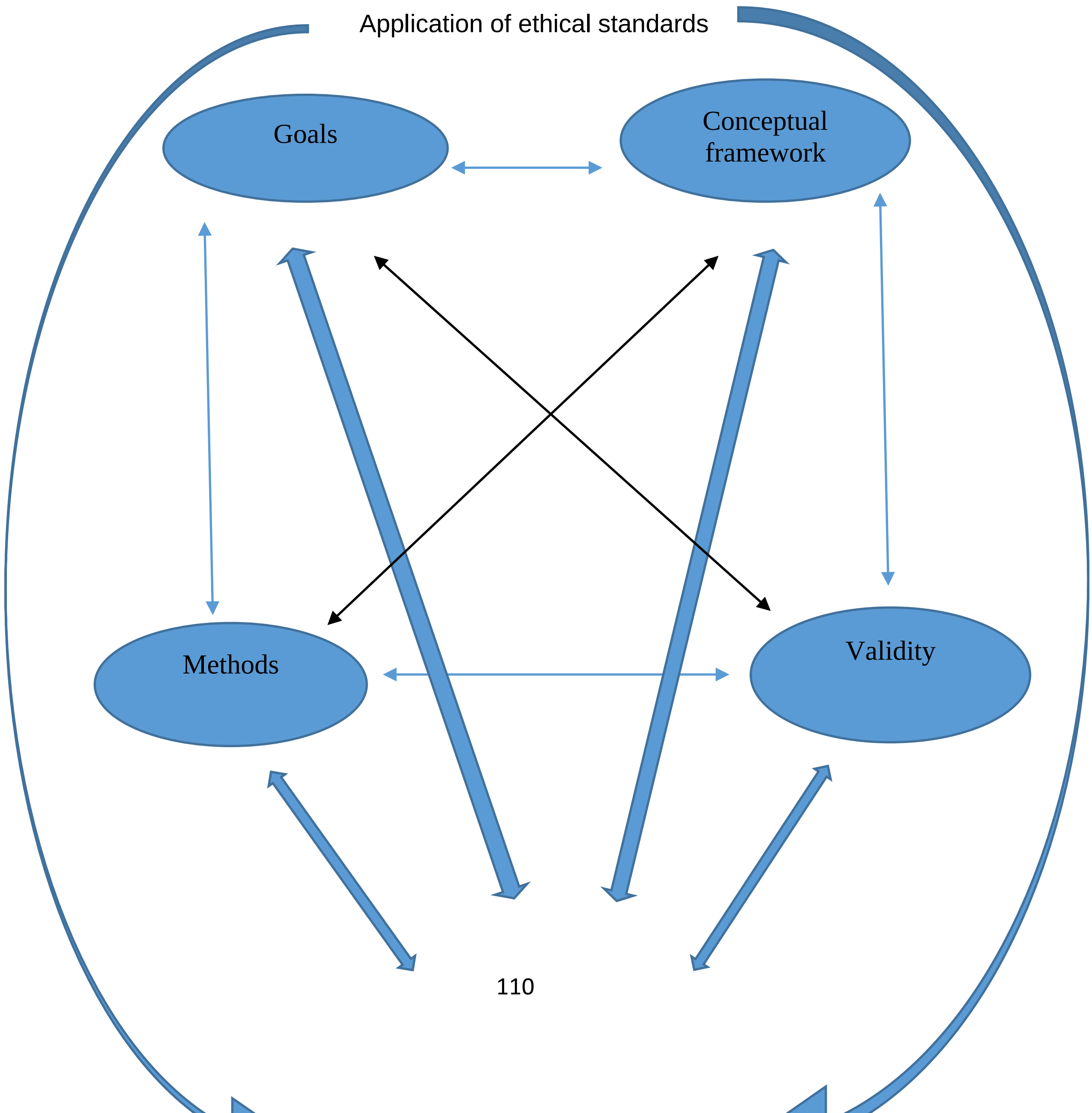
This research study had three main goals, which were, to gain deeper insights on the challenges of entrepreneurship education at the study institution, suggest ways to address them, and contribute to the entrepreneurship education literature and policy. In addition, this study was expected to address this researcher's personal objective of learning more about entrepreneurship education and its challenges to enhance her teaching of and practice of entrepreneurship (Maxwell, 2012). Achieving these goals required adopting an appropriate research design. Based on the review of research paradigms and approaches discussed above, the naturalistic interpretivist-constructivist case study research approach was adopted as the most appropriate for this study because it allows for the scientific enquiry into people's interpretation of social conditions or state of affairs around them to understand the nature of a phenomenon. This consequently, led to the creation of the 'reflexive qualitative case study research design model', otherwise referred to as this study's 'research design' adapted from Maxwell's (2012) 'design-in-use interactive research design model' for this study as shown in Figure 8.

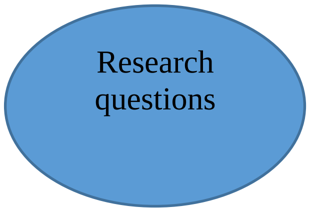
The study's research design focused on five interrelated, and integrated, and interacting components that reflected the different sets of issues embodying the study that were considered essential to its coherence. They consisted of the research goals, the conceptual framework, the research questions, and research methods, and validity considerations, each which was guided by its own set of ethical standards. In this study therefore, the goals influenced the research questions, the conceptual framework and the methods adopted. These were in turn refined by the goals. Likewise, all the different components informed and were validated by each other.

Ultimately, this study was guided by the aforementioned personal, intellectual, and practical goals, conceptual framework, research questions, research methods, and its validity and ethical considerations as illustrated in Figure 8. The researcher's personal goals were driven by her entrepreneurial and entrepreneurship teaching background, her interest in exploring the theories of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education, and the challenges of entrepreneurship education at the study institution for her doctoral studies and to enhance her teaching of entrepreneurship (Stake, 2011; Maxwell, 2012).

The Intellectual and practical goals of this study were to explore the challenges of entrepreneurship education within the context of the selected study institution. This consisted of gaining insights on the challenges, offering suggestions to enhance the delivery of entrepreneurship education at the study institution, and contributing to knowledge on the challenges of entrepreneurship education within the Ghanaian and African higher educational context that were generally lacking in literature.

Figure 8: This Study's Reflexive Qualitative Case Study Research Design Model





Source: An adaptation of Maxwell' s 'design-in-use interactive research design model' (Maxwell 2012, p. 217)

The guiding role of the conceptual framework - the theories, concepts, variables, factors, beliefs and ideas – in this research design, was in facilitating the formulation of the research question and vice versa. It also influenced the research method, the goals of the research and the study's validity, and was in turn impacted upon by them (Miles & Huberman, 1994, as cited in Maxwell, 2012). This is because as argued by Maxwell (2012), a research study's conceptual framework is constructed or built by the researcher into a coherent whole from different sources and aspects of the research study.

Apart from the aforementioned factors that influenced the adopted research design, there were other considerations such as the need to gather the data by direct contact and observation of the research participants from within the specific context and natural setting of the research institution for in-depth understanding of the study institution's challenges of entrepreneurship education (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This is because according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the knower and the known exist together and are so inseparably joined together that realities cannot be understood outside their contexts (Ibid). Another reason was due to the researcher's philosophical stance that reality is multiple and therefore best found in the different explanations and rich descriptions of phenomena from the multiple worldviews, experiences, feelings, perceptions, and opinions of the research participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2001; Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Furthermore, since research participants according to constructionism and interpretivism are co-producers and collaborators in the reconstruction of data from their multiple realities, getting to know their individual stories was considered necessary because meaning, reality and social constructs are made by individuals as they interact with their relative and changing worlds (Trulsson, 1997; Kumekpor, 2002; Adom et al., 2016) are not fixed, single or measurable (Merriam, 2002).

Similarly, this research design facilitated a close and direct engagement with the study participants in order to construct an understanding of individual thoughts, perceptions and realities and commonalities (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). This ensured that the data presented reflected the study participants own perspectives rather than the personal or pre-determined viewpoint of the researcher. Using this design therefore minimized the incidence of bias and subjectivity, considering the fact that the researcher was an adjunct lecturer of the study institution by allowing her to assume a neutral stance in the search for and analysis of data from the real subjects within their own lived context.

Using this research design, likewise accorded the researcher the convenience, ease, and access to the relevant data from both research participants and extant documents, as well as providing opportunities for further discussions, clarifications and confirmation of the data during the collection and analysis processes (Maxwell, 2012; Slevitch, 2011; Merriam, 2002; Kumekpor, 2002).

In view of the high premium placed on the collection of quality data through systematic scientific enquiry by this study, the research design ensured a strict adherence to the set of principles and procedures governing the use of the naturalistic interpretivist-constructivist case study approach (Creswell, 2008). Additionally, since the study was about an on-going educational programme, several and simultaneous data collection methods were used to generate the comprehensive and descriptive information that were sought such as focus groups, interviews, and observations (Merriam, 2002). The use of all these techniques served as methodological triangulation to reinforce and/or challenge the data during the data gathering process. These techniques additionally enabled the researcher to ascertain the authenticity, honesty and depth of the responses (Bredo & Feinberg, 1982, as cited in Maxwell, 2012; Daher et al., 2017; Sutton & Austin, 2015).

4.5 THE RESEARCH POPULATION AND SAMPLE

4.5.1 The research population

Research questions are framed to address issues that have relevance to unique groups or individuals referred to as research population. This research population is the entire group of subjects who are the focus of an empirical study Martinez-Mesa et al., 2016). They have the characteristics, attributes, and the information that interest the researcher, they are also the group about whom inferences are made from the findings (Robinson, 2011). The research population is thus a very critical component of every research endeavour. For this reason, it is important to have a clear description and understanding of the characteristics of the population.

In order to achieve the aim of this research study on the challenges of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, students and teachers of entrepreneurship education, three population groups, were identified. They consisted of nine entrepreneurship teachers about 600 in-school students, and a programme coordinator at the study institution. Their selection was based on their familiarity and experience with the context and phenomena that was researched in their different roles as teachers, students and programme coordinator.

The first population group consisted of all the nine current and former entrepreneurship teachers of the study institution's entrepreneurship education programme. This was a relatively small population made up of full tenured and adjunct lecturers from academia and industry. Entrepreneurship teacher numbers fluctuated from semester to semester to reflect the scheduled number of entrepreneurship courses. In, the academic year that the study was conducted, there were only two full time teachers and three adjuncts lecturers, (including this researcher). Together with the former teachers, they had teaching experience with entrepreneurship education, and were consequently conversant with the phenomena that were being investigated in the research study.

Another population category consisted of all the over 600 in-school undergraduate students at the study institution, those who had already read the FOE course, and those who were then reading the course at the time of the study. They were considered relevant for this study for several reasons. The first was due to their unique characteristics as a heterogeneous group of students of entrepreneurship education. Second was because they had first-hand experience and perceptions of the course objectives, curriculum, and the pedagogy used as students and learners (Creswell, 2008).

The programme coordinator of entrepreneurship education at the study institution was the from the third population category. He was identified as a study population because the researcher believed he would have adequate information about the history and provision of entrepreneurship education at the selected study institution. Additionally, as a manager and teacher of entrepreneurship his experiences, views and opinions on the programme were considered very important to the study.

4.5.2 The research sample and sampling methods

Definitions for sampling and sample are characterised by ambiguities and differences. For instance the Merriam-Webster dictionary defines sampling is "*the act, process, or technique of selecting a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population*. This definition which implies the desire for statistical generalizability contrasts with the viewpoints of qualitative researchers' such as Gentles et al. (2015) that sampling is "the selection of particular data sources from which data are generated to address the research objectives, and that of Stake (1995), that sampling involves the selection of cases or contexts and data sources that best address the research question.

Similarly it defines sample as "*a representative part or a single item from a larger whole or group especially when presented for inspection or shown as evidence of quality, or a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole.*" A research sample is a small finite subset of people, items or objects selected from a larger population for purposes of measurement and/or for drawing conclusions and generalisations about a target population from a study's findings with a high level of confidence (Martinez-Mesa et al., 2016; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). They are used for different theoretical and practical reasons such as for addressing ethical and time constraints, funding and logistics limitations, and inadequate information on the real target population size (Martinez-Mesa et al., 2016). Samples generally have certain minimum numbers of individual items to ensure their representativeness (Martinez-Mesa et al., 2016). They are constituted through two main sampling processes of selecting individuals or units from larger populations, probabilistic or non-probabilistic approaches and strategies (Merriam, 1998).

4.5.2.1 Probability sampling

Probability or random sampling is a sampling process in which all units or individuals of the research population have an equal chance of being selected for the research study (Merriam, 2000). As a result it produces a more objective and representative sample of the population with minimised bias and error. Probability sampling accords equal opportunity for selection for all members of the target population. There are different types of probability sampling methods such as simple random sampling which involves the selection of participants using a sampling frame or table of random numbers. Another probability sampling technique is systematic sampling whereby participants are selected based on previously defined fixed intervals in a ranked list of participants. It involves the selection of every nth case after a random start is chosen. Stratified sampling relies on the random selection of participants from different strata or subgroup in which the target population has been divided using either simple or systematic sampling. This method ensures the representation of every stratum of the target population. Others are cluster sampling (selecting participants in groups such as households, classes, schools) and complex or multi-stage sampling which uses a combination of several sampling strategies.

4.5.2.2 Nonprobability sampling

In this type of sampling approach, the likelihood of an individual's selection is null, according to Martinez-Mesa et al. (2016). This consequently, makes the selected sample unrepresentative of the target population resulting in research findings that are usually not generalizable. They are however useful for some type of research studies such as qualitative research.

The nonprobability sampling methods are basically purposive or purposeful because of the element of intentionality to select units or individuals that the researcher believes have certain insightful information (Patton, 2002). Purposive sampling is the deliberate selection of particular persons, units or contexts because they are capable of providing the important information sought by the research study that cannot be gotten elsewhere (Maxwell, 2012; Patton, 1990). It has several advantages such as its ability to achieve representativeness or typicality of the individuals or contexts they are selected from (Maxwell, 2012) in homogeneous populations. It is also useful for ensuring the inclusion of the entire range of variations within a heterogeneous population, and for comparing different settings (Maxwell, 2012).

Examples of non-probability purposive sampling strategies include convenience or consecutive sampling involving the selection of research participants due to convenience, accessibility or order of appearance that ends when the sample size has been attained (Martinez-Mesa et al. 2016). Another is quota sampling which involves the initial classification of the population into categories such as age, gender followed by the selection of sampling units from each quota. Snowball sampling on the other hand is a process that begins with the identification of a primary group of individuals from the research population who then lead the researcher to others with the characteristics needed for the study to facilitate the selection of the information rich individuals.

4.5.2.3 Research sample size

In qualitative research, sufficiently large sample sizes are needed for the production of statistically precise measurements or estimates for drawing conclusions that are generalizable to the larger population (Gentles et al., 2015). In contrast, qualitative research uses smaller samples sue to its aim of generating useful information that helps to understand the *"complexity, depth, variation, or context surrounding a phenomenon, rather than to represent populations as in quantitative research"* (Gentles et al. 2015, p. 1782). In qualitative research, selecting a suitable sample size continues to fuel a lot of debate (Vasileiou et al., 2018). According to Baker and Edwards (2012) there is no clear answer on the size of a research sample because it is contigent on several factors such as epistemology, methodology and practical issues 36 (Vasileiou et al., 2018; Morse, 2000 11; Baker & Edwards, 2012).

Therefore, a sample's adequacy depends on the appropriateness of its composition and size (Vasileiou et al., 2018). The richer the data collected from each research participant, the fewer the number of participants needed (Morse, 2011). Maintaining a small sample size in such circumstance also helps in the management of such rich data during its analysis (Ritchie et al., 2003) Qualitative samples ought to be as large or small enough to facilitate the generation of new, sufficient and detail rich data and avoid information/data redundancy (Lincoln & Guba, 1995; Glaser & strauss, 1967; Sandelowski, 1995).

4.5.2.4 The study's sampling approach and samples

Sampling in this study was guided by Stake's (1995) and Yin's (2011) two level approach of first selecting the case followed by the selection of the data sources, and Patton's (1990) and (2002) typologies of purposive or purposeful sampling strategies. This study was an exploratory qualitative case study which did not seek statistical representativeness. Using Yin's (2011) definition of purposeful sampling as "*the selection of participants or sources of data to be used in a study, based on their anticipated richness and relevance of information in relation to the study's research questions*" (Yin, 2011, p. 311) a small sample size was deemed appropriate for the in depth data for achieving theoretical generalizability (Vasileiou et al., 2018; Sandelowski, 1996). Consequently, a two level sampling strategy was adopted for this study using the purposive, non-probability sampling approach in view of their capacity to provide the relevant and information rich data required (Yin, 2011; Patton, 2002; Creswell, 2008; Vasileiou et al., 2018).

Selection of study institution

The first level was the selection of the study institution or site, which was due to the fact that it had the attributes that the researcher required. For instance, the study institution had over 10 years' experience of mainstreamed entrepreneurship education at its undergraduate programme level. It was also easily accessible to the researcher, being located in the town of her residence and work place. Additionally, the researcher was herself an entrepreneurship teacher in the institution and so interested in learning more about entrepreneurship education to enhance her skills and influence policy and practice. This likewise facilitated the researcher's access to the authorities, and participants for their permission and consent respectively. The search for venues and times for the face to face interview, and focus group discussions, and classroom observations were also simplified.

Selection of research participants

The second sampling strategy consisted of the selection of the research participants for the study that enabled the inclusion of all the different population groups with their diverse perceptions, experiences and opinions (Creswell, 2014). The teachers, students, programme coordinator, and classrooms were selected because of their association with entrepreneurship education.

The coordinator of entrepreneurship education was purposively selected from one of the three population categories (n3=1) for a face to face interview. As a sample, his selection was because of the dearth of institutional memory or information power assumed to be reposed in him, as well as his experiences of the entrepreneurship programme at the study institution (Malterud et al., 2015). Malterund et al. (2015), justify this strategy by arguing that the more detailed information a sample produces, the smaller the sample size ought to be.

From the teachers' population category, the purposive homogeneous sampling method was adopted to select four participants (n1=4) for face to face intervies. They were from the pool of present and former entrepreneurship teachers at the study institution, excluding this researcher. The purposive maximum variation sampling strategy was also used to capture the different categories of teachers such as full time, part time, teachers from academia and practice.

A sample size of 20 (n2=20) was drawn from the students' population category who had already read the entrepreneurship course using the purposive snowball and homogeneous sampling strategies for focus group discussions (Patton, 2002; Merriam, 2009). It involved the researcher initially contacting students randomly in order to identify those who had already read the FOE course. Whenever she found one, she got them to lead her to others till the twenty sample size she needed was attained. Some of the initial students contacted declined to participate in the research study for various personal reasons such as work, time constraints, and family issues. They were however able to lead the researcher to others who were willing to participate. The sample size of twenty was influenced by the need to ensure that the different category of students such as entrepreneurs, part time entrepreneurs and employees were captured (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). Ideally, since focus groups needed to be between the size ranges of six and twelve participants, the researcher decided to constitute two groups of ten participant each, because one group would not have adequately reflected the different student groupings. To ensure that all the different student groups such as entrepreneurs, non-entrepreneurs, and workers were represented, the maximum variation sampling method was adopted for the population of students.

At the time of the study, five FOE courses were in progress. Two of them were sampled purposively by the researcher for classroom observation. The first two classes whose teachers consented to have their classroom sessions observed were selected.

In total, the study's research sample consisted of one entrepreneurship education institution, 25 persons (n1+n2+n3=25), and two entrepreneurship classes from the selected institution. They were chosen because they possessed the characteristics, and capacity to yield the data and information required to adequately answer the research question (Patton, 2002; Palinkas et al., 2013).

4.6 THE RESEARCH PROCEDURE

4.6.1 Introduction

This section provides a detailed description of the research techniques and procedures of data gathering and data analysis that were used for the study.

4.6.2 Data collection

Data collection is the process of collecting information about the phenomenon under investigation. Different data collection methodologies and techniques are available to researchers, but their adoption for a research study is influenced by its research design, research question, population, context and phenomena being researched, as well as its theories and philosophical foundations. These methodologies include interviews, questionnaires, focus group discussions, observation, photography, video and audio recordings, surveys, and questionnaires. Data may also be generated through direct measurement, reviewing secondary data, and informal project / programme management processes.

4.6.3 The study's data collection instruments

This study was guided by the tenets of scientific enquiry and the strict observance of the principles and procedures of the use of the constructivist qualitative case study approach (Creswell, 2008). The study, being about an on-going educational programme, adopted multiple and sometimes simultaneous data collection methods, to generate the comprehensive and descriptive information that was sought (Merriam, 2001). The data collection methods were five face-to-face interviews for the teachers and programme coordinator, two focus group discussions comprising of 10 students each, observation of classroom lessons, and review of extant documents such as course outline, and course notes. These served as methodological triangulation that were meant to reinforce, challenge, and authenticate the data generated through the data gathering process. They also made it possible to enrich and broaden the data sources for further clarifications, more detail, confirmations and new leads during the study (Cohen & Manion 2011; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006; Patton, 1990). Triangulation also helped to ensure the validity of the data collected by the data from the different sources serving as sources for comparison and validation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985)

4.6.3.1 Face-to-Face Interview

Interviews are among the most common types of data collection tools. They are used to gain insights into people's subjective perceptions, experiences, motivations or opinions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Cohen & Manion, 2011). They may be conducted, formally or informally, on single individuals through questionnaire, face to face encounters, remote media such as telephone, mails, Zoom and Skype, or on groups using questionnaires. Interviews may be open-ended, structured, or semi-structured (Patton, 1990). Whereas structured interviews contain a core set of questions arranged and asked in a systematic order, the semi-structured interviews also ask a core set of questioned in addition to supplementary ones whose order may vary from one participant to the other (Patton 1990). The open-ended interviews usual contain questions that allow participants to provide as much detail as is possible (Orden & Cornwell, 2010).

Face to face or one on one interviews are in-depth semi-structured interviews that consist of a number of questions, some of which are usually not predetermined, but rather evolve as the interview unfolds. For this study two sets of face-to-face interviews were conducted using two different sets of semi-structured two-part interview guides that were meant to generate a combination of demographic data and general information regarding the teachers' and programme coordinator's experiences of entrepreneurship education as faculty and managers of the programme. The basis for this procedure was the researcher's belief that this would unearth latent data reposed in the teachers and the programme coordinator regarding their experience of entrepreneurship education and its challenges at the study institution that would be lost by using predetermined questions.

