

Entrepreneurship Education on Wholesale? Considerations on Didactics and Pedagogy for Enhanced Graduate Employment in Ghana

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Abstract

The premise of this paper is that entrepreneurship is a vital mechanism for economic development. The question of who should receive entrepreneurship education should, hence, be answered from the perspective of the fundamental development challenge that such education is expected to address. One of such challenges facing Ghana is graduate unemployment. The national economy is increasingly being tainted with jobless growth and graduate unemployment. The paper conceptually explores some of the causes of graduate unemployment in Ghana and presents entrepreneurship education as an important means of dealing with this development challenge. Consequently, it is recommended that Ghana's education policy makers should intensify the re-alignment of institutional aspirations and mechanisms in the education sector with those of the national economy, particularly, issues pertaining to job creation and graduate employment.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, economic growth, graduate unemployment, entrepreneurship education.

1. Introduction

The present understanding of entrepreneurship is that it transcends business creation. This is so because entrepreneurship dwells on basic concepts and precepts such as vision, change, opportunity seeking, creativity, innovation, risk taking and ability to manage activities in order to achieve specified objectives. These principles form an integral part of human activities in the home, at the work place and in other places of human socialisation, although the extent and intensity of applicability may be higher in one setting than the other. Likewise, from the perspective of new venture creation, entrepreneurship has evolved to the extent of embracing socially-oriented activities in addition to the conventional commercial orientation. For example, from a commercial viewpoint, entrepreneurship may involve implementing identified business ideas through the formation of a new business or entering a new market (by an already existing firm). From a social perspective, entrepreneurship may underpin the formation of a not-for-profit organisation to serve the needs of a particular group of persons.

The last few decades have seen a rapid emergence and diffusion of entrepreneurship policy across the globe, particularly in the developed world. This is a result of the importance of entrepreneurship to economic growth, employment and the overall well-being of an economy (Audretsch, 2007). Theoretically, the function of entrepreneurial activity is to create economic growth and this is translated into a normative statement that entrepreneurs should grow their firms. Both Schumpeter's innovation theory and the Austrian approach to economics focus on the entrepreneur as the function of innovation creating economic growth (see Blenker, Korsgaard, Neergaard & Thrane, 2011). Thus, economies are self-transforming systems and entrepreneurs are the agents of transformation (see Autio & Levie, 2008).

Moreover, standing on the shoulders of earlier theorists and considering the unique circumstances of the present times (such as globalisation), Zoltan, Audretsch, Pontus, Braunerhjelm and Carlsson (2005) establish the link between entrepreneurship and economic growth through the knowledge spillover theory of entrepreneurship. 'The knowledge spillover theory of entrepreneurship suggests that, ceteris paribus, entrepreneurial activity will tend to be greater in contexts where investments in new knowledge are relatively high, since the new firm will be started from knowledge that has spilled over from the source actually producing that new knowledge' (Acs, Audretsch, Pontus, Braunerhjelm & Carlsson, 2005, p. 13). Examples of such knowledge investments are general research and development, university research and education (including entrepreneurship education) (Audretsch, 2007).

'Thus, as knowledge has become more important as a factor of production, knowledge spillovers have also become more important as a source of economic growth. Entrepreneurship capital...serves as a key mechanism by which knowledge created...becomes commercialized in a new enterprise, thereby contributing to the economic growth, employment, and vitality of the overall economy' (Audretsch, 2007, p. 76).

Audretsch (2007) defines entrepreneurship capital as a concept that involves a number of aspects such as social acceptance and valuation of entrepreneurial behaviour, along with attitudes towards risk and failure, reflecting a broad spectrum of different legal, institutional, and social factors. These factors, put together, constitute the

entrepreneurship capital of an economy and shape the capacity for entrepreneurial activity. Entrepreneurship education provides the necessary medium for developing the human aspect of the entrepreneurship capital of a nation. It may involve developing personal attributes and skills that form the basis of an entrepreneurial mindset and behaviour; raising the awareness of students about self-employment and other entrepreneurship-related professions as possible career options; working on specific enterprise projects and activities; and providing particular business skills and knowledge of how to start a firm and run it successfully (European Commission, 2008).

