

# **Entrepreneurship Education in Africa**

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# **Entrepreneurship Education in Africa: A Contextual Model for Competencies and Pedagogies in Developing Countries**

BY

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INVESTOR IN PEOPLE

Specifically, I, Alfred, would like to dedicate this achievement:

To my beautiful partner, kids, brother, sisters, and friends, I thank you for both your moral support and understanding throughout this process.

Above all, to God almighty for His divine wisdom and grace over me.

Specifically, I, Massimiliano, would like to dedicate this achievement:

To My beloved partner; in this long period of the pandemic you were always by my side and I never felt alone.

To My family; you were my nurturing environment and you passed me down a strong sense of caring that leads me in every aspect of my personal and professional life.

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# Foreword

Earlier today I was savouring cardamom-flavoured coffee gifted to me by a dear colleague from Sierra Leone, while I was reading Professor Tarek Heggy, the leading liberal political thinker who suggested that tyranny, corruption, and outdated education are the principal causes of the current conditions in the Middle East. Indeed, education is so very important and it affects lives – not only in the Middle East, but everywhere.

I feel honoured to be invited to write the Foreword for this timely book, and I salute both the authors for their contribution. Katz (2003) provided an overview of the chronology and intellectual trajectory of American entrepreneurship education from 1876 to 1999, and other studies focus on entrepreneurship education in Europe (an early example was Dana, 1992), but there is a need to examine education pedagogy in Africa too!

Having long been interested in entrepreneurship education pedagogies in developing countries (Chhabra et al., 2021; Dana, 2001), I appreciate the importance of this book. Furthermore, given my interest in (Dabic et al., 2022; Dana et al., 2022; Ojong et al., 2021) and love for the people of Africa, I am delighted to see this volume dedicated to entrepreneurship education pedagogy in Sierra Leone – a little known nation in Africa.

The authors remind us that 70% of youths in Sierra Leone are either unemployed or underemployed. Indeed, entrepreneurship education can help make a better tomorrow for many.

Alfred Mbete and Massimiliano M. Pellegrini have long been brainstorming about this important topic and the result is this well-planned book. They discuss important implications for policymakers and the education system and they propose ideas for future research. Enjoy their thought-provoking ideas and let's together contribute to a better world.

**Léo-Paul DANA**  
**Visiting Professor, Kingston University, UK**  
Professor, Dalhousie University, Canada  
**Chaire ETI – Sorbonne Business School,**  
**Université Paris 1 Panthéon-Sorbonne, France**

In 2012, I was asked to teach an entrepreneurship class for an MBA program at a Government University in Sierra Leone. As a scholar and practitioner of business and leadership who had spent the majority of his career in North America and Europe, I was excited about the opportunity to give back to my home country

and its citizens. That euphoria turned into angst as I was faced with the sobering reality of the state of entrepreneurship education in Sierra Leone at that time: I asked for a syllabus and there was none; I asked for the prescribed textbooks and was informed that there were none. This was not what I had bargained for! After a few visits to the library and tapping into my PhD research material, I developed a syllabus for the class, and proceeded to deliver it. The syllabus employed a mixture of theory and practical; students were asked to read about entrepreneurship, shadow and interview current entrepreneurs in Sierra Leone, develop business plans for their own business ventures, and present them to a panel of external experts. The experience was transformative for the students ... a decade later, more than a quarter of the students who were employed at the time have gone on to create their own business.

However, this experience cost me a few sleepless nights, as I developed the syllabus from scratch. How I wish I had the luxury of the entrepreneurial framework developed by Mbeteh and Pellegrini. It would have saved me hours of work developing my own and would have increased the efficacy of the syllabus that I developed.

The area of need that this book addresses is acute. There is a huge youth unemployment challenge in Sierra Leone and by extension the continent, exacerbated by an extraordinarily high failure rate of new businesses, influenced by a lack of quality entrepreneurship education, correlating with a dearth of research-based knowledge for entrepreneurship educators to utilise to develop their curricula and syllabus to achieve the learning outcomes that are desperately needed for university graduates who should be and want to create jobs but find themselves ill-equipped for the journey of entrepreneurship.

I have read this book with immense pleasure and look forward to entrepreneurship educators in Sierra Leone and Africa reading this book and applying its insights to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of their entrepreneurship courses. Africa needs its educated youth to become successful entrepreneurs. We cannot wait much longer before the tsunami of unemployed youth becomes a security and social hazard for all residents. I encourage policymakers, administrators, professors, teachers, and practitioners to read this book and apply its principles to enable entrepreneurship education in Sierra Leone in particular to become the transformative tool for private sector growth that it can become.