Consequently, two interview schedules consisting of two sections – a structured and an unstructured one - were designed for the entrepreneurship teachers and programme coordinator, respectively. The structured part of the interview schedule, contained closed questions for eliciting specific demographic data on their educational, career and entrepreneurial background. The second and unstructured part of the interview schedule consisted of open-ended tentative questions and probes on a number of issues for exploration as well as capture detailed and innate affective and cognitive insights on the teachers' and programme coordinator's teaching, management practices and responsibilities, perceptions, opinions, expectations and experiences regarding entrepreneurship education at their institution (Kumekpor, 2002). According to Orden and Cornwell (2010), the open ended questions usually tend to produce detail rich data. The wording and ordering of questions in the interview schedules were however varied during the unstructured session of the interviews in response to the emerging data. The data produced by these methods were critically examined in the course of the interviews and after to ensure a clear understanding and interpretation of the issues that were presented.

All the face-to-face interviews were audio recorded. This was meant to prevent any possible loss of data that could occur through recording by hand only. It ensured that all responses were captured and available whenever the need arose. The audio and hand recordings were supplemented with observation of nonverbal communication such as body language, facial expressions, choice of expressions and gestures.

The time for each interview was negotiated between the researcher and teachers and programme coordinator ahead of each session. The interviews were moderated and facilitated by the researcher because of her understanding of the research topic and objectives. This enhanced her ability to ask relevant follow up questions for the extraction of accurate and insightful data. The interviews lasted approximately 60 minutes.

The interviews were conducted in English language because first and foremost, it is the national language of communication in Ghana, where the study institution is located. It was also the language of choice because the teachers and programme coordinator had advanced writing and oral skills in English language. The use of the English language also facilitated direct interaction between the researcher and the teachers and programme coordinator and enhanced understanding of nuances, expressions, and gestures exhibited by the respondents. Similarly, it provided opportunities for in-depth conversations, clarification and explanation of questions, responses and opinions that contributed to the high quality of the data that was generated.

A major limitation of the face-to-face interviews was the large amount of data that they generated and that consequently took a lot of time to transcribe and analyse.

4.6.3.2 Focus groups

Focus groups are discussions with small groups of research participants facilitated by an interviewer for the purposes of collecting special data about their perceptions, beliefs, opinions, experiences, and interactions (Patton, 1990). Focus groups sizes are variable but often range between six and twelve participants to ensure that the voices and views of all participants are heard (Merriam, 2002). The focus group discussions generally centre on a few guiding but probing questions meant to elicit in-depth information from participants. They are particularly suited for homogenous groups of people who have the information sought by the researcher (Patton, 1990).

In this study's focus group discussions the researcher was the interviewer whilst the students were the research participants. Additionally, to ensure the researcher's total commitment and attention during the data gathering session, the focus group discussion sessions were assisted by a researcher assistant. The students were homogeneous in the sense that they shared the same background as past students of entrepreneurship. However, they were also heterogeneous with respect to their individual backgrounds and worldviews. Data was collected from two focus groups that consisted of ten students each. The two focus group discussions provided detailed and diverse data regarding the students' perceptions, expectations, and experience of entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship.

Each of the focus group discussions lasted approximately 90 minutes, which was adequate for exploring the research question. Incidence of fatigue, anxiety and lack of concentration did not arise because of the lively nature of the discussions, and also because the researcher operated within the 90 minutes originally negotiated for. The focus group discussions were conducted in vacant classrooms that had been agreed upon by the researcher and the students within the study institution. The rooms were comfortable.

The researcher was facilitator for the focus group discussions. The discussions were based on interview schedules. Throughout the duration of the discussions the researcher ensured that every student was comfortable, fully involved and heard. This entailed encouraging the few quiet and shy ones to offer their viewpoints while acknowledging the contributions of the vocal or dominant ones. In order to ensure accuracy in the data collected from the student, the researcher made it a point to summarize and validate complicated or ambiguous sentences during the focus group discussions. The researcher also used her facilitation skills to identify emergent relevant information and used them to probe for deeper insight on the topic.

During the focus group discussions, the researchers displayed neutrality through the avoidance of explicit and implicit gestures, expressions or body language that could compromise their position as researchers. The focus group discussions were video recorded to capture all the data that were generated - verbal and non-verbal, such as students' voice modulations, facial expressions, gestures, body language, and the layout of the venues. These were supplemented with hand-written notes.

English language was the medium of communication for the focus group discussions since that was common to the students of the study institution who hailed from different parts of Ghana, and from other West African countries such as Nigeria and the Republic of Benin.

4.6.3.3 Observations

Observations are data collection processes that seek primary insights into actual behaviour and contexts within their natural setting, as opposed to secondary or reported behaviour or opinions (Creswell, 2013) through the visual surveillance of features, events, processes or relationships of research participants and units. There are generally two forms of observation, participant and non-participant. In participant observations, the researcher is a participant in the research setting (Ibid) whereas in non-participant observation, the researcher is an observer looking at the phenomena and research participants and context from outside. They can take many forms such as structured direct observation, which entails the recording of relevant data guided by an observation checklist of items and questions. Observations are often aided by audio-visual recording or still photographs. Experts' recording of information on particular subjects in specific fields is another form of observation.

Observations were used to gather primary data on classroom experiences because they were the natural setting for entrepreneurship education at the study institution. Two entrepreneurship classes were observed. They were conducted overtly with the consent and full knowledge of all the participants (teachers and students) involved. The observations were used to gather data to supplement the data generated from the face-to-face interviews, focus groups and extant documents.

The observations were based on prepared standardized recording sheets and checklists of the processes, behaviours and interactions that were of interest to the researcher. These included data regarding the pedagogy being used, lesson topic, attendance, punctuality, student participation, and teacher management. The classroom sessions were video recorded and supplemented with hand-written field notes of what was observed. Unlike the open-ended observation guide checklist and recording sheets, the field notes were not standardized.

A likely limitation of this method was the possibility of the researcher glossing over certain details in view of her background as an entrepreneurship teacher. Likewise the research assistant whose job it was to video record the sessions may have missed certain behaviours and incidents which may have benefited the study. Another was the likelihood of the Hawthorne effect whereby participants may have modified their behaviour in the presence of a research observer.

4.6.3.4 Mining of d: ocuments

Another primary data gathering procedure was the review of extant documents and literature such as reports, guidelines, policy and documents (Merriam, 1998) This was meant to enhance the quality of the study by generating additional relevant data from existing reports, records, policy papers, course outlines, lecture notes and textbooks that were identified during the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010) . Other supplementary data were gathered from newspaper articles, pictures, audio recordings and the World Wide Web.

The advantage of this data gathering procedure was that the already existing documents had a higher likelihood of being free from researcher and participant biases as compared to data collected from the field (Merriam, 2002). The extant documents and literature offered very valuable insights and clues on the research question which were not captured from the other data collection processes.

The limitation of this process was the large volume of documents and artefacts that were reviewed which was time consuming. Again, they had to be sourced from different places and leads from so many people.

4.6.3.5 Audio and video recording/Note taking/Pictures

Audio and video recording, field notes and photo shots were used to enhance the collection of data from the focus groups and the face-to-face interviews. They were complemented with the researcher’s hand notes to serve as backup in case of technical defects or malfunctioning of electronic gadgets. The manual recordings were also the sole recording medium for the field observations. The data produced by these methods were later transcribed and analysed for discussion.

The use of these electronic gadgets had several advantages. First of all, they were meant for the purposes of triangulation and back-up by serving as reference points for providing additional details, confirmations and clarifications on the data collected. Furthermore, the recordings made it possible to preserve details and meanings of information gathered that could inadvertently have been lost either through inaccurate interpretations of some linguistic nuances, memory loss or poor handwriting on the part of the researcher. The electronic gadgets were also useful for capturing and preserving data during the data collection process because it would have been impossible for the researcher to simultaneously hear, record by hand and notice everything that was said or happened in the course of the interviews, focus groups and observations such as facial expressions, gestures and classroom dynamics. They enabled the researcher to devote her full attention to listening and observing and be free from the pressure associated with trying to listen and write at the same time as well as create an atmosphere of relaxation for both the researcher and participants. Another advantage derived from the use of the electronic gadgets was the absence of interruptions and intermittent pauses in the interviews, focus groups and observations that could have arisen in the researcher’s attempts to ensure the completion of sentences or recall of lost portions of responses. Additionally, these procedures facilitated the capturing of research participants’ own words.

The use of audio visual and manual techniques for collecting the data was guided by an appreciation of their limitations. They included possible technical defects in the electronic recording devises, unplanned for breaks and interruptions and disruptions that could have been occasioned by faulty batteries, electrical power outages, extraneous noises or accidents. It must be noted however that fortunately none of the incidents associated with this limitation was encountered during the audio and video recording session in this study. Another limitation of using electronic and manual notes was the possibility that the research participants will modify their behaviour when being recorded. To minimize such occurrences, the researcher provided a cordial and relaxed atmosphere and respected the views and opinions of the research participants. The research assistant ensured that the recordings were made without disrupting the focus group discussions and classroom lessons.

To ensure their usefulness and effectiveness and avoid accidents, trials and tutorials in the use of the electronic devises were conducted prior to their use. The audio visual recording of the interviews, focus group discussions, and classroom observations were negotiated before the programme coordinator, teachers, and students gave their consent to participate in the study.

4.6.3.6 The Researcher and research assistant

The researcher's role in a qualitative research such as this one cannot be over-emphasised. This is because the researcher is the 'primary instrument' for the collection and analysis of both primary and secondary data in a qualitative study (Merriam, 2002). In this study, the researcher conducted the classroom observations and all the face to face interviews of the teachers and programme coordinator. She also moderated the students' focus group discussions.

The researcher's data collection efforts were backed by the research assistant who was responsible for video recording the focus group discussions and classroom observations. He had the very important role of ensuring that every valuable data that may have escaped the researcher's attention as she moderated the sessions was captured. This made it possible for the researcher to devote her full attention to listening and observing the students, probing for more data, and scrutinising the classroom sessions.

Being a member of the selected institution's entrepreneurship faculty, the researcher took measures to avoid bias. One strategy was to conduct an ethically sound and reliable study. Another was handling the research role professionally. It included ensuring that the needs and concerns of the research participants were addressed and that none of them was coerced, intimidated or disrespected in the study. This was concretized by seeking and receiving the written consent of all participants before the study. It was followed by answering all queries raised by the respondents and ensuring that every participant signed the consent forms. Similarly, she safeguarded the integrity of the collected data by avoiding any manipulation or loss through deliberate misrepresentation of facts. This was achieved by seeking clarifications, explanations, and confirmation of data from the participants during and after the data collection sessions. Another was subjecting her work to peer review within and outside the selected study institution.

To enhance the quality of her role as well as her effectiveness, the researcher made adequate preparations to hone her research skills by acquiring additional research skills in conducting interviews and moderating focus groups. She also read extensively on research in general and qualitative research in particular to learn about best practices for the professional handling of research participants and ensuring the ethical collection and analysis of data. She likewise assumed the stance of a novice in entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship by seeking for and relying only on the data generated by the research participants and not her version of facts. This stance was supported by her decision to observe classroom sessions of colleague entrepreneurship teachers in order to learn at first-hand about classroom dynamics at the study institution. It was also manifested in her diligence in ensuring that the interview schedule and observation checklists had no preconceived ideas or responses, but instead gave respondents the opportunity to tell her their stories and experiences in their own way. The researcher also sought for peer advice from experienced researchers in her institution and elsewhere.

To prevent any distractions and biases on the part of the research assistant, his selection was based on his neutrality. He had no prior knowledge of the students or teachers in the focus group discussions and observations. In order to ensure efficient execution of his duties, the research assistant was given the needed training by the researcher. Similarly, trial recordings and meetings were conducted between the researcher and the research assistant before each of focus group discussion and classroom observation sessions to guarantee success in the collection of the data.

They also met immediately after each of the data collection sessions involved to review the techniques, and procedures, and any challenges and pertinent issues.

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS AND DATA PRESENTATION PROCESS

This section discusses the data analysis and data presentation processes. Characteristically, qualitative research generates voluminous detailed and rich data due to its design and data collection processes. For this reason, appropriate procedures have to be employed for the analysis of the data to avoid loss of valuable information. In this section therefore the procedure for analysing the data that was generated from the data collection processes is described. This includes how the emerging themes were identified, recorded and analysed (Crotty, 1998).

4.7.1 Data Analysis

Data, refers to the information collected from numerous sources such as documents, field notes, observations, interviews, audio-visual recordings, pictures and surveys to answer a research question (O'Connor & Gibson, 2003). Data in qualitative research is voluminous and subjective, and consists of in-depth unstructured or structured textual information (Wong 2008). Such information, becomes meaningful only after it has been processed through a transparent, rigorous and thorough procedure of compilation, interpretation, and summary (Yin, 2011). The resulting truth or reality, a true account of participants' experiences and opinions, is thus jointly constructed by the research participants and the researcher (Noble & Smith, 2014).

Analysing data is, therefore, a process that goes further than mere descriptions to include explanations and the generation of theories. It is a process of sorting data into different units, to reveal its component parts, characteristics, features and structures to faciltate meaning making (Dey, 1990; Patton, 2002). It is a dynamic, inductive, intuitive, and creative thinking and theorising process (Basit, 2003). Data analysis is a process of subjecting the data accumulated by the researcher from the research site and participants to intense scrutiny, and arranging it in a systematic manner that increases understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Wong, 2008). In sum, data analysis is basically a procedure for reducing large volumes of raw information collected from research units and sites into manageable components in order to facilitate easy identification of evidence based patterns and meaning (Patton, 2002).

Data collected in research can be analysed using different approaches based on the research's aims, questions and ontological and epistemological considerations (Morse & Richards, 2002; Noble & Smith, 2014). They are often analysed on the basis of the methods used (Dai, Swanson, & Cheng, 2011; Hart, Smith, Swars, & Smith, 2009). These are classified as data analysis approaches. Examples are quasi-statistical approach, frameworks or matrices approach, interpretative approach, and sociolinguistic approach (Noble & Smith, 2014). Content analysis is one of the methods under the quasi-statistical approach. It is the systematic examination of the data by first selectively sampling texts from the raw data which are subsequently divided into separate units and codes for analysis. Closely related to this method is hermeneutic analysis. It is similar to content analysis, but goes beyond the mere compilation of the data to include its interpretation on the basis of the phenomenon's socio-historic context. Thematic analysis is another data analysis method classified under the frameworks or matrix approach. Grounded theory, interpretative analysis, and phenomenological analysis methods are grouped under the interpretative data analysis approach. In grounded theory textual data is classified into codes, categories, and relationships grounded in the empirical data generated by the study (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Finally, the sociolinguistic data analysis approach consist of discourse analysis and conversation analysis methods (Noble & Smith, 2014).

In Noble and Smith's (2012) view, identifying an appropriate approach for analysing qualitative data is often challenging due to the ambiguities associated with their classification, commonalities, and overlapping nature. To resolve this situation, they suggested that researchers rather focus on different data analysis processes such as data transcription, gaining detailed insights about the phenomenon by immersing oneself within the data, developing data coding systems; developing themes and concepts from the coded data, and identifying relationships and patterns.

However, taking a cue from Long's (2014) approach and the need for flexibility in qualitative research, the data analysis of this study was guided by the research design adopted for the study including the research questions, the methodology and techniques as well as the research study's underlying philosophical assumptions. Since this research was a qualitative single case study the case-oriented analysis was adopted for close scrutiny of the case's details (Babbie, 2011). In addition the example of Noble and Smith (2014) was followed.

Consequently, the data analysis process for this study begun with the transcription or documentation of the qualitative data from the interviews and focus group discussions and observations into narrative data (Akinyode & Khan, 2018). It was an interactive process that closely followed each of the data collection sessions during (Ibid). The researcher first transcribed the raw data from the interviews, focus group discussions, and participant observations. The transcribed data was subsequently shared with participants, such as the teachers and students, to confirm the veracity of the information recorded as true reflections of their views, opinion and answers. Validation was also sought for words and expressions that were used differently by the respondents from what the researcher was familiar with in order to understand their meaning and their underlying implications during the transcription process (O'Connor & Gibson, 2003).

This was followed by the researcher immerging herself in the data by reading every sentence several times to familiarize herself with the data to facilitate its organisation into themes and ideas that reflected the specific questions asked in the interview guides and the standardized checklists for the observations. It was a daunting process, but a necessary one for integrating the study (Marshall & Ross, 1999). A reason for organizing the data was to prioritize and reduce its large volumes to only those that address the research questions represented by the questions in the interview guides and observation checklists (O'Connor & Gibson, 2003). It also simplified the actual analysis of the data by facilitating the identification of themes and concepts. Any other emergent ideas that were not considered of direct importance to this study were also noted as possible pointers to future research.

A number of coding techniques were used for reducing the data. It consisted of first identifying, noting and highlighting the recurring words and ideas from the responses to the individual questions. Attention was also paid to the choice of words by the respondents for expressing their opinions since they were useful pointers to their attitudes, perceptions, and feelings. This led to the categorization of the data into groupings of similar information, followed by the identification of relationships between the different emergent ideas and themes (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, as cited in O'Connor & Gibson, 2003). The data for each research question was analysed separately.

The next stage involved the writing of a summary of the themes and findings gleaned from the data. These were then compared to what was identified in the literature to find differences, similarities, surprises or deviations. The deviations were subjected to further scrutiny and confirmation through further literature search and review of the research audit trail.

In order to conform to the dictates of qualitative research, the data analysis process for this study was conducted simultaneously with the data collection process (Henning et al., 2004). This was to ensure that the data collected was authentic and adequate to justifiably answer the research questions. It entailed searching for clarifications, confirmations, and probes in the course of the interviews, focus groups, observations and reading over the transcriptions. These measures enabled the researcher to have a good knowledge of the data, as well as a good knowledge of the emerging findings (O'Connor & Gibson, 2003; Akinyode & Khan, 2018).

4.7.2 Data presentation

The final phase of the data management process, which describes and explains the data generated from the study was data presentation. According to Akindole and Kan (2018), there are different approaches for presenting findings that are best suited to particular types of data and different research traditions. They all have their associated advantages and limitations. For instance, the anthropological approach, a derivative of ethnography, uses the methodological principles from anthropology and qualitative sociology (Van Maanen, 2011, as cited in Akinyode & Khan, 2018). This approach focuses on providing a holistic and in-depth narrative and thick descriptions of the data that present the complex nature of the researched social phenomena (Geertz, 1973, as cited in Akinyode & Khan, 2018). Such a presentation approach was appropriate for this qualitative study because it facilitated an integrative presentation of the research findings (Akinyode & Khan, 2018).

The data for this study was thus presented in narrative form, supported with word tables and reproductions under the major findings and themes that emerged from the analysis (Anderson, 2010). To enrich the data, direct quotes of participants were provided where necessary (Yin, 2011). The word tables consisted of summaries of findings placed into matrices or rows and columns.

Strauss (2003), and Alvesson and Kärreman (2011), assert that qualitative researchers are usually not successful in their attempt to capture and represent complex phenomena because of the characteristic large volumes of data involved. However, Apers and Corte (2019) argue that this shortcoming is easily addressed by a detailed, intensive, and microscopic examination of the data to bring out the deep insights and realities.

A basic feature of this study was the conscious effort to ensure reliability and validity in every aspect of the data collection and analysis processes to ensure that the data truly reflected the realities as recounted by the respondents (Godwin et al., 1987 in O'Connor & Gibson, 2003). An example was the consistency that was applied in the data collection, transcription, and analysis stages of the research to ensure reliability of the research findings through the use of standardized interview guides and observation checklists for the interviews, focus groups discussions and observations (Kvale, 1996 as cited in O'Connor & Gibson, 2003).

The use of triangulation through the adoption of the different methods like face-to-face interviews, focus groups and observations also enhanced the validity and reliability of the data generated and consequently the efficacy of this study's findings by providing opportunities for obtaining feedback and validation from the participants during the data processing (O'Connor & Gibson, 2003).

4.8 ISSUES OF ETHICS AND TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE RESEARCH

The following are the ethical issues and measures of trustworthiness that were managed in this study.

4.8.1 Conducting an ethical research

The nature of qualitative studies imposes considerable ethical responsibilities on both the researcher and the researched in all stages of the research (Sanjari et al., 2014). This is in view of the very direct and close contact and interactions between the researcher and the research participants and study context. There is considerable literature on guidelines for conducting ethical qualitative research. However, these are often general in nature, thereby leaving room for individual researchers to adopt what is most appropriate and applicable to their study (Arifin, 2018). Issues that readily come to mind and that need to be addressed to ensure trustworthiness in qualitative research outcomes include anonymity, confidentiality, informed consent and the potential impact of researchers and participants on each other (Sanjari et al., 2014; Ngozwana, 2018). The onerous task of dealing with the inherently ethical challenges associated with qualitative research rests largely on the skills and experience of the researcher.

The main focus of qualitative research is interpretive and reliant on the evaluative and interpretive role of the researcher as the main research instrument which also introduces the element of researcher bias and credibility. Addressing these and other ethical challenges require a combination of measures and procedures to guide and direct the actions of all parties in qualitative research. The following sessions present the ethical issues that confronted the study and the actions that this researcher initiated to address them in order to enhance the study's credibility and transferability.

4.8.1.1 Research topic and research design

A study's research design provides the framework for the data collection and analysis processes and likewise the research topic (Ngzwana, 2018). Taking into account the need to protect the identity of the research institution and research participants, the chosen research topic and design ensured that neither the name of the study institution nor the names of the study participants appeared in any part of the research report.

4.8.1.2 The researcher's role

In qualitative research, the researcher is the main research instrument who plays the multiple roles as interviewer, moderator, mediator, recorder and observer among others (Peters undated). As such he is the one who interacts with and responds to the environmental stimuli and situations, gathers, and assemble pieces of information in a holistic manner and processes the data into meaningful forms. According to Stake (2010), these different roles of the researcher in the study ought to be well defined and explained in the research design and to the research participants and audience. In line with this, this researcher's background, and role as an adjunct entrepreneurship lecturer at the study institution were highlighted throughout the study - in the research design, and during the data collection processes, and also to the authorities of the selected study institution, the research participants and the University of South Africa.

4.8.1.3 The researcher- participant shared responsibilities

According to Sanjari et al. (2014), the nature of qualitative research places the researcher and the researched in very close contact with each other that raises several ethical concerns in the area of honesty, privacy, anonymity, confidentiality and informed consent. To this end the researcher was conscious of the shared relationship and responsibilities between her and the research participants throughout the research study. It involved ensuring transparency and clarity in her dealings with the research participants during all the stages of the research in order to gain their trust, confidence and willingness to cooperate and reciprocate. The researcher also informed the research participants about their responsibilities and terms of engagement.