Generally, there are three main sources of demand for entrepreneurship education. These are the government, students and business ventures of all sizes, although demand by micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs) appears to be dominant. Governmental demand may arise from the need for economic growth, job creation, and renewal of the economy, technological and political change and innovation (Fayolle, 2006). In addition, students are increasingly recognising the need to possess entrepreneurial competencies to enhance their employability and/or prepare them for self-employment while executives of firms of all sizes 'seem to favour, nowadays, other managerial skills and behaviours than those which prevailed in previous years' (Fayolle, 2006, p.6). Consequently, there is an upsurge in demand for entrepreneurship education across the globe. This is manifested in various ways including rising supply of entrepreneurship education and increasing political will towards the promotion of entrepreneurship education (see Kyrö, 2006; Boissin, Castagnos & Deschamps, 2006). These developments notwithstanding, in Ghana, there appears to be a huge entrepreneurship education supply gap which manifests itself in various forms such as poor/underdeveloped entrepreneurial mindsets and competencies of most graduates (ERNWACA, 2008; Omoniyi & Osakinle, 2011) and rising graduate unemployment (Business Guide 2011; Owusu-Ansah & Poku, 2012). The current situation poses serious social and economic ramifications for the country. For example, graduate unemployment has been found to contribute significantly to poor mental health of the unemployed (Omoniyi & Osakinle, 2011), political uprisings and upheavals as in the case of the "Arab Spring" (Broecke, 2012), high national dependency ratio, and increase in social vices such as armed robbery and associated threatened social security.

A major contributory factor to the observed supply gap is the lack of consensus, among key stakeholders, on the recipients of entrepreneurship education. It appears that stakeholders of tertiary education in Ghana, have been grappling over whether entrepreneurship education should be for all tertiary students (as in the case of undergraduate students in the University of Ghana) or for a defined set of students (example, business students in the University of Cape Coast). It is believed that this impasse has contributed immensely to the relatively underdeveloped state of entrepreneurship education in Ghana and hence, to graduate unemployment in the country.

This paper calls for an end to the debate through a general discourse on graduate unemployment in Ghana and key essential didactics and pedagogy considerations for entrepreneurship education in higher education institutions (HEIs) in the country. Entrepreneurship education teachers and other resource constraints notwithstanding, it is imperative for stakeholders to reach a consensus on entrepreneurship education supply issues and gradually work towards the attainment of set targets. Some basic recommendations, mainly, with respect to didactics, are provided for the attention of policy makers.

2. Overview of the Entrepreneurship Education Debate in Higher Education

The positive impact of entrepreneurship courses and programmes in higher education, on the employability of graduates, and on society and the economy (specifically employment, innovation and welfare effects) has well been established and acknowledged across the globe (e.g. Hartshorn & Hannon, 2005; Postigo, Iacobucci & Tamborini, 2006; Boissin, Castagnos & Deschamps, 2006; Owusu-Ansah & Poku, 2012). Through such education, persons are better prepared to unleash their entrepreneurial potentials. For example, the Kauffman research series, on the impact of entrepreneurship education, report that entrepreneurship education produces self-sufficient enterprising individuals, successful business and industry leaders, enhances a graduate's ability to create wealth and produces champions of innovation (Charney & Libecap, 2000). Consequently, in several advanced countries, entrepreneurship education is offered right from the primary school level through secondary school to the tertiary level of education (see Gasse & Tremblay, 2006; Blenker, Korsgaard, Neergaard & Thrane, 2011). In Nigeria for instance, entrepreneurship is a mandatory course for students of HEIs (Omoniyi & Osakinle, 2011).

In Ghana, however, these facts cannot be strongly posited. Entrepreneurship education seems to be pursued, largely, in higher education institutions (HEIs) with a number of polytechnics, professional institutes and universities offering one or few entrepreneurship courses and/or programmes. Consequently, much of the ongoing debate on entrepreneurship education, in the country, centres on its place in the organisational set-up (that is, which department or faculty should house entrepreneurship education) and its recipients. The latter is the subject of interest of this paper.

The prime focus of debate has been whether entrepreneurship education should be delivered to all students of a

particular HEI or to a select group(s) of students who curriculum designers believe should receive such education. For instance, the European Commission (2012) strongly proposes that entrepreneurship education should become obligatory and should be extended to all disciplines since through that, the entrepreneurial competencies and intentions, and employability of students are enhanced for better impact on society and the economy.

