Improving the secondary school curriculum to nurture entrepreneurial competences among students in Uganda

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Abstract: There is need to design a secondary school curriculum that will contribute to the alleviation of the unemployment problem among the youth. Such a curriculum should inculcate entrepreneurial competences in addition to other employment competences. The country’s development strategy emphasizes the development of relevant competences of its people to enable them exploit and use the available resources gainfully and sustainably promote competitiveness, independence and self sustenance. Having the appropriate entrepreneurial competences would be critical in the exploitation of the resources that Uganda has and create new employment opportunities. The chronic unemployment problem in Uganda raises questions as to how well the education system prepares people for entrepreneurship as a career. In this article literature is reviewed to come up with suggestions of how to develop a curriculum that would enhance people’s entrepreneurial competences through the development of technical and industrial skills, general entrepreneurial skills and entrepreneurial personality characteristics.

Keywords: Curriculum, Nurture, Entrepreneurial Competences

1. Introduction

The development strategy of Uganda puts emphasis on the enhancement of relevant competences of its population. Uganda aspires to equip her population with the relevant knowledge, information and skills to enable them improve the quality of life and respond to development challenges and to compete nationally and internationally. The National Development Plan of the Government of Uganda emphasizes investments in skills training and it takes Knowledge, information and skills as prerequisites for a modern society. Emphasis is on the enhancement the population’s ability to exploit and use its resources gainfully and sustainably promote competitiveness, independence and self sustenance (Government of Uganda 2009). In the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP, 1989), Education was highlighted in as one of the mechanisms for enabling poverty eradication in the country. As such, the formal education sector in Uganda has undergone a number of reforms to enable it to cope with this enormous task. These reforms include Universal Primary Education (UPE) as recommended by the Education Policy Review Commission (1989). The Government White Paper (1992) upheld the recommendations of the Commission and also proposed a number of policies and programmes to improve access and quality of education in Uganda. Subsequently, UPE was introduced in 1997, and to increase transition rates from primary to secondary, Uganda Post Primary Education and Training/Universal Secondary Education (UPPET/USE) started in 2007(Tukacungurwa et al, 2012).

However despite government efforts to increase access to education, the youth unemployment problem is far from being addressed. Uganda is ranked among the countries in the world with the highest youth unemployment rates and there is therefore need to think of strategies to address this problem (Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, 2006; World Bank, 2009). One way of doing this is to come up with a secondary school curriculum that would promote entrepreneurial competences and entrepreneurial self efficacy of the youth in order to enhance their entrepreneurship intention. Such a curriculum would ensure that the content covered and the pedagogies used seek to develop entrepreneurial competences and self efficacy among the school beneficiaries.

This article bases on literature to suggest ways of improving the secondary school curriculum in such a way that it would promote entrepreneurial competences. The
The article highlights the youth unemployment problem in Uganda; areas with entrepreneurial opportunities; the weaknesses in the education system that hinder the nurturing of entrepreneurial competences; competences critical for entrepreneurial success; and learning approaches that would promote entrepreneurial competences. The analysis of search literature provides information that is basic in finding a solution to the youth unemployment problem.

2. Education and the Youth Unemployment Problem in Uganda

Over the past two decades there has been a growing debate about how well educational systems prepare young people for adult life in general and ‘enterprise’ in the world of work in particular. This debate recognizes the need for societies, organizations and individual citizens to improve their capacity to cope with an increasingly competitive, uncertain and complex world involving higher rates of innovation and change (Gibb 2007). The wellbeing and prosperity of young people depend more than ever on skills that education and training can provide. Failing to meet this need is a waste of human potential and economic power (EFA Global Monitor Report, 2012). Education is not only about making sure all children attend school, but it’s about setting young people up for life, by giving them opportunities to find decent work, earn a living, contribute to their communities and to fulfill their potential. At a wider level, it’s about helping countries nurture the workforce they need to grow in the global economy (Bokova 2012). The world of schools and universities therefore needs to prepare students to function in the world of working and living which relies on collaboration, creativity, and framing of problems; dealing with uncertainty and change; and distributed cognition. Industrial-age models of education and work (based on B.F. Skinner and F.W. Taylor) are inadequate to prepare students to compete in the knowledge-based workplace. There is need to reduce the gap between school and workplace learning (U.S. Congress, 1995) by exploring answers to questions such as:

- What “basic skills” are required in a world in which occupational knowledge and skills become obsolete in years rather than decades?
- How can schools (which currently rely on closed-book exams, the solving of given problems, and so forth) be changed so that learners are prepared to function in environments requiring collaboration, creativity, problem framing, and distributed cognition?

The high incidence of unemployment among the youth in Uganda especially early school leavers suggests that the education system fails to meet the country’s workforce needs. Uganda has the highest youth unemployment rate in the world according to the World Bank’s African Development Indicators report (ADI) 2008/9. By then unemployment among the youth aged 15-24 stood at 83%. The Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development holds that there is an inverse relationship between education and unemployment in Uganda. The lowest unemployment rate is found among those with no schooling, followed by those whose educational level is below secondary. The highest unemployment rate is among those with secondary education and above (Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, 2006). According to the Organization for Child Support (2004) the unemployment rate among the youth in Uganda by then, most of whom were early school leavers, was at 60 percent. Incidentally Uganda has a very high rate of early school leavers. According to a 2010 report by UNESCO, Uganda still has the highest school dropout rate in East Africa (Busiingye and Kiwawulo 2011). Uganda’s Ministry of Education and Sports reports that as at end of 2010, gross enrolment at primary was 8,645,583 pupils and during the same period, 519,246 candidates sat for Primary Leaving Examinations (PLE). The transition rate to senior one for 2010 was 64.5%, implying that not all who finished primary level of education in 2009 proceeded to secondary. At the secondary level, the transition rate to senior 5 was even lower, i.e. at 50.7%. There were 264,635 candidates who sat their Uganda Certificate of Education (UCE) Examinations after four years of education at this level. The next level in secondary is the Uganda Advanced Certificate of Education (also sometimes referred to as Higher School Certificate). In 2010, 98,219 candidates sat for the Uganda Advanced Certificate of Education. The transition rate at this level is about 35% (Uganda Investment Authority, 2011).

