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Is Entrepreneurship Education a Solution to Graduates Unemployment: Example from Tanzania's Private University

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Abstract

The performance of Tanzanian economy amidst the abundance of natural resources, strategic location and political stability of late has attracted more investors into the country. Unlike, the socialist era as pronounced by the 1967 Arusha Declaration whereby private business entrepreneurship was actively discouraged in favor of government, community-based or co-operative owned ventures. During the socialist era, regulations were introduced to bar civil servants, university students and leaders of ruling party from engaging in business activities. Since all educated Africans were civil servants, this meant that, business activities were left to Asians and those indigenous people who had no job opportunities in the civil service. Worse still, even in public sector Tanzania's industries were managed by semi-literate entrepreneurs as a result by mid-1990's almost all government-owned industries collapsed. This study adopts a case study of Tanzanian private university towards placing the economic development and entrepreneurship skills of self-employment, wealth creation, regional and global competitiveness of Tanzanian university graduates. The major purpose of this study is to investigate the linkage between theory and practice with respect to teaching and research departments/centres in both private and public universities should act as business incubators and entrepreneurship stimulants and how entrepreneurship education at universities inculcating to them entrepreneurship culture. The introduction of entrepreneurship education as a compulsory course and apprenticeship would be tenable strategies to deal with university graduates unemployment and shaping Tanzania's economy. Furthermore, the study recommends thorough curriculum review, sensitization, advocacy and mobilization of support for entrepreneurship education, funding, political will and active participation of the government should be provided for entrepreneurship culture and development to have spiral effects.

Key words: entrepreneurship, private university, curriculum review, self-employment, wealth creation, Tanzania.

1. Introduction

Africa is the youngest continent with children and youth aged below 30 years constituting 70 percent of the continent's entire population (Economic Commission for Africa 2009). By 2050 according to predictions, 29 percent of the total world youth population will reside in Africa.

These young and energetic people of Africa, however, have the potential, ability, creativity, enthusiasm and energy for achieving Africa's development as articulated by continental leadership. Investment in their education particularly entrepreneurship education and for the purpose of this study at university level is critical for the continent and Africa's global repositioning agenda.

Entrepreneurship is a result of both the individual's entrepreneurial zest and a societal context conducive to entrepreneurial activities (Bull and Willard 1993; Jack and Anderson 2002; Shane 2003). Some authors capture this relationship in a *seed-soil* metaphor, implying that the emergence and growth of entrepreneurs (seed) is said to be dependent on the conduciveness of the breeding context (soil) (Martinelli 2004; Tillmar 2006). Current scholarly debates on how entrepreneurship is generated seem to be settling for the idea that entrepreneurial behavior can be developed through educational interventions (Kuratko 2005). However, it is also observed that graduates from such educational interventions cannot succeed unless they are positioned in contexts that are conducive to entrepreneurship (Cuervo 2005; Karimi *et al.* 2010).

1.1 Tanzania's Pre-independence

Africans participation in business was restricted to very small firms, such as *dukawalas* (tiny shops). Except for a few offspring of chiefs, the few Africans who went to colonial schools received only elementary education to enable them to understand clerical and other very low duties in the public and private sector. Therefore, at independence, the indigenous population was just as marginalized in their own country as the economy was in the international market. For example, in 1961, about 34,581 Africans and 7,500 Asians held retail trading licenses, but Asians handled well over two-thirds of the trade volume (Rweyemamu 1971).

Economic and social marginalization of Africans was part of a deliberate colonial policy of disempowering the indigenous population and hence making it easy to rule. Africans were made to believe that they were "naturally" inferior to other races and everything African was backward. Naturally, this environment had a negative effect on development of entrepreneurial values and competencies, including self-esteem, a belief in the ability to make things happen, confidence, initiative, aggressiveness, etc.

