

The significance of entrepreneurial culture in Zimbabwean universities: A case study of Chinhoyi University of Technology

Gerald Munyoro* and Abigirl Phiri

Graduate Business School, Chinhoyi University of Technology, Zimbabwe.

*Corresponding author. Email: geraldmunyoro@hotmail.com

Copyright © 2020 Munyoro and Phiri. This article remains permanently open access under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Received 11th April, 2020; Accepted 19th November, 2020

ABSTRACT: The purpose of this study was to establish the significance of entrepreneurial attitude in Zimbabwean universities focusing on Chinhoyi University of Technology. Thus, the study adopted a phenomenological research philosophy and a case study research design. A sample was made up of 200 respondents. Semi-structured questionnaires and focus groups were used to collect data. The data was analysed using a Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) and SPSS analytical tables were used to present data. Accordingly, the findings show that entrepreneurial attitude is significant to Zimbabwean universities and that it also exists in universities as they are seen as seedbeds for entrepreneurial activities. Additionally, entrepreneurial attitude helps students to foster creative attitude and behaviour towards creation of innovation resulting in new businesses that leads to economic development. For that reason, the study recommends that modules in entrepreneurship and one in entrepreneurial creativity and innovation be introduced in all the universities in Zimbabwe and be compulsory to every student. Furthermore, the study recommends that universities introduce business hubs for nurturing students as this will help them to be self-reliant and, in the process, reducing unemployment and promoting economic development.

Keywords: Creative attitude, economic development, entrepreneurial attitude, entrepreneurship, innovation, new business, self-reliant, students, university hubs.

INTRODUCTION

When Zimbabwe attained independence in 1980, it recognised the need to educate its people, especially the youth who are the most affected and vulnerable age group as a way to boost the manpower base and reap additional social and private benefits (Zvobgo, 1994; Mubika and Bukaliya, 2011). In fact, at independence there was only one university in Zimbabwe and it had low enrolment for the black people and this period saw bright black students go to academic schools which were known then as F1 schools and were direct imitations of the British grammar schools and unfortunately, only 2.5 percent of these black students would progress to Advanced Level (Zvobgo, 1994; Shizha and Kariwo, 2011). Forlornly, these black students were further thoroughly screened to a minute of 0.2 percent and were then able to be offered university education by the minority white dominated government

even though the 75 percent of the population was black (Zvobgo, 1994; Nherera, 2000; Shizha and Kariwo, 2011). Thus, these discriminatory policies were aimed at saving the economic welfare and investments of the small white ruling populace who were less than 25 percent (Nherera, 2000; Shizha and Kariwo, 2011). Apart from F1 schools, there was also F2 secondary school curricular commonly known as the vocational education which was conscientiously aimed at blacks and was very unpopular with black communities as it was seen as a discriminatory tool for segregating blacks against minority white community and thus, the colonial governments' discriminatory argument then was that these policies were aimed at segregating blacks because they were not suitable for the white collar professions, which were conserved for the Europeans for the reason that blacks

were reserved for blue collar jobs (Atkinson, 1972; Dorsey, 1975). Desolately, even the few blacks who had university education and who were employed had lower status jobs as compared to their white counterparts but the interesting thing is that they were assured of getting a good job after completing their degrees unlike the current situation where there are several universities but with no job opportunities (Nherera, 2000; Shizha, 2011).

As a consequence of this colonial bigoted behaviour (Zvobgo, 1994) the principle of Education for All (EFA) was embraced in 1980 to address the incongruity of the colonialists' rule which had a broader primary and narrower tertiary education (Kapungu, 2007). Consequently, the Education for All resulted in the increase of enrolments at both primary and secondary school levels leading to the birth of more universities in every province in Zimbabwe to cater for the masses longing for tertiary education (Mubika and Bukaliya, 2011; Mauchi et al, 2011; Riside, 2019; Tirivangana, 2019)). As a result, this expansion was a welcome relief to the masses especially the marginalized people who could now have access to higher education which they had yearned for, for a long time (Nziramanga, 1999). To reinforce this line of thinking, the Nziramanga commission encouraged the government to promote education system with practical and technical skills as well as a range of different professional and academic qualifications that would arm students with the right self-reliant life skills upon completion of their studies (Riside, 2019).

In fact, before Nziramanga Commission, there was Williams Commission of 1989 which led to the establishment of a second university in 1991, the National University of Science and Technology in Bulawayo, which at the time majored in science and technology (Shizha and Kariwo, 2011; Gomba, 2017). From there on, other universities with a different focus and mandate were established and this is not surprising because university expansion was a necessity in order to equip the "A" level school leavers with relevant tertiary education which would aid in the economic growth of the country since there would be an increased qualified workforce (Kapungu, 2007; Mubika and Bukaliya, 2011). Indeed, the validation was to honour the 'Education for All' principle (Kapungu, 2007; Mubika and Bukaliya, 2011; Riside, 2019). Thus, the Zimbabwean government embarked on universities' initiatives as they became a main concern of meeting the nation's socio-economic needs and quality (SARUA, 2012; Riside, 2019). After the Williams Commission, indeed the Nziramanga Commission of 1999 encouraged the establishment of various universities (Garwe and Thondhlana, 2018) in order to create employment through the establishment of educational training reforms, not only for a short term but on long term basis (Mawere, 2013; Riside, 2019). Thus, these developments led to higher university enrolments because there was also the introduction of private universities which were given special licences by the government to operate resulting in

over 30 000 students graduating yearly nonetheless, only 5 percent of these graduates are finding themselves employed (Masuko, 2003; Mlambo, 2005; Moyo, 2016; Garwe and Thondhlana, 2018; Garwe, 2014). Although UNESCO (2018) states that Zimbabwe is one of the best learned countries in Africa in view of the literacy levels which is estimated to be over 95%, only a minority of these graduates find employment after graduating.

In addition to the above discussion, downheartedly universities have also been encountering an array of glitches that include poor infrastructural facilities in the form of outdated training equipment; inadequate students exposure through a deficiency of research linkages; a mismatch of curricula and industrial expectations combined with inappropriate teaching methods; lack of trained entrepreneurship lecturers and skilled manpower; lack of finance and access to funds; non favourable policy environment and lack of governmental support; poor perceptions and negative attitudes as well as cultural barriers (Almeida, 2014; Nwosu and Chukwudi, 2018). Furthermore, other scholars contrarily argue that the level of literacy does not necessarily indicate a success in education as long as entrepreneurial culture is non-existent and this is an issue that is disappointing graduates that after acquiring knowledge they find themselves without a job (Mwenje, 2018). Hence, the unemployment situation in Zimbabwe is seen as a ticking time bomb set to detonate any minute (Fillion, 1990; British Council, 2014; Masekesa and Chibaya, 2014). Thus, the thinking of most scholars is that although the fundamental elements of universities is centred on continuous research and professional training as well as providing an enabling environment for students to obtain needed skills to solve socio-economic, political and cultural needs (Specht, 2008; Alemu, 2018) but entrepreneurial culture seems to be missing in Zimbabwean universities yet it is significant as argued by Yuda (2011) and Munyoro et al (2016). For that reason, this study aims to establish the existence of entrepreneurial culture in Zimbabwean universities as well as ascertaining the significance of entrepreneurial culture in Zimbabwean universities. Furthermore, the study intends to identify the challenges facing the promotion of entrepreneurial culture in Zimbabwean universities. Thus, the study will focus on Chinhoyi University of Technology.

LITERATURE REVIEW

What is a university?

Universities are constantly referred to as higher level learning institutions and the term university is from Latin word "universitas" which means totality or whole (Verger, 1992; Perkin, 2007). Therefore, the term "higher education institutions" covers a wide range of higher learning institutions including universities (Assie-Lumumba, 2005). Actually, higher education denotes a more holistic

meaning as it entails all professional post-secondary or tertiary institutions such as polytechnics, colleges and universities that offer either degree or diploma courses (Masuko, 2003; Alemu, 2018). Accordingly, a university is an institute with authority to award degrees and is paramount in researches (Allen, 1988; Garwe and Thondhlana, 2018). Additionally, universities commonly focus on fields such as arts, education, law, social sciences, agriculture, engineering, veterinary, medicine, science and technologies thus grooming students for a specific industry (Mlambo, 2005; Alemu, 2018). For that reason, the commonality in all the definitions is that a university is a source of universal knowledge and encompasses highly skilled workforce of diverse professions (Alemu, 2018). However, universities differ in their missions, goals, functions, and the mandatory qualifications required by a faculty, the criterion for students' admission, the length of programs offered and the eventual certification awarded (Dzikira, 2015; Garwe and Thondhlana, 2018). Worth noting is that the scope and depth of each university mandate may differ but revolution, job creation and economic development are the expected end results. Hence, Krcmarova (2011) and Alemu (2018) argue that universities are hubs for scholars and most importantly are key agents for the expansion of knowledge through teaching and learning, research and community service engagement as well as the influence to transform the world. Thus, universities are seen as ethos sharing institutions that enable cooperation across cultural diversity because they enhance students understanding of the world including the development and promotion of entrepreneurship as a tool for creating employment and economic development (Boulton and Lucas, 2011; Riside, 2019).