The education system in Uganda was largely designed to prepare people for the public service jobs most of which are white collar jobs. This has worsened the unemployment problem among the youth. It has made the young people more of job seekers than job creator. Ntambirweki (2011) maintains that it has resulted into a large number of young people roaming the streets endlessly searching for these non-existent jobs. The youth unemployment problem has been further exacerbated by the changes in the employment sector. For example though the civil service was a major employer before the 1990s, the reforms and the privatization process of the 1990s led to a decline of employment in the public sector from 300,000 in 1990 to 150,000 by 1998 and about 259,650 employees in the traditional civil service by 2011 (Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development, 2011). Recorded private sector employment has been concentrated in agriculture and fishing (69.4%), manufacturing (5.6%), trade (8.9%), hotels and restaurants (2.0%), transport and communication (2.3%), construction (2.0%) as well as education (3.0%). Other sectors where recorded employment opportunities exist include mining and quarrying, utilities, posts and telecommunications, financial intermediation, insurance, business services, health and social works as well as community and personal services. These sectors provide employment to approximately 9.8% of the working
population (Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development, 2011). The informal sector continues to be a major employer though many enterprises in the informal sector are still characterized by low labour productivity, limited training, the use of basic technology, limited access to credit and finance, difficulties in obtaining raw materials and other inputs, as well as inadequate markets for semi processed products (Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development, 2011). Most of the players in the informal economy are poor people who are pushed into self-employment (necessity entrepreneurs as opposed to opportunity entrepreneurs) by a lack of employment opportunities. Lack of entrepreneurial skills partly explains the low growth dynamics of micro and small enterprises. This supports the perspective that internal weaknesses are the most binding constraints for micro and small firm development (Laker-Ojok 2012).

The current education system hardly offers entrepreneurship as a career option. Uganda has many areas with entrepreneurial opportunities that can absorb many young people and thereby contribute to the alleviation of unemployment. Students need to be prepared to take advantage of these entrepreneurial opportunities. For example Uganda still has high investment opportunities in the agriculture sector in areas such as horticulture, floriculture, dairy, coffee and various value addition possibilities for primary agricultural processing. According to Laker-Ojok (2012) Opportunities in the horticulture sector include commercial farming of fruits and vegetables, processing, production and export of de-hydrated fruits, cold storage facilities at collection points, organic farming etc. Recently innovations in vacuum packing, freezing and production of concentrates of processed fruits and vegetables have expanded the range of horticulture products that are being exported. Laker-Ojok (2012) also highlights the opportunities in the coffee sector. Uganda has long relied on coffee as its major export earner, but there is considerable scope for value addition in coffee to increase the value of production for both domestic consumption and export. Green coffee beans are sold for about one US dollar per kilogramme but when roasted and processed the coffee can fetch as much as 15 US dollars a kilogram. Mbeine (2012) holds that one way of addressing the youth unemployment problem is coming up with strategic interventions to attract the youth to the agriculture sector. And to do this, agriculture must be transformed from purely subsistence to commercial farming, where farmers undertake agriculture as a business that can help them earn enough income to prosper. According to Owino (2012), we need to embrace agribusiness in youth entrepreneurship and practical innovative technologies producing value added products for both local and international markets. With the rural electrification and other infrastructural development programmes in place, a multi-sectoral approach that promotes improved agricultural production, value addition and agribusiness value chains links need to be adopted to achieve forward and backward economic linkages between the rural and urban sector. Youth could venture into a range of viable opportunities in agribusiness and agro-processing. Value added agriculture outputs would find ready markets in most supermarkets in urban areas, curtailing imported processed food items and improving the balance of payment.

The country also has enormous opportunities in fisheries and forestry sectors. Uganda has a very high in the fisheries sector. With about 20% of its surface area covered by water, Uganda has enormous fisheries resources potential for both capture fisheries and aquaculture production. Uganda’s fisheries landscape includes the five large lakes of Victoria, Kyoga, Albert, Edward, George and Kazinga Channel, 160 minor lakes, rivers (Albert Nile), swamps and floodplains all of which are critical habitats, breeding and nursery grounds for fish and suitable sites for fish farming. Uganda’s fisheries resources are not only diverse in aquatic ecosystems but also in fish species biodiversity (MAAIF, 2012). There are further enormous entrepreneurial opportunities in the forestry sector. Owing to its household uses, forestry is of high economic importance to Uganda. Uganda has the richest biodiversity among the East African countries and is regarded as one of the important centres of biodiversity. This is due to the overlapping between the dry East African savanna and those of Central African rain forests. As a result a wide range of forest products can be developed at a lower cost and environmental risks. Uganda is endowed with favourable climatic conditions for forests. Even though tree growing involves long-term investment, it promises high returns for those who ensure proper management structures and technical standards.

The other area with entrepreneurial opportunities is tourism. According to Debbage and Danials (1998) tourism is no single product rather a wide range of products and services that interact to provide an opportunity to fulfill a tourist experience that comprises both tangible parts (e.g., hotel, restaurant, or air carrier) and intangible parts (e.g., sunset, scenery, mood”). Uganda also has a very high tourism potential and as such this sector can absorb a large number of people. Occupying the strategic confluence of East African savanna and Central African forest, Uganda offers a highly compelling combination of wildlife safaris and primate tracking. Combined with the continent’s highest mountain range, a source of the Nile, and African Great Lakes, Uganda undoubtedly has the raw materials necessary for a successful tourist destination. In fact, Uganda caught a glimpse of its tourism potential in the 1960s, when it was one of the top destinations in Africa. However, visitation all but ceased during the decades of instability and insecurity that followed (The World Bank 2011).