However, the social and economic context created in various parts of the country presented different opportunities for the development of entrepreneurship. For example, European missionaries and farmers settled in some mountain areas of the country (Kilimanjaro, Tukuyu, Bukoba and Songea), where they introduced Christianity, education and commercial agriculture. They also encouraged the local population to cultivate commercial crops and to establish cooperatives. This development not only inspired the local population and exposed to new desires and opportunities, but it also led to land shortages which forced them to think and act in non-traditional ways in pursuing of livelihoods and “success.” Logically, the meaning of “success” to an offspring of a peasant farmer laboring every year for family subsistence will be vastly different from another who has experienced commercial farming, is aware of the possibilities and benefits of formal education and at the same time is aware that he will not have enough land even for his family’s subsistence as he grows up.

1.2 Post-independence and Socialist Era (1967-1985)

Tanganyika’s first five-year development plan (1961-1966) envisaged developing the economy by attracting foreign direct investment (FDI). Towards the end of the five-year period, it was apparent that the expected FDI was not flowing in as expected. There was also a concern that not much had been achieved by way of redressing the legacy of the marginal position of Africans in the economic field left by the colonial government. The leadership started looking for alternative development strategies. In 1967, the government officially adopted a radical transformation to a socialist development strategy, through the *Arusha Declaration*. Activities categorized as constituting the “commanding heights” of the economy, including banking, import-export, insurance, large houses, farms, schools, hospitals, etc were also nationalized. The government invested heavily in the nationalized entities as well as new ones.

Consistent with the socialist policy, private business entrepreneurship was actively discouraged in favor of government, community-based or co-operative-owned ventures. Regulations were introduced to bar civil servants and leaders of the ruling party from engaging in business activities. Since all educated Africans were civil servants, this means that, business activities were left to Asians and those indigenous people who had no job opportunities, and these tended to be people who had no substantial education.

Theoretically the socialist policy encouraged peoples' participation in decision making. However, in practice, the government embraced a centralized; mainly top-down decision-making approach. It made a whole range of decisions, from who should go to which school or college, where one had to live, crops to be grown, their prices and where they should be sold, salary levels, etc. a culture of dependency on the state and unquestioning obedience took root in all walks of life. This must have contributed to stifling development of entrepreneurial values such as initiative, willingness to take risks, need for achievement and related competencies.

The break-up of East African Community in 1977 coincided with a combination of other unfortunate events heralding a long economic crisis in Tanzania (Mahiga 1977, Mangachi 2011). The events included the international oil crisis of the early 1970s and a costly war between Tanzania and Uganda in 1978/79. The economic crisis was manifested by a serious shortage of foreign exchange and consumer products, industrial capacity under-utilization, inflation and decline in real purchasing power among wage earners, forcing them to undertake petty business activities to supplement their meager earnings. Similarly, real crop prices dropped compelling peasants and their dependants to diversify income sources by engaging in small ventures within the rural areas or in urban centers.

The response of the citizen to the crisis demonstrated that even the socialist policy had not completely subdued the entrepreneurial agility of the society. Tanzanians from all walks of the life responded to the challenge by establishing makeshift backyard factories, smuggling goods from neighboring countries or hoarding whatever little was available from the local industries and selling the same at exorbitant prices. Others established informal agricultural activities, animal husbandry, retail and other projects to supplement the dwindling formal incomes and take advantage of the failure of state companies to meet the basic needs. However, this "second economy" met strong resistance from the state which only saw its dysfunctional role. The informal private business activities were seen as being in conflict with country's resolve to build an egalitarian society, as it created a class which owned no allegiance to the goals of the society (Maliyamkono and Bagachwa 1990). In 1983, the government implemented a ruthless campaign against "economic saboteurs," confiscating property and arresting business operators of different kinds. As Maliyamkono and Bagachwa (1990) noted, the dysfunctional approach to the second

economy failed to distinguish elements within the second economy which constituted potential assets and those which were socially and economically detrimental to the development of healthy economy. The crackdown on economic players in 1983 delayed the social and political legitimization of entrepreneurial activities in Tanzania.