What is entrepreneurship?

Entrepreneurship is a process centrally concerned with the recognition, discovery and creation of opportunity where opportunity creation of new value to the society is in part or whole (Schendel and Hitt, 2007; Mwenje, 2018). Accordingly, the discovery and creation of opportunities and their ensuing pursuit by individuals have time after time been a focus of entrepreneurship (Venkataraman, 1997; Alvarez and Barney, 2008; Grecu and Denes, 2017). Following the same line of thinking, Ireland and Webb (2007) indicate that entrepreneurship involves the aspect of opportunity seeking and seeks to comprehend how specific persons discover how to create new opportunities and then use them to exploit and develop a wide range of effects (Baron and Henry, 2011; Kaburi et al., 2012; Munyoro et al., 2016). Indeed, this is why Low and MacMillan (1988) define entrepreneurship as "something new" as either being new products or services, new markets, new production processes or even new uses of raw materials (Wang, 2012). In other words, entrepreneur-

ship is a process by which employees in an organization pursue opportunities regardless of the scarcity of resources they currently control (Ireland and Webb, 2007; Dumbu, 2014). Additionally, Stevenson and Sahlman (1991) view entrepreneurship as a process of identifying opportunities, bringing required resources together, employing practical action plans and eventually reaping the reward in a fitting and flexible manner. For example, entrepreneurship creates new organizations which contribute to the social and economic development of countries (Thornton, 1999; Ahotor, 2009). Therefore, organizational creation, renewal or innovations which occur within or outside an existing organization are all forms of entrepreneurship (Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017; Mwenje, 2018).

Whilst, Grecu and Denes (2017), Kaburi et al. (2012) and Munyoro et al. (2016) view an entrepreneur as an individual who creates a new business in the face of risk and uncertainty for the sole rationale of achieving both profit and growth by discovering opportunities and assembling the necessary resources to make the most of these opportunities. Likewise, an entrepreneurial organization pursues opportunity, without little regard to the resources currently available (Stevenson and Jarillo, 1991; Dumbu, 2014; Munyoro et al., 2016).

That said, Munyoro et al. (2016) and, Aeeni and Saeedikiya (2017) further view the relationship between entrepreneurship and culture and concludes that it indicates the needs and habits of a particular nation or region which then shape the behaviour of entrepreneurs and additionally, entrepreneurship fosters the knack of entrepreneurs to willingly become predisposed by turning new ideas or inventions into successful innovations, a phenomenon occasionally referred to as "creative destruction". However, Wang (2012) and Al Qudah (2018) suggest that entrepreneurship is an elusive concept because entrepreneurship is defined and measured differently across countries.

What is culture?

Culture refers to the habits and behaviours of people that are passed from one generation to the next (Brownson, 2013; Akuegwu and Nwi-Ue, 2016). Likewise, Frick et al. (1998), Brownson (2013) and Munyoro et al. (2016) note that any group of human beings whose thinking and acting differ from that of other groups is what is called culture. Similarly, Hofstede (2001), plainly defines culture as the shared indoctrination of the brain which distinguishes group members. Equally, culture is viewed as the constitution of learned behaviours and whose constituent elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society (Banks, 1989; Hofstede 1994; Mazonde and Carmichael, 2016; Baah et al., 2015; Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017) and it incorporates the values, norms and behaviour that distinguish societies or social groups from

other different ones (Fukuyama, 2001; Liyanage et al., 2016). Similarly, UNESCO (2018) define culture as a set of unique religious, academic and emotional qualities of a society or social group and it also incorporates the ways of living together such as the value systems, traditions and beliefs. Actually, culture has become crucial to people's interconnectedness because it is now fluid and continuously in motion (Chakraborty et al., 2016). While researchers imply different opinions, it is clear that culture is an immense and multifaceted conception that involves many elements hence, it is too general to define it by a single trait, idea or object (Khan et al., 2010; Wang, 2012). For that reason, the afore mentioned definitions suggest evidently that culture is now a collective phenomenon which is shared, at least in part or whole with the people existing in the same society or belonging to the similar assemblage and furthermore, it is universally understood that culture is linked to a regional, national, ethnical, religious and gender level (Shapiro, 1984; Hofstede, 1994; Urban, 2007; Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017). In the same vein, culture is taught and learnt either knowingly or unknowingly (Banks, 1989; UNESCO, 2018; Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017). Thus, culture should be distinguished from a collective social fabric on one hand and on an individual personality on the other. Indeed, cultural characteristics are passed on mainly in the course of the socialisation processes and as a result it is difficult to change culture in the short term because it has a long term effect (Hofstede, 1994; 2011). Consequently, culture is a significant factor in both promoting and inhibiting entrepreneurship (OECD, 2004; Wang, 2012). For that purpose, scholars argue that culture has the power to both shape entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions of entrepreneurs especially in the early stage of their ventures (Mazonde and Carmichael, 2016).

Entrepreneurial culture

Although the above confab was mainly based on culture, there is also need in this study to go further and look at the new term popularly known as entrepreneurial culture which is the combination of personal values, managerial skills, experiences and behaviours that set apart the entrepreneur in terms of spirit of initiatives, risk taking, innovative capacity and management of firms' relations with the economic environment (the European Union Commission, 2012; Wong, 2014; Grecu and Denes, 2017). Nevertheless, other scholars argue that entrepreneurial culture is a national scheme of mutual values in a particular society that encompasses and supports entrepreneurship (Brownson, 2013; Thurik and Dejardin, 2014). In a way, this point out that an entrepreneurial culture is distinguished by manifold expectations plus it facilitates the strategic management of firm's resources effectively. Additionally, Heiko (2013) and Wong (2014) further explain that an effective entrepreneurial culture is dedicated to the continuous opportunity-seeking and advantage seeking

behaviours which are defined by the creation of new ideas, risk taking and giving up is not an option. Likewise, an entrepreneurial culture promotes learning and champions product, service, process and administrative innovations whilst at the same time opening windows of opportunities and this is thought to be absent in the Zimbabwean universities (Dumbu, 2014). Therefore, a sustainable competitive advantage can be achieved by fostering an entrepreneurial culture on university students who wish to start their own ventures and constantly are on the lookout for entrepreneurial opportunities to exploit. In fact, scholars like Minguzzi and Passaro (2000) delineate entrepreneurial culture as the blend of personal values, managerial skills, experiences and behaviours that typify the entrepreneur in terms of spirit of initiative, risk taking and innovative competence to produce new inventions. Consequently, an entrepreneurial culture enables a setting where individuals are enthusiastic to create innovations and are prepared to take calculated risks (Ngorora and Mago, 2013; Suzanne, 2013). Henceforth, an entrepreneurial culture is a system of shared values that closely hold and prop up entrepreneurship (Ireland et al., 2008; Munyoro et al., 2016; Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017). Similarly, entrepreneurship is a condition where children are encouraged and taught by their parents to become future entrepreneurs by taking the necessary risks to start their own enterprise initiatives that result in self-employment and self-sustenance (Chakraborty et al., 2016). Furthermore, entrepreneurial culture is accountable for altering people's frame of mind into taking charge of oneself through creating self-employment rather than awaiting to qualify to get a job in a corporation or government institution as is always the case with graduates world over (OECD, 2013; Muntanga, 2014; Akuegwu and Nwi-Ue, 2016). That said, a society that does not encourage an entrepreneurial culture will definitely not achieve economic growth but will also encounter high rate of unemployment as part of its problems as is the case with Zimbabwe (Shizha and Kariwo, 2011; Witter, 2012; Hernandez et al., 2019). Furthermore, in societies where entrepreneurial culture is present, individuals will discover aspirations in challenges enabling them to exploit efficiently existing opportunities (Suzanne, 2013). In fact, opportunity seeking and creation of new value are significant commonalities to the theory of entrepreneurial culture (Spigel, 2011; Rehman and Elahi, 2012; Nwokolo, 2015). In light of the above, these definitions seem to share the fact that an entrepreneurial culture entails collective values, skills, experiences and behaviours that set apart an entrepreneur from an ordinary individual (Reynolds, 2012; Bux, 2016).

Theories on entrepreneurial culture

Hofstede culture theory

Culture is defined as the psychological indoctrination of

collective values, behaviours, beliefs and norms (Hofstede, 1994). Indeed, these factors control the way individuals socialize and the befitting behaviours which are accepted in a society and therefore, such kind of behaviour from entrepreneurial culture point of view generate differences amongst an assemblage of people as entrepreneurial activities might either be regarded as excellent or terrible with regards to the present overlying culture. Consequently, four main value oriented dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and masculinity were explained by Hofstede (2001) and Wang (2012) as they are strongly related to entrepreneurial culture and behaviour as compared to the other two extra dimensions latter added that of time orientation and indulgence. However, although Hofstede dimensions are important, nonetheless Urban (2004, 2007) and Suddle et al. (2010) argue that Hofstede did not really spell out clearly the correlation between entrepreneurship and culture in these dimensions. That said, the following are the components of Hofstede culture theory, which are discussed in detail below:

Masculinity: The masculinity dimension is related to entrepreneurial culture through the need for achievement and assertiveness which are common features of a masculine society (Mai, 2015) and this is in line with a theory that confirms a strong relationship between the intensity of entrepreneurial culture in a society and the need for achievement. Therefore, in masculine societies, material achievement is attained through an entrepreneurial culture that bear witness to the formation of booming entrepreneurial ventures which bring on wealth creation and economic development, and this is the reason why entrepreneurs are extremely valued in masculine societies (Abzari and Safari, 2006). In contrast, achievement in worldly gains is weak in feminine cultures because achievement is calculated by the number of personal associations one has. Having said that, university students in masculine societies engage in entrepreneurial activities as a result of entrepreneurial culture that supports competition unlike the quality of life in feminine societies where there is little and at times no interest in entrepreneurial culture that enhances entrepreneurship (Mai, 2015; Cakir, 2016).

