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Entrepreneurship: Skill and Self-Reliance among Polytechnics' Students in Nigeria *(A Case Study of North-Eastern Nigeria)*

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Abstract: *This study examined the impact of entrepreneurship education on skill acquisition and self-reliance among polytechnic students in North-Eastern Nigeria. The research employed a quantitative methodology, utilizing structured questionnaires and secondary data from polytechnic records to assess the effectiveness of entrepreneurship programs in fostering practical skills and independence. The study was conducted across five states in the North-Eastern geopolitical zone, including Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, and Yobe. Data collection involved a combination of primary surveys, which provided insights into the challenges and efficacy of current entrepreneurship education, and secondary data from official polytechnic documents. Interviews with senior academics offered additional qualitative insights into the curriculum's implementation. Findings indicated that while entrepreneurship education is integral to skill development and self-reliance, there remain significant gaps in the practical application of these skills. The study highlights the necessity for enhanced curriculum design and more effective teaching methods to bridge these gaps and improve the overall impact of entrepreneurship education.*

Keywords: *Curriculum, Entrepreneurship, Education, Skill Acquisition, Self-Reliance*

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Background of the Research

In Nigeria, higher technical education is mainly provided in Polytechnics (and in some few technical universities). Technical education is essentially entrepreneurial; it seeks to equip students with functional knowledge, skills, attitudes and related competences that they may readily apply in creating value, i.e., goods and services (Idogho and Ainabor, 2011).

Therefore, Polytechnics are established to produce the highest possible levels of technical manpower to enhance national development (FGN, 2004). The unarticulated caveat is that the Polytechnic system is aligned well enough to achieve the desired objectives. Over the years however, it was realized that products of the Polytechnic system though fairly equipped with the requisite knowledge and skills are most often incapable of using the acquired competences to initiate value adding economic ventures that will contribute

to the overall drive of the country at fighting poverty and fostering economic growth and development (Bubou and Okrigwe, 2016).

This type of scenario is not the sole experience of Nigeria; even developed countries with better educational systems such as the United Kingdom do wonder whether graduates are equipped with the right skills (Raybould and Sheedy, 2005). Therefore, the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) took the path of promoting entrepreneurship through entrepreneurship education in order to produce a critical mass of graduate entrepreneurs necessary for economic development (Nkamnebe, Mitra, Abubakar and Sagagi, 2015). This was done by simply adding entrepreneurship subjects to the curricula of the various programmes offered in all higher educational institutions (Kabongo and Okpara, 2010).

Laudable as the FGN's pro-entrepreneurship efforts are, the implementation lacks a defined strategy dovetailed to the peculiarities of fostering the entrepreneurial spirit among students under the formal education system. Therefore, the focus of almost all of the entrepreneurship programmes is correctly on the provision of entrepreneurial competences, the delivery ended up using the inappropriate pedagogic mechanism widely used in Nigeria's HEIs the lecture method (Acs, 2010). Thus, students ended up learning by rote some concepts in entrepreneurship just to pass the written examination. In as much as the end envisaged of entrepreneurship education is to produce actual entrepreneurs who will initiate and nurture viable enterprises for sustainable economic development of the nation, the FGN's programmes are a monumental failure, as evidenced by the rising levels of graduate unemployment, widespread poverty, and falling economic indicators (Animn, 2012). In fact, Adejimola and Olufunmilayo (2019) reported that about 70% of the Polytechnic graduates find it difficult to get employment every year. Why?

One of the major gaps in the success potentials of the entrepreneurship programmes of Nigeria's HEIs lies not only in the use of the wrong pedagogy but also in the blurring of the distinction between small business management and entrepreneurship. The two fields are often erroneously treated as one and the same (Solomon, Duffy and Tarabishy, 2002).

A cursory perusal of the entrepreneurship curriculum current in all the Polytechnics reveals that the courses offered are variously titled Small Business Management, Business Entrepreneurship, Small Business Start Up, Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurship Development Programme, and similar nomenclatures. However, the contents of the courses remain virtually identical, and were designed not for entrepreneurship education but obviously about entrepreneurship education and delivered to students via the lecture mode. Furthermore, evaluation of students' performance in the entrepreneurship courses is by written examination, an evaluation approach equally as inappropriate as the pedagogy used in teaching the courses. Students end up getting the scores and not the skills. One of the research proposers could well remember scoring an "A" in the course Computer Appreciation without ever having assembled a simple desktop or booting same, simply because there were no computers then, and their lecturer had to teach using his lecture notes only plus the ubiquitous chalk board.

Hence, if entrepreneurship education is to produce the needed graduate entrepreneurs capable of generating real growth and wealth and fighting poverty, the challenge to educators will be to craft entrepreneurial courses, programmes and major fields of study that meet the rigours of academia while keeping a reality-based focus and entrepreneurial climate in the learning experience environment (Block and Stumpf, 1992).

In other words, there is the imperative for entrepreneurial education to focus more on the end result envisaged (sustainable supply of graduate entrepreneurs), and employ more experientially-based pedagogies in the course delivery process. This imperative provides the justification for the need to reconsider the contents of all entrepreneurship programmes offered in Nigerian Polytechnics, design an appropriate pedagogy for teaching the programmes, develop effective evaluation strategies, and situate the entire programme in the most relevant unit in the Polytechnics for outcome-focused implementation. This is the thrust of this research.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

From the foregoing introduction, it can be surmised that whereas fostering entrepreneurial skills are universally acknowledged as the requisite underpinnings for fighting poverty and inducing economic growth and development, it has been seen that the Federal Government's effort at cultivating such skills through engrafting entrepreneurship onto the existing programme offerings in Nigeria's Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs) is a stop-gap measure that ends up poorly preparing students as potentially active entrepreneurs.

Therefore, the intended outcome of the programme generating needed critical mass of entrepreneurs to innovatively drive the Nigerian economy seems to be defeated. In view of this, there is need to properly articulate a curriculum for and not about entrepreneurship education, develop appropriate entrepreneurial pedagogies, and build a dedicated Centre for streaming the programme in the entire Polytechnic system so as to meet the aims and objectives of the programme, viz., the production of capable enterprising graduates who will form the core of the nation's drive at economic development.

This is imperative considering the terrible reality of unemployment among the potentially most productive segment of the Nigerian populace. Awogbenle and Iwuamadi (2018) observed from the excerpts of statistics obtained from the National Manpower Board and Federal Bureau of Statistics showed that Nigeria has a youth population of eighty (80) million representing 60 percent of the total population of the country. Sixty-four (64) millions of them are unemployed while one million six hundred thousand (1.4 million) are underemployed.

In fact, such employment condition can affect survival, and economic development of a nation. This situation came about as a result of the fact that over 51% of graduates in Nigeria lacks the skill, discipline, and knowledge required to make them economically productive and employable (Barbagelata, 2019). Entrepreneurship education has been touted as a viable tool for arresting and reversing such ugly trend. Thus, the Federal Government, mandated all HEIs to focus on entrepreneurship by including it as a subject in their curricula (Akpomi, 2008). Therefore, this study seeks to evaluate the present entrepreneurship development programmes run in Nigerian HEIs in the light of the institutional and pedagogical challenges bedeviling effective skill development among polytechnics Students in Nigeria.