4.8.1.4 Institutional permission

In line with best practices for ensuring the conduct of an ethical, fair and non-exploitative qualitative research, as well as in fulfilment of University of South Africa's (Unisa) research requirements, ethical approval for this study was sought and granted by the ethics committee of Unisa. This was followed by the granting of the study institution's permission for the research by the Dean of the institution's Business. This paved the way for the subsequent collection of data in the institution.

4.8.1.5 Research participants' informed consent

Informed consent is integral to qualitative research since it behoves on the researcher to provide detailed information about the study to prospective research participants and study institutions to assist them to make informed choices about their participation in the study (Sanjari et al., 2014). This requires clarifications on issues regarding the nature and objective of the study, the role of participants and the handling of the research data and findings (Ngozwana, 2018).

The process of obtaining consent has several dimensions that were addressed in this study. These included ensuring that consent was given freely and voluntary, that research participants understood what was being asked of them, and they were competent to give their consent (Arifin, 2018). Similarly, participants were adequately informed about the nature of the research. They were also given the chance to assure themselves that they understood the information given them and told that they had the power to participate in the research or not (Ibid).

As stated by Hoeyer, Dahlager and Lynoe (2005), as cited in Sanjari et al. (2014), informed consent is not a one-off stand-alone act but a process of continuous negotiations of the terms of agreements at different stages of the study. For this study, this applied to the decision of prospective participants to participate in the research and the selection of interview venues and time.

Since the research participants for this study were all adults and literate, signed informed consent forms were obtained from them. The potential research participants were first approached on an individual basis and provided with all the relevant information regarding the researcher's identity and address, the research topic and purpose, how participants were selected and what was required of them. The voluntary nature of their participation and how the data would be used, stored and protected were also explained on the consent form.

In the case of the student research participants, they were given further assurances to the effect that their participation or non-participation would have no adverse effect on their relationship with the researcher or any member of the entrepreneurship faculty. Thus, they were free to withdraw from the research without any consequence whenever they wanted to. Subsequently, they were given a standardized written consent form with all the relevant information and given a week to decide whether they wanted to be part of the study or not. All the potential participants agreed to take part in the study and were therefore made to sign and submit the consent forms to the researcher to confirm their decision to participate.

The use of a written consent letter was meant to ensure uniformity in the wording and explanation of the study as well as guarantee consistency in comprehension. To forestall any likelihood of participants skimming or glossing over passages and thereby loosing valuable information, the written information was short and simple. The written informed letter was in the English language since all the potential participants were literate in English.

At the beginning of each interview participants were given another opportunity to consent by answering three confirmation questions namely whether they were adequately informed about the nature of the study, whether they felt comfortable about participating and whether they were willing to volunteer their participation. This was meant to ensure that they understood the information given them and that their decision to be part of the research was voluntary and not based on manipulation, coercion or persuasion. Finally, participants' permission were sought for audio and video recording. Their decision to participate in the research and their actual participation in the interviews and focus groups were acknowledged before and after those sessions.

4.8.1.6 Anonymity and confidentiality

Several strategies were adopted to ensure anonymity and confidentiality of the research participants. One was by not including their names in the collection, analysis, and reporting of the data even though their names, degree programmes, career and entrepreneurial backgrounds were known to the researcher for administrative purposes. A related action on the part of the researcher to enhance the privacy and anonymity of research participants was by contacting them individually to seek their informed consent and recording their bio data and contact addresses (telephone numbers and email address) after receiving their signed consent letters.

After securing all the 20 potential research participants from the entrepreneurship student population, they were randomly divided into two groups by the researcher for the two focus group discussions. A meeting was arranged with each of the groups to agree on the venue and time as well as any related issues for the focus group discussions. At this initial meeting, members were introduced to each other and were informed about their obligations as study participants, including the need to maintain confidentiality, non-disclosure of information and respecting the privacy of other participants in the focus group discussions. At this stage participants were given the permission to opt out if they felt insecure with the presence of any of their peers.

As already mentioned in the data collection section, the focus group discussions were held in vacant classrooms. The doors to these classrooms were closed to maintain privacy during the interview sessions by preventing interruptions, eavesdropping and extraneous noises by non-participants. Doing so also served the additional purpose of bolstering the confidence of the research participants thereby paving the way for them to share their opinions, feelings and perceptions in a candid manner.

4.8.1.7 Data gathering and presentation

To enhance confidence in the researcher and data gathering process, the data was collected with the consent and full knowledge of the research participants. It was also conducted in an overt manner with the open use of recording instruments for audio-video and manual field notes recordings during the interviews, focus groups and observation. Doing so additionally gave the participants the opportunity to satisfy themselves on what they wanted to disclose or not in the sessions (Sanjari et al., 2014). Likewise, additional perspectives, clarifications and confirmations were sought and received from the research participants after the data transcriptions, where needed. This also made it possible for participants to acknowledge exactly what had been recorded and attributed to them.

On the researcher's part, this also ensured that she recorded the actual opinions and words of the research participants and not distorted versions. Similarly, the data collected from the interviews, focus groups and observations were immediately transcribed and analysed to prevent the likelihood of incorrect interpretation due to memory loss of critical issues that arose during the sessions (Ngozwana, 2018).

In the presentation of the data, direct quotes and words from research participants under pseudonyms were used to enhance the credibility of the findings.

4.8.1.8 Data analysis and data storage and protection

The confidentiality of the research was further enhanced by the use of a private space in the researcher's study room. The transcriptions were done audibly but out of hearing reach of any member of her household. As mentioned above, the transcribed data replaced names of the research participants with pseudonyms as a way of disguising their identities. Where details of the study were subjected to peer discussions and scrutiny, the real names of the participants were not disclosed.

All the raw data in this study (documents, audio and video recordings, field notes and transcripts) were kept in a safe and secured locket in the researcher's study room only accessible to her. The data stored on the researcher's computer were encrypted and password protected. Research literature share with colleague researchers via email were likewise password secured. Hard copies of transcriptions from the face-to-face interviews of entrepreneurship teachers and programme were read by them in the presence of the researcher for their comments after which they were shredded by the researcher after the necessary corrections and modifications in the computerized versions.

In accordance with the ethical guidelines of Unisa, all the personal data and interview recordings will be destroyed in due course when they are no longer needed.

4.8.2 Ensuring trustworthiness of this study

Even though qualitative research has gained acceptance in the research community there are still lingering concerns regarding its rigour and methods (Nowell et al., 2017). Some have even gone as far as claiming that qualitative research is not a scientific process of enquiry but is only a mere collection of anecdotes and stories (Williams & Morrow, 2009). Williams and Morrow (2009), however, believe qualitative research is a valid scientific process if credibility can be assured. This is because like any other research, qualitative researchers are:

> *obligated to justify to the research community that they have done due diligence: that they have established a rationale for the study, a clear description of the data collection procedures and data analytic methods, and a clear description and interpretation of the data"* (Choudhuri, Glauser, & Peregoy, 2004, as cited in William & Morrow, 2009, p 3).

These are summed up by Williams and Morrow (2009) as ensuring "integrity of the data, balance between reflexivity and subjectivity, and clear communication of findings" (Williams & Morrow, 2009 p. 4). Lincoln and Guba (1985) on their part introduced four criteria for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research as issues of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

Research credibility is a measure of the confidence reposed in the veracity of a study's findings, that is how true or accurate the researcher's interpretations and conclusions are. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) a study's credibility is established when there is a balance between the research participants' expressed views and how they are represented by the researchers and understood by the reader or audience. This is achieved through the use of multiple methods and sources of data that serve as triangulation. They include a prolonged interaction with the research participants, persistent observation, triangulation in data collection, researcher triangulation, external checking of the research process through peer debriefing as well as checking of data recorded and interpreted by the researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

On the issue of transferability, this refers to the generalizability of the research process, that is, the demonstrated evidence that a study's findings and conclusions can be applied to other contexts (populations, circumstances, situations or phenomena). Tobin and Begley (2004) as cited in Nowell et al. (2017) argue that in qualitative research this can only be on a case-to-case transfer basis. This means that transferability is adjudged by those who seek to replicate the process and is facilitated by the provision of detailed and rich descriptions of the research process and findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Linked to transferability is dependability which talks about the extent to which a study could be replicated with consistent findings. Ensuring this calls for the provision of a detailed systematic, traceable, logical and well written research process that can clearly be understood, recognized and followed by the audience or reader (ibid).

Thirdly, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), a research's confirmability refers to the extent to which a study's findings and conclusions are free from researcher bias and deemed as having been derived from the actual raw data generated by the data collection process. It is a measure of a study's neutrality that is achieved by a conscious effort on the part of the researcher to ensure that his interpretations of the raw data are not clouded by his own personal biases or self-interests. In Guba and Lincoln's (1989) view, a study's confirmability is measured by the degree of its credibility, transferability, and dependability.

Finally, the audit trail criteria suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985), were used to provided details of the theoretical, methodological, and analytical choices, decisions and rationale behind the research's adopted process. The audit trail also enhanced the study's trustworthiness by providing clear tracks of raw data, field notes, transcripts and the researcher's reflexive journals that can easily be followed by other researchers to arrive at similar conclusions or findings (Koch, 1994, as cited in Nowell et al., 2017). It also makes it possible to verify the credibility, dependability and confirmability of research.

Using Lincoln and Guba's (1985) trustworthiness criteria as a guide, this study adopted the following measures outlined below.

4.8.2.1 Establishing this study's philosophical foundations

To establish trustworthiness in this qualitative study, one of the preconditions was for the researcher to recognise and understand the study's philosophical underpinnings and premises and clearly communicate them to the reader or audience. This consisted of the articulation of the researcher's epistemological and ontological stance on reality, namely that reality is a human construct and therefore relative, multiple and subjective, being influenced by the value judgments of both the researched and the researcher as they make meaning of the phenomena on one hand, and interpret the data presented by the research participants respectively. Another measure was the adoption of sound scientific processes, procedures and methods for data collection, data analysis and management, as well as in the reporting of the research. (Ponterotto, 2005, as cited in Williams & Morrow, 2009).

4.8.2.2 Guaranteeing the integrity of the data

According to Patton (2002), the integrity of the data speaks to the data's dependability achieved through the articulation of a scientifically conducted research process. Williams and Morrow (2009) similarly define it as the adequacy of the data which is assured by the detailed documentation of the research process, providing enough evidence to prove that sufficient amounts of quality rich data have been generated and presenting evidence in the form of quotes to exemplify the researcher's interpretations of the data. All of these have been ensured in this study through the rich and thick description of its rationale and processes.

4.8.2.3 Maintaining balance in the participants' reality and the researcher's interpretation

A major challenge of social research is how to address subjectivity and ensure that the researcher's interpretation of data is not clouded by his own biases but that meaning becomes a mutual construction of the researcher and researched. The researcher therefore adopted a number of measures that included acknowledging their biases, self-reflective journaling to differentiate the researcher' perspectives from those of the study participants, checking for feedback and confirmation from research participants and peers, field notes and detailed audit trails of all the decisions and processes she adopted for the study.

4.8.2.4 Providing clarity in analysis and communication of research findings

The ability to clearly articulate and communicate research findings, their uses and social relevance to existing theory and practice are a necessary requirement of qualitative research if it must be considered trustworthy (Williams & Morrow, 2009). This calls for researchers to show clarity in their methods and processes such as data collection and analysis, and the rationale for their use (Nowell et al., 2017). In this study this was achieved by comparing and contrasting the findings to the literature.

4.8.2.5 Audit trails and reflexivity journals

The researcher created an audit trail for her own use and also as evidence for anyone who would seek to replicate her research study. This consisted of detailed field notes of the data collection processes supplemented by a reflexivity journal that contained a self-critical account of the research process and the researcher's reflections on the research. The reflexivity journal documented the researcher's internal struggles in arriving at the rationale and decisions that guided the research process such as providing justification for the research topic, the researcher's personal epistemological and ontological stance and the study's adopted methods and procedures.

4.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the philosophical underpinnings of research in general and those that informed the selection and adoption of this study's research paradigm and methodological approach. It consisted of a detailed description of all the steps, processes and decisions that guided the entire study such as the study's adopted research process, its epistemological and ontological underpinnings and the justification for the selected qualitative case study research approach adopted for the study. Also discussed was the study's research design, data collection, data analysis and presentation procedures. The chapter concluded with the presentation of the study's methods for addressing issues of ethics and ensuring trustworthiness.

Chapter five which follows is devoted to the analysis and presentation of the data.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and discusses the analysed data gathered from the research on the characteristics of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students, and how they impact on teaching and learning at the study institution. This data is based on the interviews, focus group discussions, classroom observations and document search.

The study adopted a qualitative single case study research design and methodology to investigate the characteristics of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students, and how they affect teaching and learning in the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution. The use of this approach facilitated the collection of rich and varied insights on the respondents' experiences of the educational components.

The data collection, analysis and interpretation were guided by the viewpoints of researchers like Sutton & Austin (2015) that:

> *doing qualitative research is about putting oneself in another person's shoes and seeing the world from that person's perspective, (therefore) the most important part of data analysis and management is to be true to the participants (since) it is their voices that the researcher is trying to hear, so that they can be interpreted and reported on for others to read and learn from (*Sutton & Austin, 2015 p.226).

It was also influenced by other best practices of qualitative research. Additionally, as has already been mentioned in chapter four, the data analysis for this study was guided by the entirety of the research's adopted design - research questions, methodology and techniques, and underlying philosophical assumptions (Long, 2014) and in conjunction with the case-oriented analysis methodology (Babbie, 2011).

Data analysis is meant to answer the research question using different approaches. For this study, the research question '*What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship* *education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students, and how do they impact on teaching and learning at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution?*' This study was interested in exploring the characteristics of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, and pedagogy, and the teachers and students and how they impact on teaching and learning based on a review of literature. The literature-based hypothesis that, 'there are inherent challenges associated with the entrepreneurship education objectives, pedagogy, curriculum, teachers, and students, that impact on teaching and learning' was adopted for the study. The following objectives were framed to answer the research question:

1. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship education objectives, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
2. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship education curriculum, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
3. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship education pedagogy, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
4. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship education teachers, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
5. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship education students, and how they impact on teaching and learning.

The responses to the research questions were collected from the interviews, focus group discussions and the classroom observations conducted by the researcher. Specifically, objectives 1-5 were addressed by the face to face interviews of the teachers and programme coordinator and the students' focus group discussions. All this data gathered is the focus of this analysis.

As is characteristic of qualitative research, the data generated in this study was large and detailed. In order to analyse such data properly and avoid the loss of valuable information, certain measures and processes were adopted as elucidated in chapter four. These processes entailed the thorough, intensive and microscopic reading and examination of the transcribed data. They consisted of coding techniques to reduce, ascertain, list, categorize and tabulate the emergent ideas. This was followed by further examination to identify and understand existing relationships among the different components of the data such as differences or similarities, surprises and/or deviations, and the underlying reasons for them in order to arrive at a holistic view of the data for interpretation and discussion (Crotty, 1998; O'Connor & Gibson, 2003; Yin, 2011).

For a better appreciation of the linkages within the data, the topics for the data analysis reflected the questions and answers provided by the respondents, what was observed in the classrooms, and the theories that framed the study. In order to prevent the loss of significant insights and realities, no attribute was left out, no matter how insignificant it appeared to be, since each one of them was considered important to the study. Each of the attributes was allocated to a theme if it was found subsequently found to be relevant to the research's theoretical dimensions or offered new insights and ideas that were previously unknown (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, as cited in O'Connor & Gibson, 2003).

The aforementioned procedures were simultaneous conducted with the data collection processes. This enabled the authentication of data as they emerged and helped the researcher to further examine, explore and test the emergent themes (Maxwell, 2012). Databases were created to provide a sense of the whole, while the use of verbatim texts helped the researcher to remain true to the data by allowing the respondents voices to be heard rather than her own (Paton, 2002; Yin, 2013).

5.2 CODING AND PROFILING OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS AND DATA SOURCES

After the verbatim transcription of all the interviews, focus group discussions, and observations, each transcript was labelled and coded. To satisfy the ethical requirements of confidentiality and protection of respondents' identities by this study, the research participants, and data collection techniques (interviews, focus group discussions and the classroom observations) were give pseudonyms, numerical and alphabetical codes. The codes for data collection techniques were: IN for interviews; FG for focus groups; CO for classroom observations and DO for documents (Appendix M). Likewise, codes for research participants were: ET1-4 for entrepreneurship teachers, PC for the programme coordinator and pseudonyms for entrepreneurship students that had no resemblance to any of them as shown in Appendix N.

5.3 PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

This section discusses the analysed data from the interviews (INET1-4 and INPC), focus group discussions (FG1 and FG2), classroom observations (CO1 and CO2) and documents (DO) in a composite manner. They are presented under identified themes in narrative form with supporting tables, reproduced documents and verbatim texts for an enhanced understanding of the data (Yin, 2011). The first part of the discussion presents the demographic data of research participants from the face to face interviews and focus groups - the programme coordinator, the teachers, and the students. The second part is devoted to the teachers' programme coordinator, and students' experience of entrepreneurship education at the study institution and data collected from the classroom observations.

5.3.1 Research participants' demographic profiles

The first question in the interviews and focus groups sought demographic information on the research participants, namely, 'what are the backgrounds of the teachers, the programme coordinator and the students of entrepreneurship education at the study institution?' This data was considered relevant because it was expected to throw light on the notion that entrepreneurship teachers and students were heterogeneous with very diverse backgrounds. It is discussed under three themes - employment tenure, academic, and practical entrepreneurship background for the PC and teachers on one hand, and under the four thematic areas of academic background, entrepreneurial history, full time students and entrepreneur-students.

5.3.1.1 Programme coordinator's (PC) demographic profile

The programme coordinator was a full-time faculty, and manager and designer of the entrepreneurship education programme. He was also an entrepreneurship teacher at the study institution.

The PC had academic background in entrepreneurship theory and entrepreneurship education, in addition to practical entrepreneurial experience. He stayed abreast with the evolving trends in entrepreneurship education by constantly engaging in skills and knowledge upgrading through workshops, conferences, and research.

Judging by the PC's disclosures on his academic background, and in reference to the literature on the entrepreneurship education teachers cited in 3.3.5, he was a 'pure' entrepreneurship faculty and passionate about promoting entrepreneurship education at the study institution. Even though the entrepreneurship education literature is silent about the academic credentials of entrepreneurship education coordinators, the researcher felt this data was relevant in view of his dual role at the institution as teacher and coordinator of entrepreneurship education at the study institution.

The PC had practical entrepreneurial experience which commenced in adult life. He had at different points in his life established entrepreneurial ventures in education, fashion retail and business consulting, some of which were not successful. He attributed the failure of his earlier entrepreneurial ventures to the distractions created by his academic pursuits which made him leave the businesses in the hands of less committed business partners, a situation he still found regrettable. Currently, he owns a viable business venture.

5.3.1.2 Teachers' (ET1-4) demographic profile

As shown in Table 5, only one of the four entrepreneurship teachers interviewed, ET1, was a full-time entrepreneurship teacher at the study institution. She taught 'foundations of entrepreneurship', and other non-entrepreneurship courses at the study institution. The other three teachers, ET2-4, were part time teachers. Unlike ET1, the adjunct teachers taught only entrepreneurship courses like 'foundations of entrepreneurship' and 'small business management'.

Table 5: Demographic Profile of Teachers and Programme Coordinator

Entrepreneurship teachers	**Teaching tenure**	**Educational background in entrepreneurship**	**Practical experience in Entrepreneurship**	**Entrepreneurial role**
ET1	Fulltime	Formal	Business start-up	Founder
ET2	Part-time	No formal	Business start-up	Founder
ET3	Part-time	No formal	Business start-up	Founder
ET4	Part-time	No formal	Business start-up	Founder
PC	Fulltime	Formal	Business start-up	Founder

According to the literature on entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurship teachers with formal academic training in entrepreneurship, known as *'pure'* entrepreneurship faculty are few with the majority having no academic training in entrepreneurship. The data from this study indicated that only one out of the four entrepreneurship teachers (ET1) had formal academic background in entrepreneurship (Table 5). Therefore, ET1 was the only 'pure' faculty as found in the literature (3.3.5). The remaining three teachers (ET2-4), by inference, were not pure entrepreneurship faculty. This data agrees with the entrepreneurship education literature's assertion that entrepreneurship education is characterised by a scarcity of pure entrepreneurship faculty. ET1's academic experience was amplified by several years of teaching and conducting research in entrepreneurship education and writing training modules.

All the teachers had some form of practical experience in entrepreneurship or business start-ups - failures, challenges and successes and also had thriving businesses.

For instance, ET1 had practical entrepreneurial experience, which unfortunately had been intermittent due to her formal educational pursuits and the lack of supervision and reliable employees. ET1's revelation echoes the PC's experience with managing entrepreneurial businesses while pursuing academic laurels. ET1 revealed that the challenges of running businesses through surrogates made her ponder later on in her life and decided to get something that could succeed without her full time presence such as tree plantations.

Childhood entrepreneurship was common to all the adjunct teachers. In the case of ET2, this dated back to his primary school years when he helped his mother to sell foodstuff at home and on the streets. He attributed his interest in entrepreneurship to that period in his life.

ET3 got his childhood entrepreneurial experience from his parents in the village and later while living with an uncle in the city after his secondary school education. He recounted that in the village he and his siblings helped on their parents' maize farm. Later at his uncle's he had the opportunity to learn a lot about business from the different roles he played as shop assistant, errand boy, buying shop supplies and delivering goods to customers. According to him *"It was quite tough but it prepared me for business*".

A deviation on teachers' childhood entrepreneurial experience was ET4's disclosure that his was not forced to labour for family business. His was a deliberate decision to make extra money for his own personal needs while in school by first harvesting and then the selling mangoes.

The data from the entrepreneurship teachers above reveals that all the respondents of the study had practical entrepreneurial background experience which, according to the literature on entrepreneurship education should enhance teaching. The reason for this viewpoint is that practical entrepreneurial experience provides opportunities for the sharing of real life insights on the challenges, failures and successes of entrepreneurial activity with students. Another was the respect and confidence in the teacher's abilities to teach entrepreneurship theory and practice that it evoked in students**.**

According to literature, the ideal criteria for appointing entrepreneurship teachers was having a combination of practical and academic competencies in entrepreneurship. It can therefore be inferred that out of the four teacher participants, only one (ET1) was a perfect match due to her formal academic studies and activities in the entrepreneurship discipline and her practical entrepreneurial experience.

5.3.1.3 Students' (ES1-20) demographic profile

The students were also heterogeneous and had diverse academic backgrounds. They were enrolled in different courses of study at the study institution such as 'human resource management', 'hospitality', 'procurement', and 'supply chain management'. Even though they were from different academic backgrounds, all the students had read the 'foundations of entrepreneurship' course because it was a compulsory study module required of all undergraduate students at the institution.