1.3 Liberalization and Economic restructuring (1986 to date)

The economic crisis that began in the mid-1970s intensified in the early 1980s, forcing the government to liberalize trade and start implementing a radical transformation programme with the urging and support of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) from 1986. The Economic Restructuring Programme involved liberalization of virtually all sectors of the economy and privatizing and nationalizing employment in the public sector. Under the ERP, the government gradually changed its economic policy from reliance on state-run enterprises to promotion of foreign investment and local entrepreneurship. The private sector is now seen as the engine of economic growth and the role of government has been redefined to focus on facilitation rather than direct ownership and operation of enterprises.

The reforms did not fully ease the problem of low salaries. On the contrary, the retrenchments, freezing of employment, privatization of state enterprises and disengagement of the government from some activities led to substantial job losses and limited openings for school and college graduates. Their most pronounced effect has been a substantial net increase in the number of people whose only means of survival is self-employment. Most of those who cannot find jobs as well as salaried workers have, out of necessity, started micro and informal businesses to enable them to eke out a living. Aware of its limitation to help out in the situation, the government started encouraging workers to do so. For example, in 1992, the government deliberately reduced the working week by half a day to give employees more time to engage in income generating projects to supplement their official incomes. This played a significant role in enhancing the legitimacy of entrepreneurship activities.

Since the mid-1990s, entrepreneurship as a career has been acquiring increasing legitimization. The proportion of individuals consciously choosing self employment, even among the highly educated, has been increasing. For example, while a 1991 survey of the informal sector (URT,

1991) did not record any University graduate, a 1995 study (URT 1995) recorded 1582 graduates in the sector. In a 1997 survey of University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) students by the Faculty of Commerce and Management (FCM 1998), 81% of students indicated that they were interested in setting up their own enterprises. Al-Samarrai and Peasgood (1998) “entrepreneurship” was rated second (next only to computer-related courses) among aspects that were very important but not significantly covered in the B.Com programme. In a 2004 survey of final year students, Kushoka (2013) found that the proportion of those running businesses while studying had increased from 7% in 1997 to 16%.

2. Why entrepreneurship education?

Studies have been extensively focused on the field of entrepreneurship education, which has enjoyed exponential growth level internationally (Hill, Cinneide *et al.* 2003; Raichaudhuri 2005). This is evident from the strands of studies which have been conducted on the ability of entrepreneurship to create new jobs and the importance of entrepreneurship education in producing potential entrepreneurs from the educational system (Kourilsky 1995; Kuratko 2005; Venkatachalam and Waqif 2005). For example, Volery and Mueller (2006) highlight the possibility of the role of entrepreneurship education in influencing an individual’s decision to become an entrepreneur. Participation in entrepreneurship education, in this regard, has been associated with the increasing interest towards choosing entrepreneurship as a viable career option (Gorman, Hanlon *et al.* 1997).

To this end, universities and other institutions of higher learning have been given the mandate to play a leading role in inculcating students with the entrepreneurial knowledge and skills that will be useful in their future career endeavors (Nurmi and Paasio 2007). Entrepreneurship education has been recognized as one of the vital determinants that could influence students’ career decisions (Kolvereid and Moen 1997; Peterman and Kennedy 2003). Due to that influence, there is a need to examine how entrepreneurship education could influence university students’ propensity to entrepreneurship. Despite the exponential growing research interest in the area of entrepreneurship education (Wang and Wong 2004; Wong and Lena 2005; Menzies and Tatroff 2006), as far as the researchers are aware, very little research has been specifically investigated

the relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial inclination particularly on Tanzanian university students.

Hence it is the aim of this research to contribute to the current literature by identifying the variables of entrepreneurship education that influence students' inclination towards entrepreneurship specifically in Tanzanian settings. Taking the above statement into account, this paper primarily investigates if entrepreneurship education can be adequately influenced Tanzanian university students' inclination towards entrepreneurship. Particularly, this paper aims and attempts to investigate the relationship between entrepreneurship education and university students' inclination towards entrepreneurship among Tanzanian university students in both public and private universities. The following section briefly discusses each attribute of entrepreneurship education that could have influence university students' inclination towards entrepreneurship.

