A systematic review of entrepreneurship education in higher education as panacea to unemployment reduction in South African graduates

Oluwatoyin Ayodele Ajani (a)* Miriam R. Khumatake, (b) Bongani T. Gamede (c)

(a) Department of Languages and Social Sciences Education, University of Zululand, KwaDlangezwa, South Africa

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ABSTRACT

This discursive study explores the attempt to create feasible job creations for young graduates from various higher education institutions across South Africa. A systematic review of various literature sources on the phenomenon argues that entrepreneurship education can create and develop in students creative and innovative, business initiatives, risk-taking, strategic business minds, appropriate decision-making, and opportunities in diverse entrepreneurship activities, after graduation. The integration of entrepreneurship education into higher education across South African Higher Education will boost national economic development. The existing Department of Higher Education's initiative of Entrepreneurship Development into the country's Higher Education requires assessment and repositioning for effective approaches that can actualize the objectives of the initiative. The study recommends the need for universities' managements to re-strategize and connect theory with practical, in diverse significant collaborations with various private businesses, government institutions, and Non-Governmental Organisations.

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Introduction

The propensity of South African graduates to seek out job prospects rather than engage in entrepreneurial endeavours is a frequently observed phenomenon. A sample of 73 Ethiopian undergraduate students from a variety of academic fields—including natural, computational, social science, agricultural, business and economics, engineering, and technology—participated in the study by Abebe (2015). The findings of the study revealed that the majority of the participants exhibited a preference for seeking employment as opposed to venturing into entrepreneurship. Furthermore, the findings of the study indicate that enrollment in entrepreneurship courses did not yield a statistically significant effect on the propensity of students to pursue entrepreneurial activities. In a study conducted in Malaysia, findings of the research investigation involving 234 Malaysian tertiary students, comprising both undergraduates and postgraduates from diverse academic fields such as information technology, administration, management, education, English, and tourism, indicate that the student's primary objective is to successfully finish their enrolled courses (Ibrahim et al., 2015). According to Sandhu, Jain, and Yusof (2010), the research findings of their study suggest that students exhibit a lack of interest in pursuing potentially profitable business ventures. Farrington, Grey, and Sharp (2011) conducted research that revealed that students hold misconceptions regarding the nature of entrepreneurship as a viable career option.

Furthermore, the research indicates that students exhibit a deficiency in the essential skills and knowledge essential for the inception and administration of a business enterprise. In a related study conducted in Ghana, the integration of EE was established as critical to students' empowerment for self-employment, after graduation (Donani, Saan, Kuyine & Adams, 2021).

The emergence of entrepreneurship education can be historically attributed to Myles Mace's development of an entrepreneurship syllabus for the Harvard Business School in 1947 (Nabi et al., 2016). The field of entrepreneurship education has achieved worldwide
recognition as a well-established area of study, following a period of approximately seventy years of evolution. According to Pittaway (2005), the philosophical underpinnings of entrepreneurship education set it apart from conventional management education. As per Neck and Greene's (2011) findings, entrepreneurship education has the potential to foster a deeper understanding in comparison to other types of knowledge, owing to its focus on practical application and action-oriented approach. According to Katz's (2003) academic research, entrepreneurship education involves the development of educational curricula, fundamental elements, and scholarly publications. Curriculum development is a systematic process that entails the design and development of educational courses and structures. The development of fundamental elements refers to the growth of financial resources and corresponding improvements in the infrastructure of a business education-focused academic institution. The phrase "development of publications" refers to the increase in the availability of books and textbooks aimed at the general public that covers a particular subject matter, as well as the progress made in scholarly achievements within the field of entrepreneurial research. The triad of processes mentioned above constitutes the fundamental features of the progression of entrepreneurship education.

According to Shane and Venkataraman (2000), the topic of entrepreneurship education is currently gaining prominence as a research area. Entrepreneurship education has experienced substantial expansion globally in recent decades (La Barbera & Ajzen, 2020). A study conducted by Gavigan (2021) in Uganda affirms that exposure of students to entrepreneurship education while still undergraduate, across all academic programmes is a panacea to reduce unemployment rates among graduates of various higher education institutions. While Kusi-Mensah (2017) concurs with Gouws (2002), and Baah-Boateng (2016) that higher education should integrate and promote the acquisition of vocational skills and knowledge among students of higher institutions. What are the underlying factors that have facilitated the emergence and expansion of entrepreneurship education? The recognition of education as a necessary condition for promoting innovative entrepreneurship and capability has been increasingly acknowledged by scholars (Vanevenhoven & Liguori, 2013; Walter and Block, 2015). China, as the largest country in Asia and a prominent developing nation on the global stage, has undergone rapid progress in the field of entrepreneurship education. South Africa is a country that is distinguished by its heterogeneous racial and cultural makeup, as well as its discernible rural and urban regions. In 1994, the government underwent a transition towards a democratic system. Based on the census data of 2011, as reported by SNews (2012) and StatsSA (2018), the demographic composition of the area was constituted by around 76% Black, 9% White, 9% Coloured, and 3% Asian. According to data from 2016, a substantial percentage of the population living in rural regions was documented at 35%. The aforementioned regions exhibit heightened levels of joblessness, destitution, criminal activity, and disparity, which are ascribed to the pre-1994 apartheid and colonial governance (Ajani, Gamede, & Mkhasibe, 2021). As per the report published by the World Bank in 2018, South Africa was identified as the society with the highest degree of income inequality in 2015, with a Gini coefficient of 0.65. The Gini coefficient is a metric utilised to gauge the level of income inequality within a given population. It is a numerical value that varies between 0 and 1, with 0 indicating complete parity and 1 indicating complete disparity.