In such an instance, the practice has been introduction of a mandatory one or more credit hours entrepreneurship course which students must take at a particular level of their study before graduation. The primary objective of such a course is, usually, to enhance the entrepreneurial behaviour of the students and/or develop students' mindsets into considering entrepreneurial careers – mostly self-employment. Examples are the three credit hours mandatory entrepreneurship course for fourth year business students of the University of Cape Coast and mandatory entrepreneurship course for all first-year undergraduate students of the University of Ghana.

On the other hand, offering entrepreneurship education to a select group of students may have two separate or interrelated outcomes. First, entrepreneurship education may aim at enhancing entrepreneurial behaviour of students as in the former and equip students with competencies for successful implementation of projects/businesses. Second, entrepreneurship education may be designed for the purpose of enhancing the competencies of students for MSME and entrepreneurship promotion-driven careers. These two outcomes are often merged with a programme designed for graduate studies. An example is the MBA in Entrepreneurship and Small Enterprise Development offered at the University of Cape Coast Business School.

The key source of disagreement that often generates debate is the concept of “entrepreneurship education for all”, as in the case of the University of Ghana. Strong proponents of “entrepreneurship education as the preserve of select few” argue that entrepreneurship education cannot be a wholesale commodity given its legitimacy as a discipline with programmes of study, its relevance to economic development and the need to commit adequate resources to its design and delivery. As a means to contributing towards an end to the debate, this paper strongly proposes that the question of who should receive entrepreneurship education should be answered from the perspective of the fundamental development challenge that entrepreneurship education is expected to address. One of such challenges facing Ghana is graduate unemployment.

3. Graduate Unemployment in Ghana – Issues and Concerns

Unemployment has been a major development challenge of Ghana. Although it is difficult to come by up-to-date empirical facts (see Owusu-Ansah & Poku, 2012), the national unemployment rate is believed to have been declining over the years whereas graduate unemployment has been on the rise. For example, while national unemployment rate reduced from 11 percent (2000 estimate) in the early 2000s to 5.8 percent (2006 estimate) in the late 2000s (see Otoo, Osei-Boateng & Asafo-Adjaye, 2009), graduate unemployment rate stood at 14.7 percent in 1987 (see Boateng & Ofori-Sarpong, 2002) and is currently believed to be over 40 percent (see Business Guide, 2011; Mensah, 2012).

Official unemployment figures have been criticised as being under-estimated. For example, Boateng and Ofori-Sarpong (2002) indicate that low estimates of graduate unemployment rates in the country is the result of approach used to identify the unemployed, which is, “those actively seeking work but without work”. They make this observation for the fact that in view of general poverty and absence of unemployment benefits, open unemployment should be expected to be low in Ghana. Upon this backdrop, it is believed that about 50 percent of graduates of HEIs will not secure jobs for two years after national service, and 20 percent thereof will not find jobs for the next three years (see Owusu-Ansah & Poku, 2012).

A number of factors are believed to account for the soaring graduate unemployment in Ghana. These include irrelevance of graduate training to labour market demands, inadequate practical training, increasing number of graduates in the face of dwindling public and private sector employment opportunities, societal and graduates' discrimination among jobs, insufficient state and private support for graduate self-employment and inadequate counseling on job prospects (ERNWACA, 2008). Among these, three key factors are often cited. These are limited offers on the job market, unemployability of most graduates (industry reservations about quality of graduates) and inability of most graduates to venture into self-employment.

The problem of limited offers on the job market is traced to lack of expansion of the economy in terms of job creation. This has resulted in the adoption of the popular phrase: “Ghana's jobless growth” as well as several efforts by the government to resolve the issue of unemployment, particularly youth unemployment. For instance, the theme of the 2011 Budget Statement and Economic Policy of Ghana was “Stimulating Growth for Development and Job Creation”.

Unemployability of graduates is associated with the issue of productivity. An analytical study of the labour market for tertiary graduates in Ghana, commissioned in 2002 by the World Bank, the National Council for Tertiary Education, Ghana, and the Ghana National Accreditation Board, revealed low productivity of graduates as a major reason for graduate unemployment in the country (Boateng & Ofori-Sarpong, 2002). This situation is

believed not to have changed over the years. It is often claimed that most graduates are not well-equipped with very essential non-academic qualities that today's vibrant businesses require. Some of these attributes are initiative, creativity, innovation, commitment, responsibility and trustworthiness (ERNWACA, 2008; Omoniyi & Osakinle, 2011). Entrepreneurship education has been found to be an effective means of equipping persons with these and other equally relevant attributes and competencies (Blenker, Dreisler, Færgeman & Kjeldsen, 2006; Owusu-Ansah & Poku, 2012).