2.1 The university's role in promoting entrepreneurship

Universities play a functional role in promoting entrepreneurship education to develop regional and society economies (Binks, Starkey *et al.* 2006; Co and Mitchell 2006). Mahlberg (1996) agrees the remarks by stating that schools and universities have a key role to play in promoting entrepreneurship since educational institutions are ideally considered the place in shaping entrepreneurial cultures and aspirations among students while they are studying to survive in today's robust business milieu (Autio, Keeley *et al.* 1997; Landstrom 2005). This could probably because universities are seedbeds of entrepreneurship to teach their students the way to think and behave entrepreneurially (Bygrave 2004). Universities, in this respect, should position themselves as a hub of entrepreneurship by making substantial contributions in nurturing an entrepreneurial environment that combines factors that contribute to the development of entrepreneurship (Gnyawali and Fogel 1994).

As a provider of entrepreneurship training programmes, universities must do all the best it could to create an entrepreneurially supportive environment that could encourage entrepreneurial activity in turn would help to develop an enterprise culture among university students who are tomorrow's entrepreneurs (Roffe 1999). Autio, Keeley, Klofsten, & Ulfstedt (1997) in their

study on entrepreneurial intentions of technology and sciences students across four countries consistently conclude that university teaching environments are the most influential factors that affect students' perceptions towards entrepreneurial career and entrepreneurial convictions. Hence it is important to present a positive image of entrepreneurship as career option to draw students' attentions within the university environment by providing the resources and other facilities available to them. As we have to always remember that even though individuals have the relevant entrepreneurial knowledge and skills, if they do not possess positive image about entrepreneurship, they might eventually not venture into the field (Alberti, Sciascia *et al.* 2004).

Towards this end, universities, by creating an entrepreneurial culture across campus, are expected to influence students' decision to creation businesses with its considerable influential factor on students. This may due to students' preferences towards career are easily influenced by the environmental conditions in which they are interacting with as they are young and always looking for appropriate models (Gnyawali and Fogel 1994; Fayolle and Degeorge 2006).

2.2 The entrepreneurial curriculum and content

Having expose to entrepreneurship seems to be a key factor to develop and foster entrepreneurialism (Charney and Libecap 2003; Hannon 2005). However due to its multidisciplinary in nature, perhaps the pedagogical issue of entrepreneurship is always unfinished discussion (Kent 1990; Fiet 2000a; Cooper, Bottomley *et al.* 2004). It appears to be unfinished debate from little uniformity concerning how, who and what to teach entrepreneurship with regard to its contextual and conceptual understandings despite entrepreneurship education has been increasingly gained the attention from academia (Falkang and Alberti 2000; Raichaudhuri 2005). This happens largely due to the four possible viewpoints held by different people when developing the entrepreneurship programmes: from the educators viewpoints; the student-entrepreneurs; those who design the programmes and the evaluators (Béchar and Toulouse 1998).

Edwards and Muir (2005) also express the same viewpoint that entrepreneurial curriculum develops differently across universities, either as an optional module within business courses or a specific courses on entrepreneurship. Levie (1999) in his study on entrepreneurship education in England found that entrepreneurship teaching and courses are generally classified into two

approaches: courses *for* entrepreneurship and courses *about* entrepreneurship. The decisions on teaching methodologies in entrepreneurship courses are therefore could be influenced by the aim of the educational objective. To produce students who are capable to deal with real entrepreneurial activity or to transform students' entrepreneurial competencies to practical way is closely centered on courses *for* entrepreneurship. While courses *about* entrepreneurship concerned with teaching entrepreneurship as a required subject in the syllabus via traditional methods (Gibb 2002(a)). Thus, the major challenge of entrepreneurship in relation to education is the appropriateness of curriculum and teaching methods in developing students entrepreneurial competencies and skills (Garavan and O'Conneide 1994). With regard to the content of the entrepreneurial courses, Brown (1999) indicates that the entrepreneurship course content should be informal with an emphasis more on hands-on teaching methods. He then outlines the core structure of teaching entrepreneurship courses should draw on:

- Critical thinking
- Reliance on experience – successful courses access students skills and needs
- Thinking about entrepreneurship as a career
- □ Use guest speakers who are experienced entrepreneurs