The majority of the respondents had had some amount of entrepreneurial experience either from helping family members engaged in entrepreneurship or running their own individual businesses (see Table 6). Their stories indicated that they had encountered some challenges and successes associated with entrepreneurship. The remaining minority disclosed that they had never been involved in any form of entrepreneurship, either directly or indirectly.

Among the entrepreneurial tasks mentioned were manning shop fronts, hawking bread, foodstuff and water, purchasing shop supplies, sweeping, stocking up shop shelves and doing deliveries. Some said they liked the experience, but others did not, thereby leading to their dislike for entrepreneurship. For instance, according to Akosua "*I remember I hated carrying things around to sell. So I was happy when I went to secondary school boarding. It ended my selling*".

Table 6: Entrepreneurial Background of Students

Focus groups	**Entrepreneurship experience**		**No entrepreneurship experience**	
	No.	**Names**	**No.**	**Names**
FG1	6	Akosua, Kwasi, Adjoa, Abena, Kwadjo, Kwabena	4	Ama, Araba, Fiifi, Joojo,
FG2	7	Akua, Yaa, Afua, Kwaku, Yaw, Kofi, Kwame	3	Esi, Aba, Ato

For others like Abena, learning the practical skills of manning a shop, cleaning, stocking shop shelves and buying supplies gave her the opportunity to interact with wholesalers and discover new products on the market. This experience initiated her love for business and which later translated into setting up her own business in adult life.

Table 7: Entrepreneurship Career Profile of Students

Focus group	**Full time Entrepreneurs**		**Part time entrepreneurs**		**non Entrepreneurs**		**Total**
	No.	**Names**	**No.**	**Names**	**No.**	**Names**	
FG1	2	Akosua, Kwasi	4	Adjoa, Abena, Kwadjo, Kwabena	4	Ama, Araba, Fiifi, Joojo	10
FG2	3	Akua, Kwaku, Yaw	4	Yaa, Afua, Kofi, Kwame	3	Esi, Aba, Ato	10

The non-entrepreneur students were in the minority as depicted in Table 6, Table 7, and Table 8. These students were full time employees in companies they did not own. Significantly, this category of respondents also had no entrepreneurial history.

They worked in formal and informal, state or private institutions - education, auto service companies, fire service, pharmaceuticals, security service, health service and statistical service.

The majority of the students referred to themselves as entrepreneurs (See Table 7). This group consisted of full time and part time entrepreneurs. The full time entrepreneur-students were those students who were self-employed and made a living by managing their own businesses. The part time entrepreneur-students, on the other hand, were those students who were working for companies but had also established their own micro businesses. The businesses operated by the full-time entrepreneurs-students were in the hospitality services, education, events management and courier services, media broadcasting, fish and seafood distribution. The part time students, on the other hand, were engaged in groceries, bags merchandising, catering, farming, yoghurt production, cosmetics, and drinks, and beverages distribution in addition to their regular white-collar jobs.

Table 8: Career Background of Students

Career backgrounds				
Focus group	**Full time and part time entrepreneur students**		**Non entrepreneur students**	
	Career	***Names***	***Career***	***Names***
FG1	Hotelier	Kwasi (FTES)	Biostatistician	Ama
	Fruit juice company manager/ Yoghurt manufacturer	Kwadjo (PTES)	Psychiatric nurse	Araba
	Accountant/ Caterer	Adjoa (PTES)	Teacher	Fiifi
	School proprietor	Akosua (FTES)	Police personnel	Joojo
	Immigration officer/ Cosmetics retailer.	Abena (PTES)		
	Human resource/ Bottled water and drinks retailer	Kwabena (PTES)		
FG2	Media broadcasting director	Kwaku (FTES)	Pharmacist assistant	Esi
	Office administrator/Grocery shop operator	Yaa (PTES)	Auto mechanic	Aba
	Fish and seafood distributor	Akua (FTES)	Fire officer	Ato
	Human resource officer/ Bags retailer	Afua (PTES)		
	Events manager and Courier service operator	Yaw (FTES)		
	Travel consultant/caterer	Kofi (PTES)		
	Customs officer/ Maize farmer	Kwame (PTES)		

Key: FTES **-** Full time entrepreneur-students
PTES **-** Part time entrepreneur-students

5.3.2 Research participants’ experience of entrepreneurship education

The respondents’ experience of entrepreneurship education was sampled with the aim of gaining insight on how the limitations of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students impacted on teaching and learning at the study institution. The emergent data under the above categories from the different cohorts of respondents are presented below and discussed.

5.3.2.1 Research participant’s perceptions of the course objectives

Overall, the data indicated respondents’ conviction that the entrepreneurship objectives created an awareness of entrepreneurship in students and developed entrepreneurial mindsets and skills in student and budding entrepreneurs. They also believed that entrepreneurship education was a catalyst for business startup and socio-economic development.

An insight gained from the PC was that he had designed the study institution’s flagship entrepreneurship education module ‘foundations of entrepreneurship’ and every aspect of it. It involved the determination of the learning objectives and outcomes, the course content and pedagogy guide. (See Table 9). He stated that the course had three objectives, namely, creating awareness of entrepreneurship theory, developing the entrepreneurial mind-sets and skills in students, and fostering entrepreneurship. Explaining the rationale for the broad course objectives and outcomes, the PC indicated that: “*At the end of the day I have to picture the outcome for all the students who are going to read the programme and that informs what goes into it”.*

Referring to the efficacy of the objectives of entrepreneurship education at the study institution, he was confident that they did indeed nurture the students for start-ups and enterprise development which he said was a source of motivation to him. According to the PC, his conviction was not based on any scientific research, but rather on his own personal assessment of his interactions with some past students of the programme. He said:

> *some come for advice, for direction. Some send testimonies through the email, some on Facebook. … I see it all over… I have former*

students in Nigeria, Burkina Faso. Some of them I see on Facebook and the progress they are making. Some students here in Ghana are running their own businesses after they finish their final year. So, the evidence is there. In terms of numbers, I think maybe 30% of those who go through this course are running their own businesses.

Apart from producing entrepreneurs, the PC also believed in the broader impact of entrepreneurship education such as assisting beneficiaries to become aware of the useful roles of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur in the global economy and the acquisition of entrepreneurial mind-sets and personal skills. From his point of view the real value of entrepreneurship education is not only in creating entrepreneurs, but in learning the concepts of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur, and their contribution to economic development, but by also learning about how entrepreneurs behave, their traits and mind-sets, and how to use this knowledge to improve the productivity of non-entrepreneurs wherever they work.

According to the PC, the essence was to equip students with the awareness and skills to identify opportunities, to be able to network, to be creative and innovative, to be able to work in teams, and independently, and to observe and challenge assumptions. He rationalized that these were the skills taught in entrepreneurship education and necessary for all types of employment, whether self-employed or employed by another to succeed in 21st century.

Table 9: PC's and Teachers' Perceptions of the Course Objectives

Participant	Themes	Sub-themes
Project coordinator	Broad but relevant for addressing students' needs Fosters entrepreneurship in students. Creates awareness of entrepreneurship theory Develops entrepreneurial mindset Develops proactive individuals	Designer of the entrepreneurship course – objectives, curriculum content, pedagogy guide
Teachers	Relevant and usefulness Fosters entrepreneurship in students Nurtures entrepreneurs Enhances personal efficiency and productivity Inadequate for producing entrepreneurs Too broad for the allocated one semester	Adoption of creative methods to achieve the objectives such as student mentorship and coaching to support learning

In a similar vein, the teachers also maintained that the entrepreneurship objectives were relevant and useful. For instance, they argued that the objectives created an awareness of entrepreneurship in students, that they fostered and nurtured entrepreneurs and that they enhanced the beneficiaries' personal efficiency and productivity. The teachers complained, however that the objectives were very broad and difficult to achieve within one semester, thereby necessitating the adoption of their own method to ensure they were all met. Some of the methods they adopted were offering mentoring and coaching assistance to students during and after the programme in managing start-ups.

Regarding the relevance and usefulness of the entrepreneurship education objectives for fostering entrepreneurship and nurturing entrepreneurs, some of the teachers were of the view that they were relevant. Their explanation for this perception was the fact that entrepreneurship principles helped people to become more productive by enhancing creativity, at home or at work, whether in sewing, marketing, or accounting. They asserted that entrepreneurship education at the institution succeeded in motivating students to embrace self-employment. To illustrate this point, ET2 disclosed that recently, a former student had attributed her growing fresh and frozen foods delivery business to entrepreneurship education.

This notion of the efficaciousness of the entrepreneurship education objectives was however challenged by ET1 to the effect that entrepreneurship career was not for everyone even if they had knowledge of entrepreneurship theory. This, according to her, was because, the ultimate deciding factors were having prior practical entrepreneurial experience coupled with a willingness to take risk. She went as far as to estimate that for every hundred students of entrepreneurship education, only two stood any chance of becoming entrepreneurs. In defending her position ET1 explained:

> *I think we are making a mistake in thinking that everybody can be an entrepreneur by simply reading an entrepreneurship course…It doesn't work like that at all…For me it is the risk that is very, very important…it is everything…coupled with previous entrepreneurial experience from learning from the mistakes made in their parents' businesses*.

The students, on their part, shared some positive perspectives on the objectives of entrepreneurship education. They generally, believed that the objectives had been met and that the course had been worthwhile in spite of their diverse academic and social backgrounds. (See Table 10). For instance, some students who initially nursed negative perceptions about entrepreneurship education such as Joojo even modified their views. He said he was glad of the opportunity to read the course. He confessed that he had learnt a lot and would therefore recommend the course for everyone.

Similarly, some of the students, at the start of the entrepreneurship course, had high expectations and believed it was going to be an exciting chance to understand entrepreneurship and to become entrepreneurs. This group of students approached the course with an attitude of tolerance, curiosity, and great interest. They said they had not been disappointed.

At the other extreme, some of the students had initially questioned the relevance of the programme and its objectives, and why the course was compulsory in the first place. They felt it was unnecessary, of no benefit to them and a complete waste of time and effort. Such students therefore felt resentful and indifferent, helpless, and resigned toward the programme (See Table 10). Others also chose not to worry unduly about it by likening it to other academic courses that students had to struggle through tin order to earn academic qualifications. Joojo likewise, had initially described the objectives of the entrepreneurship course as ambiguous and therefore elected to wait and see its final outcome since he had no power to refuse to read it.

The students claimed they had gained enhanced awareness of entrepreneurship, and the entrepreneurs, and their importance for socio-economic development and employment generation. They had also been enlightened about entrepreneurship as a credible employment generator and career path for addressing Ghana’s graduate unemployment menace. Sharing her new insights Ama disclosed that the course had changed and broadened her perceptions and outlook about self-employment and small companies which she had prior to the course dismissed as the career avenue open to the uneducated who were incapable of finding employment in big companies. She was also humbled to learn that self-employed people were actually responsible for most of the modern technology, machines, clothes, food, cars and smartphones enjoyed by all and without which life would be "*very deplorable*".

The students similarly understood that entrepreneurship was not reserved for only a few unique breed of individuals but that any student was capable of starting a business after school. This notion was succinctly expressed by Ato that "*before the course I was scared of entrepreneurs. I thought they were born like that and that you cannot be an entrepreneur if you are not born with their traits.*"

Some of the students were also awed by the insights they had gained about the entrepreneurial mind-set. They said they had also developed some entrepreneurial skills and entrepreneurial mind-sets, and knew about the entrepreneurial process and how to become better entrepreneurs. These included practical information for starting and managing businesses such as identifying business opportunities and making good use of them, learning about the different types of businesses, and registering businesses and acquiring operating licenses. Others were learning about the market, cultivating the ability to take risk, and managing the constraints of doing business.

Additionally, the students said they had acquired some tools and principles for personal self-enhancement and increased productivity for working life. This they claimed had made them more self-confident and opportunity alert, innovative, dynamic, proactive, vibrant and successful in their individual fields of study or careers. They indicated they could now boast of the ability to think more critically and identify their strengths and weaknesses. These sentiments were amplified by Ama thus:

> *I think the things we learned can be applied anywhere. For example, I work as a biostatistician and the entrepreneurship course has helped me to be more observant and analytical. I'm better at solving problems and leading the teams I work with in my workplace. I'm more proactive … it has changed my work attitude and my style of work even though I work for somebody.*

On the part of the entrepreneur students, it was their claim that they had become more knowledgeable in the theories of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur. This they said was helping them to improve their businesses and behave like real entrepreneurs. According to Akua it had shaped her into a better entrepreneur by imparting more entrepreneurial skills to her than she previously had. For example, she said she could now manage risk and assess the market better before introducing a new product instead of blindly copying others like she used to do in the past.

Table 10: Students' Perceptions of the Course Objectives

Perceptions		**Themes**	**Sub-themes**
Pre-course	**Positive perceptions**	Useful Interesting	Tolerance Curiosity High expectations
	Negative perceptions	Ambiguous Unnecessary Should be an elective module Irrelevant Not useful Waste of time and effort	Indifference Confusion Resignation Wait-and-see Resentment
Post course	**Positive perceptions**	Relevant Good and useful Interesting Enhanced awareness of the theories of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur. Created awareness about the roles of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs in socio-economic development and employment generation. Imparted entrepreneurial skills and mindset. Imparted knowledge about the entrepreneurial process. Provided tools for personal self enhancement and increased productivity.	Satisfaction Delight Appreciation Commendation

5.3.2.2 Research participants' perceptions of the curriculum

The respondents had different and varied perceptions of the curriculum. As has already been pointed out, the 'foundations of entrepreneurship' course was designed by the programme coordinator. It was therefore no surprise to hear him describe the curriculum as being appropriate for achieving the course's stated outcomes at the study institution because it had all the relevant topics. Explaining his curriculum designing process, the PC said his first task was to picture the outcome for the students who were going to read the course since this would inform the content of the curriculum. To illustrate his point, he argued that:

> *If I am training somebody to be a driver the objective is that after the training the person should be able to drive a car. So if I am training somebody to learn how to start a business then after the training that person should be able to start and run his or her business if the person wants to do that… (because) all the relevant topics are captured in the curriculum.*

According to the PC the curriculum is periodically revised to conform to global standards and evolving trends in entrepreneurship education practice gathered from his readings and conferences such as removing topics that he considered irrelevant. He maintained that such reviews were usually guided by the North American entrepreneurship education trends focused on practical learning, which he was quite familiar with.

Similarly, the PC noted that the structure of the FOE curriculum was at par with existing best practice. He indicated that, the first section of the course was for knowledge and awareness creation about entrepreneurship theory, followed by topics on the entrepreneurial mind-set, traits, and behaviour. The third aspect of the curriculum had topics on business startups, and entrepreneurial skills such as opportunity identification and ideas generation, the entrepreneurial process of translating opportunities into a business venture, the design thinking model, the business model canvass, feasibility studies, and market development processes. For emphasis, he said the curriculum addressed the issues of how to ensure product/market fit, by testing and validating products in order to come out with a prototype for the market.

In talking about class duration and its impact on the completion of the curriculum, the PC maintained that the 3-hour-long class sessions were adequate. He however confessed that even though all the topics were relevant, they were a bit too many to be effectively covered in the one-semester-long course duration. In view of this he revealed that plans were already far advanced to extend the programme to span three semesters instead of one. He explained that in the expanded programme, students will read the foundation course in the first semester, then simulation in the second semester, followed by practicum in the third. He said the venue for the practicum, either on or off campus was yet to be decided.

Sharing their experience of the curriculum, the entrepreneurship teachers confirmed a match between the course's curriculum and objectives. They however complained that the large number of topics in the curriculum made it difficult to complete it within one semester and felt the need for more credit hours for in-depth learning of theories and skills. For instance, ET1 estimated that only about 70% of the curriculum was covered by the end of the semester.

The teachers also decried the ambiguous nature of some of the topics in the curriculum. They observed that the ambiguities led to a lack of uniformity in what was taught since they were often based on the teachers' interpretation and discretion. The teachers found this depressing and very stressful. ET1 felt that teachers' arbitrary interpretation of topics led to them teaching different things and a lack of uniformity in what students learned, which was very wrong. To address this the teachers suggested the redefining and standardization of the topics such that according to ET1, *"if we are talking about 'innovation' we will know whether it is about the system or the types? If it is 'marketing', are we looking at principles? If it is 'creative thinking', which aspect should be emphasized?"* Doing so in her view would help everybody to know what should be taught since the standard description of the topic will guide the lecturer on what to do.

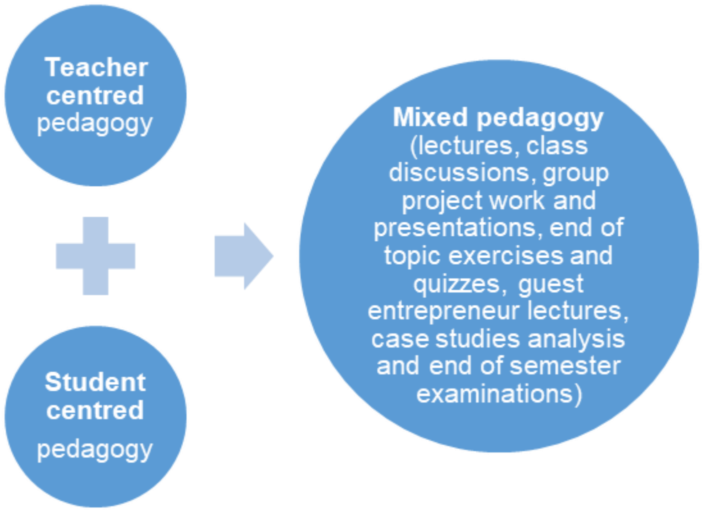
Table 11: The PC's and ETs' Perception of the Curriculum

Participants	Themes	Subthemes
PC	Appropriate content Periodic revision Adapted to global standards and best practice	Satisfaction with 3-hour-long class Inappropriateness of one semester course module for in-depth learning of theories and skills. Proposed three semester- long programme
ET1-4	Acceptable content Voluminous content Ambiguous topics	Lack of uniformity in what is taught. Topics taught based on teacher's interpretation and discretion. Insufficiency of single semester for in-depth learning of theories and skills. The need for more credit hours. Non-completion of curriculum
Students	Too many topics Lack of clarity of some topics	Need for more credit hours Non-completion of curriculum, Lack of uniformity in what was taught.

In spite of the students' high opinions of the entrepreneurship course, they similarly, complained about the curriculum being packed with too many topics, some of which were not even addressed. Consequently, they also suggested the need for more credit hours for future programmes. Again, they indicated that some topics were too difficult to understand, that some of the theories and concepts conflicted with each other, while others overlapped. The students likewise indicated differences in what they were taught in the different groups. For instance, Akosua said that she could not tell the difference between ideas, and creativity, and innovation, and even ended up being more confused when she attempted to ask a friend for assistance, because his explanation had been different.

5.3.2.3 Research participants' perceptions of the pedagogy.

Figure 9: The Prescribed Entrepreneurship Pedagogy at the Study Institution



Source: Adaptation from the study institution's 'Foundations of Entrepreneurship' course outline.

Talking about the entrepreneurship education pedagogy at the study institution, the PC pointed at a lack of uniformity in the teaching methodologies and assessment standards used at the study institution. He noted that this was because the course was designed to use a wide variety of methodologies depending on the topic, but with a focus on active learning and also left to the preference or discretion of the lecturer. They included the use of student-centred methodologies such as simulations, role plays, case studies, classroom presentation and group project work. The PC disclosed that he predominantly used the active learning approach. This was reflected in his teaching and assessment methods. In explaining his assessment criteria, the PC explained that it was based on their performance in practical exercises like their group project work. This entailed delivering presentations that covered the different stages of the entrepreneurial process, such as the sighting of opportunities, designing a product, validating it in the market, taking pictures and coming back to report on their experiences – good or bad. According to him assessing them in this way eventually helped them to run businesses in the future.

The PC disclosed that most of the course textbooks were from the North American countries of Canada and the USA including additional teaching and learning resources from Harvard Business Publishing. He bemoaned the lack of adequate relevant resources, and funding which he blamed on the poor understanding of entrepreneurship education by the university authorities, who tended to equate it to the average academic programme. According to him entrepreneurship education is currently characterized by more practice, and activities such as internships and simulations which can only be possible through adequate funding.

The teachers had some negativities about the entrepreneurship education pedagogy. For instance, they noted that the guidelines provided were ambiguous. As a result, the dominated teaching approach was teacher-centred that limited student participation. Some teachers however said they tried their best to complement the teacher-centred approach with some student-centred methodologies to facilitate their students' active participation in the learning process in spite of the time constraints, and the challenges and exertion associated with them. These methods included group projects, simulations, entrepreneur visits, case studies, classroom presentations, and the harvesting of entrepreneur students' insights and experience. One of the teachers, ET1, said that questions from her students helped them to learn better. Additionally, she indicated that she sometimes made her students read ahead of the class and later present what they had read to the class using slides. This was followed by questions from their colleagues and her final summation.

ET4 maintained that the active-learning approach was also challenging to the students especially at the beginning of the semester because. This is due to the fact that it placed the greater responsibility of their learning on the students themselves through the many projects and group exercises they were required to do. Another observation of his was because the students were used to the teacher-centred and therefore were more comfortable with it and did not require them to talk in class if they did not want to.

The simulation method was used by some of the teachers. ET4 used it to teach and walk his students through the entrepreneurial process – opportunity identification and ideas generation, planning, execution, marketing and sales. Describing his approach ET4 indicated that at each stage the students had to describe how they were going to operate, and how they were going to raise funds. They were encouraged to maintain small budgets and also contribute to their business fund in a bid to teach them about the merits of prudence.

Teachers also used entrepreneur interviews and visits for students to have direct contact with entrepreneurs and learn from them. However, there were variations from one teacher to the other. In the case of ET4, the student groups were required to identify their own entrepreneurs and interview them. Among others they were to find out why the entrepreneur decided to set up the business, his challenges, and successes. Their findings were later discussed in class. An interesting twist to this method was in the students going back to the entrepreneur to offer them advice and solutions to address the challenges he was encountering in his business. Other teachers such as ET2 and ET3 identified their own entrepreneurs and invited them to their classes to tell their stories and give students the opportunity to ask them questions.

A common practice was of teachers adopting teaching and learning methodologies for particular topics. For instance, ET2, used the lecture method for some theories such as the entrepreneurial mindset and traits interspersed with examples, questions and answers whereas at other times he allowed the students who owned businesses to share their experiences. For teaching ‘opportunity identification’ on the other hand, he resorted to role play by grouping the students and assisting them to identify business opportunities.