According to Sehume (2018) and StatsSA (2018), the average unemployment rate in South Africa between 2000 and 2018 was 26%. Notably, individuals aged 15-34 years exhibited a significant rate of approximately 38%. The data presented by StatsSA in 2018 indicates that the unemployment rate for individuals aged 15-24 who hold a degree was approximately 34%, while those aged 25-34 had a lower rate of 10%. On the other hand, the rate of unemployment among the adult population was documented to be approximately 5%. The matter of unemployment among graduates has garnered noteworthy attention at the national level, particularly among governmental entities and institutions of higher education. Multiple sources, such as Gavins (2014), Mail & Guardian (2018), and Sehume (2018), have documented this phenomenon. The government of South Africa has instituted diverse social welfare policies to address the requirements of its underprivileged populace. The aforementioned policies encompass clauses for complimentary primary healthcare, uncompensated fundamental education, subsidies for elderly and juvenile assistance, lodging, and gratuitous fundamental amenities. The sources cited in the text are Oosthuizen (2015) and Fine (2018). The document titled "Vision 2030" of the National Development Plan (NDP) delineates a set of objectives and strategies that accord priority to the elimination of poverty and the amelioration of inequality (NDP, 2011). Notwithstanding the adoption of diverse initiatives, such as the Reconstruction Development Plan (RDP) and Growth, Employment, and Redistribution (GEAR), the issues of economic democracy and wealth creation for historically marginalised groups were disregarded (Ngcamu, 2002; Gradin, 2018). According to Davis and Thurlow (2010) and Sehume (2018), despite significant declines in poverty levels since 1994, poverty, inequality, and unemployment have persisted as significant challenges for the country despite the implementation of various interventions. The persistent and long-lasting nature of these challenges requires an investigation into possible remedies that could enable the achievement of economic development and mitigation of poverty in South Africa. The prevailing need of the hour is for the country to redirect its attention from job hunting to job generation, following the tenets of entrepreneurship (Shane, 2009). Additionally, Mangaliso (2001) and Oosthuizen (2015) proposed that the methods used to improve employment prospects, financial benefits, and productivity served as the foundation for assessing a developing nation's economic well-being. According to Chepurenko's (2015) argument, the utilisation of entrepreneurial creativity possesses the capacity to expedite a country's economic advancement and cultivate communal welfare. To achieve sustained economic growth, it was crucial to promoting innovative endeavours led by knowledgeable and skilled entrepreneurs operating in a dynamic business environment (Malerba, 2010; Dlamini, Gamede & Ajani, 2021).

Defining the concept of entrepreneurship poses a formidable challenge. Harding (2006, p. 5) asserts the importance of establishing a fundamental definition of the concept. Franco and Haase (2009) argue that a broader understanding of entrepreneurs is required, one that recognises them as individuals who are continuously engaged in the process of learning (p. 637). As per the report on
entrepreneurship education published by the World Economic Forum, an entrepreneur is identified as an individual who exhibits traits such as creativity, innovation, and a propensity to undertake risks, and who can convert ideas into concrete results (Volkman et al., 2009, p. 18). Dana (2001, p. 405) highlights that there exists a dearth of agreement in scholarly works concerning the characterization of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship. Despite the lack of a widely accepted and all-encompassing definition, it is an established reality that entrepreneurship is distinguished by distinctive qualities, including "the capacity to introduce novelty" (Bruni, Gherardi & Poggio 2004, p. 258). Despite the absence of a precise and unambiguous delineation, the fundamental and noteworthy role of entrepreneurship in promoting economic expansion and resilience remains undiminished. The correlation between entrepreneurship and education has been widely recognised as crucial in addressing and reducing cases of long-term unemployment (Mueller et al., 2006, p. 3). Entrepreneurship can enhance and consolidate participation in economic pursuits, especially for demographic groups that have been traditionally marginalised, such as women (Hisrich & Ozturk, 1999).

Entrepreneurs exhibit intentional human behaviour that empowers them to recognise potential market prospects and undertake measures to improve their economic position. As per the academic literature of Malerba (2010), Holcombe (1998), and Audretsch & Keilbach (2008), individuals who possess entrepreneurial traits and introduce innovative concepts can create new and competitive markets, which can lead to the creation of employment opportunities. This manuscript aims to promote the progression of entrepreneurship education in Higher Education institutions, create sustainable employment prospects and address various societal problems associated with unemployment. The present study conducts an extensive examination of the existing literature on entrepreneurship education. Its primary objective is to discern the fundamental realities, multifaceted challenges, and initiatives that are designed to cultivate entrepreneurship competencies among tertiary-level students in South Africa.

The World Economic Forum (2011) has called for entrepreneurship as a solution to the challenges posed by the modern era. The extant empirical literature has consistently demonstrated a positive correlation between entrepreneurship and economic growth across diverse nations (Acs & Amington, 2004; Berkowitz & Dejong, 2005; Carree & Thurik, 2008). The aforementioned correlation has been documented in recent scholarly research that centres on African nations (Adusei, 2016). The significance of entrepreneurship in the growth of economies (Baumol 2014; Zhang 2017), promotion of innovation (Fritsch 2008), and implementation of solutions for societal improvement (Littlewood & Holt 2018) have been a subject of debate. Acknowledging the association between entrepreneurship and job creation is of significant importance, as highlighted by Folster (2000) and Zhang (2017). Consequently, numerous research investigations have employed self-employment as a measure of entrepreneurial engagement (Bjuggren, Johansson & Stenkula 2012; Rietveld, Hessels & van der Zwan 2014).