Individualism: Individualism is certainly linked to most western ideologies which support the concept of entrepreneurial culture (Hofstede, 1994; 2001, 2015). Interestingly, entrepreneurs are time and again described as independent individuals who rebuff the general view by unrelentingly undertaking and achieving their distinctive visions (Russel, 2004; Urban, 2004). That being said, entrepreneurial culture is high in university students living in societies that scores high on Hofstede individualism scale because self-sufficient entrepreneurial behaviour is appreciated by prevailing social norms as a means to achieve set goals. Wretchedly, in collectivistic societies

such as socialism an 'individual' with entrepreneurial intentions and initiatives tend to be discouraged in favour of group undertakings such as cooperatives (Mai, 2015; Cakir, 2016). Thus, in this social background, preference is given to those working in big corporates because workers are emotionally attached and dependent on large companies for their well-being whilst, individualistic societies support entrepreneurial initiatives which have direct effects on entrepreneurial culture (Qiao, 2017).

Uncertainty avoidance: Suddle et al (2010) is of the view that uncertainty avoidance is another cultural dimension that is strongly connected to entrepreneurial culture and that entrepreneurs are instrumental in introducing ground-breaking changes in the economy. Thus, entrepreneurs are referred to as agents of initiating creative destruction in sluggish economies through innovation so as to do away with outdated products and processes (Suddle et al., 2010; UNESCO, 2018). Consequently, uncertainty avoidance entails high levels of risk which is directly linked to entrepreneurial culture that promotes the process and commercializing innovation (Thurik and Dejardin, 2012; Cakir, 2016). In light of the above stated view, all these qualities are not found in uncertainty-avoiding societies that prefer certainty and predictability to risk and ambiguity. For that reason, university students socialized in high uncertainty avoidance societies have a comparatively low forbearance for ambiguity and a total aversion to risk taking, in addition to being change resisters (Thurik and Dejardin, 2012). In this situation, students thus, are unlikely to start their own innovative ventures because commercial opportunities that entail innovation will be looked down upon (Mai, 2015), yet entrepreneurship as a concept involves risk taking. Furthermore, university students in high uncertainty avoidance societies rely more on long termed steady employment which scholars are in agreement that it does not produce any technological break-throughs. Nevertheless, university graduates in low uncertainty avoidance societies, where entrepreneurial culture is prevalent have an amplified readiness to engage in entrepreneurial ventures and showcase risk taking qualities (Hofstede, 2015).

Power distance: As for high power distance societies because of social disparities, the elite have access to economic resources, whilst members of the lower classes they resort to entrepreneurial activities even though their entrepreneurial efforts are looked down upon as the case with Zimbabwe (Mai, 2015; Cakir, 2016). Therefore, entrepreneurial culture in low power distance culture is encouraged and inculcated in their university students. Henceforth; this is why there are evident entrepreneurial initiatives that ultimately lead to new venture development. Clearly, Urban (2004) points out low power distance societies have higher levels of entrepreneurial activity because most of the people regard the significance of

entrepreneurship seriously. As a result, entrepreneurial culture is upheld more in low power distance nations to start entrepreneurial ventures and their unemployed graduates are inclined to engage in entrepreneurship so as to achieve self-reliance than in their high power distance counterparts (Abzari and Safari, 2006).

Schwartz values theory

Closely related to Hofstede culture theory, Schwartz hypothesized the values theory whereby culture was defined to be the values essential in triggering entrepreneurial activities in a society as indicated by Thurik and Dejardin (2012) who indicate that values shape a person's individual motivational goals in so doing leading to guiding entrepreneurial action for those who want to start their own entrepreneurial ventures and these ten values by Schwartz are self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, security, conformity, tradition, benevolence along with universalism (Schwartz, 2012; Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017). Similarly, Munyoro and Gumisiro (2017) further add that entrepreneurial values are moral principles of behaviour with which when nurtured in entrepreneurs it set them apart from the other ordinary people. In the same vein, values are co-opted in such a way that influences both entrepreneurial motives and behaviours of entrepreneurs (Thurik and Dejardin, 2012). Also, the Schwartz theory of ten values is helpful in deducing whether entrepreneurs share common value systems that differentiate them from other people. In agreement to this line of thinking and highlights that whilst entrepreneurs rate poorer in benevolence and universalism, this is not the case for them when it comes to achievement, self-direction and stimulation values which they score higher. Additionally, individualistic persons bestow greater importance to power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation and self-direction values whereas collectivistic people rely mainly on the values of benevolence, tradition, compliance, universalism and security (Urban, 2004) and as a matter of fact, they note these ten motivational values can further be grouped into two distinct dimensions which are openness to change versus conservatism as well as self enhancement against self-transcendence of which scholars strongly point out entrepreneurial culture is closely correlated to openness to change and self enhancement as opposed to conservation and self-transcendence. This is because values linked to openness to change (self-direction, stimulation and hedonism) indicating a greater inclination to variety similar to self enhancement values (achievement and power) (Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017). Indeed, this goes without saying that the higher the priority given to certain values in a society the more likely university students will form attachments, action plans and adequate behaviour that clearly express the prevailing values supported by the present entrepreneurial culture (Munyoro et al., 2016).

McClelland: The need for achievement theory

According to Nwokolo (2015) and Kaburi et al. (2012), McClelland is one of the scholars who suggested that there is relationship between entrepreneurship and culture hence the term entrepreneurial culture and evidently, it is noted that the theory is correlated to entrepreneurial initiatives and the economic development of nations. Furthermore, the theory elucidates that there is a fairly great number of entrepreneurial activities in societies where entrepreneurial culture is supported and this simultaneously translate to high levels of need for achievement (Narry, 2018). Consequently, the crux of the theory is that once students are adequately motivated to have high needs for achievement through entrepreneurial culture and entrepreneurship education there is a vast possibility that they will set up their own businesses easily after completion of their studies (Nwokolo, 2015; Suddle et al., 2010). Similarly, Woodside et al. (2015) concurs that the theory of need for achievement propels the human mind to do better, quickly and effectively in any activity which it sets it mind on and this in most cases is a direct result of education and experience for others (Thurik and Dejardin, 2012; Qiao, 2017). Meanwhile, it should be noted that the need to succeed differs in individuals as indicated by Oosterlinck (2016). In light of the above mentioned this longing for achievement becomes a constant push which motivates an individual to become an entrepreneur. Following this same line of reasoning, Woodside et al. (2016) adds this theory, explaining and foretells an individuals' performance behaviour compelled by a need for achievement, power and affiliation. Having said that, the recognizable psychological characteristics of people with high need of achievement are moderate risk partiality, innovativeness, and internal locus of control in their behaviour and a high sense of responsibility in decision making to ascertain how they achieve their goals as argued by Woodside et al. (2015).

Ajzen Theory of planned behaviour

Arguably, scholars indicate that the theory of planned behaviour is relevant in articulating the entrepreneurial intentions of university students who would have been exposed to entrepreneurial culture and entrepreneurship education at early age of their lives (Oosterlinck, 2016; Kuttim et al., 2014). Thus, entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial culture are exogenous factors that influence intentions as noted by Karimi et al. (2012) and Popescu et al. (2016). Additionally, entrepreneurial intention in the theory of planned behaviour is derived from the overlying entrepreneurial culture in view of the fact that entrepreneurial behaviour is a form of premeditated behaviour and it follows a relevant behavioural information (Ajzen, 2005; Ajzen, 2012). As a matter of fact, McClelland (1965), McDonald (2007) and Popescu et al. (2016)

indicate entrepreneurship initiatives results from stimulating students' entrepreneurial intentions through fostering an entrepreneurial culture. For that reason, the theory of planned behaviour takes into consideration both personal and social factors which make up three antecedents which are firstly, the negative or positive attitude towards entrepreneurial behaviour then secondly the subjective norm which are individuals insight of acknowledging social pressures to either engage in entrepreneurial initiatives or not and lastly the perceived behavioural control that regards the difficulty to perform a certain behaviour, in this case is an individual's perceptions of their aptitude to exercise an entrepreneurial behaviour (Jaen and Linan, 2012; Oosterlinck, 2016). Thus, this theory highlights a direct positive relationship to entrepreneurial culture for the reason that the larger the attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control university students have the greater need to achieve their entrepreneurial intention which will ultimately aide them in successfully creating entrepreneurial ventures in which unemployment will be alleviated as graduates will become self-reliant (Karimi et al., 2012; Vaziri et al., 2014).