The dominant use of the teacher-centred pedagogy by the teachers was blamed on inadequate time, partly due to the late start of most lessons as a result of student lateness. It was also due to the teachers’ fear that focusing on the activity-based learning methods would compromise on time and cause some topics to be left out in the course. So they mostly relied on power point presentations and case studies which enabled them to cover most of the topics in the loaded curriculum. They however, maintained that their students were not adversely affected by this approach from the positive feedback they got from them.

Linked to this issue was the inadequacy of the one-semester long entrepreneurship course for the effective teaching and learning of entrepreneurship theory and skills. The teachers were of the view that extending the course over several semesters would give teachers and students ample time to teach and practice entrepreneurship and be able to come out with business ventures. ET1 suggested two semesters for the course which will enable students to come up with business prototypes at the end of the first term, to be followed by market testing of their products during the vacation. In her estimation, the vacation will give students ample time to assess their businesses and know if they were viable, while the second semester will offer them the opportunity for peer review and feedback by the class and the teacher. This, according to ET1, will make it possible for students to practice actual small business management and give them the necessary entrepreneurial skills.

Table 12: Research Participants' Perceptions of the Pedagogy

Participants	Themes	Sub-themes
PC	Lack of uniform pedagogy Lack of uniform assessment standards Predominant use of teacher centred approach Use of student centred methods like simulations, case studies, classroom presentation and group project work	Teachers' arbitrary adoption of teaching and learning methodologies. Arbitrariness in allocation of marks between term work and examinations.. Lack of supplementary resources for teaching and learning. Lack of funds
ET1-4	Ambiguous pedagogy Predominant use of teacher centred approach Limited use of activity based leaning methods such as group exercises, project work, classroom presentation, simulations, entrepreneur interviews, case studies, entrepreneurs students	Teachers' continuous training. Shortcomings of the teacher centred approach. Time constraints associated with student centred approach. Teachers' arbitrary use of methodologies for different topics. Poor student participation
ES 1-20	Impressive introductory class, Use of participatory teaching and learning approach, - simulations guest entrepreneurs, entrepreneur students, case studies, discussions,	Sufficient class time Skewed assessment and grading system, Absence of field trips and internships Need for guest entrepreneur visits Lack of adequate learning resources Lack of funds

Another pedagogical method commended by the teachers was the use of student learning groups because they enhanced teaching and learning through exercises and classroom presentations. They were also good for the effective management of the classroom considering the high student populations. They additionally served to make the class sessions and the entire course interesting and stimulating. In another vein, teachers had also devised ways to address their challenges with some of the teaching methods and topics. This included constant participation in entrepreneurship teacher training programmes to upgrade their teaching skills.

The students also had insightful information on the entrepreneurship education pedagogy. The majority said they had found the introductory classes very lively and calming. They said that the introductory class gave them a clear indication of what the course was about, thereby allaying their fears and enhancing their understanding and learning. They said their first class encounters with the teachers were devoted to over views of the course content: the objectives, the syllabus, teaching methods and the books and other resources. Some of the students did self-introduction exercises which according to them, afforded them the opportunity to gather more information about their classmates and teachers such as where they worked, what they did and their passions and values that invariably enhanced teamwork and communication. According to Ama, It was a good exercise because it she learnt a lot about herself and her fellow students that she had been unaware of even though we had been classmates for three years. It helped her to relate better with them, especially those who were in her project team.

The students commended the different pedagogical approaches and methods used by the teachers. Their list of approaches and methodologies corroborated those of their teachers and the programme coordinator. They included the participatory teaching and learning approach which they said animated the classes and encouraged them to participate in questions and answers such as group work, case studies, discussions, simulations and real life examples by the teachers.

Similarly, the students were full of appreciation for the guest entrepreneur visits because they claimed to have learnt a lot from them. They indicated that the entrepreneurs' real life experiences, ideas, and interesting anecdotes complemented what they learned and read from textbooks. The students however felt that the single visits were woefully inadequate since more of such encounters would have been more beneficial. They said the stories of the successful entrepreneurs had motivated some of them to go on to start their own business, such as Araba, who indicated that the visiting entrepreneur's humble beginnings in business made her realize that she had more than enough money and resources to start a business.

With regards to the three-hour class sessions, the students were of the view that the time was sufficient for effective learning. For instance, Kwasi said the time was perfect, that it was neither short nor long, thereby facilitating good concentration span, and interacting with each other, and enough time to finish class group exercises.

The students noted the absence of field trips and excursions to the workplaces of entrepreneurs and business centres. Sharing his disappointment, Fiifi observed that one would have thought that field trips to entrepreneurs and their companies would be included in the curriculum, since the course had promised them entrepreneurship skills to start businesses. To address this shortcoming Joojo proposed that in future students needed to go on excursions and visit renowned entrepreneurs at their workplaces for deeper learning and how to innovate products and services.

The students likewise had issues with the absence of mentorship and internship which they believe would greatly benefit those who had no entrepreneurial history to get the needed practical experience. They argued that internships for students would expose them to entrepreneurs at work and ask questions, and help them to make practical application of theories they learned within our Ghanaian environment entrepreneurship ecosystem. Furthermore, this would offer students first-hand experience of the steps entrepreneurs go through at a real firm and learn practical entrepreneurial skills. The students also suggested the hosting of entrepreneurship competitions on campus, which were lacking, as another way for students to practice entrepreneurship.

The students were full of praise for their entrepreneur classmates for readily sharing valuable information whenever they were asked to share their business experiences in class. They explained that the fact that these entrepreneurs were their classmates made it easy for them to relate to their stories and experiences. It also served to motivate them to see entrepreneurship as a normal career.

Another area of satisfaction regarding teaching and learning was the objective teacher feedback to students, as well as the promptness with which their class exercises and assignments were assessed. The students were however critical of the grading system. Most of them said this was skewed towards the end of semester examinations rather than the term exercises and project work which they considered were more involving and demanding of their time and efforts. According to Fiifi allotting 40% marks to continuous assessment (CA) while the greater 60% went to end of semester examinations was not good and unfair and instead proposed either a 50/50 percentage split between CA and examinations or a 60/40 percentage allocation for CA and examinations respectively.

A major constraint for learning cited by the students was the lack of funding for practical entrepreneurial startups. They argued that funding support would have helped them to plan and manage real businesses and further develop their entrepreneurial skills. Under the existing circumstances they learnt very little from the role plays and simulations. As described by Araba.

Everything we did was not real such as the business projects we identified and even the business names we chose. I believe being provided with funding from the institution and elsewhere would have made it possible to start real businesses and come out with good innovative ideas and real products.

Another challenge to the students was the lack of adequate supporting learning resources such as textbooks to enhance their learning.

5.3.2.4 Research participants' perceptions of the teachers

Of interest to the study were identifying the characteristics of the teachers from the point of view of the respondents, and how they affected teaching and learning. The data was collected from all the respondents. (See Table 13).

The PC was involved in the recruitment and appointment of entrepreneurship teachers, both full-time and part-time. This was by virtue of his position and role as the coordinator and head of the entrepreneurship department. He expressed the challenges encountered in the recruitment of adjunct teachers in view of the difficulty of identifying and attracting individuals who possessed the requisite skills combination of entrepreneurial practice and academic qualification in entrepreneurship. He intimated that a compromise solution was the practice whereby people who had some management and practical experience in running a business were appointed to teach entrepreneurship at the institution. Unfortunately, he indicated that this often resulted in the appointment of teachers with deficient teaching skills, which led some of them to even use the business management approach to teach entrepreneurship. In the PC's view, this situation was being addressed through training sessions to upgrade the teachers' skills in teaching methodologies and entrepreneurship content.

Table 13: Research Participants' Perceptions of the Teachers

Participants	Themes	Sub-themes
Programme coordinator	Lack of adequate skills in teaching entrepreneurship	Teaching skills upgrading Shortage of teachers with combined practical and academic knowledge of entrepreneurship.
Teachers	High teacher competence , Teachers have relevant theoretical and practical knowledge in entrepreneurship,	High teacher enthusiasm, motivated and team play Entrepreneurship teaching skills upgrading.
Students	Mastery of topics Well informed Highly competent.	Teachers are friendly, respectful, caring, accommodating, supportive, passionate, attentiveness Appointing highly competent adjuncts to full time tenures

The teachers on their part, showed enthusiasm for entrepreneurship education. They all exhibited some level of teamwork especially during examinations. Without exception, they all also expressed high opinions of each other and believed that each one of the teachers in the entrepreneurship department was competent to teach entrepreneurship. In explaining this viewpoint ET2 contended that they would not be in the institution in the first place if their CVs were not up to standard, and that being a university he believed that each teacher at least had a master's degree. He argued further that having knowledge of the theories in addition to practical experience in entrepreneurship, and teaching skills was all that was really important to teach entrepreneurship education in a higher educational institution.

Some of the teachers said they were educationists who had academic qualification in education and well versed in the use of pedagogical approaches and methods. The untrained teachers on the other hand were successful at teaching entrepreneurship by leaning on their practical experience gained from managing their own businesses and their own experiences as students of higher education. It came to light that all the teachers periodically participated in entrepreneurship teaching programmes to upgrade themselves and adapt to evolving trends. Some also regularly interacted with business people to enhance their knowledge through the sharing of experiences and information, even though they knew most successful business people tended to withhold vital information about their business and source of wealth.

The lack of transparency of entrepreneurs regarding their business dealings and wealth was echoed by ET4 who disclosed that he would prefer a pure academic over a fulltime entrepreneur as teacher in the absence of an individual who had the combined practical and theoretical knowledge of entrepreneurship. This is because such an individual would at least teach the bare facts about entrepreneurship rather than the full-time entrepreneur who would likely not be so transparent.

In describing their entrepreneurship teachers, the students described them as being passionate about entrepreneurship education and resourceful which, in their opinion helped some of them to fully embrace the course. They also noted that the teachers exhibited entrepreneurial mind sets and skills and were competent in their handling of the different topics in the curriculum. The students found the teachers friendly, respectful, accommodating, supportive, and attentive to their concerns and fears. Surprisingly, some of the students were so impressed with the adjunct teachers that they wished their employment tenures would be upgraded to that of fulltime such as Adjoa who insisted that her adjunct lecturer, had in fact been "*super, wonderful and* *perfect.*" According to her, he knew what he was talking about and offered a lot of practical examples from his work with other businesses and business people and could therefore benefit many more students if he were fulltime because he was so good.

5.3.2.5 Research participants' perceptions of the students.

The study sought additional information regarding the characteristics of the students from the point of view of the respondents, and how they affected teaching and learning. They were generated from the respondents' experiences and interactions with the students. (See Table 14).

From his perspective, the PC felt that with the exception of the business studies students who showed great enthusiasm for the course, most of the students generally lacked seriousness, especially the working ones. He attributed this to the fact that most of them were workers, who found it difficult to attend the evening and weekend lectures and meetings. He also believed that it was because some of the working students had the erroneous impression that their future did not depend too much on the course because they were already working, without realising that an awareness of entrepreneurship theory could enhance their careers and professions. Similarly, many of the students were habitually late, often citing heavy traffic and workload in the office as reasons.

In spite of these shortcomings, the PC noted that through the guidance and direction of teachers, the students eventually grew to love and appreciate entrepreneurship education by the end of the programme,

Table 14: Research Participants' Perceptions of the Students

Participants	**Themes**	**Sub-themes**
Programme coordinator (PC)	High enthusiasm for course; Lack of seriousness; Lack of interest by working students.	
Teachers (ET1-4)	High enthusiasm; Poor understanding of entrepreneurship education; Lack of seriousness; Preoccupation with grades.	
Students (ES1-20)	Habitual lateness; Entrepreneurship students as valuable learning resource.	Ineffective group work due to apathy of working students.

In a similar vein, the teachers likewise believed the students lacked seriousness in the entrepreneurship education programme for a number of reasons. In ET1's view, it was partly due to the students' flawed understanding of entrepreneurship education by thinking that "*they were there to learn about how to make money… a short cut to become an entrepreneur by simply learning some theories about entrepreneurship*" often being oblivious about the numerous constraints, failures and disappointments associated with it. According to her the students were not to be totally blamed for this since their attitude was a direct consequence of the global perception that entrepreneurship is the answer to poverty and all the socio-economic ills. The teachers also observed that some students were only preoccupied with making a pass grade and therefore showed little enthusiasm in the programme.

The teachers likewise cited the habitual lateness and absenteeism of some students. In their view, this led to the loss of valuable information and lessons which ultimately reflected in the students' poor performance.

In the teachers' felt that the matured and entrepreneur students however, exhibited higher levels of enthusiasm for the course and animated the class. They noted that these matured students often shared their new-found insights on entrepreneurship by comparing their attitudes and practices before and during their contact with entrepreneurship education. They referred to the entrepreneur students as a great learning resource for complementing the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship by helping their classmates to understand some of the topics taught. According to them, this was done by the students' sharing of their business stories and insights, volunteering their businesses for case study exercises, and asking and answering pertinent questions. In ET1's view "*this was a good thing because it forced the rest of the students to pay attention and offer their suggestions*."

The entrepreneur students also introduced variety to the class as revealed by ET1, by often asking them for their input "*to prevent me from dominating the class with too much talk on my part*". Furthermore, she observed that "*those who are entrepreneurs tend to be more curious, ask questions, and bring their problems, whenever. So, it in turn became more like a free consultancy for them.*"

The habitual lateness to class by some of their classmates, especially the workers was also cited by the students themselves. They indicated that this behaviour often led to the late commencement of lectures and shorter lecture hours for effective teaching and learning, and disruptions to ongoing class sessions.

The students also confirmed the notion by the PC and teachers that entrepreneur students generally enhanced learning through the sharing of their ideas, examples, and comments during class, and in the group projects. They said that the actions and entrepreneurial stories of their colleagues had helped to motivate some of them to even contemplate future careers in entrepreneurship.

At the other extreme, some students complained that the entrepreneur students and workers negatively impacted on their group activities, assignments and learning by failing to turn up for group meetings or contribute to researching for the assignments. According to them, this had adversely affected their final grades. Another criticism of the entrepreneur students by their fellow students was that they were only interested in ideas to run their businesses better and not earning a good degree, or supporting their groups to excel.

The students again felt that working students did not contribute much to group work because like their entrepreneur colleagues some of them openly boasted that they were in school just to acquire certificates for job promotion, and were therefore not interested in exerting themselves for higher grades.

5.3.4 Classroom observations data

Data from the classroom observations were meant to supplement data provided by the programme coordinator, teachers, and students in the face to face interviews and focus group discussions (Appendix J-4). The observations afforded the researcher first hand primary data regarding classroom experiences and behaviour during entrepreneurship education at the study institution class. To a large extent the data gathered from the observations corroborated what was disclosed by the programme coordinator, teachers, and students in the interviews and focus groups as presented in Table 15.

Table15: Classroom Observation Data

Category	Classroom Observation	Themes	Subthemes
Pedagogy	CO1	Student group- work presentation; Questions and answers	Lively and interactive; Students had good communication skills; Students had deficient communication skills; Mocking of students with deficient communication skills; Discomfort of poor communicators from intense questioning; Teachers competent in adopted pedagogy; Teachers had questioning and probing skills; Teachers had good facilitating and teaching skills.
	CO2	Lecture method; Questions and answers; Group discussions.	Mostly passive students; Lack of attention by students; Distractions with mobile phones and discrete conversation
Class attendance	CO1	High	
	CO2	High	
Punctuality	CO1	Lateness of majority of students First student arrived at 5:18 PM	Late start of class
	CO2	Lateness of majority of students	
Class participation	CO1	Generally high	High Student enthusiasm
	CO2	Generally high	
Classroom management	CO1	Good class management by teacher	High sense of professionalism; Respect for students by teacher
	CO2	Good class management by teacher	
Class population	CO1	High	50 students
	CO2	High	56 students
Classroom size	CO1	Small	Crammed; Obstruct movement of students
	CO2	Big	Spacious; Comfortable for students

The dominant pedagogy was the teacher led approach. In CO1, the students made presentations on their class project. It was a lively and interactive class in which five student groups took turns to present their progress report on identifying a business opportunity, selecting a business name and planning strategies. In two of the groups, one student made the presentation while the other members helped to answer questions from the teacher and other students. In the other three groups, each member took turns to present an aspect of the information they wanted to share. Some of the students handled their segments efficiently and communicated their ideas well, whereas others were not so successful. Generally, the students were attentive and this was evident from the comments and questions they asked. Unsurprisingly, the poor communicators received most of the questions mainly for clarification purposes and pointing out lapses in methods and strategies. Some of these students showed signs of discomfort, but fortunately, some of their colleagues were able to assist them and fill in the gaps. The teacher was able to ask probing questions which helped the group members to appraise, refocus and improve their work. He also supported the students with the right use of jargons and procedures.

In CO2, the session was a lesson on 'entrepreneurship team formation' (Appendix L). The teacher used the lecture method with the aid of a projector and slides in the first two hours of the class session, while the last one hour was used for a group discussions to teach. The group exercise was for practice purposes to reinforce the theory taught by the teacher. In the group exercise, the students were asked to enumerate their team members, and discuss the reasons for their appointment and assigned roles. The lecture session was interspersed with questions from the teacher and a few vocal students. However, the majority of the students were passive, with some using their mobile phones, or having discrete conversations.

Class attendance was high even though for both CO1 and CO2, a significant number of the students were late. The classes were scheduled for between 5:00 – 8:00 PM, yet the majority of students arrived after 5:15 PM. In both sessions, the teachers did not ask for the reasons for the students' lateness, but one student complained about excess work in her workplace when nudged by a curious classmate in CO2. In the case of CO1, the first student arrived at 5: 18 PM in the absence of the teacher. As a result the class sessions that were observed by the researcher began late. The lost time was however gained by students agreeing to forgo their 15 minutes break.

Generally, student participation in the class sessions were high. They also showed a lot of interest in the topics taught and presented by their colleagues. The teachers likewise displayed professionalism and respect in the way they handled their students who were mostly working adults. They were also skilled in the adopted pedagogy for the lessons and had good class management skills even though some of the students were able to hide their mischievous activities from their view.

Both classes observed had high student populations. CO1 had a class enrolment of 50 students, whereas CO2 had 56 students. The classroom was very spacious in CO2 with a lot of space for movement and comfort. On the other hand, the classroom for CO1 was proportionally small. For this reason the desks and chairs were closely packed, thus obstructing movement. This was evident when students had to move to the front to present their project work.

5.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the data obtained from the face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, classroom observations and document search at the selected higher educational institution. The presentation was based on the themes and sub-themes that were identified from the research participants' responses to the research questions. The study participants consisted of the programme coordinator, entrepreneurship teachers and students.

The demographic background of the research participants was first presented. This was followed by the research participants' perceptions of the entrepreneurship education objectives, the curriculum, pedagogy, the teachers and the students. Finally, research participants' recommendations for enhancing entrepreneurship education at the study institution were presented.

In the following chapter (chapter six) the study's summary, findings, implications, and recommendations for future research, practice and policy are presented. The study's contribution to existing knowledge on the challenges of entrepreneurship education is also discussed. The chapter end with the study's limitations and delimitations.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This is the concluding chapter of this research report. It begins with the recapitulation of the study's purpose, research process and its findings, followed by a discussion of the implications of the study's findings and contribution to the existing body of knowledge on the challenges of entrepreneurship education. The chapter continues with recommendations for future research and policy actions on the challenges of entrepreneurship education in higher education and ends with the study's limitations and conclusion.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

Every educational programme is plagued by many challenges, some of which have to do with internal factors of the programme as well as the influence of external factors such as the socio-economic, cultural and political environment and conditions. In the case of entrepreneurship education, there is a perception that the characteristics of its educational components, namely its objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students introduce challenges for its effective implementation and efficacy (cf. par 1.1; 3.3). These characteristics are, inter alia, the lack of consensus on its

i. Diverse, broad, and ambiguous objectives,
ii. Diverse, broad, and ambiguous curriculum,
iii. Diverse, ununiformed, and ambiguous pedagogy
iv. Heterogeneous teachers
v. Heterogeneous students

Most of the literature on the entrepreneurship education components focus on the lack of consensus on these characteristics and criteria, and also on their limitations. There is a virtual absence of literature on the advantages of these characteristics, if there are any, and likewise on how the characteristics impact on teaching and learning, and the practice of entrepreneurship education. The purpose of this study was therefore to address the knowledge gap in research literature and contribute to future policies and practice in Ghana and elsewhere, by exploring the aforementioned entrepreneurship education components at the study institution, first identifying their characteristics, positive and negative, and then finding out how they affect teaching and learning.

Based on the entrepreneurship education literature, this study used the literature-based hypothesis that 'there are inherent challenges associated with the entrepreneurship education objectives, pedagogy, curriculum, teachers, and students, that impact on teaching and learning'. The research question is: 'What are the characteristics of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution, and how do they impact on teaching and learning?' was addressed by the following five sub-questions (cf. par 1.3):

1. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course objectives, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
2. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course curriculum, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
3. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course pedagogy, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
4. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course teachers, and how they impact on teaching and learning.
5. To identify the attributes of the entrepreneurship course students, and how they impact on teaching and learning.

These five sub-questions informed the data collection and analysis processes of the study. The programme coordinator, teachers, and students were required to describe their experiences of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum and pedagogy, teachers and students. Thus the interviews, focus groups, classroom obsevations, and documents from the institution were all designed to address the five research objectives. The researcher used this approach to gather data that was not only limited to challenges but would possibly reveal positive aspects too. This was due to the researcher's belief that the best repository of knowledge were the actors and context of their lived experiences, and that reality was based on the construction of their collective experiences and interaction with phenomena.

The qualitative single case study research design and methodology was adopted for this study at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution (cf. par 4.4.2.3). Using this research approach served two purposes. First, it enabled the use of the semi-structured face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, and classroom observations that yielded rich and varied insights on the components of entrepreneurship education. Secondly, it helped the researcher uncover the research participants' struggles and liking, and deep-seated thoughts and feelings for the components of entrepreneurship education at the study institution.

The research participants consisted of the entrepreneurship education programme coordinator, the entrepreneurship teachers and the entrepreneurship students (cf. par 4.5). The data from their responses and the classroom observations were collected, categorized, and analysed concurrently. A detailed description of the study has already been presented in the preceding five chapters as follows:

In chapter one, the introductory chapter, information on the study's background, the problem statement, the research questions and the research's aims and objectives were provided. It also highlighted the underlying research philosophy and paradigms of the study. This was followed by a discussion of the study's research methodology and data analysis processes. The chapter ended with highlights of the credibility, trustworthiness, and ethics issues.