The theoretical framework is a conceptual framework that provides a foundation for understanding the research problem and guides the development of hypotheses and research questions (Bosnjak, Ajzen & Schmidt, 2020). It is a set of interconnected concepts, assumptions, and propositions that form a coherent and logical structure for investigating a particular phenomenon. The theoretical framework draws from existing literature to help identify knowledge gaps, define the study's scope, and provide a foundation for interpreting the results. It is an essential component of research design and provides a framework for organising and analysing data. This study utilises two theoretical frameworks to support the effective integration of entrepreneurship education into the higher education system of South Africa. The present study examines two theoretical frameworks, namely the Entrepreneurial Motivation theory and the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

**Motivation for Entrepreneurship**

Motivation theories are based on conventional principles that seek to explain the reasoning behind human behaviour. These theories encompass the various factors that influence individuals to choose certain actions over others, as well as the stimuli that underlie such actions (Schacter et al., 2011). Motivation's theoretical foundations are predominantly based on two overarching paradigms: the psychological and economic frameworks (Alschuler 1967; Carsrud and Brännback 2011; Steel and Konig 2006). The absence of a conclusive agreement among scholars regarding the theory of motivation, akin to the theory of entrepreneurship, has led to proposals for the development of a unified and empirically-supported theory of motivation (Carsrud and Brännback 2011; Graham and Weiner 1996; Steel and Konig 2006). According to the scholarly works of Carsrud and Brännback (2011) and Pervin (2003), the motivational factors that propel entrepreneurship can be classified into two main categories: intrinsic and extrinsic sources of motivation. There exist two overarching classifications of motivation theories: extrinsic and intrinsic. The former places emphasis on extrinsic factors and incentives that serve as stimuli for entrepreneurs to initiate action, whereas the latter concentrates on intrinsic motivators that propel individuals toward action. The aforementioned dichotomy has been the subject of scholarly discourse, as evidenced by the works of Hakim (1989) and Kirkwood (2009).

According to Shane et al. (2003), the implementation of an intrinsic theoretical framework allows for the recognition of diverse entrepreneurial characteristics, thereby promoting a more thorough understanding of entrepreneurs and their behaviour. The trait-based approach to entrepreneurship has been subject to criticism regarding its restricted applicability and generalizability. This critique has been articulated by scholars such as Aldrich and Zimmer (1986), Bird (1989), and Carsrud and Brännback (2011). Krueger and Carsrud (1994) contend that the evaluation of entrepreneurial motivation, whether internal or external, has certain limitations. This is because such assessments only take into account the present circumstances and fail to consider the antecedent factors that contribute to the formation of entrepreneurial motivation. It is imperative to consider antecedent influences when analysing the genesis of entrepreneurial motivation.
Similarly, according to Estay et al. (2013), antecedent influences exert an effect on entrepreneurs' value perception, subsequently influencing their inclination towards a particular type of venture. The combination of these elements provides a favourable framework for clarifying entrepreneurial drive and its diversity among entrepreneurs, as suggested by Carsrud and Brännback (2011) and Fayolle et al. (2014). However, there is a lack of thorough empirical research in this specific field, particularly in the United Arab Emirates, as noted by Sikdar and Vel (2011). Murray's (1938) study involved an initial exploration of motivation, wherein a Thematic Apperception Test was employed. The findings of the study indicate that motivation is subject to personalization and influenced by contextual factors. According to Graham and Weiner's (1996) research, it can be inferred that individuals' conduct is considerably influenced by diverse factors, including their environment, personal experiences, and both their conscious and unconscious cognitive states. It is noteworthy that the participants of the study demonstrated a proclivity to attribute their personal and emotional circumstances to their aspirations, which aligns with Murray's discoveries in 1938. The Theory of Achievement, which is centred on intrinsic motivators and the desire for accomplishment, was developed by Atkinson (1957) and McClelland (1961) as an extension of Murray's (1938) research. Murray (1938) recognised the contextual quality of motivation, a trait that is also present in various other facets of human existence.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour is a widely recognised theoretical framework in the field of social psychology. It posits that an individual's behaviour is determined by their intentions, which are in turn influenced by their attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. This theory has been applied to a variety of domains, including health behaviour, environmental behaviour, and consumer behaviour, and is a useful tool for understanding Ajzen's 1991 Theory of Planned Behaviour is based on cognitive processes and an individual's subjective perception of reality. The present theoretical framework represents an extension of Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) Theory of Reasoned Action and exhibits resemblances with Bandura's (1977a) Social Learning Theory. The theory in question has been the subject of various studies that have focused on its cognitive and perceptual dimensions (Kautonen et al., 2013; Krueger & Carsrud, 1994). The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) has been revised to integrate the Reasoned Action Approach, which was formulated by Fishbein and Ajzen (2010, 2012). However, the former Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) was preferred over the Reasoned Action Approach (RAA) based on two distinct justifications.

The TPB has been frequently cited in a multitude of academic publications spanning diverse disciplines, thereby furnishing scholars with a substantial corpus of meticulously scrutinised empirical evidence to enable them to draw parallels with their own research outcomes (Morgan & Bachrach, 2011). The second justification concerns the integration of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) with other frameworks that explore entrepreneurial intentions and actions, as proposed by Krueger and Carsrud (1994). Linan et al. (2011) integrated the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and Bandura's (1997) Social Learning Theory. This particular characteristic enables researchers to concentrate on relevant empirical data that is directly applicable to the objectives of the current study. The TPB framework comprises three fundamental components, which are the autonomous determinants of attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (PBC). These components are utilised to ascertain an individual's intentions (Ajzen 1991; Bae et al. 2014; Bahrami 2014; Liñan et al. 2011). The aforementioned proposition posits that the perspectives held by students concerning entrepreneurship education are pivotal in ascertaining the efficacy of the knowledge and competencies garnered in practical situations. Ajzen (1991) posited that the most precise indicators of behaviour are intentions that stem from the three constructs.

Ajzen (1991) posits that attitudes refer to an individual's evaluation of behaviour, subjective norms relate to the social acceptability of behaviour as perceived by the individual, and PBC pertains to the individual's perception of the level of difficulty or success associated with a behaviour. The notion of PBC has been associated with Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theory, which concerns an individual's confidence and perceived capability to execute particular tasks (Ajzen, 1991; Shane et al., 2003). The constructs mentioned above are of great importance in understanding the entrepreneurial process and are widely used in entrepreneurship research to predict the entrepreneurial intentions of students. These intentions are influenced by the knowledge and competencies acquired through tertiary education, as noted by Krueger et al. (2000). According to Liñan et al. (2011), the construct of perceived behavioural control (PBC) exhibits superior predictive ability for entrepreneurial intentions in comparison to the constructs of attitude and social norms.