**Dr Modupe Taylor-Pearce**  
**Founder and CEO of BCA Leadership**  
**[www.breakfastclubafrica.com](http://www.breakfastclubafrica.com)**

In Europe, each EU Member State is responsible for its own education and training system. European intervention in the field of education and training is mainly intended to facilitate cooperation among the Member States in face of common challenges, to create opportunities for mutual learning, to disseminate advancements in knowledge that may inform educational reforms at the national or regional level.

In this context, for more than 15 years, the European Commission has been working on promoting key competencies for lifelong learning, that are

deemed relevant for all citizens to take an active part in today's society, to transition successfully in the labour market and to fulfil their potential. The key competencies identified by the Commission are eight and include among others digital competencies,<sup>1</sup> personal, social, and learning to learn competencies,<sup>2</sup> and entrepreneurship competencies.<sup>3</sup>

As a key competence for lifelong learning, 'entrepreneurship' in the EU is understood as the capacity people have as individuals and collective entities to act upon opportunities and ideas to create value for others, that can be of any type: economic, cultural, social, environmental, emotional... Entrepreneurship as competence, thus, is decoupled from venture creation.

'EntreComp: the entrepreneurship competence framework'<sup>4</sup> is the European reference document that describes in detail what it takes to turn ideas into action. EntreComp is not prescriptive; it is not a destination or a goal to reach. It is a means to orient oneself in the sea of competencies relating to value creation, out of necessity or opportunity. It is more of a lighthouse than a harbour, a tool that acts as a beacon to help anyone who is interested to navigate in the world of entrepreneurial knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

EntreComp was designed to create a common language that could bridge the world of education and the world of work across EU countries and was not conceived as a reference model for developing countries. Yet, soon after its publication, it was deemed relevant and adaptable also beyond the borders of the EU, from European Partner Countries to different contexts in Africa, such as Egypt, Madagascar, and South Africa.<sup>5</sup>

The exercise run by Mbete and Pellegrini in 'Entrepreneurship Education in Africa: a Model for Competencies and Pedagogies in Developing Countries' to mould EntreComp to the specific contingencies of Sierra Leone is a new example of adaptation of the framework to a given context. Sierra Leone is no country for entrepreneurial endeavours, at least on paper – the authors explain. It is one of the poorest countries in the world, it has one of the highest youth unemployment/underutilisation rates in the world, it ranks 132 out of 137 in terms of entrepreneurial activities globally and – on top – becoming an entrepreneur is not an aspiration of Sierra Leoneans. Nonetheless, they argue, such a resource-bounded context should not put off education and training actors from the

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<sup>1</sup><https://ec.europa.eu/jrc/en/digcomp>

<sup>2</sup><https://ec.europa.eu/jrc/en/lifecom>

<sup>3</sup><https://ec.europa.eu/jrc/en/entrecomp>

<sup>4</sup>Bacigalupo, M., Kampylis, P., Punie, Y. and Van Den Brande, L. 2016. *EntreComp: The Entrepreneurship Competence Framework*. EUR 27939 EN, Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union. Available at: <https://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/handle/JRC101581>.

<sup>5</sup>Mccallum, E., Weicht, R., McMullan, L. and Price, A. 2018. *EntreComp into Action – Get Inspired, Make it Happen: A User Guide to the European Entrepreneurship Competence Framework*. In M. Bacigalupo and W. O'Keeffe Eds, EUR 29105 EN, Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union. Available at: <https://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/handle/JRC109128>.

intention to promote an entrepreneurial mindset in learners. Rather the opposite. Entrepreneurship education is deemed a promising avenue for Sierra Leone to fight unemployment, and specifically youth unemployment and to increase economic growth for the country.

By adapting the EntreComp and paring it with experiential learning pedagogies that can work in Sierra Leone tertiary education programmes, Mbeteh and Pellegrini attempt to ignite the fire of entrepreneurial learning in Sierra Leone. The ultimate goals of promoting entrepreneurial learning are to help youth come out of poverty through decent jobs and to set the human capital foundation for an economy that not only exploits the value of the natural resources of the country, but is actually capable of creating new value.

I have no doubt that you will find this book greatly helpful in your own search to equip learners with the competencies they need to build their future while contributing to fair and sustainable futures for all, no matter the context in which they operate.

Margherita Bacigalupo  
Research Officer  
European Commission Joint Research Centre

# Preface

This book was born out of one of my main PhD thesis contributions to knowledge in which I adapted the European Union Competence framework (EntreComp) within a developing country context to ameliorate the rise in youth unemployment problems. The thesis was supervised by Professor Massimiliano M. Pellegrini, Dr Jannie Roed, and Dr Tony Olden. Professor Pellegrini and I particularly had a burning desire to generally address the youth unemployment problems in developing countries and since then, we have jointly published several articles with a primary focus on this particular issue and this book is no exception.