1.3 Objectives of the Research

The problem associated with entrepreneurship education as presently obtainable in Nigerian Polytechnics underpins this research study. Accordingly, the general purpose of this study is to evaluate the contents, pedagogical processes, management structures and expected outcomes of entrepreneurship education as

currently provided by all the Polytechnics of the Northeast geo-political sub-region of Nigeria with a view to developing a more outcome-focused alternative that helps generate the critical mass of entrepreneurial graduates upon whose subsequent activities the socio-economic development of the region in particular and the nation in general rests. Specifically, the study will seek to attain the following objectives:

To determine the effective teaching methods and strategies teachers currently employ in teaching entrepreneurship.

To determine if the evaluation system used appropriate to the intended outcome of producing potentially active graduate entrepreneurs.

To determine if the available teaching facilities are effective in teaching of entrepreneurship.

To determine the level of preparedness of the teachers teaching the entrepreneurship courses.

To determine the factors affecting effective teaching of entrepreneurship in the Polytechnics.

1.4 Research Questions

Based on the research problem observed above the conduct of this study will be guided by the following research questions:

How effective are the teaching methods and strategies teachers currently employ in teaching entrepreneurship?

Is the evaluation system used appropriate to the intended outcome of producing potentially active graduate entrepreneurs?

How available are the teaching facilities needed in effective teaching of entrepreneurship?

What is the level of preparedness of the teachers teaching the entrepreneurship courses?

What are the factors affecting effective teaching of entrepreneurship in the Polytechnics?

1.5 Contribution of the Research to Knowledge

Generally, this study contributes to the contextualization of entrepreneurial education, including its contents, methods, processes and procedures as received from western educational tradition into the political, economic and social peculiarities of Nigeria and its educational challenges. Primarily, the study contributes to the emergent pool of data on entrepreneurship education in Nigeria, data which has been generated by using the appropriate conceptual and theoretical models grounded within the peculiarities of Nigeria's educational milieu. Additionally, the study contributes to our understanding of the peculiar needs and challenges of the teaching entrepreneurship education for self-reliance, thereby proving be a motivator for teaching and learning of entrepreneurship especially in Nigerian polytechnics.

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Definition of Entrepreneurship

In 2005 the entrepreneurship division of the Academy of Management conducted a survey among its members, supplying them with a choice of possible definitions for entrepreneurship, to vote for a statement about the specific domain entrepreneurship division. The majority voted for the following one: Specific Domain: the creation and management of new businesses, small businesses and family businesses, and the characteristics and special problems of entrepreneurs. Major topics include: new venture ideas and strategies, ecological influences on venture creation and demise, the acquisition and management of venture capital and venture teams, self-employment, the owner-manager, management succession, corporate venturing and the relationship between entrepreneurship and economic development. Due to this variety of topics including elements of several domains such as economics, sociology, and psychology just to name a few there is still no generally accepted definition of “entrepreneurship” or the “entrepreneur.

In fact, the lack of a commonly recognized definition of these terms is seen as one major obstacle for researchers in contributing to the understanding of this phenomenon (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). A large number of definitions have been given in many research contributions dealing solely with the issue of defining entrepreneurship. These definitions often focus on certain aspects. Shapero (1975, p. 187) thinks of entrepreneurship as a kind of behaviour that includes:

(i) initiative taking,

(ii) the organizing or recognizing of social economic mechanisms to torn resources and situations to a practical account, and

(ii) the acceptance of risk of failure.

Gartner (1988, p. 64) takes a behavioral approach and considers entrepreneurship as a role that individuals undertake to create organizations. He adds that entrepreneurship ends when the creation stage of the organization ends. The pursuit of opportunities is central to the definition of Stevenson, Roberts and Grousbeck (1989, p. 23): Entrepreneurship is a process by which individuals either on their own or inside organizations pursue opportunities without regard to the resources they currently control. This definition does not necessarily postulate that the creation of an organization is involved in being an entrepreneur. Entrepreneurship can also occur within organizations, building a bridge to the concept of intrapreneurship. Finally, Shane and Venkataraman (2000, p. 218) give a definition of entrepreneurship as a scientific discipline. They define it as the scholarly examination of how, by whom, and with what effects opportunities to create future goods and services are discovered, evaluated and exploited. Consequently, the field involves the study of sources of opportunities; the process of discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities; and the set of individuals who discover, evaluate, and exploit them.

Following this latter definition, we define entrepreneurship in the context of this research project as the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities to create future goods and services by a natural individual through the creation of a new organization. In this report, we call these new organizations start-ups or new businesses and use the term “to start an own business” for any entrepreneurial activity as defined above.

2.2 Meaning of Entrepreneurship Education

A number of academic works have reported on the state of the art of entrepreneurship education (Block and Stumpf, 1992; Gorman, Hanlon and King, 2007; Onstenk, 2003; Trivedi, 2014; Weber, 2011; West III, Gatewood, and Shaver, 2009). While most of these works were not explicit on the definition of entrepreneurship education, one paper states that "educational orientation, teaching strategies, learning styles, curricula design and entrepreneurship structures" (Gorman, Hanlon and King, 1997 p. 26 p. 26) are the most relevant dimensions to consider in defining the term entrepreneurship. Other researchers present a framework of entrepreneurial orientations consisting of "conformist, adaptive, transformative" and process approaches (Bechard and Toulouse, 1998). More recently, entrepreneurship education is championed as a mainstay of any entrepreneurship ecosystem (Isenberg, 2010; Fetters et al, 2010; Neck, Greene and Brush, 2014). The list of varying conceptualizations of the term may go on indefinitely. Thus, there is no substantive agreement about what entrepreneurship means in educational settings and the appropriate content of programmes is under permanent discussion (Gibb, 2002).

Entrepreneurship Education, according to Ekankumo and Kemebaradikumo (2011), is that education which assists students to develop positive attitudes, innovation and skills for self-reliance, rather than depending on the government for employment. This definition was apparently proffered against the backcloth of the government's rationale for championing entrepreneurship education as a panacea to the rising levels of graduate unemployment occasioned by the massive graduate turnout from Nigeria's HEIs and the concomitant inability of both the private and public sectors of the Nigerian economy to absorb these graduates. Whatever the rationale, entrepreneurship education was provided was considered a vehicle for teaching entrepreneurship to students. Looked from the other side, entrepreneurship education is meant to provide students the opportunity to learn entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurship teaching is the process of providing individuals with the knowledge and skills to recognize opportunities that others have overlooked and to have the insight, self-esteem, and confidence to act where others have hesitated (Summit Consulting LLC. 2009). Entrepreneurship teaching aims to be a source of trigger-events aiming to inspire students, arouse emotions, and change mind-sets (Al-Laham, Souitaris, and Zerbinati, 2007). On the other hand, entrepreneurial learning is a problem-solving process centered on the acquisition, storage and use of entrepreneurial knowledge in long term memory (Rae and Carswell, 2000). This harmony in the outcomes of teaching and learning entrepreneurship can be operationalized effectively only if there is harmony between the enabling instrument for entrepreneurship education (a policy), the extant curriculum and course specifications on entrepreneurship, the relevant entrepreneurial pedagogy, teaching facilities and resources, and institutional infrastructure. At present, such harmony seems to be elusive in Nigerian Polytechnics.