A study was conducted by Almobaireek and Manolova (2011) to investigate the entrepreneurial intentions of a sample of 48 Saudi students. The research findings indicate a noteworthy association between perceived behavioural control (PBC) and entrepreneurial intentions. This implies that an individual's perception of their capability to achieve success in a specific task has an impact on their inclination towards entrepreneurship. It is worth noting that the aforementioned correlation demonstrated a higher degree of significance among female participants as opposed to their male counterparts. The TPB model, consisting of three distinct constructs, lacks a clear elucidation from Ajzen (1991) regarding the origin of an individual's perceived behavioural control (PBC). Krueger and Brazale (1994) suggest that various factors, such as knowledge, innate confidence, and environmental circumstances, may have an impact on PBC. The constructs of perceived behavioural control (PBC) and self-efficacy exhibit resemblances with the notion of locus of control. Ajzen (1991) differentiated between perceived behavioural control (PBC) and perceived locus of control, a concept originally proposed by Rotter (1966). Ajzen (1991) posits that the theory of planned behaviour (PBC) evaluates each behaviour on an individual basis, in contrast to the perceived locus of control which pertains to an individual's overall perspective and attitude towards a behaviour (Ahmed, 1985; Diaz & Rodriguez 2003; Kautonen et al., 2013; Krueger et al., 2000; Liñan et al., 2011).
The aforementioned observation holds great importance as it highlights an individual's ability to exercise discretion in choosing one task over another, rather than indiscriminately accepting every opportunity that comes their way. The PBC approach differs from Rotter's (1966) generalised locus of control in that it assesses a situation based on its inherent characteristics and includes the achievement motive, as suggested by Ajzen (1991) and Warehime (1972). Additionally, the People's Bank of China suggests that the decision is not exclusively based on the potential outcome. As per the scholarly works of Carsrud and Brännback (2011) and Shane et al. (2003), the assessment of an opportunity's attractiveness is based on various factors, including the perceived level of opportunity and available resources, as well as the individual's self-evaluation of their ability to leverage the opportunity. The assertion suggests that an improvement in skills and abilities may lead to an increase in entrepreneurial tendencies. Almobaireek and Manolova's (2011) research findings indicate that there is a significant correlation between education and training and the development of entrepreneurial intentions.

**The notion of Entrepreneurship**

Entrepreneurship is the process of recognising and cultivating economic, commercial, and societal prospects by individuals and entities (Shane & Venkatraman, 2000; Thornton & Yang, 2012; Ajani, Gamede & Mkhasibe, 2021). The process under consideration can be analysed through the application of a multidimensional perspective, as suggested by Bula (2012). As per Drucker's (1985) definition, entrepreneurship pertains to the act of introducing innovative concepts that augment the potential of current resources to produce economic value. According to Alvarez and Barney (2005), the decision-making context is a critical factor that influences the choices made by entrepreneurs. As per Hébert and Link's (1989, p. 213) definition, an entrepreneur is an individual who possesses expertise in taking charge of responsibilities and making crucial decisions that have a significant influence on the placement, composition, and utilisation of commodities, assets, or establishments. According to Baum et al. (2007), the aforementioned definition is founded on an individual's viewpoint. To generate wealth, entrepreneurs must identify business opportunities, as noted by various scholars (Stevenson & Jarillo, 1990; Barringer & Ireland, 2006; Timmons, 1999; Mariotti & Giackin, 2010).

Furthermore, individuals must possess the capacity to choose and oversee entrepreneurial vocations (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011) while displaying entrepreneurial conduct (McMullen & Shepherd, 2006; Shepherd & Patzelt, 2011) through the adaptation to market conditions based on their proficiency (Velilla, Molina, & Ortega, 2018) and the demonstration of resilience in the event of setbacks. According to Frese and Gielnik (2014), entrepreneurs hold significant importance in the business operations of a company, especially in emerging enterprises. They perform various roles such as inventors, investors, accountants, facilitators, organisational change specialists, leaders, technologists, and marketing specialists. Saiz-Alvarez and García-Vaquero (2017) define entrepreneurship as a business strategy that emphasises the creation of job opportunities, social capital, and financial benefits by effectively utilising productive and commercial resources to promote economic growth.

Ahmad and Seymour (2008) posit that entrepreneurship is associated with the pursuit of generating value through the identification and exploitation of innovative products, processes, or markets, resulting in the creation or expansion of economic activity. Lumpkin and Dess (1996) assert that the primary element of entrepreneurship entails the origination of novel enterprises and corporate undertakings using introducing new or pre-existing products and services into established or emerging markets. Ndidi (2009) asserts that entrepreneurship is widely acknowledged as a crucial catalyst for the creation of employment opportunities, innovation, and economic advancement. As per William's (1990) delineation, entrepreneurship is characterised by eight fundamental themes, encompassing the entrepreneur, innovation, establishment of an organisation, value creation, profit incentive, expansion, distinctiveness, and the proprietor-manager. The European Commission (2015) provides a definition of entrepreneurship that differs from the aforementioned viewpoint. According to this definition, entrepreneurship is characterised by an individual's ability to convert abstract ideas into concrete results.

Therefore, if entrepreneurial endeavours lead to increased revenue generation and the creation of job opportunities for individuals who have obtained higher education, it would not be surprising for academic institutions to investigate innovative methods of incorporating entrepreneurship into their academic curricula (Gavigan, 2021). Ghina (2014) posits that a relationship exists between entrepreneurship education and the advancement of entrepreneurship, resulting in advantageous consequences for individuals, enterprises, and the community. Previous studies have demonstrated that education plays a pivotal role in cultivating an entrepreneurial environment in a particular community. The pedagogical procedure entails a cooperative endeavour among diverse stakeholders, comprising scholars, policymakers, politicians, parents, and students. Isaacs, Visser, Friedrich, and Brijal (2007: 1) contend that the scarcity of entrepreneurs poses a substantial obstacle to economic progress.