The book was written before the global pandemic related to the Covid-19 outbreak. Thus, no direct mention of this unexpected situation is made in the rest of this text. However, at least in this preface, we would like to stress that these current events and the related global economic crisis, confer even more contemporaneity to this book and its contents. Emerging and developing countries will experience an exacerbation of an already precarious situation in the work market, where workforce unemployment rates were already quite high.

Youth unemployment is one of the key challenges facing many countries around the globe today. The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2019) report states that 59 million youths between the ages of 15 and 24 years are currently unemployed globally. The situation is severe for youths in most of the developing countries, in Africa particularly. Africa has about 1.3 billion of the total world population and of these, '764 million people (or 59 percent) are aged 15 years or older (i.e., the working-age population)' (ILO, 2019, p. 28). North Africa has the highest number of youth unemployment with an estimated 30% of youths expected to remain unemployable in 2020 (ILO, 2019). Also, although sub-Saharan Africa has a relatively low rate of youth unemployment compared to other regions, the majority of youths who are actively seeking jobs in those markets cannot afford one (ILO, 2019). Worse still, out of the 38.1% of the total number of the poor working population, 23.5% are young people (ILO, 2020).

In Sierra Leone, the UNDP (2015) report shows that 70% of youths in Sierra Leone are either unemployed or under-employed. Similarly, the ILO (2017) report estimated that 59.9% of young men and 72.8% of young people are unemployed. The report also shows that one of the hardest hits in this group are the young graduates. While there is no recent information on the actual number of unemployed graduates in Sierra Leone, it is estimated that out of the 5,000 young people who graduate each year, only a minute number get employed (Bedson and Fofannah, 2 October 2013). Another research study carried out by the *Career*

and *Advisory Placement Services (CAPS)* between 2010 and 2012 pointed out that 55% of graduates in Sierra Leone were still searching for jobs (World Bank, 2013a). Accordingly, this will have a negative impact on the country's economic growth (Agbor and Smith 2012; ILO, 2015). The varied forecasts about how the aftermath of the-Covid-19-outbreak will ultimately affect these results are still blurry at present, but it is certain that the pandemic is most likely to worsen any pre-existing situations, which for Sierra Leone is already quite dire. As a result, different stakeholders in developing countries, including scholars, governments, and non-governmental agencies, have all recognised entrepreneurship as a strategy to fight youth unemployment.

One of these strategies is the stimulation of entrepreneurship and self-employment intentions (Volkman et al., 2009; Gerba, 2012). This particular strategy is actionable through participation in entrepreneurship education programmes that contribute to the development of appropriate competencies and mindsets for chasing opportunities – something that will lead to the reduction in the number of unemployed in a country (World Bank, 2008; ILO, 2015). Globally, the concept of entrepreneurship has been recognised as a major tool in ameliorating the high rate of youth unemployment. This notion has led to the rise in Entrepreneurship Education Programmes (in the book referred to as EE programmes) across the world especially in Africa where there has been a perceptible rise in the level of graduate youth unemployment. Nabi and Liñán (2011) averred that graduate entrepreneurship specifically looks at the extent to which graduates effectively engage in entrepreneurial activities. Nevertheless, such a theoretical sound affirmation about effectiveness is not always confirmed in practice. For instance, the 2018 Global Entrepreneurship Index report ranked Sierra Leone 132 out of 137 countries in terms of the level of entrepreneurial activities relating to the attitudes, abilities, and aspirations of the citizens in the country (GEDI, 2018).

Probably, this is also due to the fact that it is easy to talk about entrepreneurship programmes but there is less agreement about what these programmes should teach and on the specific entrepreneurial competencies to be transferred. Although the literature comprises numerous studies on the key competencies needed to be taught in an EE programme (Man et al., 2002; Man and Lau, 2005; Katz and Green, 2007; Morris et al., 2013), most of those studies were conducted in developed countries using Western-minded participants (Imas et al., 2012). Thus, research in this educational area is of course affected by contextual factors such as the economic infrastructure and ecosystem and the culture towards entrepreneurship (Mehtap et al., 2017).

On the other hand, a very limited amount of research on the subject has been conducted in developing countries (Naude and Havenga, 2005; Imas et al., 2012). Consequently, in order to fully grasp the real essence of entrepreneurship, any further studies will ideally need to be conducted taking context into consideration (Anderson and Ronteau 2017; Champenois et al., 2020; Jones, 2010).