METHODOLOGY

This study was premised on phenomenological research philosophy, owing to the fact that it is supple and it allows peoples' beliefs to be elucidated in different perspectives (Abawi, 2013; Tassone, 2017; Saunders et al., 2012; Munyoro et al., 2016). Accordingly, using phenomenological philosophy in this study resulted in the understanding that reality is subjective and entrenched in complex and changing contexts (Padilla-Diaz, 2015; Saunders et al., 2012). In addition, a research design was adopted because it is an important plan of action that a researcher uses to answer research questions during the research process (Saunders et al., 2012). Additionally, a case study design was used owing to its ability of allowing an in depth, multi-faceted exploration of complex issues in their real life settings plus the value of the case study is acknowledged in the field of business (Blumberg et al, 2005; Zainal, 2007; Crowe et al., 2011). Similarly, a research design is also quick, inexpensive and precise in obtaining information from a large population such as in this study (Lysons and Farrington, 2015). In this study, the sample was made up of 200 respondents. This includes 100 Chinhoyi University of Technology students, 20 university's top management members, 40 staff members and 40 parents and this represented a proportion or subset of the university population (Polit et al., 2001; Singh and Tailor, 2005; Groves et al., 2009; Saunders et al., 2012). Since the study was qualitative, stratified random sampling, simple random sampling and judgemental sampling were adopted. To begin with, the sample size was divided into strata and this is because stratified random sampling partitions the

population into subpopulation or homogeneous strata (Malhotra, 2010). In addition, simple random sampling was then used to select 100 students, 20 universities' top management staff, 40 members of staff from Chinhoyi University of Technology and 40 parents of the students. In this study, questionnaires were used because they are the most affordable ways of gathering qualitative data. This is so because questionnaires can be self-administered and do not need to hire people to administer them, and cost efficient way to quickly collect massive amounts of data from a large population such as a university (Munyoro, 2014). In addition to a questionnaire, a focus group was used (Carson et al., 2001; Munyoro, 2014). Furthermore, desk research was also used to collect secondary data from other researches that have looked at entrepreneurial culture and this was achieved through reading academic books, journals, and the internet and newspaper articles (Saunders et al., 2012; Munyoro et al., 2016). Likewise, the data was analyzed using Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) in tandem with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) in which the data collected using questionnaires and group interviews was transformed into forms of explanation of the respondents' views on the significance of entrepreneurial culture in Zimbabwean universities (Munyoro et al., 2016). Hence, Seidel and Kelle (1995) and Munyoro (2014) suggest that the QDA process involve coding and writing themes identified by the researchers as passages of text and applying labels to them to indicate the thematic area. This labelling and coding of themes enabled the researchers to promptly retrieve all the texts that were going to be associated with a particular thematic idea, examine and compare them (Munyoro, 2014). The researchers used Seidel's (1998) model which is divided into three parts, namely Noticing, Collecting and Thinking about interesting things and these parts are interlinked and cyclical (Munyoro, 2014). Furthermore, the researchers noticed remarkable things in the data and assigned codes to them based on the theme and these codes in turn were used to break the data into fragments (Seidel, 1998; Munyoro, 2014). The codes were subsequently used to act as sorting and collection devices (Munyoro, 2014). After that, the researchers started writing about the research findings and this involved writing a summary of the data that incorporated analytic ideas (Gibbs, 2002; Munyoro, 2014). The data was then presented using tables, radars, scatter graphs, pie charts (Kennedy, 2007). All these methods were chosen because they facilitated easy comparison and understanding of the information that were presented (Few, 2004). The interesting thing is that in this study the data collectors' bias was minimized so was validity (Moss, 1992; Garrison, 1994). Furthermore, to render the study ethical, the rights to self-determination, anonymity, confidentiality, informed consent and voluntary were observed (Ford and Reuter, 1990; Birch & Miller, 2002; Polit et al., 2001; Bond, 2003; Fouka and Mantzorou, 2011; Fraenkel, et al, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Responses

Gender

The Table 1 and Figure 1) show the gender ratio of the respondents of which 71 were males (59.2%), whilst 49 were females (40.8%). Accordingly, this corresponds with the findings of Akuegwu and Nwi-Ue (2016), who stated that men have entrepreneurial initiatives and tendencies than women.

Age

The study also shows that 47.5% of the respondents were less than 25 years old, whilst 15% of the respondents were between 25-34 years of age. Furthermore, another 15 percent of the age groups were between 35-44 years old, whilst 12.5% were of the ages of 45-54 years of age. Therefore, the remaining percentages of 6.7, 2.5 and 0.8% represented the 55-64, 65-74 and >75 age groups respectively (Figure 2 and Table 2). Thus, this clearly shows that the age groups which were targeted by the study were reached because they are all university going age.

Qualifications

Furthermore, the study shows that 28.3% of the total respondents have degrees, whilst 24.2% of the respondents have O' and A' level qualification. Additionally, 19.2% of the respondents have Masters' degree, whilst 12.5 % were diploma holders. Thus, only 7.5% were PhD holders. Then a further 4.2% were ZJC and certificate holders (Table 3 and Figure 3). This then shows that the high percent of respondents were degree holders and have interest in university education issues. This is good for the study because the study managed to target the right respondents as entrepreneurs need a good educational background that promotes the existence of entrepreneurial culture as noted by Bharucha (2019).

Major findings

The existence of entrepreneurial attitude in universities

Figure 4 and Table 4 show that about 91% of the total respondents have knowledge about the existence of entrepreneurial attitude but do not understand how it works and its significance. Consequently, the response shows that most Zimbabwean universities are aware of the existence of entrepreneurial attitude in some universities but do not understand the concept very well.

Entrepreneurial attitude is significant to Zimbabwean universities

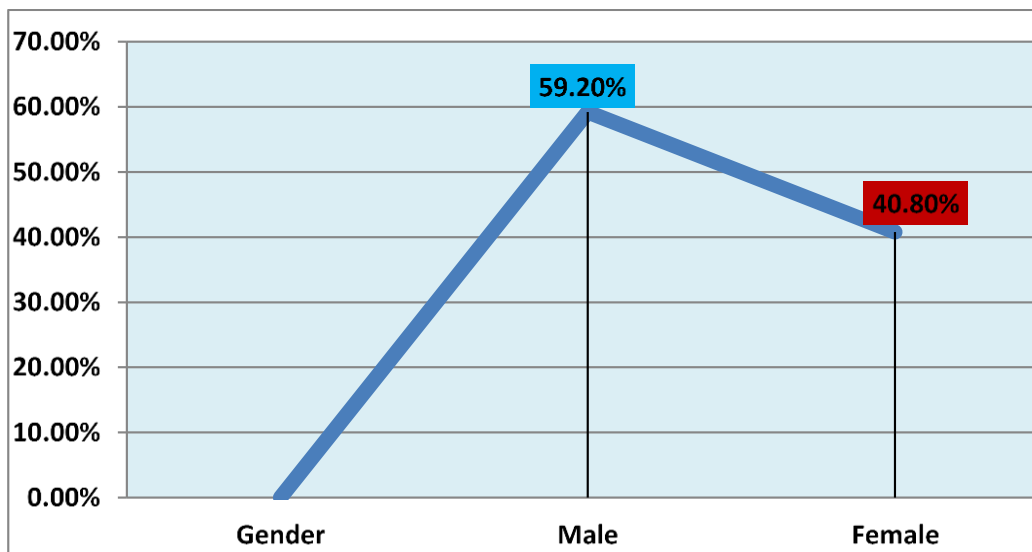
The findings (Table 5 and Figure 5) from the study show that entrepreneurial attitude is significant to Zimbabwean universities (Munyoro et al., 2016; Akuegwu and Nwi-Ue, 2016) because the presence of entrepreneurial attitude in universities helps to promote the concept of entrepreneurship which is now a driving force in employment creation, new venture creation, better standards of living and economic development (Jarohnovich and Avotins, 2013; Munyoro et al., 2016; Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017). Additionally, it was found out from the study that a university with entrepreneurial attitude such as Chinhoyi University of Technology produces entrepreneurs who are creative as well as innovative and are constantly creating new innovations as has been witnessed in recent years at the university (Jarohnovich and Avotins, 2013; Akuegwu and Nwi-Ue, 2016). Hence, such universities are good places for creativeness and innovation as well as new venture creation as they have hubs which are used for nurturing students as with the case with developed economies (Akuegwu and Nwi-Ue, 2016; Munyoro et al., 2016).