Inability of Ghana's HEIs to produce enough graduates who are willing to pursue self-employment can be linked to the fact that the notion of paid employment permeates every aspect of the Ghanaian society and appears to be prevalent among graduates. Although the condition is gradually changing, wage employment (more so in the public sector overlooking the fact that the public sector currently employs less than a third of the total workforce) is highly preferred to self-employment (see Boateng & Ofori-Sarpong, 2002; Otoo, Osei-Boateng & Asafo-Adjaye, 2009), which is, usually, regarded as the preserve of the "unsuccessful in society". Ironically, it is estimated that 55 percent of Ghana's workforce is self-employed. However, self-employment is found to be more dominant in rural areas (Otoo, Osei-Boateng & Asafo-Adjaye, 2009) which are not preferred destinations of most graduates. Moreover, students are not well-equipped with the necessary knowledge, attitudes, skills and experiences that are pertinent to new venture creation and/or self-employment (Owusu-Ansah & Poku, 2012).

The gravity of graduate unemployment manifests itself in various forms. An example is the formation of the Unemployed Graduates Association of Ghana (UGAG) to agitate for better policies towards graduate employment. Besides, there have been persistent calls by officials of institutions such as the Institute of Economic Affairs (IEA), the Integrated Social and Development Centre (ISODEC) and the Institute for Statistical, Social and Economic Research (ISSER) for immediate action on the rising graduate unemployment in the country. In addition, several government interventions have been put in place to address the problem of youth unemployment in Ghana. Some of the interventions are the Local Enterprises and Skills Development Programme (LESDEP) and the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP).

It must be acknowledged that these interventions are good and should be continued. However, the scope of applicability and relevance are, largely, limited to the unemployed youth, of course, including graduates. Furthermore, these interventions do not help in preventing or reducing the occurrence of graduate unemployment but rather focus on solving the problem after it has occurred. As a result, interventions that aim at reducing the occurrence of graduate unemployment should be vigorously pursued. One of such interventions is entrepreneurship education.

Entrepreneurship concerns an individual's ability to turn ideas into action (European Commission, 2012). It is relevant in each individual's personal, social and work life. It is a way of life (Hannon, 2006). Therefore, persons ought to be equipped with entrepreneurial competencies in order to fully live this way of life. Entrepreneurship education is one key medium through which this can be attained. It is the medium through which persons become more aware of the context of their environment (e.g. work, social, etc.) and better able to seize opportunities. It also provides a foundation for persons to establish a social or commercial activity (European Commission, 2012) by which an economy is creatively and consistently revived towards growth and development as postulated by the knowledge spillover theory of entrepreneurship (Acs, Audretsch, Pontus, Braunerhjelm & Carlsson, 2005)

4. Didactics and Pedagogy for Enhanced Graduate Employment in Ghana

It is essential to differentiate between didactics and pedagogy when the continental approach to education is adopted instead of the Anglo-American approach to education (see Kyrö, 2006). Didactics relate to the objectives, target group and content of a particular course or programme of study whereas pedagogy refers to the accompanying delivery method(s) and tools (see Kyrö, 2006; Blenker, Dreisler, Færgeman & Kjeldsen, 2006). Design of curriculum for entrepreneurship courses and programmes should therefore address essential didactic questions of the need for entrepreneurship education (*why*); *who* should receive entrepreneurship education; *what* should be the content of entrepreneurship courses and programmes of study, for *how long* should a course or programme of study be delivered, *how* a course or programme of study should be taught and in what kind of teaching and learning context/environment should content be delivered. Although the prime focus of this paper is to shed light on possible recipients of entrepreneurship education in Ghana's HEIs, attempts are made to offer some suggestions on content and how it should be delivered.

Entrepreneurship education aims at making students entrepreneurial. An entrepreneurial person possesses three key entrepreneurial competencies. These are entrepreneurial knowledge, skills and attitudes (European Commission, 2012). These competencies manifest themselves in the individual person in the form of proactivity, innovation, change and action essential for personal, social and work life. The three entrepreneurial competencies must therefore be embedded in every entrepreneurship course or programme of study. However, the extent to which each competence is projected in a course or programme depends on the fundamental

development challenge(s) that entrepreneurship education is expected to address.