The notion of entrepreneurship is characterised by a lack of a definitive explanation, and a commonly accepted depiction of an entrepreneur has yet to be established in academic literature, as noted by Carlock (1994) and Grant & Perren (2002). Despite the absence of a widely accepted and standardised definition, it is imperative to establish a clear definition to adequately tackle the relevant concerns. Entrepreneurship, as defined by Mises (1949), is a process of action whereby an individual identifies a potential opportunity and takes action with the objective of maximising profit. The procedure involves the cultivation of an entrepreneurial mindset, the acquisition and management of human resources, and the procurement of investment capital to establish prosperous commercial enterprises. Praag supported Richard Cantillon's theory's definition in 1999, which contends that entrepreneurship serves as an economic catalyst for trade activities within the economy. Entrepreneurs have been able to generate significant profits through the process of exchange, as a result of their ability to undertake the risks associated with business ventures. According to Hébert and
Link's (1988) definition, an entrepreneurial venture stands out for its constant pursuit of growth, innovation, and strategic goals. The objective of the enterprise should be to promote the achievement of profitability, growth, innovation, and change.

Say (1767-1832) proposed an alternative perspective on the role of entrepreneurs in the production process, which diverges from the commonly held notion that entrepreneurs are risk-takers. According to Say, entrepreneurs should be regarded as input factors, specifically in managerial positions where they assume responsibility for identifying and capitalising on the most advantageous economic opportunities. Say (1855) recognised that the entrepreneur undertakes the dual responsibilities of leadership and management to efficiently coordinate the production and distribution processes within the enterprise. The process involved the generation of wealth, which was a crucial element and was achieved through the act of production. Marshall’s (1904) perspective defines an entrepreneur as a resourceful person who identifies and capitalises on business opportunities with financial efficiency. An entrepreneur can be defined as an individual who possesses the ability to undertake diverse responsibilities such as acquiring financial capital, administering resource allocation, formulating strategic decisions, and promoting innovation. Bruyat and Julien (2000) assert that Schumpeter's conceptualization of entrepreneurship encompasses the recognition of innovative economic ideas and their subsequent conversion into feasible opportunities.

Sahlman and Stevenson (1991) assert that the conversion of identified opportunities into lucrative outcomes necessitates the availability of sufficient resources and a meticulously designed course of action. Kirby (2002) posits that entrepreneurship can be characterised as a transformative force, which manifests a range of attributes including a proclivity for risk-taking, a motivation for accomplishment, a perception of agency over one's surroundings, a yearning for autonomy, a disposition towards non-conformity, ingenuity, opportunism, and intuition. According to Timmons (1989), entrepreneurship refers to the ability to create and develop a business venture using limited resources. Entrepreneurship is commonly understood as the process of ideating, executing, and effectively managing a business or organisation.

Lessem (1986) posits that while the definition of entrepreneurship is complex, identifying entrepreneurs is relatively straightforward due to their unique set of characteristics and actions. The objective of this study is to adopt a viewpoint that defines entrepreneurship as a strategy for mitigating the adverse effects of the preceding apartheid system on black South Africans, as delineated by Mangaliso (2001). As observed by Chibba and Luiz (2011) and Oosthuizen (2015), the promotion of black entrepreneurship has led to the participation of academic institutions, government bodies, private enterprises, and non-governmental organisations in various initiatives. The stakeholders endeavoured to identify tactics that would facilitate the participation of black individuals in the official economy while mitigating any adverse effects on other ethnic groups. The cultural milieu in question pertained to the presence of resources, including entrepreneurial acumen, financial capital, specialised skills, and comparable prospects, which could potentially expedite the creation and expansion of thriving commercial ventures.

In essence, an entrepreneur must demonstrate the aforementioned characteristics and possess the capacity to establish and maintain a thriving enterprise, irrespective of the magnitude of obstacles encountered (Ajani & Gamede, 2020; 2021). To become a successful entrepreneur, one must demonstrate persistence in overcoming obstacles and acquire the requisite competencies to establish a sustainable enterprise that can be inherited by future generations. Therefore, a business enterprise must advance beyond the stage of ideation and conceptualization, and not confine itself to a limited small, or medium scale (Sahban et al., 2016; Padi et al., 2022). Rather, it ought to be expanded to produce significant economic prosperity. In the context of business development, the generation of employment opportunities that ensue from favourable outcomes could potentially contribute to the mitigation of unemployment and inequality (Holcombe, 1998; Davis & Thurlow, 2010).

The Significance of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education

Valerio, Parton, and Robb authored a comprehensive report titled "Entrepreneurial Education and Training Programmes around the World" which was released by the World Bank in 2014. Over the course of the last twenty years, there has been a notable surge in the prevalence of programmes focused on entrepreneurship education and training (EET). The aforementioned trend can be attributed to the perceived advantages and potential of said programmes in cultivating entrepreneurial aptitudes and mindsets. Despite the growing prevalence of such programmes worldwide, there is a lack of comprehensive understanding regarding their overall impact. The principal aim of this manuscript is to enhance the extant scholarship on entrepreneurship education by consolidating the research endeavours carried out in the Visegrad nations, namely the Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary, and Slovakia. An established and precise definition of entrepreneurship has not yet been determined. Joseph Schumpeter's scholarly work has yielded noteworthy advancements in the field of entrepreneurship research. The assertion made by the individual posits that the progress and development of a country's innovation and technology are propelled by the efforts of its entrepreneurs.