For the purposes of this research, we define entrepreneurship education as a method whereby students of all classes practice the art and science of creating, finding, and acting on opportunities of creating economically valuable and needed goods and services (Neck, Brush and Greene, 2014).

Entrepreneurship education within HEIs generally consists of a nested set of activities, including curriculum, co-curricular activities, and research efforts (Brush, 2015; and Kuratko, 2005) geared towards the production of ready-to-act potential entrepreneurs. Importantly, the decisions around entrepreneurship education include everything from learning objectives, topics covered, selection of materials (including cases, exercises, and concepts), pedagogy, and delivery mechanisms (Brush, 2015, p. 30). Each of these decisions should flow

from an institution's intentionally selected definition of entrepreneurship, along with the role of theory and the degree of integration across classes, programmes, etc. (Neck, Greene, and Brush, 2014). Entrepreneurship education also varies across audiences. For instance, programmes focused on youth (primary and secondary school) may focus on the desirability and feasibility of business start-ups in order to influence the students' intentions (Peterman and Kennedy, 2003). At the polytechnic or university level, the programme may focus more on skills and competencies associated with developing venture ideas, pathways into entrepreneurship, market testing, and building a business model. In local training area, curricula might focus on ways to launch a small firm, become self-employed, or to buy a franchise.

Audience might also be defined by the type of business being pursued. In the U.S., entrepreneurship education, particularly that offered through academic institutions, is often viewed as targeted toward the development of fast growth, technology-based businesses, while in Europe, entrepreneurship education is often more connected to the SME community (Small and Medium Sized Enterprises). In China, the focus is usually on a more general "start-up" approach (Zhou and Xu, 2012), and in Qatar it is on diversification into non-oil-related businesses. The audience in Nigeria closely follows that of Europe, as the focus is on the generation of a critical mass of small and medium entrepreneurs who are expected to catalyse the process of employment generation and economic development generally. Across countries, there are different emphases, depending on the context and, in some cases, industrial policy. For instance, New Zealand and Ireland have supported the creative industries, while Israel has supported internet and other electronic technologies.

Nigerian support mainly goes to SMEs in line with most of the policy objectives of Federal Government's Entrepreneurship Development Programmes. Overall, "a growing critique of entrepreneurship education is that it needs to give more attention to the development of entrepreneurial attitudes, aspirations, and activities" (Regele and Neck, 2012, p. 25) or what has been referred to as the entrepreneurial mindset.

Although research regarding the effectiveness of entrepreneurship education has grown over time (Gartner and Vesper, 1994; Henry, Hill, and Leitch, 2005; Dickson, Solomon, and Weaver, 2008), there are questions about the overall impact in the actual increase in the number of businesses (Weaver, Dickson, and Solomon, 2008; Honig, 2004; Sarasvathy, 2001). Yet this narrow outcome of new business formation in entrepreneurship education has come under recent scrutiny (Vanevenhoven and Liguori, 2013). As a result, impact is now being measured by the relative increase in positive perceptions of entrepreneurship and even an intentionality toward being entrepreneurial. The actual relationship between those intentions and actual entrepreneurial behaviours remains an active area of study, but emerging findings suggest that there is indeed a positive relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial behaviours (Singer, Amoros and Moska, 2015).

As entrepreneurship education has advanced, so has our understanding of what is required to learn and practice entrepreneurship. Today greater attention is placed on cultivating the entrepreneurial mindset of students, and such a mindset is the precursor to both behaviour and action. Ground-breaking research (Sarasvathy, 2008) has empirically supported that entrepreneurs do think in a particular way that distinguishes them from managers. However, this is in stark contrast to trait theorists (Fisher and Koch, 2008; Miner, 1996; McClelland, 1965), who believe entrepreneurs possess certain innate personality characteristics. The entrepreneurial mindset is learnable and teachable; innate traits are not. The entrepreneurial thinking patterns discovered and supported by ongoing research (Sarasvathy, 2008; Neck and Greene, 2011; Noyes and Brush, 2012; Greenberg, McKone-Sweet and Wilson, 2011) are fundamentally

changing how we approach entrepreneurship education. The starting point is no longer the idea, the opportunity, or the business plan; rather, it's now about developing a mindset of acting, doing and creating.

2.3 Justification of Entrepreneurship Education Programmes

Various researchers have already attempted to assess empirically the impact of entrepreneurship education programmes on their students, controlling for the personal and environmental factors that might influence their orientations and behaviours (Lüthje and Franke, 2003). In particular, researchers have demonstrated that a favorable teaching environment might improve the way students consider entrepreneurship as a career option. Johannisson (1991) and Autio *et al.* (1997) underscore the impact of students' perceptions of entrepreneurship, along with resources and other support mechanisms available in the environment of HEIs, on students' attitudes towards entrepreneurial careers. Other research has shown the importance of the social status of entrepreneurial activities and situations (Begley et al., 1997) and the statistical link between the level of entrepreneurial intention and the number of management courses taken by students enrolled in other programmes (Chen et al., 1998).

On the other hand, entrepreneurship education programmes have been shown to influence both the current behaviour and the future intentions of their participants (Kolvereid and Moen, 1997; Tkachev and Kolvereid, 1999; Linan, 2004), with significant differences observed between students who had taken entrepreneurship courses and those who had not. Noel (2001) looked specifically at the impact of entrepreneurship training on the development of entrepreneurial intention and the perception of self-efficacy. The students in this sample had all taken an entrepreneurship education programme and were graduates in entrepreneurship, management or another discipline. Noel's findings at least partially confirmed the assumption that the entrepreneurship graduates were more likely to launch businesses and had a higher level of intention and a more developed perception of self-efficacy than other students. Other researchers have tried to explain the relationship between entrepreneurship programmes and individual characteristics, such as need for achievement and locus of control (Hansemark, 1998) or the perception of self-efficacy (Ehrlich *et al.,* 2000). They found that entrepreneurship education had a positive impact, enhancing these characteristics and the likelihood of entrepreneurial action at some point in the future.

Several researchers have attempted to identify whether specific educational variables (course content, teaching methods, teacher profile, resources and support, and so on) might significantly influence the outcome of a programme in terms of attitudes, values or knowledge. For example, Varela and Jimenez (2001), in a longitudinal study, chose groups of students from five programmes in three universities in Colombia. They found that the highest entrepreneurship rates were achieved in institutions that had invested the most in entrepreneurship guidance and training for their students. Dilts and Fowler (1999) attempted to show that certain teaching methods (internships and field learning) were more successful than others at preparing students for an entrepreneurial career. Finally, Lüthje and Franke (2003) discussed the importance of certain contextual factors within the university environment that hinder or facilitate the access of technical students to entrepreneurial behaviour. Their findings mirror the essential elements of the Fayolle-Gailly model of entrepreneurship education (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008). For the purpose of this study, we shall adopt the said theory.