From the preceding discussion on graduate unemployment in Ghana, policy makers, implementers and other key stakeholders may consider four key outcomes (or benefits, see Fayolle, 2006) in the promotion of entrepreneurship education in Ghana, particularly, in the design of entrepreneurship curriculum for higher education. The first outcome is to prepare all tertiary students to meet the demands of the job market and prepare their mindsets towards considering self-employment.

Besides, stakeholders may pursue education of students for new venture creation as a second outcome of entrepreneurship education. The second outcome stems from the need to revive the Ghanaian economy towards job creation and growth. The third outcome is to equip managers of MSMEs and projects with the requisite knowledge, skills and attitudes for successful management /implementation of their businesses and/or projects. The fourth outcome is to build the competencies of persons for the development of MSMEs.

The first two outcomes are closely aligned with Fayolle's (2006) first and second benefits of entrepreneurship education which are contribution to personal development and development of countries' entrepreneurial culture (mindsets) respectively (see also Kyrö, 2006); whereas the last two outcomes relate to his third benefit of entrepreneurship education which is increasing the chances of new venture survival and success.

On the basis of these four outcomes, policy makers could approach the promotion of entrepreneurship education in Ghana's HEIs from two main perspectives. These are "entrepreneurship education for all", which addresses didactics and pedagogy issues in relation to outcomes one; and "entrepreneurship as a programme of study", which targets outcomes two, three and four.

4.1 Entrepreneurship Education for All versus Entrepreneurship as a Programme of Study

Entrepreneurship is a wellspring of economic growth, social renewal and personal development (Hindle, 2007). Education towards the realisation of these results should, therefore, be welcome. Currently, employers are looking for persons with entrepreneurial mindset and competencies. Examples of such competencies are creativity (which calls for imagination and critical thinking), innovation, ability to work under uncertain, unstructured and ambiguous conditions, trustworthiness, confidence, autonomy, independence in judgment, time management, social networking, discipline and hard work.

Studies have shown that these competencies are not well-developed in most graduates from Ghana's HEIs, reducing their chances of getting employment in the highly competitive and dwindling job market (e.g. Boateng & Ofori-Sarpong, 2002; ERNWACA, 2008; Otoo, Osei-Boateng & Asafo-Adjaye, 2009.). Entrepreneurship education is a vital means for equipping persons with the required competencies. Therefore, as a means to enhancing the employability of graduates, entrepreneurship education could be for all students of higher education (see Blenker, Korsgaard, Neergaard & Thrane, 2011; Omoniyi & Osakinle, 2011). This is in alignment with outcome one as discussed in the previous sub-section.

This proposition does not defeat the need for specialisation as rightly put by Whitehead: 'I am certain that in education wherever you exclude specialism you destroy life' (1927 [1967], p. 10, as cited in Hindle, 2007, p. 141). In addition to various justifications given so far on the basis of equipping students with competencies that will enhance their employability, any further doubts should be shelved with the kind of justification that is given to general (core) courses in subject disciplines such as Mathematics and English; surely, such general courses have not defeated, over the centuries, the need for specialisation (or majors) in these subject disciplines.

Regarding the necessity of specialisation, reference is made to preceding discussions on the second, third and fourth outcomes of entrepreneurship education. These are to educate students to create or start new ventures; to equip business managers (especially managers of MSMEs) and project managers with the requisite knowledge and skills for successful management and/or implementation of their businesses or projects; and to build competencies of persons for the development of MSMEs and thus, increase the chances of new venture survival and success. These expected outcomes warrant the development of separate programmes of study.

The last three proposed outcomes are quite different from expected outcomes of existing programmes such as the MBA in Entrepreneurship and Small Enterprise Development offered by the University of Cape Coast Business School. For instance, this MBA tries to achieve these outcomes. However, experience has shown that designing separate courses (in the case of new venture creation) and programmes (to address the other two expected outcomes) ensures effective teaching and learning within the limited time frame (one to two years) of study. Moreover, persons who genuinely want to study for new venture creation, MSME and project management and MSME promotion and development have different aspirations, motivations and needs, and their work require in-depth and unique knowledge, skills, experience and attitudes (including experience) that warrant separate programmes of study.