Schumpeter (1947) coined the term "entrepreneurial spirit" to describe the act of innovation, which involves introducing new ideas or implementing existing ones in a novel way. He argued that such innovative efforts are a direct consequence of entrepreneurial pursuits. According to certain scholars, entrepreneurship is a methodical approach to recognising prospects, with the primary objective of producing novel economic worth. According to Baumol, Litan, and Schramm's (2007) study, developed economies such as the United States and certain Anglo-Saxon nations are more successful in cultivating innovators compared to the economies of continental Europe and East Asia. This is attributed to their focus on promoting dynamic, youthful, high-growth enterprises. Organisations that exhibit the swiftest expansion propelled by novelty and the exploration of technological frontiers are those that
have not yet attained the status of fully developed enterprises. Such enterprises usually function as the principal sources of entrepreneurial pursuits. According to Bessant and Tidd (2007), there exists an inseparable and interdependent relationship between innovation and entrepreneurship, as indicated by the title of their publication.

It is commonly held that celebrated inventors such as Thomas Edison, Graham Bell, James Dyson, and others, were not solely inventors but also entrepreneurs who established thriving enterprises based on their inventions and pioneering concepts. The World Economic Forum's report titled "Educating the Next Wave of Entrepreneurs" offers a concise explanation of entrepreneurship as the pursuit of opportunities that surpass an individual's present resource capacity. Volkmann et al. (2009) conducted a study that found that the influence of entrepreneurship on economic progress can exhibit variability contingent upon the character of entrepreneurship.

Acs, Desai, and Hessels (2008) posit that there exists a necessity to expand the comprehension of entrepreneurship. In tandem with the traditional emphasis on "opportunity (innovative) entrepreneurship" that entails initiating a business venture to capitalise on a perceived business prospect, commensurate consideration ought to be accorded to "necessity entrepreneurship." This pertains to the establishment of a business enterprise due to a compelling need to do so.

The aforementioned can engender employment prospects, produce ripple effects, and facilitate fundamental economic metamorphoses. Conversely, the latter option exhibits a lower probability of experiencing expansion, yet it persists as a noteworthy avenue for generating income, particularly in developing nations. The significance of promoting entrepreneurship is on the rise as it contributes to the advancement of commercial enterprises. Newly established workplaces hold the potential to augment the local labour market due to their proximity to the entrepreneurs' residences. This is especially applicable to businesses that are owned and managed by families. There is a positive correlation between entrepreneurship and economic growth. The attainment of sustainable economic expansion through innovative means requires an increase in the number of start-up enterprises, which possess the capacity to create a higher calibre and quantity of job prospects.

According to the 2015 report by the European Commission, it has been asserted that the ability to become an entrepreneur is a skill that can be acquired through learning. The possession of inherent entrepreneurial traits is not a mandatory requirement for the efficient management and operation of a thriving business. The attainment of the status of an entrepreneur can be facilitated by the development of a particular mindset and the acquisition of skills that are conducive to the practice of entrepreneurship. Given the pressing necessity for employment generation via entrepreneurship in South Africa, it is essential to offer extensive backing for entrepreneurial education throughout all higher education establishments. The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) has a primary objective of promoting the delivery of entrepreneurship education and emphasising its importance throughout all levels of higher education. The field of entrepreneurship is frequently categorised into two distinct domains, namely "art" and "science" (Ibrahim et al., 2015).

The former, which pertains to creativity and innovative cognition, is widely regarded as uneducable, except for the attainment of hands-on expertise. On the contrary, the latter category, which concerns competencies in the realm of commerce and administration, is commonly perceived as acquirable through instruction. Despite the existence of divergent perspectives, empirical data indicate that the integration of innovative and business-oriented proficiencies in educational and instructional frameworks can expedite the dissemination of entrepreneurial attitudes and abilities that are intimately linked with the practice of entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurship Education (EE) refers to formal educational programmes or training interventions designed to provide individuals with the necessary entrepreneurial skills and mindsets to enhance their participation and performance in diverse entrepreneurial activities. Audretsch (2004) posits that government intervention is predicated on four distinct categories of market failures. These include network externalities, which are associated with the geographic proximity to complementary firms, knowledge externalities, which refer to knowledge spillover, failure externalities, which concern the value generated for other firms and researchers in the field, and learning externalities, which relate to motivation and learning from the demonstration of entrepreneurial activities by others (Owusu-Ansah & Poku, 2012; Donani et al., 2021).

Governments have at their disposal a range of policy instruments that can be employed to promote economic growth (Dlamini et al., 2021). These include not only measures aimed at reducing constraints in the business environment, improving access to credit, promoting value chain integration, strengthening the capacity to adopt best business practices, and establishing incubation centres to facilitate innovation and the creation of new businesses. They have a significant impact on enabling the provision of education and training for entrepreneurship. Their participation in EET is motivated by their aspiration to address the hindrances to entrepreneurship, including attitudes, knowledge-based competencies, and societal limitations. Governments hold a distinctive position to offer assistance for Education, Employment, and Training (EET). At a higher level of strategy, governments can serve as proponents of Education and Training (EET) by formulating national plans and agendas. Stakeholders can establish policy frameworks that can exert influence over the provision of Education and Training (EET) in educational institutions and systems. Furthermore, stakeholders can furnish direct financial support for EET interventions, expedite the creation of EET syllabi, and equip lecturers with the necessary skills to proficiently execute the syllabi within academic frameworks (Baah-Boateng, 2016; Kusi-Mensah, 2017; StatsSA, 2018; La Barbera & Ajzen, 2020; Alamineh, 2020; Ajani et al., 2021; Ajani & Gamede, 2021). The involvement of private enterprises in the delivery of Education, Employment, and Training (EET) has the potential to provide additional benefits to recipients. Therefore, it is recommended that governments integrate public-private partnerships into their agenda to improve the provision of Energy Efficiency and Conservation (EET) services. According to the Oslo Agenda for Entrepreneurship Education in Europe, successful entrepreneurs have observed that formal education can be overly inflexible,
structured, and uniform, which may hinder individuals from fully expressing their authentic selves and ultimately diminish their entrepreneurial motivation. (EC, 2006). The advocacy of entrepreneurial activities results in a multitude of long-lasting benefits. To begin with, it promotes individual development and improves the ability to create and adjust, thus enabling the effective utilisation of resources (Padi et al., 2022). Moreover, it assumes a pivotal function in facilitating the incorporation of indispensable heterogeneity into the sphere of commerce. The development of entrepreneurial mindsets and skills can be effectively enhanced through experiential learning and practical exposure to entrepreneurship, which can be attained by implementing concrete projects and activities.