Baumol (1990, p. 898) specifically stated that the outcome of entrepreneurial studies 'do change dramatically from one time and place to another'. Indeed, developing, and emerging countries experience completely different

contingencies, and this may render less effective a direct application of theoretical models developed in different settings (Imas et al., 2012). In this need for contextualisation, this book has its main *raison d'être*. The aim of this book is to explore and promote a focus on resource-bounded contexts, such as the African region, to develop a unique framework of entrepreneurship competencies and pedagogies for EE Programmes. In order to achieve this aim, focus groups and interviews were conducted with students, lecturers, and practitioners to understand what key entrepreneurial competencies are needed within the context of developing countries using Sierra Leone as a primary case-study example.

This framework was developed starting with the European Commission Entrepreneurship Competencies Framework (EntreComp). The results show that the EntreComp can be adapted to the African context through 11 core competencies that are extremely necessary. According to these findings, the framework is further enriched by the relevant pedagogical approaches that can be useful to promote them, always considering the specific context of utilisation. And in doing so, this book proposes to offer several contributions.

Firstly, to contribute to the body of knowledge on EE and youth entrepreneurship within the context of African countries particularly in Sierra Leone, where the study of entrepreneurship is under-researched. The contextualisation of entrepreneurship studies (Welter, 2011), should be an omnibus – one that should include considerations of various political, cultural, and socioeconomic differences that exist from one country to the other. While more has been done in terms of entrepreneurship studies, entrepreneurship education as a potential antecedent of entrepreneurial spirit is still too tied to Western theories and mind-sets and, in any case, most of the available research is too heavily based on developed countries' factors (Anderson and Ronteau, 2017). This requires a revision of models in terms of practice and further requires effort be made to re-adapt and re-conceptualize for different contexts.

Secondly, this book will specifically assess the validity of the EntreComp framework in a developing country. The elaborate framework that will hopefully evolve as a result of this book will be aimed at helping to structure EE programmes more suited to the resource-bounded contexts, and specifically Sierra Leone, that have been used as a case study.

Thirdly, this book will aim to offer recommendations and suggestions to key stakeholders and policymakers about the appropriateness of EE initiatives.

Lastly, this book has the daring hope of ultimately representing a reference for future researchers who will further engage with EE within the context of developing countries.

We hope to have contributed to the debate about entrepreneurship competencies and pedagogies concretely, so this book can be used to ameliorate not always easy situations experienced by developing countries' institutions and learners.

*Alfred Mbeteh*  
*Massimiliano M. Pellegrini*

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We have been working on this book for the past three years with COVID slowing its progress. Its completion would never have been possible without the immense contribution of the following people:

The participants in the study who gave up their time to present their insights on what competencies and pedagogies they feel relevant within the context of a developing nation, we cannot thank you enough.

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We also thank Dr Margherita Bacigalupo, Dr Modupe Taylor-Pearce, and Prof. Léo-Paul Dana for taking their time to read our manuscript and for consenting to write a foreword to our book from both practical and academic perspectives.

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# Chapter 1

## Entrepreneurship Education

*This chapter offers some introductory concepts about entrepreneurship education (EE), including definitions, objectives, impacts on unemployment, and key approaches and challenges in implementing it in Higher Education institutions. It concludes by presenting entrepreneurial intention models apt to understand the pedagogical purpose of EE.*

### 1.1. The Concept of Entrepreneurship Education

Literature abounds with discussions and theories on whether entrepreneurs are born or made which leads to the question of whether the concept of entrepreneurship can indeed be taught (Fiet, 2001a). Early research posited that entrepreneurs are born and not made but recently many scholars tend to endorse instead the vision that entrepreneurship can be taught; Drucker (1985) asserted that ‘Entrepreneurship is not magic, it is not mysterious, and it has nothing to do with genes. It is a discipline. And, like any discipline, it can be learned’. And in more recent times, Kuratko (2003, p. 12) stated that ‘the question of whether entrepreneurship can be taught is obsolete’. These assumptions are the basis of recent evolutions in the academic debate (Hytti and O’Gorman, 2004; Fayolle et al., 2006; Nabi and Liñán, 2011) about the best ways of teaching it.

However, the introduction of an academic debate on the concept of EE dates back to 1938 led by a pioneer teacher, Professor Shigeru Fuji of Kobe University, Japan, and his ideas soon led to the first-ever MBA programme in entrepreneurship which was launched in February 1947 at Harvard University with the enrolment of 188 students. A short while later, EE also found its way to a wider audience with an undergraduate programme majoring in entrepreneurship that was introduced by Babson College in 1968 (Vesper, 1988). In addition, it is important to note that the rise in the provision of EE was, firstly, as a result of the fact that the concept of entrepreneurship had been recognised by many governments and institutions as a major source of creativity and job creation (Vesper and Gartner, 1997). For these reasons, there has been a proliferation of EE programmes around the world offered by universities and some other prominent bodies such as the ILO, UNDP (Valerio et al., 2014).