Before discussing the Fayolle-Gailly Model of entrepreneurship education, it is germane to present the changing nature of entrepreneurship education as the justification for the use of the selected model.

2.4 Theory of Entrepreneurship Education

Embedded on the literature (Anderson, 1995; Joyce and Weil, 1996), and extending work in entrepreneurship education by Bechard and Gregoire (2005, 2007), Fayolle and Gailly (2008) have produced an entrepreneurship teaching model framework which they fittingly describe as "a canonic teaching model." The framework assists us in the understanding entrepreneurship teaching and learning (Fayolle and Gailly, 2008), as it allows for the integration of a number of dimensions which arise at the ontological and educational levels.

i. Methods and Pedagogies

Entrepreneurial education programmes may be both formal (that is, structured education) and non-formal (De Faoite *et al.*, 2004). Courses typically include structured education and informal support. Structured education usually focuses on developing technical skills, business management skills and personal entrepreneurial skills (Hisrich and Peters, 1989) with financial management, marketing and management knowledge (De Faoite *et al.,* 2004). But how should these formal *skills* and *knowledge* be imparted? Informal supports for graduate entrepreneurs include mentoring, business counselling, financing and networking opportunities are other ways of delivering support. Mentoring is highly recommended as a support mechanism for graduate entrepreneurs (Carter, 2000; Tillmar, 2007).

Mention is also given to course timing and duration. Entrepreneurship education should take students' typical daily lives into account (Allen, Langowitz and Minniti, 2007; Delmar and Holmquist, 2003). Programme organizers should avoid, for example, scheduling two-week intensive full-time courses which may not fit in with students' other curricula and non-curricula commitments (Watkins and Watkins, 1984; Ehlers and Main, 1998). There is a considerable lack of research with regard to the methods and pedagogies of teachers specifically involved in entrepreneurship education. To what extent are real-life or virtual cases, role plays and problem simulations used in such education? Are teaching approaches participative or interactive? To what extent is learning by doing encouraged? Clearly, there are many pertinent methodology and pedagogical style questions yet to be answered.

ii. The Problem of Entrepreneurial Pedagogy

Business courses as the precursors to entrepreneurship programmes tend to be highly structured (Sexton and Bowman, 1984) because structured environments are generally the best for teaching. At the onset of the onboarding of entrepreneurship education in HEIs, the business education model was readily and simply used in teaching entrepreneurship courses. Tell students what you want them to know, have them apply that knowledge, and remind them what you told them by correcting their performance. But uncertainty and ambiguity are an inherent part of the entrepreneurial experience. In structuring their educational experience, the teacher eliminates the uncertainty and ambiguity that inhibit the educational process and that students generally dislike, but in doing so, the teacher creates an artificial, academic environment that bears little resemblance to the uncertain and even chaotic environment within which entrepreneurs must operate.

Creating structure is work for the teacher, but most of this work precedes the start of the course with the design of the course, the codification of this design in the course syllabus, and the preparation of teaching materials. Over time, the work done in structuring the course reduces the overall amount of work that the

teacher must put into the course. In the long run, structured course is easier for the teacher. It is also easier for the students. It lets students know what they need to do and how to allocate their time. Less time is wasted on wrong turns or fruitless searches for information.

But does a structured environment best prepare students for an entrepreneurial career? Sexton and Bowman (1984) argued that entrepreneurship courses should be relatively unstructured. Many of those currently teaching entrepreneurship were trained in related fields where highly structured approaches can be effective; they initially used a highly structured approach when they first started teaching entrepreneurship only to become disillusioned with this approach because of doubts about its effectiveness. This disillusionment may come from seeing a lack of creativity in assignments for which the teacher provided detailed instructions. It can also come from watching students flounder when given more ambiguous assignments in the context of a practicum project or an internship with an entrepreneur. One of the most powerful sources of disillusionment of a structured approach comes from seeing former students, whom the teacher felt had developed very strong entrepreneurial skills, avoid entrepreneurial careers because of apparent discomfort with the uncertainty involved. While teachers may come to this realization through different paths, their destination – disillusionment with a highly structured approach to entrepreneurship pedagogy – is the same.

A logical response to this situation is to decrease the structure in entrepreneurial courses, but teaching in a less structured environment is more challenging for the teacher, the students, and for the institution in which the teaching occurs. Ironically, less structured approaches are often resisted by the students with the highest grades because these students have adapted well to the typical structured environment in higher education classrooms and tend not to perform as well in less structured environments. Less structured approaches tend to garner less respect from administrators and colleagues in other business disciplines. Applying a less structured approach simply goes against the grain in most institutions of higher education.

Entrepreneurship teachers thus face a dilemma in determining the amount of pedagogical structure to apply in their classrooms. More structure greases the educational process and is generally preferred by everyone involved. But increasing structure also undermines the effectiveness of the teacher and the course in preparing students for entrepreneurial careers. When teachers eliminate or reduce uncertainty and ambiguity for their students, they deny these students valuable experience in handling uncertainty and ambiguity conditions which are paramount in the entrepreneurial process (Jeffrey and Dean, 2006).

The common means for mitigating the dilemma of pedagogical structure is to employ a combination of structured and unstructured activities - by structuring courses and most course activities but also including activities that require students to create their own structure. Entrepreneurship programs address this dilemma by structuring introductory entrepreneurship course and by requiring students to show more initiative and to create more of their own structure in advanced entrepreneurship courses. In both courses and programs, there is a sequence from more structured to less structured as the students advance through the courses or program. Courses requiring a very high tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity are often elective rather than required course, allowing students who are not comfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity to avoid courses that would be unpleasant for them. But allowing students to avoid experience with uncertainty and ambiguity undermines their entrepreneurial training and can lead to inaccurate perceptions of entrepreneurial careers.

As students' progress to less structured educational environments, the entrepreneurship teacher's role changes from teacher to mentor or advisor. Because it is difficult to excel at both of these roles, teachers

tend to specialize. Those with a primarily academic background tend to be more involved in the structured, introductory courses. Teachers with more practical experience or with extensive teaching experience tend to teach the less structured, more applied entrepreneurship courses. Just as some students are more comfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity, so too are some teachers. The nature of the teacher's background helps to explain this difference, but it is also likely that underlying personality traits affect both teachers' career paths and their tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity.

Structure is essential to entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship pedagogy. Entrepreneurship teachers need to provide the structure for their assignments, courses, and programs, but entrepreneurship students need experience creating structure, especially in contexts of high uncertainty and ambiguity. Entrepreneurship teachers need the benefit of structure, but they also need to selectively refrain from providing structure and to push their students to develop their own structure.

No matter how dedicated, industrious, intelligent, innovative, and experienced entrepreneurship teachers are, they cannot do everything they would like to do for their students because helping entrepreneurship students in one way often hurts them in another way. For example, providing more pedagogical structure facilitates learning but fails to prepare students for the uncertainty that will face as entrepreneurs. Building students' confidence makes them stronger entrepreneurs but also makes them less careful. Teaching students' practical knowledge eases their transition to entrepreneurial careers but also narrows their knowledge base. Encouraging students to imitate others helps them develop a practical skill but undermines their learning. Fostering entrepreneurship preferences directs some students to rewarding careers but leads others to inappropriate careers. There is nothing that entrepreneurship teachers can do to eliminate these abiding trade-offs. Entrepreneurship teachers are caught between a rock and a hard place; they face a dilemma.