The University-level instruction on entrepreneurship ought to prioritise the development of business concepts, technology-driven pursuits, and innovative practices. The scope of entrepreneurship education extends beyond imparting knowledge on the establishment of businesses. It encompasses the development of personal traits and diverse cross-functional abilities, including creativity, initiative, and confidence, among others. Any entrepreneurial education programme must include mentoring or coaching sessions led by individuals with a strong background in business acumen. Simply acquainting entrepreneurs with the classroom environment is insufficient; students must be actively involved in entrepreneurial endeavours. The integration of entrepreneurship into education involves the development of personal characteristics and attitudes, as well as the acquisition of organised knowledge and skills. The development of personal attributes and dispositions increases the probability of an individual identifying potential opportunities and engaging in proactive behaviour towards them. The central emphasis of entrepreneurial education ought to be directed toward the development and enhancement of individual characteristics and dispositions. Through the establishment of such a framework, individuals can subsequently utilise their acquired knowledge and skills to generate tangible value. This concerns the attainment of proficiency and skills associated with the creation of a new business endeavour, as well as the efficient implementation of tactics aimed at converting a concept into a concrete, goal-oriented enterprise.

The notion of entrepreneurship education

The provision of entrepreneurial education offers a noteworthy prospect to augment the competencies and aptitudes of entrepreneurs who, owing to indigence, marginalisation, or other formidable hindrances, would otherwise be incapable of expanding and nurturing their entrepreneurial expertise. According to the OECD report titled “Entrepreneurship and Higher Education” (OECD, 2008), the notion of entrepreneurship education encompasses a wide range of endeavours aimed at fostering entrepreneurial attitudes, skills, and mindsets. These activities encompass a range of domains, such as idea generation, start-up, growth, and innovation, among others. The educational approach to entrepreneurship involves the development of particular personal characteristics and is not solely focused on the creation of new businesses. The objectives of entrepreneurship education about pedagogy should include the development of personal characteristics that are relevant to entrepreneurship, such as creativity, initiative, willingness to take risks, and responsibility (Peterman & Kennedy, 2013; Padi et al., 2022).

Additionally, entrepreneurship education must aim to elevate the awareness of self-employment as a feasible career option among students and students. The implicit notion being communicated is that individuals possess the capacity to progress from a subordinate position to that of an employer. The realm of entrepreneurship comprises a set of distinct personal characteristics that are relevant to this particular area of study. The aforementioned abilities and competencies are considered fundamental for individuals aspiring to become entrepreneurs. The attainment of problem-solving proficiencies, techniques, and resources is a pivotal facet in cultivating competencies related to strategizing, making informed choices, effectively communicating, and taking ownership (Sahban et al., 2016).

The capacity to perceive challenges as prospects is a fundamental characteristic in the process of resolving issues. Furthermore, the cultivation of social competencies, including but not limited to collaboration, networking, and adaptability, plays a pivotal role in facilitating successful teamwork and establishing robust social connections. The development of self-assurance and drive can be attained by acquiring critical thinking and self-directed learning proficiencies, along with the capacity to participate in independent learning.
The Realities of entrepreneurship education in South African higher education

As previously indicated in the introductory segment, South Africa is confronted with the urgent challenge of tackling the mounting predicament of graduate unemployment. The present matter at hand requires an examination of prospective remedies through the execution of measures from governmental decision-makers, establishments of advanced learning, and commercial enterprises. The complex nature of South African provinces, marked by intricate cultural and racial dynamics, has presented a challenging issue. The scholarly works of Fine (2018) and Gradin (2018) demonstrate that a considerable segment of the populace in South Africa has been either involuntarily displaced to rural provinces or has willingly migrated from rural regions to urban townships. The rural province's configuration is primarily marked by a population that lacks inclination towards entrepreneurial endeavours. Leibbrandt et al. (2007) and SAnews (2012) have noted that individuals who encounter difficulties in accessing capital, entrepreneurial skills, innovation and creativity, information, and role models may experience challenges in these domains.

The established belief is that entrepreneurs are required to engage in business events to enhance their competencies in entrepreneurship. Nonetheless, the scarcity of such occasions in rural regions is a widespread concern, owing to restricted availability and inadequate knowledge among the local population. There is a possibility that this phenomenon has been observed among students in diverse higher education institutions. Gavin's (2014) research indicates that a significant percentage of students attending public educational institutions come from rural backgrounds and face difficulties in navigating the entrepreneurship curriculum due to its ambiguous nature. The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) has collaborated with Universities in South Africa (Usaf) to address the issue of high unemployment rates among South African graduates. This partnership aims to establish innovative collaborations among the government, private sector, and academia. The objective of these collaborative efforts is to foster expansion using entrepreneurial pursuits (Usaf, 2018). Establishing sustainable enterprises that generate positive outcomes for the well-being of individuals and communities is a crucial imperative for student entrepreneurs.

The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) developed the Entrepreneurship Development in Higher Education (EDHE) programme. The programme was launched via awareness-raising initiatives that sought to motivate students to consider entrepreneurship as a feasible career option for contributing to the economy. The primary objective of the EDHE initiative is to create a strategic direction, cultivate favourable conditions, promote cooperation and alliances, and exploit current resources for post-secondary educational institutions (Usaf, 2018).

The primary objective of the EDHE programme is to augment students' understanding of entrepreneurship as a feasible career choice, particularly in light of restricted formal employment prospects, and as a mechanism for engaging in economic activities (Usaf, 2018). EDHE is broadening its scope using collaborations with private enterprises, communities, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) institutions, and governmental bodies, notably the Department of Small Business and Development (DSBD).