Entrepreneurial attitude exists in some Zimbabwean universities

The findings from the study as indicated by Table 6 and Figure 6 show that entrepreneurial attitude exists in some Zimbabwean universities and these universities are seedbeds for entrepreneurial activities (Munyoro et al., 2016; Grecu and Denes, 2017). This then is a positive result as entrepreneurship is good for the economic development of a country as have been witnessed in several countries such as America and United Kingdom (Akuegwu and Nwi-Ue, 2016). This is also evidenced by a number of new businesses that have been created in Zimbabwe as a result of entrepreneurial attitude although the number is still low (Agbonlahor, 2016; Oosterlinck, 2016). Furthermore, the majority of the respondents agreed with the notion that entrepreneurial attitude encourages the creation of new businesses and subsequently new jobs as has been the case with Chinhoyi University of Technology (Grecu and Denes, 2017) as well as new technologically oriented business (Cakir, 2016; Shobhit, 2019; Grecu and Denes, 2017, Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017). It was also acknowledged in the study that entrepreneurial initiatives require positive attitude that value risks taking because without the readiness to face uncertainties it is not possible to generate value from knowledge something that Chinhoyi University of Technology is doing (Rehman and Elahi, 2012; Liyan, 2003; Narry, 2018). Thus, the positive attitude of having the propensity to be risk takers need to be properly addressed in view of dissimilar cultures which habitually cause an obstruction to starting off business ventures in

Table 1. Gender of respondents.

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Male	71	59.2	59.2	59.2
Female	49	40.8	40.8	100
Total	120	100	100	

**Figure 1.** Gender of respondents.**Table 2.** Age of respondents.

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
<25 years	57	47.5	47.5	47.5
25-34 years	18	15	15	62.5
35-44 years	18	15	15	77.5
45-54 years	15	12.5	12.5	90
55-64 years	8	6.7	6.7	96.7
65-74 years	3	2.5	2.5	99.2
>75 years	1	0.8	0.8	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

universities (Agbonlahor, 2016). The study further indicates that unfavourable societal attitudes to entrepreneurial attitude is rampant in most universities and is also related to graduates' low involvement in entrepreneurial initiatives (Mai, 2015; Nwokolo, 2015). As noted in the study, there is also boundless pressure from parents who would rather have their children make money in the short term over long term benefits of engaging in entrepreneurial activities (Mai, 2015; Nwokolo, 2015; Bharucha, 2019) and obviously this hinders young university graduates to dedicate enough time required to start their own entrepreneurial ventures as a result of such pressures from parents and guardians that force university graduates

to indulge in crime because they lack entrepreneurship skills (Bharucha, 2019).

The study shows that United States of America is the birth place of entrepreneurship because their educational setup is vibrant due to a string of pioneering entrepreneurial attitude which is prevalent in their educational system (Qiao, 2017). That being said, promotion of entrepreneurship in America is ingrained in their puritan, immigrant and individualism culture hence, Guan and Qi (2013) argue that the puritan, immigrant and individualism attitude in America promotes the legacy of entrepreneurial attitude in educational institutions such as universities and colleges. Consequently, a close up relation of attitude and

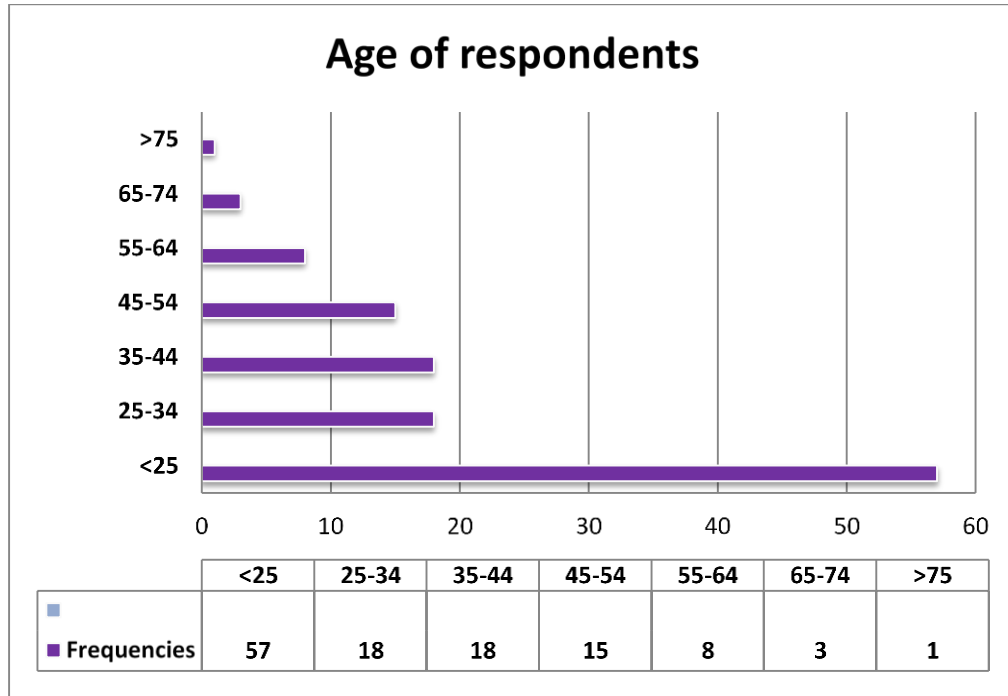


Figure 2. Age of respondents.

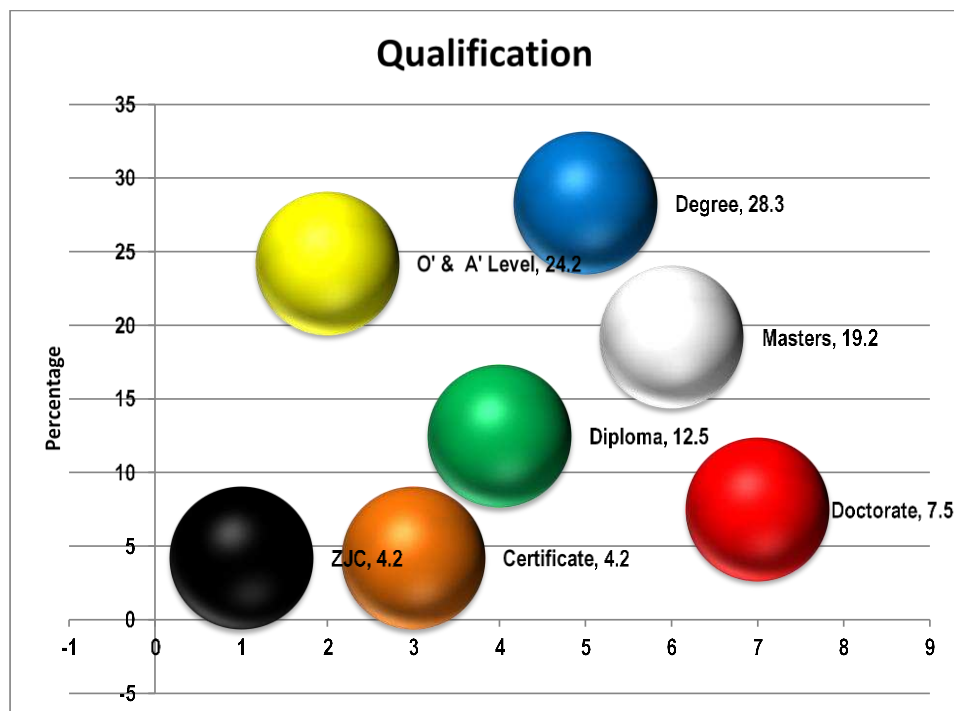


Figure 3. Qualification of the respondents.

entrepreneurship which is entrepreneurial attitude cannot be dismissed because it is strongly present and it enhances university students' entrepreneurial spirit in

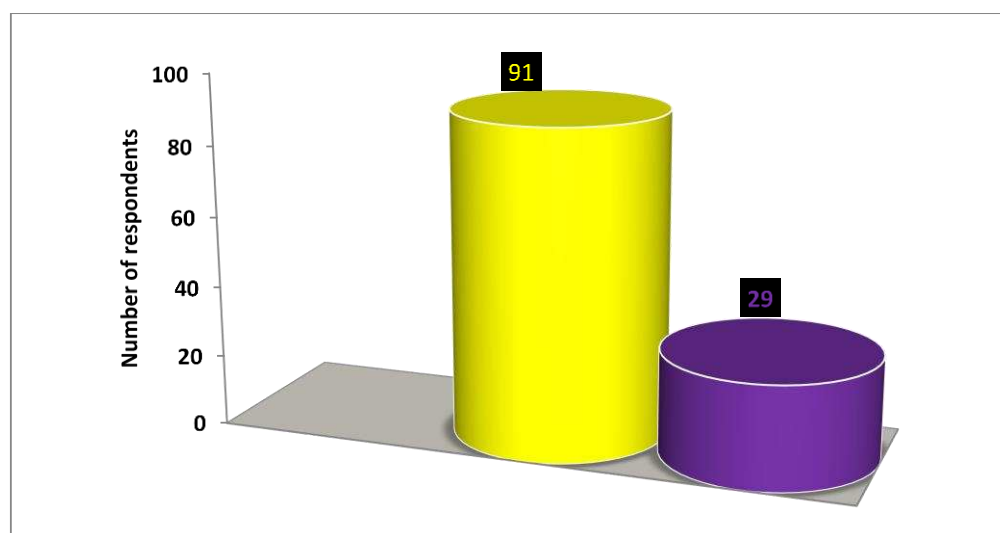
America as with the case with Chinhoyi University of Technology (Stevenson, 2000; Luidinga, 2014). Additionally, entrepreneurial attitude in American universities

Table 3. Qualification of the respondents.