As a result of globalization, Uganda entrepreneurs have opportunities to export their products abroad. The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) and the European Union (EU) regional blocs are the major destinations for Uganda’s exports. Overall, the most important commodities exported from Uganda to the EU
since 2002 are Coffee (40.6%), Fish (26.6%), Tobacco (7.1%), Cut Flowers (6.6%), Cocoa (3.8%), Other live Plants 3.3%, Cotton (1.4%), Fresh Vegetables (.3%), Vanilla (0.6%) and Oilseeds (0.3%). The composition has been shifting somewhat, with the share of Coffee rising to 48%, Fish falling to 20.2%, Cocoa rising to 5.4%. The individual commodities that have grown the most in the last three years include coffee, cocoa, cut flowers and live plants, tobacco and bananas. Those that have fallen the most include fish, cotton, vanilla, and gums and vegetable saps. Uganda is also a member of the east African community (EAC). The EAC brings together Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, Rwanda and Burundi to form a regional bloc of approximately 133 million people. The combined GDP of the EAC is approximately US$79.2 billion. The EAC Customs Union protocol aims to liberalize intra regional trade. Uganda’s exports to the EAC partner states grew during the last decade and more so following the removal of internal tariffs in 2005. The total value of exports from Uganda to other EAC partner states increased more than four-fold from US$ 87.1 million in 2001 to US$ 377.4 million in 2008.

It is therefore important to have a school curriculum that includes entrepreneurship as a career option. In this article we review literature to come up with suggestions of how the secondary school curriculum may be revised to inculcate entrepreneurial competences among students. Such a curriculum would support the development of technical and industrial skills through vocationalisation; the development of general entrepreneurship skills and the development of entrepreneurial personality characteristics.

3. A secondary School Curriculum that will Enhance Entrepreneurial

The realities in the world of work today make it necessary to revise the secondary school curriculum to make it relevant to the contemporary needs of the world of work. There is need for a curriculum that would enhance entrepreneurial competences among students. The American Heritage Dictionary defines an entrepreneur as a person who organizes, operates and assumes the risk of business ventures. In their own contribution, Meredith, Nelson and Neck (1991) posit that entrepreneurs are people who have the ability to see and evaluate business opportunities; to gather the necessary resources and to take advantage of them; and to initiate appropriate action to ensure success. The entrepreneur can thus be conceptualized as a change agent, an innovator who is also a risk taker, who exploits business opportunities in his environment and utilize resources effectively to develop new technologies, produces new products and services to maximize his profits and contributing significantly to society’s development. Hisrich and Peters (2002) define entrepreneurship as a “process of creating something new and assuming the risks and rewards”. This definition stresses four important aspects of entrepreneurship. Aruwa (2006) sees entrepreneurship as “The willingness and ability of an individual to seek for investment opportunities, to establish and run an enterprise successfully”. Entrepreneurship serves as a linchpin between invention, innovation, and introduction of new products and services in the marketplace and also enables the entrepreneurs to act as engines of growth in the economy (Ketchen, 2003; Venkataraman, 1997).

A pertinent starting point in conceptualizing entrepreneurial competencies is to first define competence. A competence is simply the ability which an individual requires to do assigned job. Competences are a mix of knowledge, skills and attitudes (Lans et al. 2008). They can also be defined as broader personal characteristics necessary for superior behaviour, but also as an outcome of a proper application of knowledge (Brown 1993). Le-Brasseur et al (2002) understand a competency as “an effective performance of a task or activity in a job setting, due to the underlying characteristics of the individual: motives, traits, skills, self-image, social role, or knowledge and experience. Competencies therefore constitute a cluster of related knowledge, attitudes, and skills, which an individual acquires and uses together, to produce outstanding performance in any given area of responsibility. Entrepreneurial competencies, therefore, include those clusters of related knowledge, attitudes, and skills which an entrepreneur must acquire to enable him produce outstanding performance, and maximize profit, while managing a business venture or an enterprise. Man et al. (2002) defined entrepreneurial competencies as higher-level characteristics encompassing personality traits, skills and knowledge, which can be seen as the total ability of the entrepreneur to perform a job successfully.

It has long been the conventional wisdom that some people are born entrepreneurs and will succeed with or without education, while no amount of education can provide business success for those who lack the ‘entrepreneurial spirit’. As such entrepreneurship educators have been questioned for attempting to teach what, until recently, has been considered unteachable (Jones and English, 2004). However many contemporary scholars maintain that entrepreneurial abilities can be nurtured through education. According to Kourilsky & Walstad, (1998) experience demonstrates that people can learn about entrepreneurship, and there is a growing acceptance that elements of entrepreneurship can be taught and learned. When rooted in solid learning theory, entrepreneurial education develops entrepreneurs, by increasing business knowledge and promoting psychological attributes associated with entrepreneurs. Peter Drucker - recognized as one of the leading management thinkers of our time - stated that entrepreneurship is not magic, is not mysterious, and it has nothing to do with genes. It is a discipline. And, like any discipline, it can be learned (Drucker, 1985). In fact, there is a widespread idea that entrepreneurship education would generate more and better entrepreneurs.
than there have been in the past and that education would increase the chances of obtaining entrepreneurial success (Alberti 2004). Brockhaus (1994) states that teaching someone to be an entrepreneur is like teaching someone to be an artist. We cannot make a person another Van Gogh, but the skills and creativity needed for being a successful entrepreneur could nevertheless be anyway enhanced by entrepreneurial education.

Though not every student is being prepared to become an entrepreneur, there is need for a curriculum that would inculcate entrepreneurial competences. Wojtczak (2002) defines curriculum as an educational plan that spells out which goals and objectives should be achieved, which topics should be covered and which methods are to be used for learning, teaching and evaluation. A curriculum is the instructional and the educative programme by following which the pupils achieve their goals, ideals and aspirations of life. It is curriculum through which the general aims of a school education receive concrete expression (Sharma 2012). Coles (2003) argues that the aims of education are attained by the school programmes, concerning knowledge, experiences, activities, skills and values (Sharma 2012). Developing the right competences requires having the right curriculum. A country’s curriculum is determined by the aims of life and society. Aims of life and society are subject to constant change. Hence, the aims of education are also subject to change and dynamic. The aims of education are attained by the school programmes, concerning knowledge, experiences, activities, skills and values (Sharma, 2012).

An Entrepreneurial curriculum involves activities promoting the individual skills, attitudes, behaviors and capabilities that foster the development of entrepreneurial values (GEM, 2005). European commission (2008) describes an entrepreneurial curriculum as one which goes beyond the traditional learning boundaries and ensures purposeful learning which combines the learners, facilitators, and practitioners who through formal means provide informal education through role modeling, mentoring and coaching.