As entrepreneurship education has advanced, so has our understanding of what is required to learn and practice entrepreneurship. Today greater attention is placed on cultivating the entrepreneurial mindset of students, and such a mindset is the precursor to both behaviour and action. The entrepreneurial mindset is learnable and teachable.

3.0 Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Having laid out the theoretical foundations and the contextual referents, we now describe our research design and the generation of a data upon which we can empirically measure the size and nature of the challenges of entrepreneurship education.

Thus, this chapter describes the methodological framework that will be used in attaining the stated objectives of the study. The main focus is on the research design, type and sources of data, population description, sample size, sampling frame and its characteristics, sampling technique and a description of the choice of data collection instruments, questionnaire design, and methods of data analysis.

4.2 Research Methods

Otokiti (2005) identifies the following nine types of research methods as those commonly used in entrepreneurship research: experiment, survey, case study, action process, grounded theory, ethnographic, archives, ipso facto, and observation. The choice of method depends on the research questions asked and the objectives of the research. A quantitative strategy will be adopted for the purpose this study. A quantitative method is one in which questionnaires will be used for data collection (Romano, 1989). The use of this strategy is informed by our desire to reduce the possibility of personal bias that may occur. Adopting this approach will enhances the authenticity of the study. The study will be design to combine primary survey-based data with secondary information from polytechnic documents.

There are two basic form of survey method: i) the cross-sectional survey in which data are collected at one point in time from a sample selected to represent a larger population, and ii) longitudinal survey in which data is collected from the sample over a period of time (Owens, 2002). For the purpose of this study, the cross-sectional method will be used. Again, a number of modes of survey administration exist, but for the purpose of this study, the written (questionnaire) mode will be employed. The secondary data in this study will comes from manuals of issued by the NBTE to all polytechnics containing the curriculum and course specifications for all courses taught in polytechnics, including all business and entrepreneurship subjects.

3.3 Research Location

This research will be conducted within the Northeast geo-political sub-region of Nigeria which is made up of Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Taraba and Yobe states. However, a sample from five of the six states in the Northeast geopolitical sub-region will be selected. According to the NBTE records as at 31st March 2009, there were 9 polytechnics in the Northeast geopolitical sub-region (NBTE, 2014).

3.4 Sources and Method of Data Collection

This study combined secondary and primary data. The primary data were sourced through a well-structured questionnaire. We utilised a questionnaire to obtain information needed on the challenges facing entrepreneurship education in Nigeria. Interview sessions were also scheduled with some senior academics/faculty to document the process, nature and mode of teaching of entrepreneurship programmes in Nigeria. The secondary data were obtained mainly from the curriculum and course specifications issued by the NBTE for the various programmes run in the polytechnics.

There are three stages of data collection for this study. The first step involves data collection through the use of a well-structured questionnaire. A structured questionnaire gives the respondent a number of alternative options from which he/she chooses the one closest to his/her view, or requires the respondent to fill in the actual figure(s) related to the question asked. The result was used to answer research questions. The secondary data were obtained mainly from the curriculum and course specifications issued by the NBTE for the various programmes run in the polytechnics. Finally, interview schedules were used to gain further corroborating and explanatory information from a select number of senior academics/faculty.

3.5 Population of the study

The population of the study is divided into eight strata, with each stratum representing a polytechnic. Taraba State Polytechnic was excluded from the study due to non-accessibility of information. Respondents were

then drawn from the eight strata (polytechnics). The respondents consist of teachers who teach any entrepreneurship subject including small business management in all the eight polytechnics within the Northeast geopolitical sub-region of Nigeria. We consider this population to be infinite for two reasons: i) We have no access to the course allocation schedules from the detailing the number of teaching staff handling small business and entrepreneurship courses, and ii) The number of teaching staff allocated entrepreneurship courses fluctuates from semester to semester. However, whoever has taught entrepreneurship course even once within the last five years is deemed qualified to be a respondent to this study. Five-year scope is allowed because it is the minimum number of years students' examination manuscripts are stored before being destroyed. Additionally, all directors/deans of the entrepreneurship development centres in the case polytechnics as well as all academic staff attached permanently or temporarily to the centres are considered to fall within the ambit of respondents to this study.

3.6 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size Determination

We utilized a mix of probability and non-probability sampling techniques were utilized in selecting the sample respondents for the study. The probability stratified random sample was used in selecting the sample polytechnics. In stratified sampling, we first divide all elements of the population into strata, then we select independent respondent samples within each stratum. The selection of respondents from each stratum (polytechnic) utilised the snowball non-probability sampling technique. Programme coordinators are selected as the first set of respondents. The number of programme coordinators to be selected from each stratum (polytechnic) is limited by the number of programmes run in the polytechnic. The higher the number of programmes in any given polytechnic, the higher the number of respondents selected. These respondent coordinators were then requested to select staff who are teaching entrepreneurship and or small business courses or have taught same in the last five years. Finally, each programme coordinator is asked to suggest 2 teachers, presumably one each for entrepreneurship course and small business management course. In addition to programme coordinators as respondents and teachers of entrepreneurship and or small business management courses, one director of entrepreneurship development centre from each of the eight participating polytechnic is selected as respondent too.

As mentioned earlier, the total number of fully- and interim-accredited programmes (both ND and NHD) available in the eight selected polytechnic was used as the basis in determining the proportionate size of respondents to select from each participating polytechnic. Table 4.2 shows the distribution of fully- and interim-accredited programmes in the eight polytechnics under study. Based on Table 4.2 therefore, the final sample size for this study is 241 as disaggregated in Table 4.3 according to participating polytechnics and respondent type. Entrepreneurship in Nigeria

According to Ekanem (2005), the history and development of entrepreneurship in Nigeria started in the 1960s.This is confirmed by some of the earlier studies such as Schatz and Edokpayi (1962), Harris (1969), Olakanpo (1968) and Akeredolu-Ale (1975). Therefore, the concept of entrepreneurship development in Nigeria is not entirely really new. Since the 1970s for example, several government agencies and institutions in the country have been engaged in different aspects of fostering entrepreneurship though with short-lived and varied successes. For instance, Entrepreneurship Development Center (EDC), Centre of Management Development (CMD),National Directorate of Employment (NDE), former Nigeria Industrial Development Bank (NIDB), Nigerian Bank for Commerce and Industry (NBCI),Nigerian University Commission (NUC), Nigeria Youth Service Corps (NYSC), National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), National Open Apprenticeship Scheme (NOAS) and the Small and Medium Enterprise Development Association of Nigeria (SMEDAN), Small and Medium Enterprises Equity Investment Scheme (SMEEIS) among others have programmes for entrepreneurship development and skills acquisition in Nigeria. SMEDAN was established by the small and medium

industries development Act, 2003 to promote the development of the Micro, Small & Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) sector of the Nigerian economy and their access to resources required for their growth training and development. SMEEIS is the banking industry's contribution to the Federal Government's efforts towards stimulating economic growth, developing local technology and generating employment through adequate entrepreneurial development policies. Besides some State and Local Governments entrepreneurial and skill acquisition efforts, the Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SURE-P), the Young Entrepreneur, the Youth Enterprise with Innovation in Nigeria (YouWIN) and the Graduate Internship Scheme (GIS) programmes of the Federal Government in 2012 are meant to promote entrepreneurship skills and reduce unemployment in Nigeria. Other entrepreneurial development agencies include government sponsored Entrepreneurial Development Programmes (EDP), various shades of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and Nigerian Employer's Consultative Association (NECA) initiatives.