Qualification	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
ZJC	5	4.2	4.2	4.2
O' & A' Level	29	24.2	24.2	28.3
Certificate	5	4.2	4.2	32.5
Diploma	15	12.5	12.5	45
Degree	34	28.3	28.3	73.3
Masters	23	19.2	19.2	92.5
Doctorate	9	7.5	7.5	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

Table 4. The existence of entrepreneurial attitude in universities.

Entrepreneurial attitude	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Yes	91	75.8	75.8	75.8
No	29	24.2	24.2	100
Total	120	100	100	

**Figure 4.** The existence of entrepreneurial attitude in universities.

primarily orients and promotes the entrepreneurial knowledge dissemination through a proper entrepreneurial university education guide system and business value goals which have a direct result of ensuring the United States of America's economic development. As a consequence, this is why America has 1600 universities and colleges that have opened more than 2200 entrepreneurship courses and additionally set up 100 entrepreneurship research hubs and at the end resulting in the prevailing entrepreneurial attitude which encourages self-sufficiency and self-employment of university graduates (CIPE, 2014).

Non-favourable policy environment and lack of adequate governmental support

The study (Table 7 and Figure 7) shows that dogmatic burdens of red tape are some of the main problems faced by graduate entrepreneurs (Nwokolo, 2015; Agbonlahor, 2016; Rehman and Elahi, 2012) because most graduate entrepreneurs acknowledged that they spend large amounts of time handling and complying to regulatory requirements because keeping track of various regulatory requirements involves crosswise the many governmental and municipal departments and this is an onerous task and

Table 5. Entrepreneurial attitude is significant to Zimbabwean universities.

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Strongly disagree	1	0.8	0.8	0.8
Disagree	5	4.2	4.2	5.0
Neutral	11	9.2	9.2	14.2
Agree	33	27.5	27.5	41.7
Strongly agree	70	58.3	58.3	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

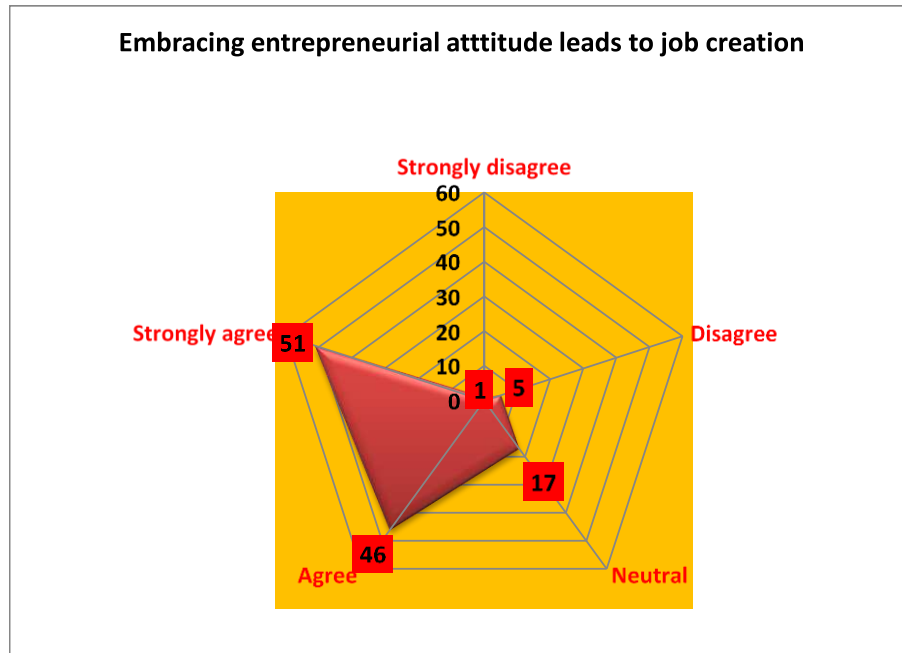


Figure 5. Embracing entrepreneurial attitude leads to job creation.

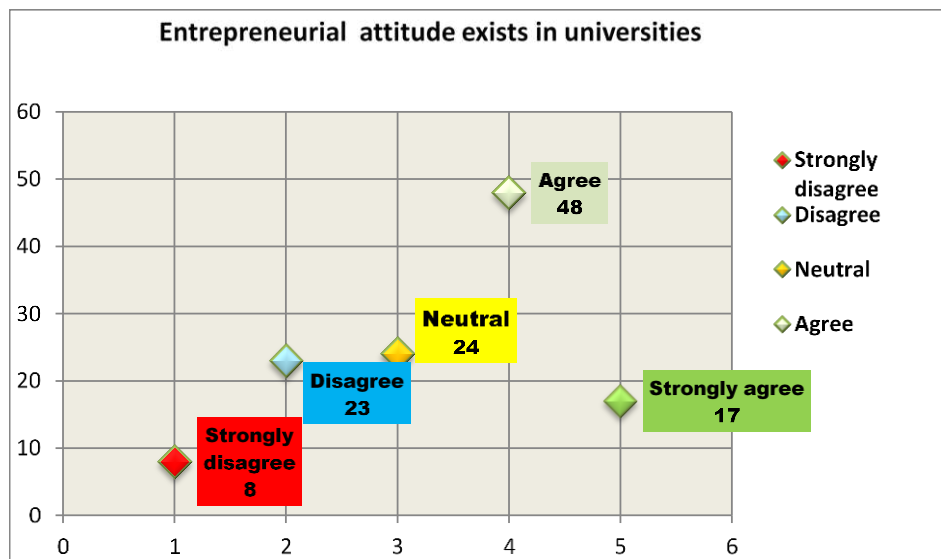


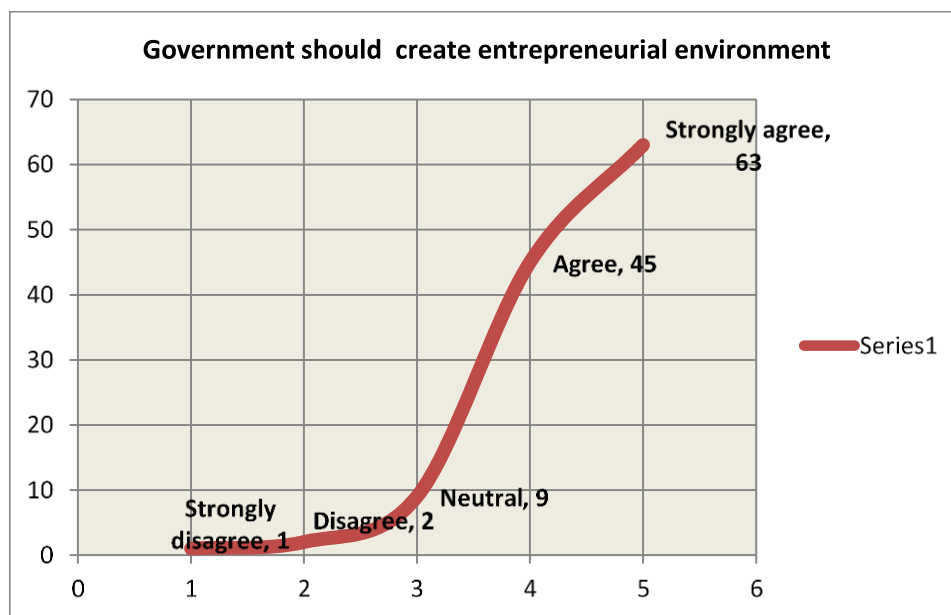
Figure 6. Entrepreneurial attitude exists in Zimbabwean universities.

Table 6. Entrepreneurial attitude exists in Zimbabwean universities.

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
Disagree	8	6.7	6.7	8.3
Neutral	17	14.2	14.2	22.5
Agree	53	44.2	44.2	66.7
Strongly agree	40	33.3	33.3	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

Table 7. Non-favourable policy environment and lack of adequate governmental support.