3.1. Vocationalisation of the Curriculum as a Way of Enhancing Entrepreneurial Competences

Specific industrial and technical skills and knowledge are important for entrepreneurial success and these may not necessarily be among the generally identified functional competences. While discussing entrepreneurial competences Baum et al. (2001) distinguish between specific competencies and general competencies. Specific competencies consist of industry skills and technical skills, while general competency includes organization skills and opportunity recognition skills. Sony and Iman (2005) maintain that industry and technical skills may be cultivated through vocational training. The internationally agreed definition of technical or vocational education is: ‘education which is mainly designed to lead participants to acquire the practical skills, know-how and understanding necessary for employment in a particular occupation or trade or class of occupations or trades (UNESCO, 1997).

Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) is considered an important measure for the development of trained labour force required for the socio-economic development of a country (Kazmi 2007). More specifically, it is believed to be an effective answer to reduce unemployment and migration to urban centres (Lillis and Hogan, 1983). For Grubb (1985), vocational education can be used effectively to combat the problem of early school leavers. The role of TVET in furnishing skills required to improve productivity, raise income levels and improve access to employment opportunities has been widely recognized (Bennell 1999). Technical education develops ‘skill culture’ in contrast to pure academic culture and preferences for white collar jobs (Grubb, 1985). The development of occupational skills leads to technological advancement that ensures optimum utilization of resources and leads to enhanced productivity and thereby increased level of growth, competitiveness and job satisfaction and reduction in gap between demand and supply (Kazmi 2007).

Developments in the last three decades have made the role of TVET more decisive; the globalization process, technological change, and increased competition due to trade liberalization necessitates requirements of higher skills and productivity among workers in both modern sector firms and Micro and Small Enterprises (MSE) (Nyerere 2009).

In taking advantage of the opportunities that exist in the agricultural sector, fisheries, tourism, forestry etc. technical and vocational skills are necessary. To promote entrepreneurship therefore there is need for a secondary school curriculum that will promote technical and vocational skills. According to The EFA Global Monitor Report (2012) formal secondary schooling is the most effective way to develop the skills needed for work and life. High quality secondary school education is vital not just to set young people on the path to the world of work, but also to give countries the educated workforce they need to compete in today’s technologically driven world.

Secondary school education should build on foundation skills and provide equal opportunity for all the youth to develop transferable and technical and vocational skills to find a good job for further education. At upper secondary level, young people need to learn transferable skills to smooth the transition from school to work, and technical and vocational skills for specific trades or sectors of work. Combining these skills and tailoring them to the needs of the local market provides a good curriculum balance that can benefit all (UNESCO, 2012).

Experience from OECD countries suggests that when technical and vocational subjects are introduced alongside general subjects and made more relevant to the labour market, enrolment and completion rates can increase. Making the curriculum more flexible in upper secondary
school in terms of subject choices and allowing a route back to further education can result in benefits for all students, as Singapore’s experience has shown. There are always some impediments to this approach, however such as the lack of resources, materials and qualified teachers to offer such flexibility effectively (UNESCO, 2012). Several countries; developed and developing, such as Italy, Brazil, China, Sweden and Japan have given more recognition to TVET through adequate funding. As a result, students get exposed to vocational training and to a culture of scientific investigation and application at an early age. In Europe, at least 50 percent of the students in upper secondary education pursue some form of technical or vocational education. In China, India and South East Asia the figure is 35-40 percent, whereas in Africa it is less than 20 percent (Nyerere 2009).

There is evidence to suggest that secondary school education in Uganda does not support the development of industrial and vocational skills. The system has also been criticised for rewarding memorization skills which are reflected in grades, rather than creativity and productive skills (Bagunywa, 1980). With this system students are compelled to gear all their efforts towards passing examinations so as to reach the next level of education, with the aim of obtaining paid employment, but the majority simply have no chance of achieving this goal (Nnolim, 1988). While assessing secondary school education in Uganda, Clegg et al (2007) maintain that Key characteristics required of the 21st century curriculum are missing. The existing curriculum is a static one in which learners, driven by the need to succeed in a high-stakes examination, are forced to learn a mass of knowledge that is largely abstract, fact-centred, decontextualized and irrelevant. The teaching methodologies inbuilt in the existing syllabuses do not promote effective learning and acquisition of skills as teaching is directed at achieving the highest grade in the examination. Skills remain largely unassessed, other than a very limited range of rather insignificant ones in, for example, science practical examinations. Hence skills remain largely untaught even when their mastery is a stated curriculum objective. According to Tukacungurwa et al (2012) most secondary schools in Uganda lack the essential facilities necessary for adequate functional delivery of a science curriculum, such as laboratories, textbooks and other related infrastructure. It was noted by the Parliamentary Committee on social services (2009) that despite making science subjects compulsory at O’ level, most schools in the country did not have adequate laboratories.

The academic orientation of Uganda’s education system has a historical background. The education system introduced by the colonialists and pioneered by the missionaries did not equip the young with the skills that were essential for them to become productive members of society. Instead education was a prerequisite for entry into the social, political and economic circles of the colonial system (Tiberondwa, 1998). Education was looked on as providing the skills, which could be used in the white colonialists’ fields of employment, which were strongly connected to office work (Ssekamwa, 2000). The education system continued to have an academic orientation despite efforts of various stakeholders to advocate for its vocationalisation (such as Phelps-Stokes Commission1922 and The De Bunsen Committee of 1952). With the failure of vocational education, the favoured academic education was ingrained and policies that supported it upheld, thus consolidating the problem of early school leaving (Ssekamwa, 2000). In the post-colonial government that came in 1962 Vocational training continued to be relegated to a lower status and schools which emphasized technical training were shunned by both parents and learners who did not want to be perceived as “losers”. Both government and the local people preferred an education system that would give the beneficiaries white-collar jobs in offices. With popular resistance to educational policies that emphasized vocational training and agriculture and an increase in white-collar positions arising due to the departure of expatriate colonial civil servants, the academic curriculum became increasingly popular during the post-colonial period. More academically oriented schools were established and the few vocational and technical secondary schools that had been established were converted to academic schools to meet the demand for civil servants (Ssekamwa, 2000). Leaders valued education as a way for upward mobility for a small minority of successful students. This made almost everybody want to become one of these lucky few (Saunders, 2006).