In response, Vesper (2004) categorizes four kind of knowledge useful for entrepreneurs and hence the entrepreneurship course content should be developed according to these knowledge:

- i) business-general knowledge – it applies to most firms, including the new ventures
- ii) venture-general knowledge – it applies to most start-ups, but not so much to going firms
- iii) opportunity-specific knowledge – it is about the knowledge about the existence of an un-served market and about how the resources need to be ventured in
- iv) venture-specific knowledge – it is about the knowledge on how to produce a particular product or goods

In terms of teaching methods, different researchers propose different approaches in delivering entrepreneurial knowledge and skills to students (Fiet 2000a; Fiet 2000b). Hence, there have been seemed to be lots of approaches to teach entrepreneurship ranging from the conventional approach such as textbooks (Fiet 2002), examinations (McMullan and Cahoon 1979) to unconventional like business plan (Audet 2000), life histories of working entrepreneurs

(McKenzie 2004); guest lecturers (Brown 1999; Klandt and Volkmann 2006) and field study or visiting to business organizations (Cooper, Bottomley *et al.* 2004).

3. Statement of the Problem

Despite the business opportunities available due to abundance of natural resources, strategic investment locations, large number of university graduates output per year still Tanzania faced high rate of unemployment as most of its graduates entirely depend on formal employment especially in public sector and underestimate opportunities that informal sector through entrepreneurship provide, this is partly due to the curricula of the universities and other tertiary institutions, which lay emphasis on training for white-collar jobs. For example, current continental policy thrusts the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) have been sensitizing the youths by emphasizing on poverty eradication, employment generation and wealth-creation as well as public-private partnership. Accordingly, a number of initiatives like the National Youth Development Policy and National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty commonly "*MKUKUTA*", Vocational Educational and Training Authority (VETA) and the establishment of Small Industries and Development Organisation (SIDO) have been introduced. However, the situation remains unchanged. One of the possible causes is that this initiative in Tanzania addresses only the small portion of youth who were rejected "failures" in secondary schools examination hence missed opportunity to join universities. In addressing this, comprehensive study is required to investigate the linkage between theory and practice with respect to teaching and research departments/centers in universities should act as business incubators and entrepreneurship stimulants. Besides, even the educational system that addresses the output end either lays more emphasis on content and knowledge acquisition for its sake or just stresses the inquiry-discovery model of teaching and learning. In developed economies, for example, the education system emphasizes the trail of inquiry-discovery-application in teaching and students to perceive problems (including societal problems) as challenges and opportunities that can be turned into goods and services of commercial value (Welter and Smallbone 2005; Afenyadu 1998).

4. Research Methodology

The study was designed in a manner to investigate the influence of entrepreneurship education offered at their undergraduate studies at Tumaini University second to solicit influence of entrepreneurship education they receive from their respective universities on helping to reduce unemployment. The usage of students exposed to entrepreneurship education as the unit of analysis is consistent with similar numerous studies on entrepreneurial intentions (Kolvereid 1996; Autio *et al.* 1997; Tkachev and Kolvereid 1999; Krueger *et al.* 2000; Fayolle and Gailly 2004; Veciana *et al.* 2005).

With the total population of the undergraduate final year (Tumaini university students) in 2011/2012 academic year, questionnaires were administered to all students of which 310 valid questionnaires were returned. This represents a response rate of 88.1%. The valid data were coded and results were analyzed using an SPSS computer package. The survey questionnaire consisted of 29 questions and 100 variables. Most of the questions in the survey questionnaire were closed questions with checklists and Likert rating scales where the respondents were offered a choice of alternative replies. Questions were designed to be easy and quick to answer by students. The closed questions could be divided into questions of facts and questions of perception. The closed questions were arrived at via a process of pilot test using initially a wider framework of open questions. The layout and sequence of the questions were designed to facilitate ease of response. Significance of test results is reported in the three ways suggested by Coolican (1990), based on the probability level (p): 'significant': $0.05 > p < 0.01$; 'highly significant': $0.01 > p < 0.001$; and 'very highly significant': $0.001 > p$. All probability values reported are based on two-tailed tests as each comparison has two possible directions. In addition two educationalists with Business and entrepreneurship backgrounds were interviewed to gain further insights from the survey findings.