The menacing problem of unemployment and poverty spurred the Nigerian government into developing a policy framework for youth entrepreneurship education.This resulted in the birth of the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) in 1986 and the Work For Yourself Programme (WFYP) in 1987.Both programmes provided training and financial support to entrepreneurs. The NDE grooms unemployed youths and retired persons in vocational skills, entrepreneurship/business development, labour-based works, rural employment promotion and job placement guidance and counselling. The NDE includes core four programmes such as: youth employment and vocational skills development programme agricultural employment programmes and the small scale industries and graduate employment scheme and Special Public Works programmes (Nigeria Rural Development Sector Strategy Main Report,2004). Ebiringa (2012) argues that several policy interventions in Nigeria that were aimed at stimulating entrepreneurship development via small and medium scale enterprises failed and advocated a more inclusive approach. Lemo (2013) argues that improper orientation of youths, weak institutional capacity, lack of social safety nets policy, disconnect between academic qualifications and work process and improperly-focused budgetary provisions were some of the challenges responsible for the failure to achieve the objectives of the various schemes.

3.7 Entrepreneurship Education

The first graduate course in entrepreneurship was offered at Harvard University by Professor Miles Mace in 1947 (Katz,2003,Vyakarnam (2009). Fry (1992) observes that entrepreneurship has been one of the fastest growing disciplines in the U.S.A in the 1990s.Indeed by the wake of the 21st century, as many as 1600 universities in the North- America were found to be offering different courses in entrepreneurship when compared to merely two dozen in the 1970s (Inegbenebor,2005). In the U.K, the first few courses in entrepreneurship were launched in the 1980s together with the UK's first initiative for enterprise in higher education (Elton, 1991,Kirby, 1989 & 2005,Volkmann, 2004).The growth of entrepreneurship education and the subsequent inclusion of the discipline into the curricula of universities in the United Kingdom have been attributed to the sheer need to serve the innovation need of businesses and to produce graduates with transferable skills for businesses.

The need for entrepreneurship education started in Nigeria in the mid 1980s when the economy collapsed due to political instability and inconsistencies in the social-economic policies of successive governments. This resulted in very high youth and graduate unemployment (Arogundade, 2011). Graduates of tertiary institutions were not having sound knowledge and skills which would make them self-reliance. The lacuna led to the introduction and emphasis on entrepreneurial education owing to the belief that its introduction into tertiary education would lead to acquisition of skills that would enable its graduates to be self reliant and consequently reduce unemployment problems (Nwangwu, 2006). Arogundade (2011) argues entrepreneurship education will equip the students with the skills to be self-reliant and task the government and other education stakeholders should make sure that educational programme at all levels of education are made relevant to provide the youths and graduates needed entrepreneurial skills. Entrepreneurship education in the narrower sense follows a direct approach, developing students' competences and entrepreneurial intentions towards starting a business as a career option.

According to Paul (2005),the objectives of entrepreneurship education include to : (1) offer functional education to youth to make self-employed and self-reliant.(2) provide youth graduates with adequate training to them creative and innovative in identifying novel business opportunities and establish a career in small and medium scale businesses (3).reduce high rate of poverty and rural-urban migration (4) create employment and serve as a catalyst for economic growth and development among others.The challenges to the promotion of entrepreneurship education include: inadequate capital, unstable macro-economic environment, risk adversity of people, low infrastructural development etc (Ayodele, 2006). Unachukwu (2009) identifies the challenges to entrepreneurship education in Nigeria to include: finance, manpower and education, data, inadequate infrastructures and entrepreneurial attitude. She advocates the need for entrepreneurial education for the youth. The government at all tiers, the Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC), professional bodies like ICAN and the academia have been attracted to it. In particular, some universities are re- designing their curricula and the ways they operate to create opportunities for the training of their students in practical entrepreneurial skills.The Federal Government of Nigeria issues directive through the Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC) to all Universities in the country to establish centres for Entrepreneurship Development to coordinate the offering of a benchmark entrepreneurship course to all students in Nigerian universities. Therefore, the NUC has made course on entrepreneurship development (CED) to be mandatory for all Nigerian graduates irrespective of their disciplines since year 2000.The strategic objectives of the national policy are to: (1) improve the capacity of youths to develop positive independent and innovative thought process and overall entrepreneurial mind-set and (2) the development of vocational skills to stimulate future graduates towards venture and wealth creation..A recent survey of university undergraduates on their perception of CED by one of the authors reveals these objectives might be far from being achieved given the present traditional model . However ,due to the way entrepreneurial programmes have assumed a global proliferation and dimension, it was suggested by Volkmann (2004) that entrepreneurship will become "the major academic discipline for business education in the 21st century".

4.0 **DATA ANALYSIS**

Table 1. Unemployment rates in Nigeria's States

State	Rate (%)	State	Rate (%)	State	Rate (%)
Abia	14.5	Ekiti	20.6	Nasarawa	10.1
Adamawa	29.4	Enugu	14.9	Niger	11.9
Akwalbom	34.1	Gombe	32.1	Ogun	8.5
Anambra	16.8	Imo	20.8	Ondo	14.9
Bauchi	37.2	Jigawa	26.5	Osun	12.6
Bayelsa	38.4	Kaduna	11.6	Oyo	14.9
Benue	8.5	Kano	27.6	Plateau	7.1
Borno	27.7	Katsina	37.3	Rivers	27.9
Cross River	14.3	Kebbi	12.0	Sokoto	22.4
Delta	18.4	Kogi	19.0	Taraba	26.8
Ebonyi	12.0	Kwara	11.0	Yobe	27.3
Edo	12.2	Lagos	19.5	Zamfara	13.3

Source: National Bureau for Statistics (2009)

4.1 Recent entrepreneurial initiatives by the government in Nigeria

Development Finance Institution (DFIs) was set up by the Federal Government of Nigeria at various times to encourage the entrepreneurial developments which were in the form of small and medium scale businesses in Nigeria (Osemeke,2012).The DFIs include: (i) The Nigerian Agricultural, Co-operative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB)