3.2. The Need for a Curriculum that will Enhance General Entrepreneurial Skills

As already mentioned Baum et al. (2001) distinguish between specific competencies and general competencies. Specific competency consists of industry skills and technical skills, while general competency includes organization skills and opportunity recognition skills. General entrepreneurial skills are commonly demonstrated as functional competences. Functional competences are practical intellectual skills related to the understanding of entrepreneurial concepts and relationships between them, mastering different rules connected with these concepts and entrepreneurial decision making as well (Richey 2000). They are actually ‘know-how’ knowledge, which a person operating in a particular occupational or entrepreneurial field should be able to perform or exhibit. Entrepreneurial learning related to the transfer of so-called functional competences needed to carry out certain tasks or to implement some innovative work or business approaches, should focus on actual business situations, on innovation, on intrapreneurial initiatives, or on creation of new firms, and on finding the ways to enter new markets, etc. It is especially worth mentioning that such competences should enable the learner to identify entrepreneurial opportunities (acquisition of information and its interpretation), to create new business concepts (products, services, markets,
customers), to conduct market research or acquisition of assets (funding, human resources, etc.) and to organize the business (to enter into arrangements, to establish working routines and organizational structures) (Jong de and Wennekers 2008). Zinger et al. (2001) identify ten areas of managerial competences which are related to entrepreneurial situations as well: customer service, business image, pricing, operations, supply management (purchasing, inventory control), ability to develop new products and services, financial management (monitoring receivables, developing financial projections), general management (monitoring business trends, delegating), using computer technology, advertising and promotion, and financial control (using budgets for setting targets and evaluating results). Huck and McEwen (1991) found that management, planning and budgeting, and marketing/selling are the three most important competency areas for Jamaican entrepreneurs. Sony and Iman (2005) decompose entrepreneurial competency into four dimensions: management skills, industry skills, opportunity skills and technical skills. To prepare students for entrepreneurship the content in the curriculum should cover general entrepreneurship skills such as marketing skills, financial management skills and financial literacy, strategic planning skills, relations management skills, leadership skills, business planning skills etc.

3.2.1. Marketing Skills

To prepare students for entrepreneurship they need to be equipped with marketing skills. As such, the content in the secondary school curriculum needs to include aspects of marketing that are important in starting new ventures. The marketing function is central and strategic to a firm’s success” (Ebitu, 2005). Hisrich and Peters (2002) maintain that marketing skills in the growth stage of a new venture are critical to a venture’s continued success. As the company grows, it will need to develop new products and services to maintain its distinctiveness in a competitive market”. Marketing skills are essential in coming up with product development strategies. Entrepreneurs need to be innovative in developing new product and service ideas. Product strategies may also include positioning, branding, concentration of specific niches, customer care etc. Marketing combined with vocational skills would enhance the ability of the youth to add value to local products; develop appropriate and attractive packaging for the products and to differentiate products through branding. Uganda needs to add value to agriculture products and to transition from the sale primary products which fetch very low prices. For example the majority of Uganda’s agricultural products are sold in their primary form and thereby attracting very low prices. Entrepreneurs also need to know how to work with existing intermediaries to bring their products to the final consumers. The entrepreneur further needs to know the approaches used to bring its product or service to the attention of prospective purchasers such as advertising, personal selling and sales promotions.

3.2.2. Financial Literacy and Financial Management Skills

The youth need also to be equipped with financial literacy and financial management skills to be ready for entrepreneurship. According to the U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO), financial literacy is “The ability to make informed judgments and to take effective actions regarding the current and future use and management of money. It includes the ability to understand financial choices, plan for the future and spend wisely”(Cohen and Nelson 2011). For Mundy and Musoke (2011) the term “financial literacy” means having the knowledge, skills and confidence to manage your finances well, taking into account your economic and social circumstances, where: “knowledge” means having an understanding of personal financial issues; “skills” means being able to apply that knowledge to manage one’s personal finances; and “Confidence” means feeling sufficiently self-assured to make decisions relating to one’s personal finances. Today’s financial products and services are increasingly complex and accessible from a growing number and type of providers. It is hard to navigate the financial marketplace, compare products, and understand their relative benefits and risks. At the same time that financial products and services have increased in number and complexity, large numbers of consumers are entering financial markets for the first time, both because income is growing in developing countries and because new financial institutions, such as microfinance providers, and new technologies, are making it easier for consumers to participate in financial markets Kefela (2011). Financial literacy can help to prepare consumers for tough financial times, by promoting strategies that mitigate risk such as accumulating savings, diversifying assets, and purchasing insurance. Financial literacy also reinforces behaviors such as timely payment of bills and avoidance of over-indebtedness that help consumers to maintain their access to loans in tight credit markets Kefela (2011).

Experts suggest that the financial literacy level in Uganda is still low. The level of financial literacy in Uganda has an effect on the survival rates of SMEs. According to Charles Ocici, the executive director Enterprise Uganda, in Uganda 80% of SMEs do not reach their first anniversary and quarter of them collapse in their first six months of existence. Financial literacy gaps are largely responsible for the short lifespan of many enterprises, particularly those falling under the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) bracket, an enterprise development expert had said. Thus supporting business growth must entail an element of financial literacy to empower people with the knowledge, skills and confidence to manage their business and personal finances well, taking into account their economic and social circumstances. Ocici maintains that the country suffers from a wide financial education vacuum, landing young entrepreneurs into the dilemma of making ill-informed decisions about money (Ssepijja 2011). Mundy and Musoke (2011) maintain that
many people in Uganda lack the skills and confidence to manage their finances well. There is an increasing recognition among a wide range of stakeholders of the importance of tackling this problem. This is partly because the increased availability of credit, the growth of microfinance and the expansion of remittance networks (with the development of branchless banking potentially around the corner) have made financial products available to people who were previously – wholly or mainly – outside the financial system. These developments provide potential benefits to people, but they also give rise to risks which may be unfamiliar to new and prospective customers. Improving people’s financial literacy will help them to take advantage of these new opportunities without exposing themselves to undue risks. Mundy and Musoke (2011) further maintain that in Uganda, there is an asymmetry of information between financial services providers and consumers. This arises both from the complexity of some financial products and services, and because it may not be possible to assess the quality of a product and service – for example, a long-term insurance policy or an investment – until many years after it was bought. This asymmetry often leads to consumers buying financial products or services which are not suitable for them – or failing to buy products or services which it would be in their interests to acquire.