5. Results and Discussions

5.1 The influence of entrepreneurship education on career intentions and aspirations

This section explores the first of objective of the study in relation to the influence of entrepreneurship education on career intentions and aspirations.

Table 1 outlines the students' career intentions before exposure to entrepreneurship programme. Interestingly over 77% (77.4% or n=240) of the respondents initially intended to go into employment compared to 16.1% (n=50) who wanted to further their studies. However, 6.5% (n=20) initially aspired to self-employment.

Table1: Immediate Career Intentions of Respondent Prior to Entrepreneurship Course

Career Intentions	Frequency/Count	Percentage
Further Education	50	16.1
Employment	240	77.4
Self-Employment	20	6.5
Total	310	100

Table 2 presents the results of the respondents' immediate career intentions, which is within one to two years of graduation. The majority of the respondents 64.5% (n=200) aspire to work in the employment of others. It was also instructive that 25.8% (n=80) of the respondents aspire to work for themselves following the exposure to entrepreneurship. Apparently, a career in the employment of others represents the major career intentions and aspirations of both groups of respondents. The correlation co-efficient between students' exposure to entrepreneurship and career intentions suggests that there is a significant relationship between exposure to entrepreneurship and career intentions (Kendal's tau_b = 0.591, p < 0.05). The level of significance is at 98% confidence level.

Table 2: Immediate Career Intentions of Respondents after Graduation

Immediate Career Intention	Frequency/Count	Percentage
Further Studies	10	3.2
Employment	200	64.5
Self Employment	80	25.8
Others	20	6.5
Total	310	100
Correlations Tests		
Kendall's tau_b	0.528	
Significance	0.05 (two-tailed)	
Spearman rho	0.602	
Significance	0.06 (two-tailed)	

The ‘significance’ of the relationship between entrepreneurship education and career intentions of the student respondents is not surprising. The entrepreneurship programme aims to provide insights into the role of entrepreneurs and small business in society and attempts to develop core skills and attributes necessary for entrepreneurship such as creative problem-solving, diagnostic skills, communication and project management. It also provides an enriching integrative educational experience such as the development of business plans and business consulting, which allows students to integrate accounting, finance, marketing and other business disciplines. It appears that the entrepreneurship programme both aided in engendering entrepreneurial career intentions and aspirations and encouraged over one-in-four (**25.8%** or n=80) of the respondents to include self-employment in the career intentions compared to **6.5%** (n=20) prior to exposure to entrepreneurship (see Table 1). The results and statistical tests outlined in Table 3 indicate the extent of the perceived influence of the entrepreneurship education programmes on the career intentions of the respondents.

Table 3: Influence of Entrepreneurship Programme on Career Intentions

Responses	Count	Percentage
Not at all	-	-
Very Little Extent	40	12.9
Average Extent	60	19.3
Great Extent	110	35.5
Very great extent	100	32.3
Total	310	100
Weighted Av. Score	3.9	
Correlation tests		
Kendall’s tau_b	0.345	
Significance	0.05 (two-tailed)	
Spearman rho	0.430	
Significance level	0.05 (two-tailed)	

Majority of the respondents, 67.8% (n=210) thought that the entrepreneurship programme has either a ‘great or very great extent’ influence on their career intentions. The weighted average score of 3.9 on a five-point scale, with one representing no influence at all and five for a very

great extent of influence, also confirms the respondents' perception. Moreover, there is a statistical significant relationship between respondents' entrepreneurship education programmes and career intentions ($\tau_b = 0.345$, $p > 0.05$) at 95% confidence level. The implication is that entrepreneurship education programme of the respondents positively influence their career intentions. This finding statistically supports previous studies (Owusu-Ansah 2004; Owusu-Ansah and Fleming 2001) that found that an entrepreneurship education programme influences students' career intentions. Evidently, a significant relationship exists between entrepreneurship education programmes of respondents and their career intentions. This finding is quite interesting for a number of reasons. First, it suggests a vote of confidence for the entrepreneurship educational programmes offered at TU, as indicated by the high approval ratings. It demonstrates also that perhaps the entrepreneurship programmes and curricula match with students' expectations. This findings contradict with a similar study of three decades ago that found that higher education inhibited entrepreneurship (Robertson 1984). Second, it is also an affirmation of the role of the university as an organization with a great influence on the societal development through the programmes it offers.