The Department of Trade and Industry (dti) has annually convened colloquiums that have noted the participation of Higher Education institutions in collaborative endeavours with small, micro, and medium enterprises. According to Usaf's (2018) report, the EDHE project was launched in 2017 following a conference that convened representatives from 19 public universities. Following the
conference, public universities arranged a National Student Entrepreneurship Week (SEW) during which they customised entrepreneurship activities to suit the unique needs of their student communities. The EDHE organisation implemented a one-day roadshow to 13 universities in 2018, in conjunction with the conference and SEW. The roadshow provided an informative and enjoyable itinerary, comprising diverse contests and inspiring lectures presented by distinguished personalities who served as exemplars. In the modern era, there is a need to prioritise the transformation of traditional educational institutions into entrepreneurial educational establishments. This would enable students to acquire the essential skills required at all levels of education, ranging from primary to higher education (Audretsch & Keilbach, 2008). The premise underlying this statement is that upon identification of the essential prerequisites and their rationales, it becomes possible to determine the methods by which they can be produced. Mbiza (2018) posits that the conventional education system in South Africa did not adequately foster the essential traits and competencies necessary for the advancement of entrepreneurial pursuits.

Educational institutions, organisations, and businesses of different scales can utilise strategic entrepreneurship as a means to unlock potential economic pursuits. According to Kuratko's (2015) research, strategic entrepreneurship can be observed through five discernible manifestations, which include strategic renewal, sustained regeneration, domain redefinition, organisational rejuvenation, and business model reconstruction. The concept of strategic renewal pertains to the implementation of a novel approach, whereas sustained regeneration refers to the incorporation of a fresh product within a pre-existing category. On the contrary, domain redefinition pertains to the restructuring of pre-existing markets or product classifications. The concept of organisational rejuvenation refers to the process of internally-driven innovation aimed at enhancing strategic performance. On the other hand, business model reconstruction entails the reconfiguration of pre-existing business models. The EDHE project has a primary objective of providing strategic guidance to Higher Education institutions, which requires the involvement and dedication of all stakeholders.

One crucial prerequisite for promoting entrepreneurship within academic institutions is the dedication of university leadership to reorient the academic programme towards entrepreneurship and create a conducive environment that facilitates student entrepreneurship. Moreover, it is crucial that the personnel possess the necessary competencies to disseminate expertise on entrepreneurship, and that there is a cohort of students who exhibit a keen interest in pursuing entrepreneurship. Furthermore, enterprises must offer guidance in mentoring student entrepreneurs beyond the limitations of educational establishments, while policymakers in government should prioritise the advancement of student entrepreneurship.

Conclusions

The objective of the study was to investigate the potential of entrepreneurship within the context of South African Higher Education (SAHE) as a means of mitigating the issue of unemployment among young individuals and recent graduates. The initial phase of the investigation involved establishing a clear definition of entrepreneurship, which was subsequently supplemented by an examination of various entrepreneurship theories to enhance comprehension of the subject matter. Finally, the conceptualization of realities, challenges, and development plans within the context of SAHE has been accomplished. The phenomenon of entrepreneurship involves an individual, known as an entrepreneur, who exhibits traits such as creativity, innovation, risk-taking, initiative, strategic thinking, decision-making, opportunism, and active participation in business. This has been demonstrated through various illustrations. The aforementioned theories also support and advocate for these particular traits. This discourse encompasses a variety of theoretical perspectives on entrepreneurship. Cantillon's theory emphasises innovation, while Marshall's focuses on innovation within perfectly competitive markets. Schultz's theory posits that markets reach equilibrium through the exploitation of opportunities, while Kirzner emphasises the role of competition, opportunities, and risk-taking. Schumpeter's theory highlights the importance of innovation, risk-taking, and profit-making. Knight's theory distinguishes between risk and uncertainty.

Additionally, there exists a biological theory of entrepreneurship that posits men are more inclined to take risks than women. Finally, entrepreneurship can be viewed as a social venture that is comprised of teams. This memorandum highlights the necessity for South Africa to cultivate a pool of graduates who exhibit entrepreneurial characteristics. The provision of entrepreneurial education within the education system has the potential to stimulate economic development.

Implications of the study

It is suggested that universities should play a role in fostering entrepreneurship by incorporating entrepreneurship skills, such as communication skills (particularly persuasion), creativity skills, critical thinking and assessment skills, leadership skills, negotiation skills, problem-solving skills, social networking skills, and time-management skills, into their educational curriculum. One potential strategy for fostering entrepreneurship in South Africa is to transform universities into entrepreneurial institutions. This could involve incorporating entrepreneurship coursework into the curricula of various faculties. The development of entrepreneurial skills among students necessitates significant modifications in the learning content and process provided by universities. Establishing entrepreneurship and innovation centres, as well as incubators, within universities is recommended. Centres can expand their offerings by providing brief courses to communities such as TVET colleges and the unemployed, with a focus on rural and township communities. It is recommended that universities be permitted to offer online, adaptable entrepreneurship programmes that can be registered as needed to equip students with the necessary skills for entrepreneurship. Participate in entrepreneurship orientation and awareness initiatives aimed at disseminating knowledge about entrepreneurship and motivating students to contemplate entrepreneurship as a profession.
The objective of this scholarly article was to investigate the efficacious integration of entrepreneurship education into tertiary education, as a means of mitigating the prevalent issue of high unemployment rates among graduates from diverse higher education institutions in South Africa. In conclusion, it is widely believed that incorporating entrepreneurship into Higher Education can serve as a catalyst for generating employment opportunities, as students can initiate their own business ventures while pursuing their academic studies. This endeavour has the potential to support enterprises by equipping students with fundamental competencies derived from their academic credentials and entrepreneurial acumen. Persistent enterprises generate job opportunities and have the potential to allure investments, thereby expediting economic expansion and ultimately mitigating poverty and inequality.

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