Therefore, curriculum designers will have to work at an appropriate blend of entrepreneurship and (small) business management courses considering the critical nature of competencies from both disciplines for successful execution of tasks by the target groups. This may call for knowledge in management as a pre-requisite or inculcation of management and entrepreneurship courses into one programme since not all persons

within the target group may have entrepreneurial and/or managerial backgrounds.

The need to build competencies of persons for the development of MSMEs is of utmost importance due to the strategic role that MSMEs play in Ghana's economy. In Ghana, it is estimated that MSMEs constitute about 92 percent of businesses and contribute about 70 percent to GDP (Abor & Quartey, 2010). However, these enterprises have very low survival rate and existing ones are less successful in terms of growth and development due to a number of reasons including limited access to business and technological support services (Mensah, 2012). It is therefore essential to boost the personnel capacity of MSME development/promotion institutions such as the National Board for Small Scale Industries (NBSSI), Business Advisory Centres (BACs), business incubators, and affiliated NGOs. A programme of study geared towards the development of MSMEs is, therefore, appropriate. Such a programme needs to be extensive and must educate students about entrepreneurship, for entrepreneurship and for sustaining entrepreneurship for a person cannot prescribe a solution when he/she does not understand the nature of the activity that is under diagnosis. An example is the MBA in Entrepreneurship and Small and Medium-sized Enterprise Development offered by the University of Leipzig, Germany.

Indeed entrepreneurship education can be for all without sacrificing the need for specialisation in the field. All undergraduate students of HEIs could receive entrepreneurship education in the form of one or more entrepreneurship courses with the purpose of enhancing their employability and developing their mindsets into considering self-employment. This is what Blenker, Korsgaard, Neergaard and Thrane (2011) propose as a fourth paradigm to entrepreneurship education; that is, "facilitating an entrepreneurial mindset in everyday practice". The authors propose this paradigm as the "foundation for all other entrepreneurship education because it establishes the core entrepreneurial competence" (Blenker, Korsgaard, Neergaard & Thrane, 2011).

Moreover, optional courses could be designed for students (irrespective of level) who are motivated to start a new venture. This is imperative because experience shows that without the right basis, persons can be demotivated by the demanding nature of education for new venture creation. Moreover, the last two outcomes, geared towards managers of MSMEs and projects, and MSME promotion and development practitioners, are recommended for postgraduate studies. This is due to the relatively higher investment that should go into their design and delivery as well as the need for students to have extensive prior/concurrent knowledge in business management and other related fields. This shall also allow for smaller class size which is an imperative for achieving effective teaching and learning.

4.2 Content and Delivery

Admittedly, HEIs in Ghana have in place courses aimed at equipping students with some entrepreneurship-related competencies. Examples are courses in communicative skills and leadership skills. However, the design and delivery of these conventional courses appear to focus highly on content with less emphasis on role-oriented practice and lesser development of right-brained thinking skills necessary for creativity and innovation (see Kirby, 2006). More so, 'traditional forms of teaching at universities and business schools have shown themselves quite inappropriate with respect to enhancement of motivation and competencies among students towards innovation and entrepreneurship' (Blenker, Dreisler, Færgeman & Kjeldsen, 2006). A similar course, carved within the subject discipline of entrepreneurship, distinguishes itself from these courses on several grounds. For instance, such a course is expected to offer students the opportunity to develop holistic entrepreneurial behaviour and focuses more on augmenting knowledge acquisition with skill-building, attitudinal change and experiential learning.

Consequently, entrepreneurship courses and programmes could variedly include the following as content as informed by the course/programme objectives: (a) creative thinking, innovation, opportunity seeking, awareness of entrepreneur career options, characteristics that define entrepreneurial personality, negotiation, leadership, time management, exposure to technological innovation, and the essence of intrapreneurship, network building etc. (b) the entrepreneurial process with emphasis on elements such as new venture creation, new product development, sources of venture capital and how to access such sources, idea protection, challenges associated with each stage of venture development, network building, etc. (c) 'small' business management, MSME development (and tools) and challenges, project management, proposal writing and grant acquisition, network building etc.