Chapters two and three, situated the study in its appropriate contextual and conceptual frameworks, namely, the concepts of entrepreneurship, the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship education. Chapter two reviewed the concepts of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur for two main reasons. The first was because the researcher shared in the belief that these two concepts were responsible for the current global interest in entrepreneurial activity as a panacea for socioeconomic development, wealth creation and unemployment generation. The second was the fact that this amplified interest in entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur had culminated entrepreneurship education's emergence in higher education and its inherent challenges.

Chapter three addressed entrepreneurship education from two perspectives. The first was on its emergence, growth and relevance in higher education. The second dwelt on its characteristic of its components, and practice in different parts of the world. The study institution's profile was also provided.

The research methodology was presented in chapter four. It consisted of a detailed discussion of the philosophical underpinnings of this study, and the justification for the research design and research methodological approach. Similarly, the chapter provided a detailed description of the study's research process, and how ethical issues and trustworthiness were addressed and ensured, respectively.

Chapter five was devoted to the analysis and presentation of the data collected from the fieldwork and document search.

6.3 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The aim of the sub-questions was to identify the characteristics of the study institution's entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students, and how they impact on teaching and learning. The study found several characteristics of the educational components, some of which were constraining, while others had some merits at the study institution which are presented below.

6.3.1 Findings for sub-question one: What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship education objectives at the study institution, and how do they impact on teaching and learning? (cf. par.3.3.2.).

A) The characteristics of the objectives

- The study found that the research institution had three objectives for its entrepreneurship programme, namely, creating awareness about entrepreneurship theory, developing students' entrepreneurial mind-sets and skills, and fostering entrepreneurship (cf. par 5.3.2.1). This conforms to literature cited in 3.3.2.

- The study found that the objectives of entrepreneurship education at the study institution, were diverse, broad, and ambiguous. This collaborates references to them by researchers and theorists captured in the review (cf. par. 3.3.2).
- The objectives were also found to be relevant because they addressed the different and diverse needs of all the heterogeneous students. This is new knowledge not found in the literature.
- The study found a lack of consensus on the efficacy of entrepreneurship education for fostering entrepreneurship. One opinion had it that that the objectives, were efficacious because some students had attributed their initiation of business startups to their participation in entrepreneurship education. Another opinion was that the objective of fostering entrepreneurship was only achievable if it was backed with an entrepreneurial history and a willingness to take risk. This finding affirms the lack of consensus in the efficacy of entrepreneurship education for fostering entrepreneurship as revealed by the many conflicting findings from impact studies (cf. par. 3.3.2; 3.4.6; 5.3.2.1).
- It was again found that the objectives created awareness of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur, and their role in wealth creation and socio-economic development. This finding affirms the literature cf. par 3.3.2).

B) The impact of the objectives on teaching and learning.

- The study found that the diverse, broad and ambiguous objectives, had a negative impact on teaching and learning that played out in a number of ways.
    - The entity of the objectives was impossible to achieve in the one semester timeframe for the programme leading to stress and anxiety in both teachers and learning.
    - Teachers' adoption of different strategies outside the formal classroom sessions to ensure that the objectives were realized. These included mentoring and coaching of students whenever possible or needed.
    - The ambiguities in the objectives created mixed reactions in students about the programme that ranged from confusion, skepticism, resistance, resignation, and indifference especially at the beginning of the programme, to satisfaction and commendation at the end. These

emotions served as blocks and motivations for the students' participation in the classroom and group work, and in class attendance.

6.3.2 Findings for sub-question 2: What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship education curriculum at the study institution, and how do they impact on teaching and learning? (cf. par 5.3.2.2; 3.3.3).

A) The characteristics of the entrepreneurship education curriculum.

The study found that:

- The curriculum had many, wide ranging topics in a bid to address all the stated objectives of the course and conform to best practice, and evolving trends. The curriculum was ambiguous because some of the topics were unclear, and conflicted or overlapped with each other. These findings agree with the literature under 3.3.3.
- There was lack of consensus on the content which also affirms the literature (cf. par 3.3.3).
- It contained all the relevant topics appropriate for achieving the aims. The topics were nature and role of entrepreneurship; opportunity; market assessment; creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship; market assessment; business model; business plan development; entrepreneurial team formation and founder/s; the startup process; entrepreneurial finance; ethics and the entrepreneur. These topics also reflect the general pattern of the entrepreneurship education curriculum found in literature (cf. par 5.3.2.2; 3.3.3; Appendix L).

B) The impact of the curriculum on teaching and learning.

- The study found that the curriculum had negative impact on the students and teachers as follows:
    - The large number of topics hindered in-depth teaching and learning of theories and skills.
    - The large number of topics compelled teachers to choose what to teach and what to leave out for lack of time, resources and adequate skills to handle them. This in turn resulted in about 70% completion rate of the

curriculum and a lack of a lack of uniformity in what was taught and learned.

- The study found that the ambiguities in the curriculum created:
- Stressful situations for teachers through having to continuously interpret the vague topics their own way.
- Difficulties in understanding some topics by teachers and students.
- Difficulties in differentiating between certain topics because they either conflicted or overlapped with each other.

This finding conforms to the literature's description of the entrepreneurship education curriculum as varied, loaded and ambiguous (cf. par 3.3.3; 5.3.2.2). It created a number of challenges for teaching and learning.

6.3.3 Findings to sub-question 3: What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship education pedagogy at the study institution and how do they impact on teaching and learning?

A) The characteristics of the pedagogy. (cf. par 3.3.6; 5.3.2.3; Appendix L)

- The study found that the entrepreneurship course outline contained a list of recommended textbooks, assessment criteria and a list of pedagogical approaches and methodologies to be used by teachers and students, with an emphasis on the participatory active learning approach (cf. par 5.3.2.3; Appendix L). The suggested pedagogical methodologies included the traditional teacher-centred lecture method, and participatory methods like role play and exercises, case study analysis, classroom presentations, groups, projects, and guest entrepreneur visits. Video presentation, guest speaker visits which corroborate the literature (cf. par 3.3.6).
- It was found that the pedagogy guidelines were vague and unclear as cited in the literature (3.3.6).
- The study found that the instructional methodologies were many and varied which reflects the literature (cf. par 3.3.6).

- It was found that the pedagogy made no mention of practical programmes such as internships and field trips, mentorship, excursions and competitions for students. This contrasts with the literature (cf par 3.3.6)

B) The impact of the pedagogy on teaching and learning.

1. The negative effects identified by the study were that:

- The programme's emphasis on the participatory pedagogical methodologies exposed the teaching deficiencies of the teachers and coping abilities of the students. They found this approach challenging and exhausting. As a result, the teachers mostly adopted the traditional teacher-centred lecture method for teaching most of the topics.
- Time constraints and lack of resources forced teachers was another reason for the dominant use of the lecture method.
- The ambiguities in the guidelines on the pedagogy led to teachers devising their own methods for teaching certain topics. For instance, whilst some teachers used the lecture method for teaching entrepreneurship theory, others used class discussions and presentations.
- The lack of clarity in the pedagogy guide also led to variations in the assessment criteria used by teachers whereby some emphasized practical work, while the majority assigned more weight to the examinations.
- The absence of the practical work and programmes such as internships and field trips, mentorship, excursions and competitions were frustrating to students because they felt they would have benefitted greatly from more practice.

  Due to the lack of standardizations and clear procedures, most of the lecturers had only one guest entrepreneur visit per programme or semester, which was woefully inadequate for students.
- The lack of standardizations and clear procedures in the pedagogy guidelines also led to different interpretations and approaches. For instance, one approach was teachers inviting guest entrepreneurs to the campus. Another was the off-campus approach for which students were asked to interview entrepreneurs of their choice outside campus.
- The suggested course textbooks and teaching and learning resources which were foreign, were found to be far removed from the Ghanaian or local realities and examples, and therefore not too helpful for effective teaching and learning.

The positive fallout from the challenges associated with the pedagogy which enhanced teaching and learning.

- It was found that the lack of local and practical content in the programme made teachers to use examples from their personal experiences and those of entrepreneur-students and their businesses to support teaching and learning. These local insights and experiences were considered valuable for enhancing and reinforcing learning.
- The study found that, to address the limited guest entrepreneur visits, and the lack of internships and practical entrepreneurship exercises entrepreneur students were often given the platform to share their business stories, challenges, and successes among others.
- It was found that the students were content with the teacher' use of different pedagogical approaches for the different topics. For instance, they found the lecture method easy to follow because that is what they were most familiar with. They likewise found the participatory introductory classes highly motivating and helped them to develop love for the course.
- The study found that an awareness of teachers' inadequate skills for using some of the prescribed instructional methodologies prompted them to seek further training to upgrade themselves.

6.3.4 Findings for sub-question 4: What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship teachers at the study institution and how do they impact on teaching and learning?

A) The characteristics of the teachers.

- The study found that the teachers were a heterogeneous group of full time and part time teachers, thus confirming the literature (cf. par 3.3.5)
  - Teachers from different academic disciplines
  - Teachers with formal academic qualification in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education.
  - Teachers with no academic qualification in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education.
  - Teachers with different professional backgrounds.

- Teachers having practical entrepreneurial background dating back to their childhood. This is new information not found in the existing literature.
- Teachers with different skills competencies for teaching entrepreneurs in a practical way. This conforms to the literature (cf. par 3.3.5).
- The teachers showed high enthusiasm and motivation for entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education. This is a new data not capture in the literature.
- The teachers were friendly, caring, respectful and supportive of the students. This is new information not found in the literature.

B) The impact of the teachers on teaching and learning

- A positive impact found by the study was that in a bid to address their teaching skills deficiencies, the teachers adopted their own initiatives to upgrade themselves. These include participating in training programmes, mostly online, and staying abreast with the evolving trends in business through networks and interactions with the business community. Doing so enhanced their capacity to skilfully handle their classes to the extent that the students were impressed by them.
- Another positive effect was that the teachers' diverse academic, professional and entrepreneurial backgrounds enhanced students' learning through the wealth of information and networks that they shared with students. This also served to increase students' admiration, respect and trust in the teachers which helped to heighten students' motivation for learning.
- The high enthusiasm and motivation, coupled with the friendly, caring, respectful and supportive disposition of the teachers also enhanced learning by making it easy for students to approach them and share their concerns and successes.
- A negative impact was that because most of the teachers were part time and outside academia, there were few interactions and networking between them, except during end of semester examinations when they met to invigilate because the majority worked off campus.

- Another negative impact was that the teachers' different backgrounds invariably contributed to the variations in teaching approaches, and their understanding and interpretation of the entrepreneurship objectives, curriculum, and pedagogy. It may also explain the low level of interactions and networking among them. All of these placed limitations on effective teaching and learning (cf. par 3.3.5; 5.3.1.2).

6.3.5 Findings for sub-question 5: What are the attributes of the entrepreneurship education students at the study institution, and how do they impact on teaching and learning?

A) The characteristics of the students. (cf. par 5.3.1.3; 3.3.4).

i) Findings cited in the literature on entrepreneurship students:

- They were a heterogeneous group which affirms the literature (cf. par 3.3.4). they had:
  - Varied employment statuses – full-time entrepreneurs, part-time entrepreneurs, non-entrepreneurs employees and non-employees.
  - Varied academic qualifications and academic disciplines
  - Diverse interests, motivations, and expectations of and aspirations for entrepreneurship education. For instance, the entrepreneur students saw entrepreneurship education as an avenue for new knowledge and skills to advance their entrepreneurial careers, while the non-entrepreneurs' perceived it as just another academic programme to pass (cf. par 5.3.1.3; 3.3.4).
  - Varied knowledge and experience of entrepreneurship.
  - Students had different life, career, and professional experiences.

ii) Findings not cited in literature on entrepreneurship students:

These are new information to contribute to the literature.

- The entrepreneur students and workers were not serious with class attendance and exercises, attributed to the fact that earning good grades was not really their focus.
- The students were habitually late.

- The students had a flawed understanding that entrepreneurship education was all about learning how to make money.
- The students were in the class to meet the barest pass grade requirement.

B) The impact of the students on teaching and learning:

i) Negative impact on teaching and learning

- The student workers affected teaching and learning in several ways:
    - Habitual lateness and absence from class.
    - Loss of valuable information which could otherwise have been shared by all.
    - Lack of seriousness to class attendance and group work.
    - Dilution of quality of learning and output in the classroom, assignments, and group work was diluted by their inability to infuse their share of knowledge and expertise provided by others.
    - Poor performance of students
- The habitual lateness of students often disrupted classes or caused classes to begin late thereby shortening class sessions.
- The negative behaviours of the entrepreneur students and workers created teaching and learning challenges for other students. For instance, their failure to participate in group meetings and assignments reduced the quality of the groups' outputs and grades.

ii) Positive impact on teaching and learning

- Students benefited from their diversity, different knowledge and experience levels in a number of ways:
    - The sharing of experiences, ideas, frustrations, and fears by the entrepreneur students provided deep insights on the practical and everyday issues of entrepreneurship.
    - The insights from entrepreneur students enhanced group productivity which helped to motivate and inspire non-entrepreneur students to aspire for future entrepreneurship careers.
    - The matured and entrepreneur students exhibited higher levels of enthusiasm for the course and animated the class.

- Entrepreneur students were a resource for complementing teaching and learning and helping others to understand some of the topics treated through the sharing of business stories and insights, volunteering their businesses for case study exercises and asking and answering questions.
- The curiosity of entrepreneur students displayed in the types and level of questions introduced variety and energy in class.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS FROM THE STUDY

This study was in response to a literature gap regarding the impact of the challenges of entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students on teaching and learning. It sought to identify the characteristics of these entrepreneurship education components at the study institution and establish their impact on the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship.

The findings of the study indicated some characteristics of the educational components that were consistent with the literature that were indeed problematic. However, the study likewise uncovered additional characteristics not found in the literature reviewed, some of which were constraining and others beneficial. Similarly, the study unearthed ways in which the inherent attributes of the educational components impacted on teaching and learning in entrepreneurship education, and its effectiveness. These findings have implications for theory, policy and practice of entrepreneurship education in higher education by showing other attributes of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students and offering insights on how they influence the behaviour and actions of teachers and students, and impact on teaching.

The first implication is that this research study addresses the knowledge gap identified in research and literature by this researcher, by providing empirical data on the attributes of the entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students, and their ramifications within a Ghanaian context. The findings point to the need for policy makers to understand and recognise the complexities of the educational components of entrepreneurship education and the diverse emotions and behaviours they provoke in programme coordinators, teachers and students who are daily confronted with them since they invariably affect the programme's outcome and efficacy. The study's findings draw attention to the need for deeper scrutiny of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students to identify what works and what does not and adopt remedies and strategies to enhance their effectiveness. This calls for stake holder collaborations within provider institutions, among institutions, and with the wider entrepreneurship ecosystem to identify commonalities and differences, strength and weaknesses of the educational components and learn from best practices. The findings also point to the need for further research to replicate this study in other institutions to understand their version of the characteristics of the entrepreneurship education components and their impact on practice, ask more detailed questions and conduct comprehensive observations.

An Implication for policy is that entrepreneurship education demands certain basic necessities, which, if provided can effectively address the inherent shortcomings of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students. Among them are adequate funding, infrastructure, teaching and learning resources and teacher training, which incidentally were cited by the research participants in this study for compounding the challenges associated with them. For instance, adequate funding and resources could address educators' deficient teaching skills and students' desire for more practical activities. They would also ensure standardization in pedagogies used in the institutions, thereby leading to uniformity in what is taught and learned.

Another implication for policy and practice is that designing of entrepreneurship courses have to go beyond simply meeting international standards or trends to take the local context into consideration, such as the socio-economic, cultural, and political ecosystem, and be based on an understand the true nature of the students and teachers. For instance, it is not enough to simply include instructional methodologies such as guest entrepreneur visits without recourse to a data base of local entrepreneurs, who are capable to participate, especially in societies which have multiple languages, and where most entrepreneurs may not be fluent in the official language of the county used in educational institutions. Similarly, recommending the use of case studies and videos ought to be complemented with the availability of repositories of local and foreign cases. Doing so will introduce standardization in what is taught and learned an enhance teaching and learning. It will likewise address the issue of lack of cases and local examples, and the over reliance on foreign content in the pedagogy and curriculum.

It is also quite significant that the constraints imposed on entrepreneurship education by some of the educational components such as the objectives, curriculum and pedagogy were compounded by inadequate funding, according to this study. For instance teachers indicated that they devised their own instructional methods due to the lack of pedagogical resources, which they also attributed to insufficient funds for running the programme. It is therefore not enough for critics to complain about the lack of agreed pedagogy and practice in entrepreneurship education without linking it to the failure of policy makers and programme managers to resource the programme with the needed inputs. Providing funds and resources is a sure way to ensure the compliance of teachers to use the prescribed pedagogies for entrepreneurship education. Similarly, the absence of internships, field trips, and entrepreneurship competitions, cited by the respondents as negatively impacting on teaching and learning could be easily be addressed by providing adequate funding, infrastructure, resources, and planning. The respondents were also unanimous in their conviction that real life entrepreneurial practice was a sine qua non for nurturing high growth and successful entrepreneurs and fostering entrepreneurship and therefore a priority.

Interestingly, the study's findings indicating that apart from the constraining attributes of the educational components, there are some beneficial ones that if identified can be tapped into to reduce the negative impact of some of the challenging ones. For example, teachers' deficient skills were masked by their high levels of enthusiasm and commitment to entrepreneurship education, their friendliness, care, and respect for students, and the use of their own personal examples.

These positive teacher attributes earned them the students' trust and confidence in their expertise for teaching entrepreneurship, to the extent that the students felt they were highly qualified to handle the entrepreneurship course. Students were given no reason to suspect that their teachers lacked the necessary teaching skills from the skilful manner they discharged their work. Rather, the students were unanimous in their admiration of the dearth of knowledge and competence they displayed by way of the examples and theories they imparted. This suggests that not having an academic background in entrepreneurship theory need not be considered a constraint since it was adequately compensated for by the teachers' practical experience in entrepreneurship. Indeed real life examples from practice served to provide more meaning and clarity for better understanding of the concepts taught to students. The teachers' links with industry also increased students' confidence, trust, and admiration for them, thereby portraying them as authentic reference points for students in their quest for knowledge, mentorship, and coaching in entrepreneurship.

Similarly, even though the students' diversity created conflicts and teaching and learning challenges to teachers and students, their different experiences were also beneficial and insightful. For instance, in spite of the constraints associated with the different learning motivations, skills and interest, habitual lateness, and low group participation of working students, students and teachers also received valuable benefits from their diversity through the sharing of experiences on entrepreneurship and other careers. Some of the concrete ways cited by the students was that the sharing of insightful and real life examples inspired them more than any information from books or visiting entrepreneurs could ever have, because these examples had more meaning coming from fellow students and group members like themselves. Therefore, this researcher believes that approaching student's diversity as a resource rather than a challenge can enhance entrepreneurship education practice by paving the way for creative and innovative ways to solve some of the challenges encountered by entrepreneurship education practitioners and participants. This can be done in many different ways, such as tapping directly from the knowledge and skills of student-entrepreneurs or non-entrepreneurs in an intentional and systematic way by teachers and students.

Similarly, the businesses of entrepreneur students for instance can be used as cases for case study exercises by formally incorporating this as practice material in the curriculum and as a pedagogical methodology. This also helps to address the over reliance on foreign cases from foreign textbooks which often fail to provide the necessary local examples for enhanced learning cited by Dzisi (2014). Incorporating the entrepreneur students' experiences and knowledge in the teaching and learning process has the added advantage of offering a sustainable, reliable, and cheaper alternative for ensuring a constant supply of entrepreneurs to supplement the insufficient guest entrepreneur visits, mentorship, and internship programmes. A data bank of entrepreneur students and their businesses can also be compiled for use by teachers and students. This will ensure a constant supply of guest entrepreneurs for the programme and even help to throw more light on the impact of entrepreneurship education on beneficiaries' entrepreneurial intentions and startups.

The findings also have implications from practice by providing vivid examples of some of the challenges encountered by programme managers, and most especially, teachers, and students in in entrepreneurship education to serve as pointer for seeking initiatives to manage them. For example, the habitual lateness of working students can be addressed by the use of pedagogies that make effective use of the waiting period and minimise class disruptions. Likewise, the deficient teaching skills of teachers for teaching entrepreneurship, a result of the policy of recruiting teachers from industry and other academic disciplines, can easily be addressed by introducing in-service teacher training programmes. Teachers can also be encouraged to take advantage of the many online training opportunities. Additionally, instituting departmental programmes or teacher interactions, the sharing of ideas and experiences, teamwork and networking would to some extent help to resolve the lack of standardisation in teachers' interpretation of course objectives, the curriculum contents, and the pedagogy. It will also address the variations in what was taught and learned. It is evidently clear that such institutional interventions would be welcomed by teachers in view their concerns of the prevailing situation, and their individual efforts to upgrade their skills.

Additionally, the finding suggests that the objectives and curriculum of entrepreneurship education, even though diverse and broad, are relevant for ensuring a holistic understanding of entrepreneurship theory for entrepreneurial behaviour and practice. This is because engaging in successful entrepreneurship necessarily requires acquiring knowledge about it (awareness creation), learning of skills (developing entrepreneurial skills and mind set), and recognising the stages in the entrepreneurial process (fostering entrepreneurship).

Though not a focus of the study, it is worthy of note to point out that the programme coordinator was a full time teacher of the entrepreneurship department. He also had an academic background and practical experience in entrepreneurship theory and practice, and in entrepreneurship education. This made him a perfect fit for the job of managing the programme at the study institution and designing the entrepreneurship courses. The study revealed that he had been unsuccessful in securing major funding to enhance and resource the programme from internal and external sources. This situation limited his effectiveness, thus feeding into the literature description of the entrepreneurship education managers as uncommitted, but without assigning reasons for this. The implication of this finding is that the funding, infrastructural and resource constraints can render any educational manager ineffective. It shows that appointing a programme manager who has all the necessary skills and experience, without the needed tools and funding for designing innovative programmes will limit his management abilities.

It came to light in this study that a constraint of the diverse and broad objectives and curriculum of entrepreneurship education was the inability to address all of them within the one semester assigned. The study also provided indications of the need to maintain them since they were all relevant, and how this could be resolved. An example is by increasing the number of semesters or credit hours rather than reducing the number of objectives or topics in the curriculum. This would ensure that developing students' intentions for entrepreneurship would necessarily begin with awareness creation by imparting knowledge and theories, followed by the development of skills, mindsets and behaviour through practice that will lead to the creation of entrepreneurial ventures.