Financial management skills are also critical in the process of enterprise creation. Mbat (2001) maintains that an entrepreneur needs to acquire knowledge on financial management issues like anticipation of financial needs for the enterprise, acquisition of funds and allocation of funds in order to yield optimum result. Most entrepreneurial failures are due to the inability of the entrepreneurs to effectively manage funds which they source for their ventures. The acquisition of financial management knowledge is therefore a necessary factor in entrepreneurial success (Nwachukwu, 2005). When business owners are well equipped with finance tools like budgeting financial resources, managing cash flows, and Risk management then small business growth will easily be enhanced at a higher rate. Skillful management of finances is critical to the survival and growth of businesses most especially the small businesses and when done efficiently contributes greatly to profits.

3.2.3. Leadership Skills

Students need to be empowered with leadership skills in preparing them for entrepreneurship. The ability to produce the necessary leadership is the key determinant of achievement in all-human activities. To succeed in entrepreneurship the individual requires leadership qualities to exercise influence over others. According to Ilesanmi (2000) successful entrepreneurs are successful leaders, they have power and motivate the entrepreneurial venture. In other words, for an entrepreneur to succeed, he/she must have the ability to direct the organization and persuade others to seek defined objective enthusiastically. You become a leader in your business and in the world around you by practicing the qualities and behaviours of leaders who have gone before you. Like any set of skills, leadership is developed by practice and repetition, over and over again, until you master it. Entrepreneurs are creative individuals with unique leadership qualities and personal styles. As astute leaders, “They seek opportunities, initiate projects, gather the physical, financial and human resources needed to carry out projects, set goals for themselves and others, and direct and guide others to accomplish goals” (Ilesanmi, 2000: 188).

3.2.4. Strategic Planning Skills

Being the owner of the firm, the entrepreneur must set the direction for the whole company. This category of competencies requires the entrepreneur to have a vision or a big picture in their mind for their business, to have clear goals to achieve, or to formulate and implement strategies to achieve these vision and goals, for or example, McClelland’s (1987) systematic planning, and Lau et al.’s (2000) strategic planning competencies. In essence, these competencies are related to setting, evaluating and implementing the strategies of the firm, while calling for abilities and skills from a broader and long-term perspective. In preparing students for entrepreneurship there is need to equip them with long term planning skills such as vision setting, mission setting, goal setting and objective setting skills.

3.2.5 Relationships Management Skills

The school system should help students to grow in relationship management skills. This is group of competencies relating to person-to-person or individual-to-group based interactions, (Man et al. 2002). To successfully do so, the entrepreneur needs to possess competencies in relationship building, communication, persuasive and interpersonal abilities (McClelland, 1987; Lau et al., 2000). Bird (1995) described this relationship building activities as entrepreneurial bonding, which includes not only the creation of relationship, but also the restructuring of relationships as the company grows or a partnership is dissolved. Entrepreneurs are embedded in a social context (Steier, 2000) since many of the tasks entrepreneurs must accomplish in order to succeed involve elements of socialization. Raising external capital, generating enthusiasm and commitment in employees, communicating effectively with people from a wide range of backgrounds, attracting effective partners and employees, developing business networks and relationships, establishing trust and legitimacy, and negotiating with others over diverse issues, are only some of the interactions entrepreneurs must initiate and manage. Evidence suggests that small firms in particular are critically dependent on their networks, because it is through these that they gain advice and support from professionals and experts such as lawyers, accountants, and consultants (Ramsden and Bennett, 2005), government bodies, research and training institutes, and even suppliers and customers (Ritter and Gemunden, 2004). Since the creation of new companies
entails the ability to work effectively with many constituencies in numerous contexts and under varying degrees of uncertainty, ceteris paribus, proficiency in dealing with others may be a key ingredient in entrepreneurs’ success (Markman and Baron 2003).

3.3. The Need for a Curriculum that will Develop an Entrepreneurial Personality

Developing an entrepreneurial personality is an important step in preparing students for the world of entrepreneurship. If young people are to take advantage of the entrepreneurial opportunities that exist in the country, they must be prepared psychologically to face the entrepreneurial situation the way it manifests. For example there is a need to change the mindset of young people from the job seeking mentality to the job creation one. It is expected that if students can improve their motivation to achieve, personal control, self-esteem, and creativity they are more likely to avoid self-destructive behavior patterns such as teenage pregnancy, drug-abuse, violence, and gang participation. An entrepreneurial curriculum creates awareness of alternative career choices and broadens the horizon of individuals, equipping them with cognitive tools and enabling them to perceive and develop entrepreneurial opportunities (Van der Kuip and Verheul, 2003). Ashaba & Katusiimeh (2013) hold that the youth in Uganda have a negative attitude and poor work culture. This is characterized with poor work ethics, poor time management characterized by late arrival and early retirement from work etc. This poor attitude has failed Ugandan youths to compete favorably in the East African market. Muwema (2011) maintains that part of money allocated to the youth by government should be spent on attitude change programmes. The education curriculum therefore should be designed to develop an entrepreneurial personality. To be able to embrace entrepreneurship and to cope with the demands of entrepreneurship students need to develop an entrepreneurial mindset and behaviour.