The essence of categorising content matter into three is to direct attention to courses that should be given prime attention for the purpose of enhancing the employability of students and their entrepreneurial mindsets (courses under category 'a') and those that should be stressed, for the purpose of equipping potential entrepreneurs with basic competencies towards new venture creation/self-employment (categories 'a' and 'b'), and for business/project management and MSME development (categories 'a', 'b' and 'c'). The categories are not mutually exclusive; courses could be picked from all categories so long as they meet specified course/programme objective(s).

Network building appears in all categories because an effective entrepreneurship course or programme must show students how to entrepreneurially behave and should also introduce them to people who might be able to

facilitate their success hence the need for entrepreneurial know-how/know who (see Kuratko, 2007). This is buttressed by Hindle (2007) in his “wheel template for building an entrepreneurship curriculum”. Per the wheel, ‘...a university entrepreneurship program should begin by recognizing the importance of constant relationship with the real arena of business: the outside world. Networks, allies, mentors and alumni are all essential to ensure that there is no possibility of ever letting the program develop any vestige of an ‘ivory-tower’ mentality’ (Hindle, 2007, p. 150-151).

The next critical issue for curriculum developers is to decide on the appropriate pedagogy for the didactics raised above. There is no universally accepted delivery method(s) and tools for entrepreneurship education. Best practices around the globe point to the fact that delivery methods should be informed by didactics and context, and vice versa. For instance skill-building courses, such as negotiation and presentation, typically relate to contextual issues (providing conducive learning environment) of smaller class size and classroom/learning setting that is different from the conventional setting. Equally important is the availability of ‘qualified’ entrepreneurship educators.

The following delivery methods have been stressed in literature for (a) effective knowledge and expertise transfer and acquisition: structured and unstructured delivery methods such as lectures, expert scripts, case studies, guest speakers, feasibility studies and business plan preparations, etc.; (b) skill and attitudinal building: business plan preparation, interviews with entrepreneurs, environmental scans, field trips, use of video and films, consultation with practicing entrepreneurs, student business start-ups, temporary apprenticeship or internship, behavioural simulations, and “live” cases, etc. (see Solomon, Weaver & Fernald, Jr., 2007; Mitchell & Chesteen, 1995; Bird, 2007; Honig, 2004; Kuratko, 2007; Hindle, 2007; Fiet, 2007).

The recommended teaching and learning approaches are imperative for effectively inculcating entrepreneurial competencies that manifest themselves in the form of vision, change, creativity, opportunity seeking, innovation, risk taking and the like. Therefore delivery methods, whatever the type, must emphasise experiential learning (especially learning by doing), individual activities aimed at self-directed learning (including working in small groups), unstructured activities, and creative problem solving under unstructured and uncertain conditions (see Solomon, Weaver & Fernald, Jr., 2007; Bird, 2007; Kuratko, 2007; Hartshorn & Hannon, 2005). More so, entrepreneurship should be taught experientially, creatively, joyously, respectfully, adaptively and entrepreneurially (Hindle, 2007).

5.0 Conclusion

This paper approaches the discourse on the ‘legitimate’ recipients of entrepreneurship education in Ghana, from the viewpoint of the fundamental development challenge that such education is expected to address. In the end, it is evident that entrepreneurship education can indeed be for all without necessarily sacrificing the need for specialisation in the field. Entrepreneurship education is essentially critical in the Ghanaian society where students are highly socialised into a “wage-earner” mindset in the face of rising graduate unemployment and dwindling job offers.

Accordingly, entrepreneurship education can be for all when it is aimed at equipping students of HEIs with entrepreneurial behaviour to make them more marketable on the job market and to make self-employment an attractive alternative. At the same time, it can be designed with specialisations for the purpose of extensively preparing persons for self-employment (and for job creation), equipping the self-employed with entrepreneurial competencies for the growth and development (job creation inclusive) of their ventures and/or for developing MSME development practitioners and even entrepreneurship educators.

Several recommendations have been presented in the preceding sections, acknowledging fundamental challenges, such as inadequate qualified entrepreneurship educators and dwindling state resources for tertiary education. Policy makers are urged to work towards the implementation of the most feasible option(s) now while measures are put in place for effective and efficient implementation of other options. This paper does not make a strong case for contextual issues (though equally important). Future discussions may extensively look at didactics, pedagogy and context for entrepreneurship education in Ghana’ HEIs. Similar studies and discussions on first and second cycle institutions will be very insightful.

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