(ii) Nigeria Export-Import Bank (NEXIM) (iii) The Federal Mortgage Bank of Nigeria (FMBN) (iv) Bank of Industry (BOI) and (v) Urban development Bank of Nigeria (UDBN). Recently, SMEDAN has begun training of graduates under National Youth Services Corps (NYSC) on investment and entrepreneurial skills under the Corpers' Entrepreneurial Programme (CEP) to help the exploitation of the opportunities that abound in the country's small-scale industry. Some of the current interventions by the government to positively engage the youths in national development through encouraging entrepreneurship and providing employment include:

The N200 billion Micro, Small & Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) Development Fund to provide cheap and long- term financial resources for the development of the MSMEs sector in Nigeria;

The N100 billion Textile Revival Fund (TRF) for the resuscitation of the cotton, textile and garment Industries which has been comatose and moribund;

The Public Works and Women/Youth Empowerment Scheme (PW/WYE) was launched by the Federal Government of Nigeria to create immediate employment opportunities for women and youths in labour- intensive public works;

The Youth Enterprise with Innovation in Nigeria (YouWIN) programme is a collaboration of the Federal Ministries of Finance, Communication & Technology and Youth Development to organise an annual Business Plan Competition (BPC) for aspiring young entrepreneurs in Nigeria and provide a one-time equity grant of N1 to N10 million to 1,200 selected aspiring entrepreneurs to start/expand their business concepts and mitigate start up risks. It is aim at generating some 80,000 to110,000 new jobs for unemployed Nigerian youths over a three-year period.

The Niger Delta Amnesty Training Programme has been engaged in the training of youths at various institutions in Ghana, South Africa, the Philippines, Russia, Ukraine, India and elsewhere. Also, more than 5,000 youths have been enrolled in formal educational institutions and vocational centres within and outside the country. To date, over 5,000 beneficiaries have graduated in such skill fields as welding & fabrication, entrepreneurship, pipe-fitting, carpentry & plumbing, oil drilling, electrical installation, ICT, and marine-related vocations.

Petroleum Technology Development Fund (PTDF) was established to promote and upgrade petroleum technology and manpower development through research and training of Nigerians as graduates, professionals, technicians and craftsmen in the fields of engineering, geology, geo-sciences, management, economics and relevant fields in the petroleum and solid minerals sectors in Nigeria and other countries of the world.

The NYSC Venture Price Competition was introduced by the CBN to sensitize and create awareness in Nigerian youths, awaken their entrepreneurship expertise and orientate serving youth corps members towards seeking alternative employment options, in particular, self-employment.

The N200 billion Commercial Agriculture Credit Scheme (CACS) finances large ticket projects along the agricultural value chain, in addition to the older Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme (ACGS). The CACS has disbursed over N158.39 billion for 203 projects owned by 175 private promoters and 27 state governments & the FCTA, with 5,910 jobs created.

The Nigeria Incentive-Based Risk Sharing System for Agricultural Lending (NIRSAL) is a partnership of the CBN, UNIDO and Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa. It was developed to boost access to bank financing for agriculture by de-risking the agricultural and financial value chains through the adoption of risk- sharing approaches.

The N200 billion Refinancing/Restructuring of SME/Manufacturing Fund to enable banks refinance and restructure their existing loan portfolios to SMEs and manufacturing firms.

The Power & Aviation Intervention Fund (PAIF) has disbursed some N144.60 billion to Deposit Money Banks (DMBs) for 10 power and 11 aviation projects as well as generated numerous jobs.

The N200 billion Small & Medium Scale Enterprises Guarantee Scheme (SMECGS) of the CBN promotes further SME access to credit. In barely two years, the scheme has disbursed over N1 billion to 20 qualified applicants with attendant boosts in their businesses and employment generation.

The young entrepreneur scheme of the Federal Government of Nigeria.

Despite the fact that entrepreneurship training is supposed to promote the "development of personal qualities such as creativity, risk-taking and responsibility and provide the technical and business skills that are needed in order to start a new business venture" (EU,2002), there are concerns that many training institutions offer very little entrepreneurial skills in South Africa (Ladzani & Van Vuuren, 2002, Isaacs et al,2007). Therefore, Ladzani & Van Vuuren (2002) propose the content of entrepreneurship training to consist of: motivation, entrepreneurial skills and business skills since the degree entrepreneurship is found to be dependent on three dimensions such as innovativeness, risk-taking and proactiveness (Morris & Kuratko, 2001). Because entrepreneurship can be learnt (Timmons & Spinelli, 2004) and embraced by many tertiary institutions in USA, Europe, East Asia and Latin America (Kuratko, 2003), entrepreneurial skills to be taught should include creativity and innovation, ability to take risks, identify business opportunities (Ladzani & Van Vuuren , 2002).

Table 2. Content of entrepreneurial performance training

Motivation	Entrepreneurial skills	Business skills
• Need for achievement • Ability to inspire • Expectations of the higher achiever • Obstacles or blocks • Help • Reactions to success or failure	• Creativity • Innovation • Ability to take risks • Ability to identify opportunities • Ability to have a vision for growth • Interpret successful entrepreneurial role models	• Management/ Leadership • Business plans • Financial skills • Marketing skills • Operational skills • Human Resources skills

Source: Ladzani & Van Vuuren (2002)

General Business Skills - Some common or major entrepreneurial skills of successful entrepreneurs are identified below namely: Sales and marketing skills, prudent money management or sound financial Know- how skills, very strong self-motivation skill, effective time management skill, and high and flexible administrative skill. If you watch very closely a lot of these skills have to do with the person, the ideas, products and services. In fact, until people accept you, they may never accept your product or service. We shall briefly elaborate these points.

Sales and marketing skills- To attract the right customers maintain their loyalty and subsequently make target revenues and profits will obviously require good communication skill.

Financial know-how skills and money management- Not many people can manage or handle money .There are others who money can control. Some become temporarily insane when they see a volume of money they have never seen before. To succeed as an entrepreneur, you must know how to

Manage money well. After all, not everybody can effectively manage money. Money actually controls some people.

Source for funds from the right sources at the right time and the right cost of capital. Funds include long- term capital and working capital

Self-motivation skills- Encouragement from others is good but self-encouragement is the best. You need it in your journey into entrepreneurship. You can motivate yourself even if people around you want to discourage or disappoint you. Self motivation skills include: internal locus of control, self-starter with a clear desired goal in mind, confidence in yourself and in your ideas, diligent and hardworking and extra drive and commitment to set goals

Time management skills- Successful entrepreneurs must manage their time effectively. This is because:

(1)Time is money.(2)Time is life (3) Entrepreneurship opportunity has time-limit (4) Time management is very important for business success and (5) Self-management is very critical for effective time management. The key to using time effectively is through better management. Entrepreneur achieves better time management through time budgeting. The specific ways to make better use of his time include: establishing goals, determine deadlines and allocating time for each important activity (Osemeke,2012).To manage time the entrepreneur must: (1) Have a time table or schedule of activities to be done and keep to it as much as possible (2) Employ delegation freely without fear. The entrepreneurs must determine priorities into urgent and important activities as: i -Urgent activities that demand immediate attention ii -Urgent but not important activities iii - Not urgent but important activities iv -Not urgent; not important.

They must give priority to (i) and (iii) because by performing them time is reduced for activities (ii) and (iii), and manage meetings and relationships with others as entrepreneurs.