Entrepreneurial personality characteristics are based on cognitive and behavioral competences. Behavioural competences are personal, learnable competences related to entrepreneurial or enterprising behaviour. They represent the answer to the question – how to behave in certain entrepreneurial situations (Jong and Wennekers 2008). Gartner (1988) suggests that the utilization of a behavioral approach is a more productive perspective in studying issues related to entrepreneurship, especially in linking individual behavior to firm performance. To prepare young people for entrepreneurship particular personality characteristics that needs to be nurtured in the secondary school to. These may include the following:

3.3.2. Creativity

Creativity is another important personality characteristic that needs to be nurtured to prepare young people to take advantage of the entrepreneurial opportunities in their environments. To succeed in entrepreneurship young people need to come up with creative products and services that will satisfy the needs of the market. According to Harris (1998) creativity is the ability to create something new, to bring something into existence, to invent something into a new form, to produce something through imaginative skills etc. He maintains that creativity is not ability to create out of nothing, but the ability to generate new ideas by combining, changing, or reapplying existing ideas. Some creative ideas are astonishing and brilliant, while others are just simple, good practical ideas that no one seems to have thought, of yet. Creativity is also an attitude, the ability to accept change and newness, a willingness to play with ideas and possibilities, a flexibility of outlook, the habit of enjoying the good, while looking for ways to improve it Harris (1998).

3.3.3. Risk Taking Propensity

Taking advantage of entrepreneurial opportunities involves taking risks. This is because of the fact that not every entrepreneurial venture turns out to be successful. For one reason or the other an entrepreneurial venture may fail. The school curriculum needs to prepare students to take risks but calculated risks. Risk taking refers to the acceptance of risk in undertaking a certain activity, i.e., the probability that an activity is successful is less than 100 percent. In the same context risk-taking can been defined as "exposing oneself to loss or disadvantage" (Kourilsky). A high propensity to take risks is also considered to be an important characteristic of entrepreneurs. More risk averse individuals are expected to become workers, while the less risk averse becomes entrepreneurs. It is a relatively stable characteristic but can be modified through experience (Panzano and Billings 2005). Risk taking is identified as a trait that distinguishes entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs and managers (Burch, 1986). The level of risk-taking propensity of the owners may lead to certain
entrepreneurial orientations. It is believed that entrepreneurs prefer to take moderate risks in situations where they have some degree of control or skill in realizing a profit (Cunningham, 1991). They do not prefer situation which involved either extremes of risk or certainty (McClelland, 1961). Risk-taking propensity may positively influence innovativeness, especially product innovativeness.

3.3.4. Achievement Motivation

The entrepreneurial situation requires a high achievement motivation. Experience indicates the most people who turn out to become successful entrepreneurs have a high achievement motivation. McClelland (1965) suggested that the key to entrepreneurial behavior lay in achievement motivation. Achievement motivation is the tendency to set challenging goals and strive after these goals through own effort (McClelland, 1961). McClelland (1965) argues that a high need for achievement drives people to become entrepreneurs. McClelland (1961) argued that individuals with a high achievement motivation are more likely than those with a low motivation to engage in activities or tasks that have a high degree of individual responsibility for outcomes, require individual skill and effort, have a moderate degree of risk, and include clear feedback on performance. A number of studies suggest that need for achievement is higher in company founders, compared to managers (Begley & Boyd, 1987). One of the ways in which schools can contribute to preparing students for the world of entrepreneurship is enhancing their achievement motivations.

3.3.5. Tolerance for Ambiguity

Entrepreneurial decisions are not always routine or made under clear guidelines. Experience demonstrates that an entrepreneur many times makes decisions under unclear circumstances. Entrepreneurs therefore need to be tolerant of ambiguous situations. According to Bowler (1995), entrepreneurs do not only operate in an uncertain environment but eagerly undertake the unknown and willingly seek out and manage uncertainty. Budner (1962) defined tolerance for ambiguity as the “tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as desirable,” whereas intolerance for ambiguity was defined as “the tendency to perceive … ambiguous situations as sources of threat”. An ambiguous situation is one in which the individual is provided with information that is too complex, inadequate, or apparently contradictory (Norton, 1975). McClelland (1967) defines intolerance for ambiguity as a tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as source of threat. From this definition, we can infer that tolerance for ambiguity refers to the tendency to perceive ambiguous situations in a more neutral way. When there is insufficient information to structure a situation, an ambiguous situation is said to exist. A person who has a high tolerance for ambiguity is one who finds ambiguous situation challenging and who strives to overcome unstable and unpredictable situations in order to perform well. Therefore to prepare young people for entrepreneurship designing a curriculum that nurtures the tolerance of ambiguity is important.

3.3.6. Locus of Control

Going through an entrepreneurship process successfully requires the individual to have a strong internal locus of control. Rotter (1966) defined Locus of Control as an individual’s perception about the underlying main causes of events in his/her life. Locus of control refers to the perceived control over the events in one’s life (Rotter, 1954). Or, more simply: People with internal locus of control believe that they are able to control what happens in their lives. The Individual believes that his/her behavior is guided by his/her personal decisions and efforts; or as unrelated to his or her actions and is guided by fate, luck, or other external circumstances (external). People with internal locus of control believe that they can control what happens in their lives. On the other hand, people with external locus of control tend to believe that most of the events in their lives result from luck, being at the right place at the right time, and the behaviors of powerful people. Research indicates that individuals with internal locus of control often have a more expressed need for achievement (Brockhaus 1982). Brockhaus (1982) found that entrepreneurs have greater internal locus of control than the general population; therefore entrepreneurs believe that the outcome of a business venture will be influenced by their own efforts. Entrepreneurship involves working with others and entrepreneur has to provide leadership. He needs an internal locus of control to achieve this.

3.3.7. Persistence

Persistence has been defined as "the inclination to stick to a task until it is completed" (Kourilsky, 1980). Many times the entrepreneurship situation is challenging and the entrepreneur may be faced with failure. Successful entrepreneurs do not give up in the face of failure. They realize that they can learn from failure, and that if they persist they may be more successful next time. It may be argued that the persistence with which an individual pursues a certain goal is largely dependent upon motivation, energy and commitment. Hill in his book Think and Grow Rich (1960) discussed the reasons for the success of more than 500 wealthy individuals from various countries. He noted that one of the main human weaknesses is that most people are far too ready to consider a task impossible. Many individuals cannot enjoy success because they throw in their hands for fear of failure. Persistence is an important psychological attribute of successful entrepreneurs which needs to be nurtured in school.