Parameters	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Strongly disagree	1	0.8	0.8	0.8
Disagree	2	1.7	1.7	2.5
Neutral	9	7.5	7.5	10
Agree	45	37.5	37.5	47.5
Strongly agree	63	52.5	52.5	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

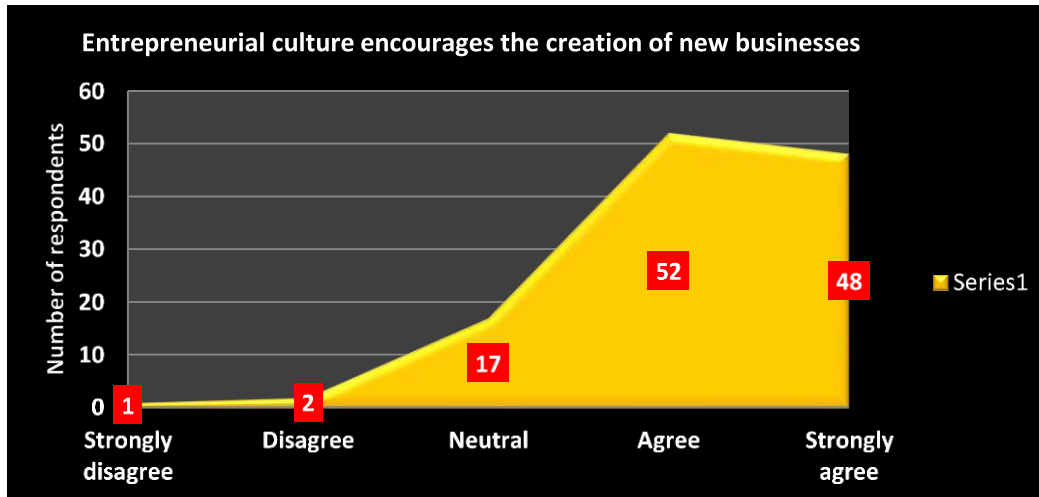
**Figure 7.** Government should create entrepreneurial environment.

dispiriting (Liyan, 2003). From the start, the lack of satisfactory policy framework by the Zimbabwean government to serve as a linchpin for entrepreneurial skills acquired in universities through entrepreneurial attitude to flourish leads to a deficiency of an entrepreneurial drive among university graduates. Accordingly, Mina (2014) notes that in Zimbabwe this non favourable policy environment and lack of governmental support can be bunched up into challenges such as shortage of loans, soaring inflation rates and taxes, technological violations,

political instability, insecurities of both lives and property as well as poverty. In short, Nwokolo (2015) states that insufficient funds certainly leads to ineffective implementation and achievement of university entrepreneurial oriented goals as access to capital remains as one of the biggest challenges faced by entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe (CIPE, 2014; Kaburi et al, 2012). In fact, most entrepreneurs who run their business in Zimbabwe have come to the realisation that they do not qualify to get loans and credit due to lack of collateral faced especially by

Table 8. Embracing an entrepreneurial attitude encourages the creation of new businesses.

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	13	10.8	10.8	10.8
Disagree	19	15.8	15.8	26.7
Neutral	27	22.5	22.5	49.2
Agree	38	31.7	31.7	80.8
Strongly agree	23	19.2	19.2	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

**Figure 8.** Embracing an entrepreneurial attitude encourages the creation of new businesses.

unemployed graduates who would have just completed their studies (Boates, 2013, Chigunhah et al., 2019) and as a consequence this limits the growth of self-employment initiatives (Turton and Herrington, 2012). Additionally, financial lending institutions either in the public or private sector are for the most part risk averse thus, they set rigid conditions and collateral is a must have for entrepreneurs to secure funds making it roughly impossible for unemployed graduates to get financing (KEN, 2013; Chigunhah et al., 2019). In fact, all this hinders graduates from engaging in self-sustaining entrepreneurial ventures. Hence, the need for promotion of an entrepreneurial attitude by the Zimbabwean government, the universities themselves, business chambers and other numerous social players as is the case with Argentina because the sole purpose of entrepreneurial attitude is to stimulate the nation's economic growth, creation of new companies and employment (Anchorena and Ronconi, 2012).

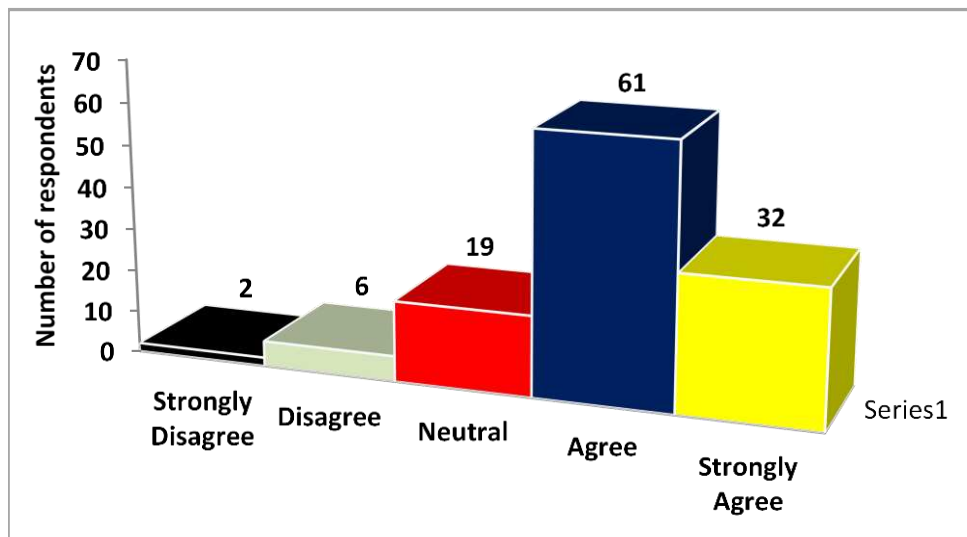
Embracing entrepreneurial culture encourages the creation of new businesses

The study as evidenced in Table 8 and Figure 8 shows that

most of the respondents are of the opinion that embracing entrepreneurial culture leads to job creation. Munyoro et al. (2016), Munyoro and Gumisiro (2017) and Shobhit (2019) who suggest that entrepreneurial attitude leads to job creation thereby, promoting the economy at large through the creation of new businesses. This is also supported by the majority of the respondents who agreed with the notion that entrepreneurial attitude encourages the creation of new businesses and subsequently new jobs (Grecu and Denes, 2017), and who also argued that entrepreneurial attitude promotes the starting of new technologically oriented business. This is true in Argentina where most employer entrepreneurs have university education than their workers as a result of the growing and prolonged unemployment rate that university graduates face upon completion of their studies something Zimbabwe could imitate (Anchorena and Ronconi, 2012). Consequently, this is the reason why increasing attention is now being directed at fostering entrepreneurial attitude in both private and public universities through supporting entrepreneurship courses, entrepreneurial clubs and entrepreneurial development hubs that not only support but increase practical work by students (Postigo and Tamborini, 2004; Pelletieri and Khalsa, 2018). Fortunately, students' attitudes towards entrepreneurship in Argentina

Table 9. Entrepreneurial attitude fosters creativeness, innovativeness and business success.

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
Disagree	6	5.0	5.0	6.7
Neutral	19	15.8	15.8	22.5
Agree	61	50.8	50.8	73.3
Strongly agree	32	26.7	26.7	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

**Figure 9.** Entrepreneurial attitudes foster creativeness, innovativeness and business success.

are being changed in favour of developing entrepreneurial skills for the long term basis in order to generate new and better trained entrepreneurs something that Zimbabwe could replicate (Postigo and Tamborini, 2004).

Entrepreneurial attitude fosters creativeness, innovativeness and business success

Table 9 and Figure 9 indicate that entrepreneurial attitude fosters creativeness, innovativeness and business success. Accordingly, having noted the significance of entrepreneurial attitude on the individuals in particular and the society at large in the study (Ajzen, 2012; Al Qudah, 2018; Bharucha, 2019), it is imperative that entrepreneurial attitude benefits the student first, then their families and then the society at large for the reason that entrepreneurial attitude helps students to foster creativeness, innovativeness and businesses success (Munyoro et al., 2016; Agbonlahor, 2016). Additionally, entrepreneurial attitude plays a vital role in promoting creative thinking, innovativeness and entrepreneurial success in university students regardless of their disciplines (Munyoro et al., 2016; Agbonlahor, 2016).

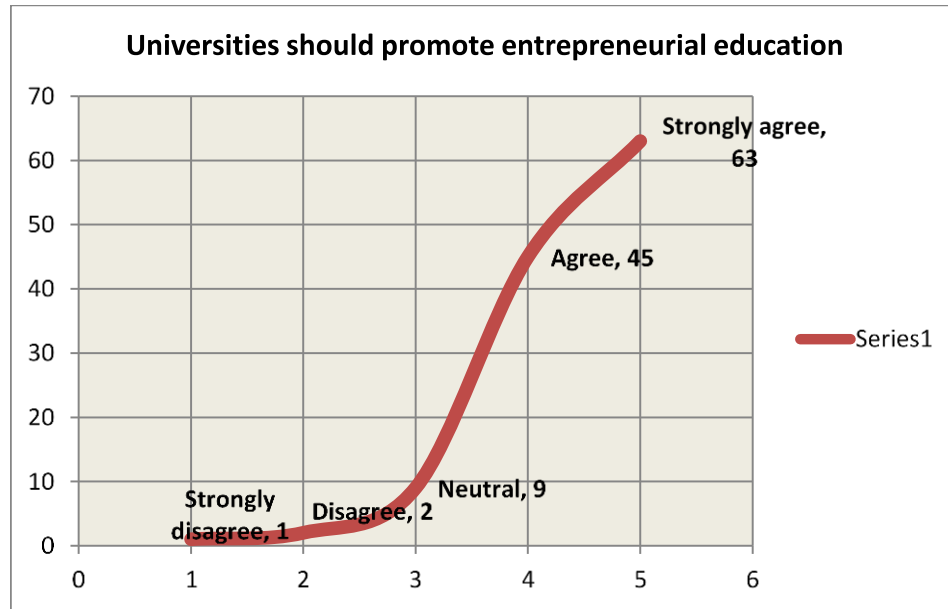
Accordingly, this leads to better living standards (Munyoro et al., 2016; Cakir, 2016).