5.2 Attitude towards self-employment

This section presents information on the attitudes of respondents towards starting a business and perceived skills to undertake such ventures.

Table 4: Motivation to Start Own Business

Responses	Count	Percentage
To a very large extent	170	54.8
To a large extent	90	29.1
To a certain extent	50	16.1
To a small extent	-	-
To no extent	-	-
Total	310	10
Weighted Av. Score	4.4	

The survey respondents were asked to report on a five-point scale, the extent to which they felt motivated towards starting own business. Table 4 outlines the results. An overwhelming 83.9%

(n=260) of the business degree respondents felt motivated to either a large or a very large extent to start own business. A weighted average score of 4.4 is indicative of the level of motivation towards self-employment. This finding is also significant as it further strengthens the relevance of entrepreneurship education in motivating students towards a career in self-employment.

Table 5: Do You Have Necessary Skills to Start Own Business?

	n	%
Yes	280	90.3
No	30	9.7
Total	310	100

In order to explore the effect of entrepreneurship education on students' perceived ability to initiate and develop a new venture, respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they have the necessary skills to start own business. The results are presented in Table 5. An overwhelming 90.3% (n=280) of the business degree respondents affirmed that they possessed the necessary skills to start own business.

Table 6: Probability of Own Business in Future

Responses	Count	Percentage
Highly probable	200	64.5
Probable	100	32.2
Some Probability	6	1.9
Improbable	2	0.7
No probability	2	0.7
Total	310	100
Weighted Average Score	4.6	

Continuing further with the investigation, students were asked the probability of their owning a business in future. The results are outlined in Table 6. Interestingly 96.7% (n=300) of the respondents indicated that a future business set-up was either probable or highly probable compared to 1.4% (n=4) who were not likely to set up. It is instructive that 96.7% of the survey respondents perceive future business ownership as probable or highly probable. The finding is revealing as it supports similar finding in the literature (Owusu-Ansah 2004), but lends itself to

many deductions. It is possible that the reported high predisposition as well as overwhelming perception of desirability of business set-ups is partly attributable to the exposure to entrepreneurship education.

However, it appears socio-cultural environment may also be a factor as speculated in the previous study (op cit). Business ownership appears culturally embraced and supported by many irrespective of academic background. Interest in business ownership varies from well-established formal businesses to informal ones, including petty trading. Anecdotal evidence reveals that the majority of Tanzanians have been involved in business activities particularly in the informal sector. Children of all ages have been commissioned by their parents and guardians to sell items including foodstuff and vegetables in most rural Tanzania and in some instances, in semi-urban areas, while others have been involved in street hawking in urban areas to augment family incomes. At any rate, it appears that it was the wish of the majority of the respondents (96.7%), including those who gave career intentions and aspirations other than self-employment, to start own businesses in future.

Evidently, a positive relationship appears to exist between exposure to entrepreneurship education and attitude towards business start-ups as the weighted average score of 4.6 on a five-point scale substantiates the finding. What is puzzling is that, in spite of this reported high career intentions and aspirations is in line with the previous studies and the current one, the unemployment rates continue to escalate in Tanzania among graduates. What could possibly account for graduates' inability to translate the high intentions and aspirations into career decisions? In order to address this question, the perceived barriers to business start-up were investigated.