3.3.8. Personal Initiative

This is another important attribute in successful entrepreneurship. Personal Initiative has been defined as "the motivation to begin work independently, to take the first step, to be adventurous, and to be willing to try new methods” (Kourilsky, 1980). Personal initiative is a proactive, self-starting, and persistent orientation that
attempts to shape environmental conditions (Frese et al., 1996). An entrepreneur with high personal initiative is someone who initiates to take action and to be proactive. Whether it is to determine the success of start-ups or to successfully lead a company to growth-stage, personal initiative, which represents the ability to self-start, proactive, and over-coming barriers plays a major role. To promote an entrepreneurial personality this quality needs to be promoted.

3.4. Pedagogies that will Nurture Entrepreneurial Competences

The question of how the curriculum can be designed to inculcate entrepreneurial personality qualities among students remains a pertinent one. It is therefore an area that still needs a lot of research. Many entrepreneurship scholars have emphasized particular pedagogies and the learning environment. Gibb (2007) holds that it is possible to encourage entrepreneurial behavior within the context of the standard curriculum subjects such as language and literature, mathematics, geography, history, science and so on. Entrepreneurial qualities can be developed through training at an early age (Rushing, 1990; Kourilsky and Carlson, 1997; Kourilsky and Walstad, 1998). Because children’s personalities are still malleable in early childhood, initial education can play an important role in the development of personality traits or, more specifically, entrepreneurial qualities. Entrepreneurial qualities are preferably taught in the early years of children’s schooling, i.e., in primary and secondary education (Van der Kuip and Verheul, 2003).

To develop entrepreneurial personality characteristics among students there is need to pay critical attention to the pedagogies enshrined in the curriculum. The traditional educational system has been criticized by various scholars for inhibiting the development of entrepreneurial qualities. Chamard (1989) maintains that the formal education system is not particularly supportive of entrepreneurship and possibly suppresses the more important entrepreneurial characteristics. According to Van der Kuip and Verheul, (2003) the traditional educational system inhibits the development of entrepreneurial qualities because it teaches young people to obey, reproduce facts and to engage in wage employment after finishing their education. In contrast, entrepreneurs tend to rely on their own judgement, learn through the process of trial-and-error and create and facilitate their own job-environment. The focus in the educational system is on analytical thinking rather than on creative thinking (Kourilsky, 1990). Whereas creative thinking refers to being open to new possibilities, analytical thinking is aimed at explaining facts leading to fixed answers. The old school system created uniformity among students and reliance upon an environment characterized by a high level of certainty. By contrast, entrepreneurship is associated with diversity among individuals having different interests, opinions and qualities and with creating opportunities from an uncertain environment (Van der Kuip and Verheul, 2003). Bruner (1996) maintains that one of the most impoverished paradigms of education is a setting where a single, all-knowing teacher tells or shows presumably unknowing learners something they presumably know nothing about. We should reconceive classrooms as places in which subcommunities of learners act simultaneously as learners, as designers and active contributors, and in which peer-to-peer learning is supported while the teacher acts as a “guide on the side” rather than as a “sage on the stage”.

It is also necessary to provide a classroom or school environment which reflects the real work environment. The environment in which individuals are living their lives is, in general, one of greater uncertainty and complexity. According to Gibb (2002) a conducive environment is one in which there is recognition that learning does not take place solely in an ‘instructional’ context. The bulk of lifelong learning takes place in an uncontrolled pedagogical environment. The key challenge is therefore to create an environment where participants can learn to learn in the way which will be demanded of them in entrepreneurial circumstances. The notion of a ‘conducive environment’ for learning and entrepreneurship can be taken to mean the bringing forward of the environment in which the knowledge will be used and therefore facilitating learning as part of the ‘doing’ process. This has implications not only for the way that the classroom is organized, but also for the way knowledge is organized by institutions, the contexts for knowledge that are applied and the values and beliefs that may underpin learning approaches (Gibb 2002).

Gibb and Cotton (1998) argue that the emphasis should be on pedagogies that encourage learning: by doing, by experience, by experiment, by risk taking and making mistakes, by creative problem solving, by feedback through social interaction; by role playing, by exploring role models; and by interaction with the adult world. According to Jones and English (2004) a learning environment is required to support the study of entrepreneurship - a teaching style that is action-oriented, encourages experiential learning, problem solving, project-based learning, creativity, and is supportive of peer evaluation. It is thought that such a process best provides the mix of enterprising skills and behaviours akin to those required to create and manage a small business. Lodewijks (1995) maintains that there is a range of demands that need to be fulfilled in order to create this learning environment. The learning environment should:

- be functional and similar to that where the knowledge is put into practice;
- invite activity: students are stimulated to use the environment in an interactive and integrated manner;
- refer to real-life situations where students are required to use their knowledge in dialogue with the environment and learn how to use knowledge in different contexts;
- include role models and coaches;
- show students how they can learn, stimulating them to
take responsibility for their own learning process;
• Systematically pay attention to students’ awareness of capacities, enabling them to perceive improvements.

This learning environment, facilitating entrepreneurial learning, is largely consistent with the principles of the theory of generative learning and experience-based learning.

4. Conclusion

Enhancing the entrepreneurial competences of the youth is critical in addressing the youth unemployment problem in Uganda and in facilitating the exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities that exist in the country. Secondary school education can contribute to the development of these competences among the youth. There is however need to design a curriculum that would contribute to the development of three categories of competences i.e. industrial and technical skills, general entrepreneurial skills and entrepreneurial personality characteristics. Further research therefore needs to be done to come up with a suitable secondary school curriculum, that is:

• One that is highly vocationalised. This may involve searching for better ways of teaching of science, establishing the training needs of teachers and discovering the facilities necessary for adequate delivery of a science curriculum. It may also involve discovering ways to support the collaboration between schools and industry.

• One that will nurture entrepreneurial personality characteristics and encourage entrepreneurial behaviour.

• One that will create an environment that reflects real life situations and pedagogies in which learning is by doing, by experience, by creative problem solving, by risk taking and making mistakes, by interacting with the adult world, by supportive peer evaluation as Gibb and Cotton (1998) put it.

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