Finally, the implication for further research on the nature of the entrepreneurial components and their psychological, and emotional, and behavioural impact on the programme coordinators, teachers, and students cannot be over emphasized. This will help to prevent the situation in which the educational components are lumped together are challenges that hinder entrepreneurship education's growth and progress in academia.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FROM THE STUDY

The aim of this study was to explore the challenges associated with the educational components of entrepreneurship education, namely, the diverse, loaded and ambiguous objectives, curriculum, and pedagogy, and the heterogeneous teachers and students in Ghana. This is the first empirical research on entrepreneurship education at the study institution. (cf. par 1.2; 6.7). The study yielded valuable insights which have implications for research, policy and practice. Consequently, the following are being recommended for the study institution and other entrepreneurship education providers in Ghana and elsewhere.

6.5.1 Recommendation for future research

There should be comprehensive research into the constraints imposed on teaching and learning, students, teachers, and programme managers by the educational components of entrepreneurship education for additional insights to contribute to knowledge and assist future policy initiatives and practice (cf. par 6.2; 5.3.2.5; 6.3.5). Similarly, research on the positive aspects of the diverse entrepreneurship education objectives, curriculum and pedagogy, teachers and students should be conducted for more generalizable findings that will assist in the search for new effective models for entrepreneurship education practice (cf. par 6.2; 5.3.2.5; 6.3.5),.

This research study was a single case qualitative study and therefore limited in scope, research population and context, and generalizability (cf. par 1.5.2; 4.6.7). On this basis, there is the need for multiple case studies, and comparative studies that will yield more generalizable findings and conclusions to enhance practice.

6.5.2 Recommendations for practice

The research affirmed the lack of adequate teaching skills for the entrepreneurship teachers, but also indicated that this can be easily remedied by training. It is therefore recommended that entrepreneurship education providers invest in regular in-service training and departmental meetings for their teachers to learn new skills and learn from each other to enhance their skills (cf. par 5.3.2.4; 5.3.3.1; 5.3.3.2). It was found that spending time with traders for an understanding of how they think and behave was an approached used by a teacher to enhance her knowledge on local entrepreneurship in Ghana. This is an intervention that can be incorporated into entrepreneurship teachers' skills training by encouraging networks with entrepreneurs and business associations for more insights on the business and entrepreneurship environment locally and abroad. Among themselves teachers can also engage in peer learning facilitated by more skilled colleagues.

Likewise, the lack of local teaching and learning resources can be addressed by seeking out the support of institutions operating within the entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education and training ecosystem to develop programmes, design instructional materials, develop periodicals, textbooks. Achieving this aim requires a focus on more practical learning methods for teaching entrepreneurial skills instead of the dominant teacher centred methods that only highlight the skills rather than nurture them by using functional management models. For example, teachers can collaborate with entrepreneurs and businesses of all types in designing practical tasks for students. This should begin by ensuring that the entrepreneurs have clear understanding of the objectives and curricula of entrepreneurship education- the skills, theories and attitudes to be learned and developed, in order to provide the needed relevant interventions. This will also serve to enhance the entrepreneurial and teaching skills of teachers.

The study also revealed an absence of standardization in what was taught and learned, in the interpretation of curriculum topics, and in the adopted pedagogy. Reasons for this were the inherent ambiguities in the objectives, curriculum and pedagogy and the lack of departmental meetings and teamwork. As remedy for this state of affairs, there is the need for faculty programmes and meetings, and teacher collaborations where pertinent issues pertaining to the curriculum, the objectives and teaching and learning are addressed in order develop frameworks, models and standards for entrepreneurship education (cf. par 5.3.3.1; 5.3.3.2). Such measures are also needed at the national and continental levels to introduce some uniformity and harmonization in entrepreneurship education policy and practice within countries, Africa and globally which are generally non-existent, and introducing conferences, workshops, and seminars between entrepreneurship education providers within countries to identify best local practices and chart out local entrepreneurship models for use to guide institutions that offer entrepreneurship education.

Participants in this study decried the absence of practical entrepreneurship projects. For instance the programme coordinator, teachers and students were unanimous in the conviction that, this would give them the needed practice under the guidance of their teachers, peers and guest entrepreneurs. Similarly, the students recommended more guest entrepreneur visits and internships, entrepreneurship competitions, mentorships, and coaching programmes and field trips to business centres, and funding, while teachers called for the creation of business communities from which to source for guest entrepreneurs (cf. par 5.3.3.1; 5.3.3.2; 5.3.3.3). This is due to the fact that, without the needed practice, the objective of nurturing entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurs will remain an illusion. A sustainable way would be to compile a data bank of alumina entrepreneurs, and tap into their experiences, and encourage them to raise funds for the different activities. It would be a relatively inexpensive way to give students the opportunity to see many business cases and interact with entrepreneurs.

6.5.3 Recommendations for policy

The study revealed that the one semester duration was inadequate to cover the objectives and curriculum. Consequently, the programme coordinator, teachers, and students advocated for more credit hours for entrepreneurship education. In view of the unanimous agreement on the relevance and importance of the entrepreneurship education objectives and curriculum, despite being many and diverse, it is recommended that more credit hours be allocated for entrepreneurship education. A four semester long programme would be appropriate.

In view of the favourable comments by the research participants regarding the usefulness of entrepreneurship education for personal and entrepreneurial skills development, the mainstreaming of entrepreneurship education in all institutions of higher learning is recommended.

6.6 CONTRIBUTION OF RESEARCH TO ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

The ultimate aim of research is to seek information that contributes to theory and knowledge, practice, and policy. In the view of this researcher, this study has to some extent enriched the entrepreneurship education literature on all of these three fronts by contributing to knowledge, practice and policy. These are highlighted below.

6.6.1 Contribution to knowledge

According to the literature, dominated by North American and European examples, the entrepreneurship education components are constitute a major challenge to entrepreneurship education. Most studies, conferences, and papers have focused on describing the constraining attributes of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and the students. There is however a virtually absence of studies on how these components actually impact on the teachers, programme coordinators and students - the direct participants of entrepreneurship education in higher educational institutions. The purpose of this research study was to address this knowledge gap by exploring how these entrepreneurship educational components affect teaching and learning within a Ghanaian context. The study sought answers to the question "What are the attributes of entrepreneurship education at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution, and how do they impact on teaching and learning?" The researcher believes that the findings that were identified will contribute to the theory and body of knowledge on entrepreneurship education in five areas.

i. This study contributes to the wider entrepreneurship education literature and in Ghana by exposing some additional attributes of the entrepreneurship education components not cited in the literature and shedding light on the different ways in which they impact on its effectiveness. (cf. par. 3.3; 3.4.6)
ii. The research contributes to other characteristics of the entrepreneurship education components, some of which were positive, to the literature. It also shares insight on how the entrepreneurship education components impact on the behaviour and actions of programme coordinators, teachers, and students in the educational process. It confirms that entrepreneurship education is indeed fraught with many generic challenges, namely, its diverse, broad, and ambiguous objectives, curriculum, and pedagogy, and the heterogeneous teachers and students, but that some can be beneficial to teaching and learning (cf. par. 3.3; 6.3; Dzisi, 2014).
iii. The single case qualitative research approach was adopted for this study. This is regarded as a contribution to entrepreneurship education research and

literature. Adopting this research approach, enabled the researcher to collect very insightful information on how the components of entrepreneurship education influence the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship at the study institution from the research participants' perceptions and experiences. Adopting this approach enabled the generation of first-hand knowledge about the true state of affairs regarding the challenges associated with the components of entrepreneurship education.

iv. The programme coordinator was not a focus of this study. However, his demographic profile was interesting and also quite revealing (cf. par 5.3.1.1; 6.3.8). The research data showed him as a 'pure' entrepreneurship faculty because of his academic background in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education. He also had an entrepreneurial history and was a business owner. Additionally, the programme coordinator was an entrepreneurship teacher and head of the entrepreneurship department. The programme coordinator's profile is significant in view of the negative connotations assigned to programme coordinators that they are not committed to their work, and a constraint to entrepreneurship education. This piece of data adds to literature which is silent on the demographic background of programme coordinators of entrepreneurship education (cf. par 5.3.1.1; 6.3.8). The study also suggest that the programme coordinators' ineffectiveness could be attributed to the lack of funds, resources, and infrastructure which made it impossible ensure the incorporation of practical programmes in entrepreneurship education.

6.6.2 Contribution to practice

This research has revealed other attributes of the entrepreneurship education components not cited in the literature and shed light on the different ways in which they impact on its effectiveness. These findings contribute to entrepreneurship education practice in the following way:

This study has drawn attention to the fact that the educational components of entrepreneurship education do not only constrain entrepreneurship education as cited in literature, but can be tapped for their positive attributes. An example is the diversity brought to the learning process by the heterogeneous students and teachers in spite of their many challenges. Similarly, that entrepreneurship teachers' lack of adequate skills for teaching entrepreneurship, was compensated for by their entrepreneurial skills and experience which they use to good effect. It also shows that teachers have the internal locus of control to direct their teaching success by making personal efforts to upgrade their skills. This means that teacher skills deficiencies can easily be addressed by supplementing the teachers' personal training initiatives with more structured in-service training, seminars, workshops, conferences and meetings. Such programmes will also provide opportunities for the sharing of ideas, research, and experiences, and introduce some standardization in definitions, in the objectives, curriculum and pedagogy and in what is taught and learned to enhance the success of the entrepreneurship education.

The study affirms that the objectives of entrepreneurship education are diverse, broad and ambiguous but also relevant (Dzisi, 2014; Buame, 2010). The significance is that, rather than focusing on the negativities, practitioners must look for innovative ways to use them to advantage such as the George Washington and Ball State universities' use of ICT to design software tools for teacher-student interactions and learning via emails, electronic bulletin boards (Kuratko, 2003). Some aspects of these methods in addition to seminars, fairs and competitions, the sharing of experiences and best practices from colleague teachers can be used to address the lack of local content in the curriculum and instructional resources encountered by institutions.

The heterogeneity of entrepreneurship students is described as a constraint in the entrepreneurship education literature. The findings of this study however suggest that to some extent the students' diversity actually enhances teaching and learning through the sharing of experiences and knowledge facilitated by teachers' ingenuities and students' interactions among themselves within the classroom and in their group activities. This finding shows the many possibilities open to students, teachers and entrepreneurship education providers for instituting measures and programmes to reap the benefits of this major resource. For instance, it shows the way for addressing issues such as the reliance on foreign cases for analysis, and the difficulties of enlisting enough guest entrepreneurs. Likewise, students' differences in terms of experiences and insights could be sources for collaborations and complementarity to supplement classroom teaching and learning. This information implies that students' diversities are a valuable resource that could be tailored into the curriculum for everyone's benefit.

The use of guest entrepreneurs in entrepreneurship education is highly recommended. However, the one-time visits were woefully inadequate coupled with the variations of methods such as entrepreneur interviews and lectures. It calls for providers to develop data bases of entrepreneurs for use in their programmes to ensure standardization of methods and quality. This can also help to address the issues of the absence of internships and field trips to business centres.

6.6.3 Contribution to policy debates and formulation

This study provides some additional information and insights on the challenges of entrepreneurship education to enrich the on-going debates and efforts to enhance the practice and efficacy of entrepreneurship education. For instance, this study suggests taking a closer look at the attributes of the components of entrepreneurship education, instead of lumping them all together as being problematic, as there are some positives associated with them. It also suggests that there are more attributes than have been cited in the literature such as the fact that entrepreneurship teachers are friendly and proactive, with high needs for achievement and internal locus of control, which help to address their skills deficiencies.

6.7 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMINATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was subject to a number of limitations resulting from the researcher's background and role in the study, the study institution, the adopted research design, the research context and the research participants. The researcher's awareness of these limiting issues, however, enabled her to introduce measures to reduce or eliminate their impact on the research findings as well as during the conduct and reporting of this study. Highlighting these limitations as enumerated below serves to inform and guide future research. However, a few that were out of her control are presented.

The choice of the single case study was a major limitation of this study in the sense that it resulted in the lack of diversity in research participants and the research context and consequently the research findings (6.5.1).

Since this was an exploratory study to satisfy an academic research requirement prevented the probing for more insights into the psychological and emotional impact of the challenges of the entrepreneurship education components. This points to further research to confirm or add to the findings.

Another limitation was the fact that the researcher, being an entrepreneurship teacher at the study institution was the sole instrument for collecting and analysing the data as an interviewer, moderator, observer, and data analyst. These roles have implications for the type, quality and volume of data that the research participants were willing to disclose. The researcher adopted a number of concrete procedures to either reduce or avoid researcher bias and enhance her research skills. These included the researcher's commitment to conducting an ethical research and approaching her research role with professionalism, such as addressing participants' needs and concerns, avoiding coercion, intimidation and disrespect of participants, her deliberate exclusion of her own past entrepreneurship students in the research, using multiple data collection processes and safeguarding the integrity of the data (4.6.2.6). Another strategy employed by the researcher was adopting the demeanour of a novice in entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship practice throughout the research and seeking out and relying only on the data provided by the research participants instead of conveying her version of the facts.

In spite of the limitations cited above, this study should contribute to the scientific body of knowledge on entrepreneurship education that is still evolving and offer direction for further empirical research on entrepreneurship education and its challenges. Similarly, despite the limitations of this study coupled with the inability to generalize its findings, it is the contention of this researcher that the study's findings are still reliable. She also believes that some of the limitations can be effectively addressed by revising the research design as well as the data collection and analysis methods.

6.8 CONCLUSION

After over seventy years on the higher educational landscape entrepreneurship education still has many unresolved issues and challenges, among which are the lack of consensus on the nature of its objectives, pedagogy, curriculum, teachers, and student. This has resulted in the diverse, wide ranging and ambiguous objectives, curriculum, and pedagogy, and the heterogeneous teachers and student which have attracted much research and debate because they affect the essence of entrepreneurship education. A significant proportion of the literature is descriptive and analyses the negativity of the characteristics of these entrepreneurship education components with a virtual absence of information on their good attributes, and how they actually impact on teachers and students' teaching and learning experience. It is the researcher's conviction that this study, though limited in scope, has to some extent filled this knowledge gap and contributed to theory, practice and policy.

The study confirms that some characteristics of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers and students are indeed problematic and constrain the implementation of entrepreneurship education, and also teaching and learning such as the diverse nature and ambiguities associated with the objectives and curriculum. The study also identified additional characteristics of these educational components like the caring and friendly disposition of teachers, and their pragmatism which made up for their inadequate teaching skills and the lack of instructional resources, and likewise enhanced students' learning and trust in them. It also goes to suggest that entrepreneurship teachers may as a matter of fact possess and exhibit the qualities and innovative drive they seek to inculcate in students as advocated for by Vesper (1999). The study again found that some of the perceived challenges of the educational components were actually strengths that could be harnessed to help address constraints faced by teachers and students. An example is the wealth of knowledge and experience that the diversity of teachers and students bring to the teaching and learning process that serves to complement theory, make up for the lack of practical exercises and local textbooks, and the insufficiency of guest entrepreneur visits.

The research study has also shed light on the different ways in which the attributes of the entrepreneurship education components impact on teachers and students, and how the resulting emotions, behaviours and actions influence the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship. The study also points to the fact that it is not enough to simply design entrepreneurship courses to conform to prevailing global standards or trends, rather entrepreneurship education should also be conceptualized, designed and implemented in concert with countries' socio-economic ecosystem and the provision of the requisite resources and funding.

These findings are significant because they provide vivid illustrations of the differences in stakeholders' perceptions and expectations even within the same institution, and from one institution to another in the absence of clearly stated objectives of entrepreneurship education. It points to the lack of consensus and understanding of the objectives, curriculum and pedagogy within an institution and their implications. For example, the lack of uniformity in teachers' views on the efficacy of its objectives also has the potential to impact negatively on teaching and learning. It likewise suggests a lack of consensus on what the teachers are expected to teach, what they teach, how they teach, and the strategies used to ensure that the objectives are achieved. Ultimately the divergent teachers' views and expectations of the components of entrepreneurship education lead to unequal learning outcomes for entrepreneurship students within one educational institution and among institutions within the same country.

The study shows that even though there are some inherent challenges with the entrepreneurship education components, there are equally benefits to be reaped. Indeed, the study has revealed that rather than being fixated on the challenging attributes, researchers and practitioners should search for common grounds to make the best out of them since they are all to some extent relevant and contribute to entrepreneurship education's uniqueness and character.

Entrepreneurship education is still an evolving educational intervention characterized by underdeveloped design and delivery challenges which have been the focus of earlier writings and debates. It is the view of this researcher that the nature of these challenges need to be well understood and addressed in order to enhance the efficacy and success of entrepreneurship education. The purpose of this study was therefore to first identify the characteristics and inherent challenges of the objectives, curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, and students and how they are experienced by teachers and students at the study institution, to contribute to the discussions on them and influence future policy directions. In spite of its limitations, the study's findings also provide indicators for future research and interventions. Specifically, it is hoped that this study will contribute to the globally expanding research and literature on the challenges associated with the entrepreneurship education components, and at the study institution, in Ghana, and the ongoing debates on the aim of entrepreneurship education, what to teach and learn, who to teach, how to teach, and whom to teach.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: APPROVAL OF RESEARCH PROPOSAL

NOTICE TO POSTGRADUATE QUALIFICTION SECTION (M&D)
RESULT : RESEARCH PROPOSAL MODULE

<table>
<tr><td>STUDENT NAME</td><td>Mrs M Obeng-Koranteng</td><td>STUDENT NUMBER</td><td>50766023</td></tr>
<tr><td>DEGREE</td><td>DEd</td><td>Specialisation</td><td>Education Management</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Please indicate the relevant option with an x:</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">A. The above student <u>did not comply</u> with the requirements for the research proposal module and <u>may reregister</u> for this module</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">B. The above student <u>did not comply</u> with the requirements for the research proposal module and <u>may not continue with his studies</u> for the degree. Please provide reasons:</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">C. I confirm that the above student complied with the requirements for the research proposal module (research proposal approved by departmental higher degrees committee)
and may now proceed to register for the research component. Please provide details below</td><td>X</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Title of Proposal
“The training needs of teachers in Entrepreneurship at Ghanaian educational institutions: a case study at ……….Ghana”.

Supervisor : Prof RJ Botha Personnel Number : 1992872</td></tr>
</table>

Highest Qualification: **DEd** Co-supervisor: Personnel Number: Highest Qualification: Address, if external : (including email) Additional comments:
Approval (CoD) **Approved**
Comments: **Approved**  Signature: Date: 1**0 Novemver 2013**
Comments: Signature : On behalf of College/School Executive Committee Date:

APPENDIX B: RESEARCHER'S ETHICS DECLARATION FORM

RESEARCHER'S DECLARATION TO ADHERE TO THE UNISA CODE OF CONDUCT REGARDING THE ETHICS OF THE PROPOSED RESEARCH

By signing below, I Monica Obeng-Koranteng (Mrs.) **I declare as follows:**

a)	I have completed all the sections of this form that are relevant to the proposed research study.	Agree
b)	I have acquainted myself with UNISA's code on research ethics expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. I shall fully comply with it.	Agree
c)	I conducted the research in strict accordance with the approved proposal. I acknowledge that the approval is valid and the approved procedures were followed.	Agree
d)	I shall notify the CEDU ERC in writing if any changes to the research are proposed that may affect any of the study-related risks for the research.	Agree
e)	I maintain privacy and the confidentiality of records pertaining to the research.	Agree
f)	I shall not use the research and information in a manner that is detrimental to individuals or institutions unless it can be scientifically justified.	Agree
g)	I shall store research data securely and in accordance with the data management measures indicated in my application/proposal.	Agree
h)	I shall uphold research integrity and refrain from conduct that may taint the integrity of science, including, but not limited to plagiarism, fabrication and falsification of data.	Agree
i)	I shall refrain from the use of human participant data that was collected without a valid research ethics approval for the purpose of this research (retrospective use of participant data).	Agree
j)	I shall take the necessary steps to warrant that co-researchers, <u>if applicable</u>, familiarise themselves with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.	Agree

Signing of declaration MONICA OBENG-KORANTENG (MRS.)

Name in Print MONICA OBENG-KORANTENG Signature [signature] Date signed 26/11/2017

Applicant MONICA OBENG-KORANTENG

Approved by supervisor (if applicable) ______________________

To my knowledge the student has addressed all aspects in his/her progress report set forth in the University of South Africa's Policy for Research Ethics. I confirm that the form is complete.I will ensure that the student notify the committee in writing if any changes to the research are proposed that may affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants. Subsequently, I approve the submission and recommend that approval is granted for the research.

Name in Print Signature Date signed

Progress Report (CEDU ERC, Version 1) 2

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX C1: ETHICAL CLEARANCE 1 (2014 version)

Reference number: 2014 AUGUST /50766023/MC 19 AUGUST 2014

APPENDIX C2: ETHICAL CLEARANCE 2 (2017 version)

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date 2018/12/30. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

The reference number **2014 AUGUST/50766023/MC** *should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Kind regards,

M Claassens

Dr M Claassens
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC
mcdtc@netactive.co.za

Prof V McKay
EXECUTIVE DEAN

UNISA
College of Education
2017 -11- 22
Office of the Executive Dean

Approved - decision template – updated 16 Feb 2017

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APPENDIX D: AMMENDMENT OF RESEARCH TITLE

TITELWYSIGING
AMENDMENT OF TITLE

Student	**M Obeng-Koranteng**	Student No	**50766023**

Graad/Degree	**DEd (Education Management)**

Name of COD/Chair of the Departmental Higher Degrees Committee:
U aanbeveling ten opsigte van die volgende voorgestelde gewysigde titel asseblief Your recommendation regarding the following proposed amended title please
Titel/Title: **THE CHALLENGES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY AT A SELECTED GHANAIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION** Vorige titel/voorlopige titel/onderwerp: Previous title/provisional title/topic: **THE CHALLENGES OF TEACHING ENTREPRENEURSHIP AT A GHANAIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION: A CASE STUDY OF ……..** Handtekening/Signature: Datum/Date: 17/10/2017

APPENDIX E: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SELECTED STUDY INSTITUTION

11th June 2015

TITLE: Training needs of entrepreneurship teachers at …….: a Ghanaian higher educational institution

The Dean

Dear Professor …….,

I, Monica Obeng-Koranteng am conducting a research with Professor R.J. Botha, a professor in the Department of Education Leadership and Management towards a D Ed degree at the University of South Africa (UNISA). I am seeking permission to conduct a study in your institution entitled 'The training needs of entrepreneurship teachers at ……: a Ghanaian Higher educational institution'.

The aim of the study is to determine what the training needs are of entrepreneurship teachers at …..,. Your institution has been selected because the discipline of entrepreneurship is a core course which is mandatory for all students irrespective of their programme of study.