Table 7: Perceived Barriers to Business Start-ups

Responses	Count	Percentage
Capital	100	32.3
Business Idea	20	6.4
How to explore business opportunities	80	25.8
Business Mgt. Skills	10	3.2
Business Advice	100	32.3
Total	310	100

The survey respondents were asked to indicate their perceived barriers to business start-ups and the findings are outlined in Table 7. Nearly a third of the respondents, (32.2% or n= 100) perceived finance as a barrier to business start-ups in Tanzania. A similar number of the respondents (32.3% or n=100) perceived that an absence of business advisory services could be a militating factor in achieving their self-employment objective. Besides, over a quarter (25.8% or n=80) of the respondents were of the opinion that a lack of know-how to start a business was a barrier to business start-ups. Interestingly, only 6.4% (n=20) of the respondents saw an absence of business ideas as a barrier to business set-ups. Evidently finance and absence of business advisory services appear to represent the two greatest barriers to self-employment career option to the majority of the survey respondents. Another revelation is that only 3.2% (n=10) of the respondents perceived lack of business and management skills as a barrier.

The three major barriers perceived by student respondents were finance (32.3%), appropriate business advisory services (32.3%) and how to exploit business opportunities (25.8%). This finding appears to support earlier studies (Hannon 2009) where finance and lack of business experience were reported as key barriers to business start-ups.

6. Recommendations

6.1 The entrepreneurial internship programmes

The learning process of entrepreneurship should not only be confined just to the classroom discussions but the interaction with today's dynamic business environment is vital because of 'critical entrepreneurial skills can only be developed and refined if they are practised' (Dilts and Fowler 1999). This is to enable students to gain hands-on experience by seeing, touching and

feeling about the business world (McIntyre and Roche 1999; Cooper, Bottomley et al. 2004). For this reason, entrepreneurial internship is seen as a good mechanism to provide students with such a learning experience in a real business milieu (Dilts and Fowler 1999). Internship as according to Gault, Redington, & Schlager (2000) is 'generally part-time field experiences and encompasses a wider variety of academic disciplines and organisational settings' with its main goal to eventually lead students to become self-employed (Dilts and Fowler 1999). Shariff, Abdul Mutalib, & Ahmad Fadzil (2000) highlight the objective of having internship programme is to expose students to the perspectives of industry practical and its nature of work practices. It is a training strategy that transforms theoretical knowledge to application as well as develops individuals' working skills in real career world (Dodge and McKeough 2003).

6.2 Role models

The effect of role models on inclination towards entrepreneurship is widely discussed in the literature (Ghazali, Ghosh *et al.* 1995; Deakins, Glancey *et al.* 2005; Van Auken, Stephens *et al.* 2006; Kirkwood 2007). According Hisrich, Peters, & Shepherd (2005), role models are '*individuals influencing an entrepreneur's career choice or styles*'. They further accentuates that role models have vital influence on individuals in determining entrepreneurial careers as they would provide the useful business-related information, guidance as well as moral supports. Role models, in this context, are very imperative because they provide individuals training for socialization (Postigo, Iacobucci *et al.* 2006; Rajkonwar 2006). It is more credible for individuals to act of becoming a successful entrepreneur by having a good example that they can relate to (Bygrave 2004). It is based on the assumption that having to see successful persons in business, an individual would have the aspiration to imitate in order to become a successful person in business too (Caputo and Dolinsky 1998). Given the importance of role models, the role of educators and friends of university students are examined as to how they might influence students' inclination towards entrepreneurship (Peterman and Kennedy 2003; Wong and Lena 2005).

7. Conclusion

It is evident from the study that entrepreneurship education exposed to the undergraduate students at Tumaini University is creating entrepreneurship awareness and encouraging students to include self-employment in their career intentions and aspirations' options as well as inculcating a positive attitude towards business start-up. However, in order for the project to fully succeed, certain potential barriers that could militate against the successful translation of the high career aspirations and overwhelming positive attitude towards business start-up have to be addressed. It is against the three perceived barriers to business establishment, namely capital, business and exploitation of business ideas. The reported perceived barriers to business start-ups could possibly explain low business start-up decisions in spite of the high career intentions and aspirations. This observation supports Brenner *et al.* (1991) report that 'when their respondents were asked their most likely career choice considering their actual situation and constraints upon their options, only 5% indicated that they would probably choose to operate their own businesses'.

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