## 2 *Entrepreneurship Education in Africa*

Apart from the history of diffusion, entrepreneurial education is a multifaceted concept (Liñán, 2004; Fayolle and Gailly, 2008; Pellegrini et al., 2021). Specifically, Fayolle et al. (2006, p. 702) defined EE as ‘any pedagogical programme or process of educating for entrepreneurial attitudes and skills, which involves developing certain personal qualities’.

In this set of introductory concepts, it is also important to note the differences between EE programmes and entrepreneurship training programmes. The former focusses primarily on understanding and developing an individual’s capacity for the pursuit of entrepreneurial behaviours, skills, and attributes in their widely different contexts (Gibb, 2005). It is ‘a process of providing individuals with the ability to recognise commercial opportunities and the insight, self-esteem, knowledge, and skills to act on them’ (Jones and English, 2004, p. 416). It targets both secondary and Higher Education institutions’ students; the former focusses mainly on people below the ages of 18 years and the latter focusses on graduates and undergraduates who are enrolled in formal degree-granting programmes (Valerio et al., 2014).

On the other hand, Entrepreneurship Training Programmes focus on developing the requisite knowledge and skills specifically to start or operate an enterprise (Volkman et al., 2009). Its target audience includes potential entrepreneurs (vulnerable, unemployed or inactive individuals and innovation-led, or opportunistic potential entrepreneurs) and practising entrepreneurs (informal or micro and small enterprise owners and high-growth potential enterprise owners) (Valerio et al., 2014).

In the context of this book, we will refer to EE in a broad sense, as any type of education that seeks to develop the relevant knowledge, skills, and attitudes of graduates towards entrepreneurial activities including but not limited to starting a business, creating innovative products and services and providing solutions to the community, societal, and global problems. This definition makes it clear that the objective of an EE programme is not solely centred on the creation of a new business but the development of certain personal qualities that can be used to solve societal, personal, or organisational problems.

### **1.2. Teaching Entrepreneurship Education**

In teaching entrepreneurship, some scholars proposed a behavioural approach where the emphasis is on entrepreneurship as a process. For Gartner (1988), EE should be about the creation of a new venture where many influences interact in the emergent process. Also, Morris et al. (2012) viewed entrepreneurship as a process that specifically starts with (1) the identification and development of an opportunity, (2) a careful examination of the resource requirements and development of strategies to acquire them, (3) the development and implementation of a business plan, and finally, (4) the effective management of the venture. Thus, according to this behavioural approach, the entrepreneur is seen as the main actor and orchestrator of the interrelated processes. Thus, EE should focus on what the entrepreneur does as opposed to who he or she is. However, the quest for finding appropriate ways of teaching entrepreneurship cannot ignore the individuality

of the entrepreneurs, as Neck et al. (2014, p. 1) stated ‘behaviours across samples of entrepreneurs are very idiosyncratic, so it became difficult to generalise this research for teaching purposes’. This position is supported by Edelman et al. (2008) who in their research found out that there was very little overlap in the behaviours of nascent entrepreneurs. A composition of this fault-line can be found through the cognitive approach, which considers individuality as opposed to the trait approach and seeks to uncover patterns in how entrepreneurs think (Mitchell et al., 2002). This can be synthesised in ‘the knowledge structures that people use to make assessments, judgments, or decisions involving opportunity evaluation, venture creation, and growth’ (Mitchell et al., 2002, p. 97). Most research on entrepreneurial cognition focusses on why individuals make entrepreneurial decisions with specific reference to the individual knowledge and beliefs they hold. Another stream of research on entrepreneurial cognition seeks to look at barriers to entrepreneurship, especially in starting a new venture. The entrepreneurial cognitive approach thus moves the discussion away from whether an individual can be an entrepreneur to how one can become entrepreneurial – that is, how to create opportunities and act upon them. The cognitive paradigm is also put forward by the whole effectuation theory stream (Sarasvathy, 2008). Entrepreneurs develop a mindset that enables them to see the world as a place of endless possibilities where they can fabricate and/or recognise opportunities, as well as accept and learn from any failures. In the same vein, another recent proposition on how to teach entrepreneurship is using the constructivist approach (Fiet, 2001b; Kyrö 2005; Löbler 2006).

The constructivist approach assumes that knowledge is in the heads of individuals who construct what they know based on their experiences (Löbler, 2006). The constructivist believes that what we make of our individual experiences constitutes the world we consciously live in. For constructivists, knowledge is the ability to use information in a meaningful way.