The study will entail the collection of data from the institutions official sources, records and documents, the libraries, key administrative officers, entrepreneurship teachers and final year students who have all completed a course of study in entrepreneurship. The data will be gathered using face-to-face interviews of staff, focus groups by final year students and observation of classroom settings

The benefits of this study are several. It is ten years since the introduction of entrepreneurship education and there has not been any scientific study to evaluate it .It is hoped that this study will provide insights about best practice and challenges in the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship. These insights will further enhance the design, teaching and learning and the training and recruitment of entrepreneurship teachers which will go a long way to ensure the achievement of course outcomes and objectives.

Potential risk are addressed by having clearance from the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. A copy of the letter may be obtained from the researcher if you wish,

Feedback procedures will entail submission of a copy of the research report to your institution. Additionally final research findings may be made available upon request by the researcher by any of the addresses provided below. The researcher will also welcome a face-to-face discussion by any official of your institution concerning the findings or at any point of the research period.

Yours sincerely,

Signed
Monica Obeng-Koranteng

Researcher.

APPENDIX F: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE STUDY INSTITUTION

June 11, 2015

Monica Obeng-Koranteng
Researcher
University of South Africa

Dear Mrs Obeng-Koranteng
I write in reference to your letter dated 11, June 2015 asking for permission to conduct research using ……….. as your point of reference. The research does not seem to violate any ethical principles and it does not appear to have a significant potential to interrupt the normal operations of the school. Thus you may talk to the students and teachers of entrepreneurship for the research project.

Sincerely,

Signed

Dean
……Business School

APPENDIX G: LETTER REQUESTING PROGRAMME COORDINATOR TO PARTICIPATE IN AN INTERVIEW

Dear Dr.

This letter is an invitation for your participation in a study I, Monica Obeng-Koranteng am conducting as part of my research as a doctoral student entitled '**THE CHALLENGES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY AT A SELECTED GHANAIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION'** at the University of South Africa (UNISA).

Permission for the study has been given by the Dean of the Business School of the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. I have purposefully identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise as related to my research topic.

I would like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you should agree to take part. The importance of research in education is substantial and well documented. It ensures advancements on the frontiers of education. In the light of this, this study on the challenges of entrepreneurship education at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution is expected to serve a number of purposes and provide a number of benefits. First of all it will help to fill the knowledge gap on the challenges of entrepreneurship education in the available literature with regards to Ghanaian and African examples by providing insights from the Ghanaian context; Secondly, it will improve practice in entrepreneurship education. Ultimately, the study aims to inform future policy on entrepreneurship education in higher educational institutions.

In this interview I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic because of my belief that they will help to answer my research questions. Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an interview of approximately one hour in length to take place in a mutually agreed upon location at a time convenient to you. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish.

With your kind permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you an opportunity to confirm the accuracy of our conversation and to add or clarify any points that you wish. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any publication resulting from this study and any identifying information will be omitted from the report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. Data collected during this study will be retained on a password protected computer for twelve months. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study.

If you have any questions regarding this study, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participation, please contact me at 0208118093 or by email at moani58yahoo.co.uk.

I look forward to speaking with you very much and thank you in advance for your assistance in this project. If you accept my invitation to participate, I will request you to sign the consent form which follows on page 3.

Yours sincerely

Monica Obeng-Koranteng (Mrs.)

CONSENT FORM

I have read the information presented in the information letter about the study on the challenges of entrepreneurship education at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution. I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study, to receive satisfactory answers to my questions, and any additional details I wanted. I am aware that I have the option of allowing my interview to be audio recorded to ensure an accurate recording of my responses. I am also aware that excerpts from the interview may be included in publications to come from this research, with the understanding that the quotations will be anonymous. With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree, of my own free will, to participate in this study.

Participant Name   Participant Signature:

Researcher Name: Researcher Signature

Date

APPENDIX H: LETTER REQUESTING ENTREPRENEURSHIP TEACHERS TO PARTICIPATE IN AN INTERVIEW

Dear Dr, Sir, Madam………

This letter is an invitation for your participation in a study I, Monica Obeng-Koranteng am conducting as part of my research as a doctoral student entitled '**THE CHALLENGES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY AT A SELECTED GHANAIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION**' at the University of South Africa (UNISA). Permission for the study has been given by the Dean of the Business School of the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. I have purposefully identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise as related to my research topic.

I would like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you should agree to take part. The importance of research in education is substantial and well documented. It ensures advancements on the frontiers of education. In the light of this, this study on the challenges of entrepreneurship education at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution is expected to serve a number of purposes and provide a number of benefits. First of all it will help to fill the knowledge gap on the challenges of entrepreneurship education in the available literature with regards to Ghanaian and African examples by providing insights from the Ghanaian context; Secondly, it will improve practice in entrepreneurship education. Ultimately, the study aims to inform future policy on entrepreneurship education in higher educational institutions.

In this interview I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic because of my belief that they will help to answer my research questions. Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an interview of approximately one hour in length to take place in a mutually agreed upon location at a time convenient to you. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish.

With your kind permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you an opportunity to confirm the accuracy of our conversation and to add or clarify any points that you wish. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any publication resulting from this study and any identifying information will be omitted from the report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. Data collected during this study will be retained on a password protected computer for twelve months. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study.

If you have any questions regarding this study, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about your participation, please contact me by phone at 0208118093 or by email at moani58yahoo.co.uk.

I look forward to speaking with you very much and thank you in advance for your assistance in this project. If you accept my invitation to participate, I will request you to sign the consent form which follows on the next page.

Yours sincerely

Monica Obeng-Koranteng (Mrs.)

CONSENT FORM

I have read the information presented in the information letter about the study on the challenges of entrepreneurship education at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution. I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study, to receive satisfactory answers to my questions, and any additional details I wanted. I am aware that I have the option of allowing my interview to be audio recorded to ensure an accurate recording of my responses. I am also aware that excerpts from the interview may be included in publications to come from this research, with the understanding that the quotations will be anonymous. With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree, of my own free will, to participate in this study.

Participant Name

Participant Signature:

Researcher Name: (Monica Obeng-Koranteng) Mrs.

Researcher Signature: Date:

APPENDIX I: LETTER REQUESTING STUDENTS TO PARTICIPATE IN A FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

Dear Mr., Mrs. Miss…………..

This letter is an invitation for your participation in a study I, Monica Obeng-Koranteng am conducting as part of my research as a doctoral student entitled '**THE CHALLENGES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY AT A SELECTED GHANAIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION** ' at the University of South Africa (UNISA). Permission for the study has been given by the Dean of the Business School of the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. I have purposefully identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise as related to my research topic.

I would like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you should agree to take part. The importance of research in education is substantial and well documented. It ensures advancements on the frontiers of education. In the light of this, this study on the challenges of entrepreneurship education at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution is expected to serve a number of purposes and provide a number of benefits. First of all it will help to fill the knowledge gap on the challenges of entrepreneurship education in the available literature with regards to Ghanaian and African examples by providing insights from the Ghanaian context; Secondly, it will improve practice in entrepreneurship education. Ultimately, the study aims to inform future policy on entrepreneurship education in higher educational institutions.

In this focus group discussion I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic because of my belief that they will help to answer my research questions. Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an approximately three hours long focus group discussion to take place in a mutually agreed upon location at a time convenient to you. You may be called upon for a follow-up discussion for clarifications or more additional data where necessary.

With your kind permission, the focus group discussion will be photographed, audio-recorded and video recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and later transcribed for analysis. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any publication resulting from this study and any identifying information will be omitted from the report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. Data collected during this study will be retained on a password protected computer for twelve months. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study.

While every effort will be made by the researcher to ensure that you will not be connected to the information that you share during the focus group, I cannot guarantee that other participants in the focus group will treat information confidentially. I shall, however, encourage all participants to do so. For this reason I advise you not to disclose personally sensitive information in the focus group.

If you have any questions regarding this study, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participation, please contact me at 0208118093 or by email at moani58yahoo.co.uk.

I look forward to speaking with you very much and thank you in advance for your assistance in this project. If you accept my invitation to participate, I will request you to sign the consent form which follows on page 3.

Yours sincerely

Monica Obeng-Koranteng (Mrs.)

CONSENT FORM FOR STUDENTS

I have read the information presented in the information letter about the study on the challenges of entrepreneurship education at the selected Ghanaian higher educational institution. I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study, to receive satisfactory answers to my questions, and any additional details I wanted. I am aware that I have the option of allowing the focus group discussion to be photographed, audio recorded and video recorded to ensure an accurate recording of participants' responses. I am also aware that excerpts from the discussion may be included in publications to come from this research, with the understanding that the quotations will be anonymous.

I am aware that l must treat personally sensitive information in the focus group confidentially and not disclose such information.

With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree, of my own free will, to participate in this study.

Participant Name

Participant Signature:

Researcher Name: (Monica Obeng-Koranteng) Mrs.

Researcher Signature:

Date:

APPENDIX J-1: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PROGRAMME COORDINATOR

THE CHALLENGES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY AT A SELECTED GHANAIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION

<u>Interview schedule for Programme Coordinator</u>

A. Academic and professional background?

1) Type of teaching tenure, position, responsibilities………………
2) Type of academic qualification………………………………
3) Professional background………………………………………
4) Entrepreneurial history…………………………………….,
5) Background information on the introduction of entrepreneurship education at this institution.
    a. Selection of course objectives and outcomes, curriculum and pedagogy.
    b. Recruitment of teachers.
    c. Enrolment of students

B. Perception and experience of entrepreneurship education

1) Purpose/objectives/outcomes
2) Curriculum
3) Pedagogy
4) Teachers
5) Students

C. Recommendations

APPENDIX J-2 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP TEACHERS

A. Academic and professional background?

1) Type of teaching tenure, position, responsibilities……………….
2) Type of academic qualification………………………………
3) Professional background……………………………………….
4) Entrepreneurial history………………………………………..,

B. Perception and experience of entrepreneurship education at the study institution?

1) Objectives/outcomes
2) Curriculum-content
3) Pedagogy-assessment
4) Teachers
5) Students

C. Recommendations

APPENDIX J-3 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR STUDENTS FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

A. Academic and professional background

5) Type of degree programme
6) Professional/ occupational background
7) Entrepreneurial history.
8)

B. Perception and experience of entrepreneurship education at the study institution?

1) Purpose/objectives/outcomes
2) Curriculum-content
3) Pedagogy-assessment
4) Teachers
5) Students

C. Recommendation

APPENDIX J-4 OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

1) General setting- Seating arrangement, classroom size
2) Punctuality
3) Number of students in attendance
4) Class duration
5) Student comportment and participation
6) Class topic
7) Type of pedagogy used - teacher skills, classroom management
8) Classroom size

APPENDIX J-5 Focus Group Programme

1) **General information**
   a. Date
   b. Venue
   c. Name of Moderator
   d. Name of group
   e. Composition
   f. Attendance
   g. Start of discussion
   h. End of discussion

2) **Seating of participants**
3) **Introductions**
4) **Overview of Research**
   a. Purpose
   b. Information shared with Unisa and the selected study institution
   c. Time commitment
   d. Risks and benefits
   e. Assurance of Confidentiality- information by all
   f. Right to participate
   g. Freedom to decline anytime
   h. Data collection methodology and instruments
   i. Storage of data- hard/soft
   j. Future contact to address any concerns
   k. Role of Participants
   l. Role of Lead Researcher and Research Assistant

5) **Questions- Raising of objections**
6) **Signing of consent forms**
7) **Data Collection Process Part One**
10) **Body Break**
11) **Data Collection process Part Two**
11) **Debriefing**
12) **Conclusion and Appreciation**

APPENDIX K: ETHICAL GUIDE FOR THIS STUDY

a. Seeking informed permission from Unisa and the study institution.
b. Enlisting the informed consent of the study institution and the participants by truthfully explaining the purpose of the study to them prior to the onset of the research and data collection processes.
c. Protecting participants' and the study institution's rights to privacy by pledging and ensuring confidentiality of data gathered from sensitive documents, participants and informants.
d. Ensuring sensitivity to participants' values, opinions and, beliefs by being responsive, non-judgemental and non-prescriptive in conducting the interviews.
e. Making a conscious effort to minimize bias in the selection, use and reporting of data, and also in the selection of respondents and informants since the researcher was herself an entrepreneurship teacher. Measures included the adoption of methodological controls in the research, the provision of an audit trail of the data collection and analysis processes and decision-making processes regarding the different stages of the study.
f. Addressing the comfort needs of the participants by ensuring that time duration and interview venues and schedules were appropriate and favourable (Merriam 2001, Mack et al. 2005; Creswell 2008).
g. Ensuring that the interview sessions were at the convenience of all participants with regard to time and space such as the careful selection of the interview rooms to meet the needs of respondents and researchers. For instance the entrepreneurship faculty and programme coordinator were interviewed in their offices and at their own selected time. Similarly the in-school students were interviewed in specially arranged rooms to avoid disturbance by friends and colleagues.
h. Facilitate the building of rapport at two levels, first between researcher and participants (but respecting their privacy), and secondly among participants especially during the focus group discussions. (Merriam 2001, Mack et al. 2005 and Creswell 2008).

APPENDIX L: Course outline for Foundation of Entrepreneurship

Course Description
The course aims to provide students with an understanding of the basic concepts, principles, and techniques that entrepreneurs use to create new ventures. The course will focus on the entrepreneurial process, as it unfolds through recognition of an opportunity, idea generation, and assembling resources to develop new ventures. This is an action – oriented course designed to meet the needs of those students who want to learn about entrepreneurship as well as those who are keen to start up a business. The course focuses on small and medium scale enterprises.

Course Objectives

- To understand entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial process and how to recognize and evaluate business opportunities for economic potential.
- To prepare students to develop a business plan.
- To understand the personal commitments and the importance of relationships (networking) in the business development process.
- Understand the legal, administrative, technological, marketing, financial management, planning, and project management issues that influence new venture creation.
- To prepare students with necessary skills to determine how to launch and sustain their own business ventures.
- To develop in students the entrepreneurial mindset

Required Text
Barringer, B. R. and Ireland, R. D. (2010), Entrepreneurship: Successfully Launching New Ventures, Fourth Edition, Boston: Prentice Hall.

Online Resources:

Website: www.smetoolkit.org – Practical business resources

DELIVERY METHODS:
This course will be delivered through class-lectures, discussions, analysis of cases, video presentations, in-class role-play and exercises, and group project. Advance reading of appropriate chapter(s) of the recommended textbook(s) and case studies for class discussion are essential for this course.

Evaluation
Grading is based on the following:

Class participation/attendance	5%
Individual Course work	10%
Midterm Examination	10%
Business Model Presentation	15%
Final Examination	30%
Final Exam (Group Business Plan)	30%
Total scores	100%

Class Participation/attendance (5%)
5% of the course grade consists of your participation in the in-class discussions and activities, including discussion of group presentations. The extent of your preparedness for class in

terms of completing the assigned readings will influence your grade. Credit is given for quality contribution and engagement in discussions. Attendance is taken at each class. If you are not present, clearly you cannot participate.

Individual Coursework (15%)

There will be a series of class exercises, quizzes, and assignments.

Mid-Term Exam (15%)

The Mid-Term exams are designed to test your understanding and ability to apply entrepreneurship concepts covered in the text and in class.

Group exercises and Presentation 10%)

Final Exams (60%)

Final exams are designed to test your understanding and ability to apply entrepreneurship concepts covered in the text and in class. They will consist of two parts: Group Project work (Business Plan project)- 30%; and a combination of case study, multiple choice questions and essay questions. 30%.

The Business Plan Project (30%)

The Business Plan will be carried out in the groups of 5 people. It will include a written report of approximately not more than 10 pages and an oral presentation (15 minutes/group). Detailed instructions will be distributed and discussed in class.

Course Schedule

Week	**Topic/Activity**	**Advance preparation, Assignments, and other essential information**
Week 1	Nature and role of entrepreneurship • The "entrepreneurship revolution" • Nature and evolution of the concepts of the "entrepreneur" and "entrepreneurship." • The role of entrepreneurship and small business in the economy • Traits and behavioural characteristics of successful entrepreneurs	Formation of entrepreneurial teams. Students will form teams of … and work in the same teams throughout the course, present both team and individual assignments together. In-class exercise: What is entrepreneurship? What are the best qualities of successful entrepreneurs? Five biggest mistakes that entrepreneurs make
Week 2	Creativity, Innovation and Entrepreneurship • The importance of innovation • Forms of Innovation • Sources of innovation • The innovation engine	. Class exercises: Do you pay attention? Video: Assignment: Students develop their personal entrepreneurial strategy

Week 3	Opportunity" • Meanings of "opportunity" and "idea" • Forces that create opportunities • Evaluation of opportunities Guest Speaker Visit:	Class exercise: students will be called upon to demonstrate their creative abilities Video Presentation Team Assignment: Idea Generation Exercise
Week 4	Market Assessment • Researching the customer • Developing a customer profile • Assessing competition • Macro-environmental forces, trends, and events • Estimating market size and projecting sales • Segmenting the market and selecting a niche • Product Positioning The entrepreneurial marketing	Teams are called upon to present their business concepts Case Study discussion:
5	Business Model • How do you create customer value? • The value chain concept • The main components of an effective business model • The business model canvas tool	Class Exercise: Teams develop Business Models for their businesses using Business Model Canvas Toolkit
Week 6	Business Plan Development • Uses and importance of the business plan • Parts of a business plan • Contents of the business plan	Oral team reports: Teams are called upon at random to present their business concepts and models. Class exercise 2: Business Plan critique
Week 7	Entrepreneurial team formation and Founder(s) Issues • Importance of entrepreneurial teams • Forming and building entrepreneurial • teams • Deciding on ownership system • Deciding on investments, shareholdings, responsibilities, and • reward system • Development of partnership agreements • Incorporation of limited liability companies	Guest Speaker's Presentation: Teams may be called upon to give reports on how they are approaching market assessment for their projects. Teams prepare: (a) Partnership agreements (b) Shareholder investment agreements (c) Governance principles for Board of Directors
Week 8	The Start-Up Process • Resource mobilization • Logistics – location, physical • Acquisition of materials, etc. • Action plans and Time lines Guest Speaker Visit:	Teams will be expected to outline concrete steps they will take in getting their businesses started showing specific actions and time lines.

Week 9	Entrepreneurial Finance • Obtaining venture and growth capital • Valuation, structure and negotiation • Obtaining Capital	Video:
Week 10	Ethics and the Entrepreneur • Internal and external stakeholders of business ventures • Ethical dilemmas of entrepreneurs • Levels of ethical standards • Ethical principles to guide entrepreneurial behavior	Teams develop statements of ethical principles and social responsibility to guide their operations. Class exercise: Students will again complete individual self assessment instrument
Week 11	Presentation of Teams Business Plans	Each team will be allowed a few minutes (depending on class size) to present their business plans to the class.
Week 12	Presentation of Teams Business Plans	Each team will be allowed a few minutes (depending on class size) to present their business plans to the class.
Week 14	End-of-Semester Examination	

APPENDIX M: Assigned codes for data collection instruments and participants in the study

Data collection techniques							
Type of technique	**Interviews**		**Focus group discussions**		**Observation**		**Documents**
Codes	INET1-4	INPC	FG1	FG2	CO1	CO2	DO

APPENDIX N: Assigned codes and pseudonyms for research participants

Research participants			
Participant	**Entrepreneurship Teachers**	**Programme Coordinator**	**Entrepreneurship Students**
Codes/pseudonyms	ET1-4	PC	Akosua, Adjoa, Abena, Akua, Yaa, Afua, Ama, Araba, Esi, Aba, Kwasi, Kwadjo, Kwabena, Kwaku, Yaw, Kofi, Kwame, Fiifi, Joojo, Ato

APPENDIX O: PROOF OF EDITING

FADCON FAD Consult

Consultants: Governance & Politics; Media & Communication; and Leadership & Strategic Management

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Our Ref: FADCON/001/21/1

13th January 2021

Dear Sir/Madam,

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I hereby confirm that I have proofread and edited the doctoral thesis of **Monica Obeng-Koranteng** on "*The Challenges of Entrepreneurship Education: A Case Study at a Selected Ghanaian Higher Educational Institution*", which is being submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in the area of Education Management at the Department of Education Management at the University of South Africa.

I wish to state that I used Windows 'tracking system' to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the student's attention and action.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Frankie Asare-Donkoh (PhD, MBA, MA, Dip)
Chief Executive

Sage Peer Reviewer

Former Head, Department of Media and Communication Studies
(Pentecost University, Accra, Ghana)

APPENDIX P: ABRIDGED CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL DETAILS:

Name: Monica Obeng-Koranteng

Date of Birth: April 6, 1958

Nationality: Ghanaian

Marital Status: Married

Children: Two

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QUALIFICATIONS:

Institution	Academic	Date
University of Ghana	M.Phil in Adult Education	2002
University of Cape Coast	BA Hons, Sociology & Geography;	1982
University of Cape Coast	Diploma in Education	1982

Institution	Professional	Date
Gestalt Institute of Cleveland	Organisation and Systems	2007
OSD Centre. Ohio, USA	Development Practitioner Formation Certificate	
Kalbs Sewing Centre, Accra	Certificate in Free Hand Cutting	
	Certificate in Machine Embroidery	1986

CURRENT POSITIONS:

Adjunct Lecturer- Entrepreneurship: February 2013-

Manager/Consultant/ Trainer: Cabida Impex Ltd, Madonna M. School - 2003-

PAST POSITIONS:

National Deputy General Secretary: YWCA Ghana 2003-2010

Assistant Director: Ghana Education Service 1998-2002

Principal Superintendent of education: 1991-1997

Head of Social Science and Geography Departments: 1991-1998

Tutor in Geography: Presbyterian Secondary School, Osu: 1991-1998

Accra girls Secondary School, Accra: 1984-1990

St Martin's Secondary School, Nsawam: 1982-1984

PROFESSIONAL WORK EXPERIENCE:

Fashion designing and garments production;

Ornamental horticulture

OSD Consulting and facilitation;

Culture Change training;

Administration;

Human resource management;

Mentoring, coaching, counselling;

Teaching.

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY: English; Ghanaian languages-Twi and Sefwi.

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

The challenges of entrepreneurship education: a case study at a selected Ghanaian higher educational institution - 2020.

Entrepreneurship training and development for the private sector in Ghana: a case study of Empretec Ghana - 2002.

TRAVELS:

Sao Tome & Principe, Nigeria, Cape Verde, Togo, La Cote d'Ivoire, Mali, United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Italy, USA, Canada, Turkey and Thailand.

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