Administrative skills- Administrative skills include: organizing, coordinating, directing, planning and general management etc.

Technical, analytical and Human relation skills- Accountants are by training normally technically skilled. They must also develop and possess conceptual, analytical and human relation skills to be successful entrepreneurs. Others are business planning, idea generation, negotiation and risk analysis and management skills.

ICT Skills- Graduate entrepreneurs should have Computer and ICT skills because of the era we live in, the dynamic environment they will have to operate on day to day basis and the various technological changes and demands they will face.

Table 3. Entrepreneurship Opportunity and Skills

S/N	Entrepreneurship Opportunity	Skills And Attitudes
1.	Business/consultancy in areas of professional specialization or working as a contractor	• General Business skills such as marketing, time management etc • Confidence enthusiasm, hardworking
2.	Sonet entrepreneurship	• Idea development, leadership, negotiation, planning, organizing, self belief, confidence • General business skill
3.	Intrapreneurship	• Idea development recognizing opportunities for improvements • Alliance building, confidence, leadership
4.	Non-traditional specialist business	• General Business • Idea development, creativity, confidence • Willingness to work hard
5.	General business ventures	• Ideas development, creativity, confidence, willingness to work hard • General Business skill

Source: Andrea,F (n.d): Developing entrepreneurship skills in the context of higher education. http://cfiweb.cf.uk/news /past.events/bee/files/Andea. on 16/3/2010

4.3 **Avenues for Developing Entrepreneurial Skills**

Entrepreneurial skills acquisition can be obtained through various avenues such as: attending entrepreneurial training classes, development programmes, seminars, workshops, etc. universities, job rotation**,** special (intensive) training**,** articleship or apprenticeship,**o**rganizational learning**,** R & D Institutions**,** consultants**,** national and international agencies and bodies ,non-governmental organizations **(**NGOs) and professional bodies.

The Federal Government of Nigeria under the Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SURE-P) launched the Graduate Internship Scheme (GIS) in October, 2012 to create opportunity for 50,000 graduates to be attached to firms /organizations, where they can work for a year and enjoy a monthly stipend of N18,000.The GIS is meant to provide the opportunity to unemployed Nigerian graduates to gain working experience during a period of one year and enhance their employability in the labour market, get retained by their firms of engagement, or even seek other opportunities through other government programmes like the Youth Enterprise with Innovation in Nigeria (YouWin) where they can develop business plans and get loans to run their businesses independently (Suleiman,2013). The expected outcomes of the GIS include**:** increased skills of youth, increased number of interns employed or engaged in self- employment and increased Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in Nigeria.

The specific objectives of the GIS program are:

To enhance the employability of up to 50,000 unemployed graduates in the 36 states of the Federation and the FCT through internship programs in pre-selected institutions; and

To reduce the vulnerability of unemployed graduates.

To build manpower base towards attaining national development operations. The benefits to interns include:

Provide them with skills and information required to enter into work.

Empower youth to work for themselves or create jobs for others.

Protect youth from demand and supply shocks through acquisition of skills.

Opportunity to sharpen their skills and enhance employability.

Opportunity to build new networks and professional contacts.

The interns are to use the opportunity to make them very competitive, enterprising, smart, knowledgeable and portray themselves as indispensable brands to the labour and the business market (Papka, 2013).

The benefits to firms/organizations include:

Build human capital prepared for current and future labour demand.

Be part of building manpower base for natural development and enhance our attainment of Vision 20:2020.

Opportunity to recruit talented interns after graduation from the GIS.

4.4 Entrepreneurial Success Factors

Successful entrepreneurship depends on four (4) major factors namely: Knowledge, Hard work, Skills, Attitude (character/ integrity). Now let us work out this "lifematics" question together. For easy understanding, let us replace character with attitude. Our current alphabets (A-Z) and numerals (1-26) are made up of letters. The alphabets together with their corresponding numerical values are stated below:

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
N	**O**	**P**	**Q**	**R**	**S**	**T**	**U**	**V**	**W**	**X**	**Y**	**Z**
14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26

Let us take each attribute one after the other and link up the corresponding numerical value. Start with skill, then knowledge, hard work and finally character (attitude).

Let match the numeric value to each alphabet and see the results as indicated below:

(i) Skills

S	K	I	L	L	S	
19	11	9	12	12	19	**82%**

(ii) Knowledge

K	N	O	W	L	E	D	G	E	
11	14	15	23	12	5	4	7	5	**96%**

(iii) Hardwork

H	A	R	D	W	O	R	K	
8	1	18	4	23	15	18	11	**98%**

(iv) Attitude

A	T	T	I	T	U	D	E	
1	20	20	9	20	21	4	5	**100%**

Skills score only 82%; knowledge 96 %, hard work 98% and Attitude (character) scores 100 %. Only attitude which equates to character or integrity for this purpose secures 100 % success in the race of high profile entrepreneurship. Others like skill (82%), expertise, knowledge (96%), hard work (98%) and finance (52%) are critical, but they all still bore down to attitude, because without the right attitude, the entrepreneur and the enterprise will fail sooner or later. Hence, attitude is everything (Harrel,2005) backed with the requisite entrepreneurial skills.

5.0 **Conclusion**

In conclusion, it must admit that possession of university or professional certification by tertiary institutions in Nigeria is good. But what is the use of academic degree(s) and/or professional certificate(s) if the graduates are not working or unemployed. You either work for others and get paid or create work yourself entrepreneurially and pay yourself. Whichever mode of value creation either paid employment or entrepreneurship you may adopt at the end you really require integrity. Indeed, character is the true collateral security of our values, learning and entrepreneurial successes. It keeps the society and system going. It prevents a nation from decaying and checkmates unnecessary crises and even civil disorder and war. Therefore in all your entrepreneurial pursuits and skill acquisition, character development should be given a prominent place. When character breaks down, everything breaks down. True certification in life is only evidenced by sound character and not papers called certificates, entrepreneurial success alone or by the quantity of wealth. The present state of entrepreneurship education in Nigeria mark by under-funding, negligence, lack of political will, support and investment by government and corporate bodies to invest in education cannot produce graduates who are employable or having the ability employ others. Given the various challenges the facing the country and her teeming unemployed graduates of tertiary institutions and professionals today, the sure remedy is not only the possession of certificates but the development of entrepreneurial skills which could help them identify and take advantage of the numerous business opportunities. Moreover, the entrepreneur education in Nigeria should re-focus the teaching and training of students towards inculcating entrepreneurial skills that can help to be creative, innovative develop feasible business plans and set up new business ventures. The Graduate Internship Scheme of the SURE-P is a welcome idea in equipping graduates with the requisite skills and should be sustained and massively supported by the government to fulfill its objectives. However, the GIS should not be medicine after death by making the Nigerian graduates to waste another year after the NYSC scheme. It should be infused into the entrepreneurship training programmes in the tertiary institutions and the Federal Government through the SURE-P and corporate bodies in Nigeria partnership by supporting the project through adequate funding of entrepreneurship education , provision of fully equipped entrepreneurship centres and facilitators vocational training and internship for undergraduates of universities and colleges.

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