As shown in [Table 1](#), the role of the student in the learning process is not to passively receive information, but rather to actively participate in the construction of their world (Bécharde and Grégoire, 2005; Löbler, 2006; Sánchez 2011). Concurrently, the role of the educator is not to merely present information and assess students, but to guide them to consider novel ways of thinking about events and phenomena (Löbler, 2006). To ensure this happens, the trainer/teacher should have an understanding of what prior thoughts and ideas that the learner brings to the whole learning experience (Kyrö 2005). Also, learning can be best initiated through process-driven pedagogical methods that allow for the creation of new ideas and/or concepts.

### **1.3. Objectives of Entrepreneurship Education Programmes**

As introduced in the previous paragraphs, it is useful to delve a little more into the key objectives of EE. Setting clear and specific objectives for EE programmes is the foremost element in designing and evaluating them (Hytti and O’Gorman, 2004); however, what these key objectives should be is a less univocal discussion (Mwasaliba, 2010). For example, some authors (Gibb, 2005) set their focus more

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Table 1. Constructivism and EE.

<b>Key Elements of the Entrepreneurship Education</b>	<b>Constructivism Approach</b>	<b>Main References</b>
Role of the learner	Active constructors and co-constructors of knowledge and meaning, based on experiences in the world	Löbler (2006), Béchard and Grégoire (2005), and Kyrö (2005)
Objectives	To be defined by the learner to evaluate (conclude/criticise); to create (reorganise knowledge to act) Critical Thinking	Löbler (2006) and Béchard and Grégoire (2005)
Role of the educator	Coach/Developer: facilitating learning experiences; providing a learning environment and possibilities for reflection	Béchard and Grégoire (2005), Löbler (2006), and Kyrö (2005)
Ignition of the process of learning	Through the open learning process and process-driven pedagogies/to allow the creation of new roadmaps	Löbler (2006)

*Source:* Adapted from Löbler (2006).

on the mindset of the participants aiming to increase or create an entrepreneurial culture, spirit, and attitudes among participants and the communities in general. Other approaches instead narrow the objective to the sole stimulation of intentions towards creating new ventures and jobs (Henry et al., 2005). The two objectives do not exclude each other as they are perfectly compatible. Changing the state of individual behaviours and intentions towards entrepreneurship and increasing the awareness about EE, in general, should lead to becoming entrepreneurial. In turn, this may ignite the creation of new businesses as well as new job opportunities (Liñán, 2004; Fayolle et al., 2006). Garavan and O’Cinneide (1994) have also put forward a list of specific objectives for EPPs: to stimulate the entrepreneurial mindsets of participants, to develop techniques and skills that can be used to analyse business situations, to encourage the launch of new ventures, to assess and cope with risky situations, and to generally acquire knowledge about entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship.

In summary, the objectives of an EE programme can be classified into three overall areas: education for entrepreneurship, education about entrepreneurship, and entrepreneurship training (Hytti and O’Gorman, 2004). Education *for* entrepreneurship aims at developing both present and potential entrepreneurs with the relevant skills and knowledge that will help them to either create new ventures or enhance existing ones (Mwasalwiba, 2010). It is aimed at developing the following skills: personal and social skills, skills relating to financial literacy, and business start-up (OECD, 2009). On the whole, it ‘is concerned with the inculcation of a range of skills and attributes, including the ability to think creatively, to work in teams, to manage risk and handle uncertainty’ (OECD, 2009, p. 5).

On the other hand, education *about* entrepreneurship focusses on ensuring that there is good knowledge and understanding of entrepreneurship among different stakeholders, including students, policymakers, and the general community (Hytti and O’Gorman, 2004). Lastly, entrepreneurship training seeks to achieve the objective of making individuals more innovative and/or entrepreneurial in either their existing firms or place of work (Henry et al., 2005).

#### **1.4. The Nature of Entrepreneurial Intentions**

As briefly premised, EE seems to have several positive impacts on participants, one of which is surely increasing their entrepreneurial intentions. In other words, participants of EE programmes are more likely to engage in entrepreneurial activities after the intervention.

Bird (1988) stated that entrepreneurial intentions are the foundations for understanding the process of creating a new venture. More elaborate entrepreneurial intentions can be defined as ‘self-acknowledged convictions of individuals that they intend to set up new business ventures and consciously plan to do so in the future’ (Thompson, 2009, p. 676). It is the force that drives people to choose self-employment over traditional salary-based employment (Gerba, 2012).

Several authors (Fayolle et al., 2008; Lorz et al., 2013) believe that participating in an EE programme can increase a participant’s intention to become an entrepreneur. In particular, talking about similar contexts to this study, research conducted by Owusu-Ansah (2004) in Ghana on the impact of EE on career intentions and aspirations of students in tertiary education concluded that 77.9% of respondents surveyed had an intention to start a career in business. The study also concluded that 86.7% of respondents felt empowered with the relevant skills and competencies to start and run a business. In addition, research conducted by Ebewo (2013) on 343 final year students at the University of Botswana concluded that participation in EE has a positive influence on students’ intention to become entrepreneurs by changing their observed attitude towards entrepreneurship.

Often, entrepreneurial intentions are studied using intention models, which offer robust frameworks that help in understanding the entrepreneurial process (Gerba, 2012; Krueger, 1993). There are several intention-based models in the entrepreneurship literature (Bird, 1988; Boyd and Vozikis, 1994; Krueger and Brazeal, 1994), but the most used or adapted are Ajzen’s (1991) theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and Shapero and Sokol’s (1982) entrepreneurial event theory.

1.4.1. The Entrepreneurial Event Model

Fayolle et al. (2006) noticed that intention models have been specifically applied within the context of EE and the Shapero and Sokol (1982) model is one of these examples. The researchers have investigated and identified the role of education and teaching variables in developing the perceptions about the feasibility and desirability of entrepreneurial behaviour (Krueger and Carsrud, 1993).

Shapero and Sokol’s (1982) model of the entrepreneurial event (Fig. 1) is aimed at designing a model that will support the formation of an entrepreneurial event. The model assumes that most people are bound to a given life path by inertia, but that major life changes otherwise called triggers or displacements (e.g., attending an EE programme loss of a job, etc.) alter the binding inertia (Shapero and Sokol, 1982). Shapero and Sokol (1982) classed these life changes and/or displacements into three categories: (1) negative displacements, including things like getting divorced, being fired from work, being forcefully emigrated, etc.; (2) involves situations like graduating from university or college, being released from jail, or finishing formal military training; and (3) positive pulls, referring to influences from one’s mentor, partner, customer, investors, etc.

Further, Shapero and Sokol postulate that people’s answers to the external events and/or displacements described above will depend on their perceptions about the available alternatives and their propensity to act (Liñán, 2004; Pellegrini et al., 2021). One component in the perception is the perceived feasibility

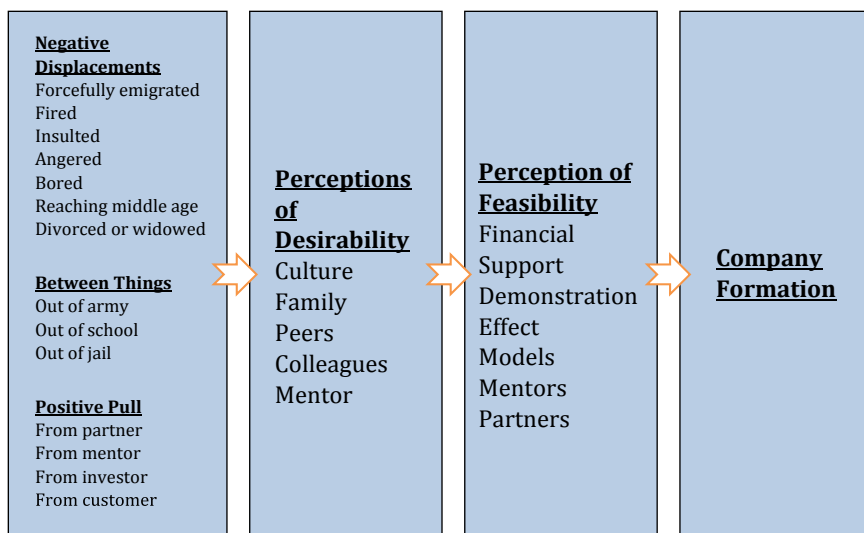


Fig. 1. Shapero and Sokol’s Entrepreneurial Event Model. Source: Shapero and Sokol (1982, p. 83).

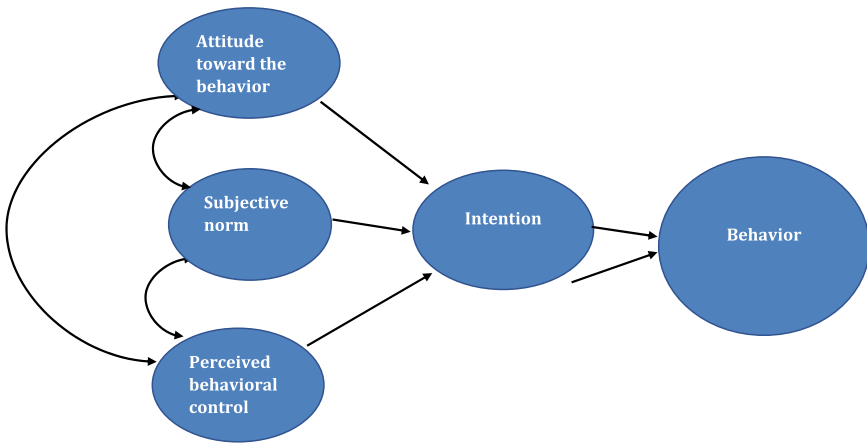


Fig. 2. Theory of Planned Behaviour. *Source:* Ajzen (1991).

which refers to the level of competencies that an individual is perceived to have to start a business. It is the confidence that a person has in his or her abilities and skills to execute a task (Fayolle et al., 2006). Several authors (Krueger et al., 2000; Segal et al.; 2002; Peterman and Kennedy, 2003) believe that self-efficacy is the core anchor of an individual feasibility perception and intention to start a business. Specifically, entrepreneurial self-efficacy has been described as the confidence that an individual has in his/her ability to start a business successfully (Zhao et al., 2005).

The other basic kind of perception is perceived desirability (Liñán, 2004). Perceived desirability, on the other hand, can be defined as the level to which an individual finds the idea of starting a business attractive. In other words, it shows one's affection towards self-employment through entrepreneurship (Krueger, 1993), and according to this perspective, the component 'attitude toward behaviours' embedded in Ajzen's (1991) model encompasses the notion of perceived desirability.

Finally, the propensity to act refers to an individual's predisposition to act on an idea, decision, and/or business venture (Shapero and Sokol, 1982). Shane et al. (2003) have defined it as an individual's willingness to take a risk and/or to take action amid uncertainty.

#### ***1.4.2. The Theory of Planned Behaviour***

Ajzen's TPB is a widespread framework used for predicting a range of individual behaviours – from electoral choices to the intent to stop smoking, to name a few (Martin et al., 2013) – and its recent application in the field of entrepreneurship (Fayolle et al., 2006). With this, in essence, EE programmes impact participants by changing their attitudes and consequently their intentions towards entrepreneurship. TPB model (Fig. 2) is rooted in the theory of reasoned action (TRA) put forward by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975).

TPB assumes that the social behaviours of humans are planned, reasoned, or controlled activities; it takes into account the likely consequences of each considered behaviour (Ajzen and Klobas, 2013). The model further assumes that the behaviour of an individual is influenced by the individual's intention and the formation of such intentions depends on the individual's attitude towards a behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (Fayolle et al., 2006; Ajzen, 1991). The attitude towards the behaviour represents the degree to which an individual has an unfavourable or favourable appraisal of his/her behaviour in question (Ajzen, 1991). In evaluating and/or appraising one's behaviour when an issue arises, people often draw on their beliefs and because beliefs themselves carry evaluative implications, attitudes are formed automatically (Fayolle et al., 2006).

Subjective norms are the perceived social pressures to perform the behaviour or not (Ajzen, 1991). In other words, it is the perception of what other people think about the proposed behaviour to be performed. Put simply, the subjective norms of an individual largely depend on his or her perception about the thoughts of people he or she values (e.g., family members, friends, colleagues, and/or any immediate supervisor, etc.), who consequently directly impact their performed behaviour (Vermeulen et al., 2011). The subject's perceptions are hugely influenced by his or her normative beliefs (Ajzen, 1991).

Perceived behavioural control, on the other hand, refers to the perceived difficulty or ease of exhibiting behaviour. It is the perceived belief of an individual's control over their behaviour. This concept is very similar to the concept of perceived self-efficacy proposed by Bandura (1977). The concept of perceived self-efficacy refers to individuals' beliefs about their abilities to effectively exercise control over their activities and other events that influence their lives (Bandura, 1977).

In the context of entrepreneurship, TPB affirms that entrepreneurial intention is highly dependent on an individual's attitude towards the desirability of an entrepreneurial career; subjective norms, including perceived expectations and beliefs to perform the behaviour, and perceived behavioural control or the perceived ability to execute the intended behaviour of entering entrepreneurship (Kume et al., 2013).

The application of TPB to the field of entrepreneurship was first done by Krueger and Casrud (1993). They tried to make Ajzen's (1991) theory compatible with other theories, especially that proposed by Shapero and Sokol (1982). Krueger and Dickson (1994), among other researchers, have proven that an increase in an individual's behavioural control directly increases the perception of opportunity (Fayolle et al., 2006).

However, some authors (Boyd and Vozikis, 1994; Davidson, 1995; Kolvereid, 1996) believe that other factors predict and/or determine individuals' intentions. For instance, Kolvereid (1996) argues that the mastery of social influences and vicarious experience are two of the major factors that affect an individual's intention or decision to start a business. Boyd and Vozikis (1994) averred that the presence of an entrepreneurial model and influence from close relatives increases the intention of an individual towards entrepreneurial activities. Tkachev and