Lack of entrepreneurial trained lecturers and skilled manpower

One of the major challenges hindering the promotion of an entrepreneurial attitude in Zimbabwean universities as stated by the majority of the respondents especially students is the dearth of qualified quality lectures who are well-informed in the field of entrepreneurship as a consequence this is leading to poor quality delivery (Agbonlahor, 2016; Nwosu and Chukwudi, 2018). Furthermore, these lecturers do not have personal experience of entrepreneurship nor have they ever established and operated their own ventures making it difficult for them to teach the subject meritoriously (Molefi, 2015). Hence, most of these lecturers carry on focusing on theories leaving out the practical aspects of demonstrative education resulting in producing deficient graduates who are not creative and innovative to start their own entrepreneurial ventures to create employment for themselves and others (Gandawa, 2015; Munyoro et al.,

Table 10. Inappropriate teaching methods with the curricular having a variance with industry' needs.

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Strongly disagree	1	0.8	0.8	0.8
Disagree	2	1.7	1.7	2.5
Neutral	9	7.5	7.5	10
Agree	45	37.5	37.5	47.5
Strongly agree	63	52.5	52.5	100
Total	120	100	100	

**Figure 10.** Universities should promote entrepreneurial education.

2016). Thus, university workforce falls short in the needed required skills, technical knowhow and techniques to inculcate entrepreneurial attitude that constitutes the necessary knowledge, attitudes and skills that guarantee university students to start their own entrepreneurial ventures (Grecu and Denes, 2017; Nwosu and Chukwudi, 2018). Meanwhile, Nwokolo (2015) further states that entrepreneurial culture is more than educating students to run business ventures but it involves inculcating creative and innovative thinking that promotes a strong sense of reliance and responsibility hence, the need for university lecturers to have knowledge and experience of this kind of subject.

Inappropriate teaching methods with the curricular having a variance with industry' needs

Table 10 indicates that universities promote entrepreneurial education but unfortunately in Zimbabwe, the study shows that the promotion of entrepreneurial attitude is being obstructed by the outdated curriculum taught in universities that is devoid of elaborating on the significance

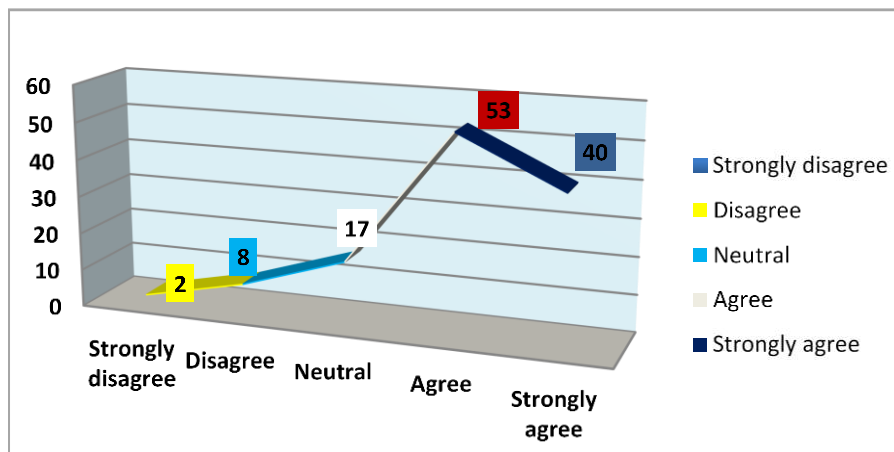
of entrepreneurship (Agbonlahor, 2016). Equally, it is important to acknowledge that the technique of delivery also matters because the teaching method determines the students' level of engagement and understanding and this is lacking in Zimbabwe.

Poor perceptions, negative attitudes and inadequate students' exposure through research linkages

It was found out that the university students' perceptions and attitudes of entrepreneurial activities was negative (Figure 10) because most university students did not see entrepreneurship as a possible viable career, especially science and engineering students (Kaburi et al., 2012; Oosterlinck, 2016; Bharucha, 2019; Agbonlahor, 2016). Additionally, the study show that university students lack sufficient exposure in the field of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial attitude and this is exacerbated by the university systems which fail to offer the needed foundation, especially in science and engineering programmes because entrepreneurship is seen as a commercial subject and has no significance to science and engineering degrees

Table 11. Entrepreneurial culture leads to creativity, innovation, efficiency and quality.

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
Disagree	8	6.7	6.7	8.3
Neutral	17	14.2	14.2	22.5
Agree	53	44.2	44.2	66.7
Strongly agree	40	33.3	33.3	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

**Figure 11.** Entrepreneurial culture leads to creativity, innovation, efficiency and quality.

(Rehman and Elahi, 2012). Equally, this is worsened by the fact that most universities are underfunded and under resourced as a result making it difficult for the university to avail the appropriate training to amplify students' exposure (CIPE, 2014; KEN, 2013).

Entrepreneurial culture leads to creativity, innovation, efficiency and quality

The findings from the study (Table 11 and Figure 11) support the notion that entrepreneurial attitude leads to innovation, efficiency and quality (Munyoro et al., 2016; Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017) and innovations are responsible for the starting of new and efficient technological ventures which has resulted in the improvement of living standards and ultimately the economic development of a country (Al Qudah, 2018).

Entrepreneurial attitude leads to economic development

The findings (Figure 12 and Table 12) from the study also show that entrepreneurial attitude leads to economic development (Munyoro et al., 2016; Chakraborty et al., 2016; Shobhit, 2019) for the reason that entrepreneurial attitude has positive long term effects to both the

entrepreneur and the country (Cakir, 2016; Munyoro et al., 2016). The entrepreneurial attitude gives birth to entrepreneurship which is a significant driver that contributes to the economic growth through technological innovations, employment creation and improved living standards (Cakir, 2016; Grecu and Denes, 2017, Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017; Shobhit, 2019). Hence, the need for universities in Zimbabwe to promote entrepreneurial attitude as this is a key driver to economic development of Zimbabwe (Munyoro et al., 2016; Munyoro and Gumisiro, 2017).

Entrepreneurial attitude leads to better living standards

Conclusively, the findings (Table 13 and Figure 13) from the study show that entrepreneurial attitude leads to better living standards and this is supported by 76 percent of the total respondents. As noted by Munyoro et al. (2016) and Cakir (2016), entrepreneurial culture leads to better living standards.

Practical implications for policies and practice

Entrepreneurship must be compulsory to every university student

Most of the respondents are of the opinion that a module

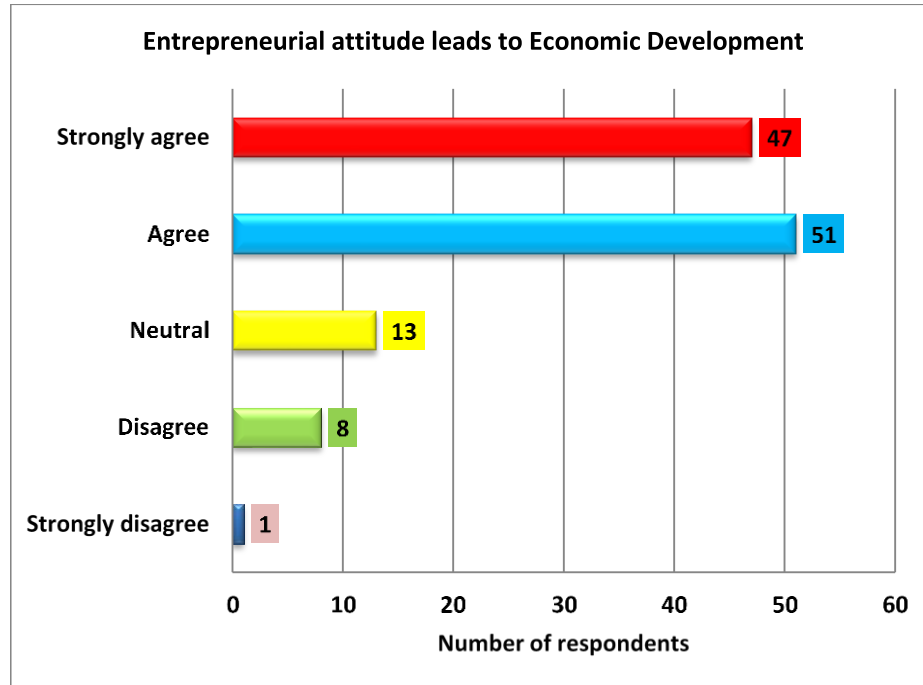


Figure 12. Entrepreneurial culture leads to economic development.

Table 12. Entrepreneurial attitude leads to economic development.

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Strongly disagree	1	0.8	0.8	0.8
Disagree	8	6.7	6.7	7.5
Neutral	13	10.8	10.8	18.3
Agree	51	42.5	42.5	60.8
Strongly agree	47	39.2	39.2	100
Total	120	100	100	

Table 13. Entrepreneurial attitude leads to better living standards.

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Strongly disagree	1	0.8	0.8	0.8
Disagree	8	6.7	6.7	7.5
Neutral	20	16.7	16.7	24.2
Agree	55	45.8	45.8	70.0
Strongly agree	36	30	30.0	100.0
Total	120	100.0	100.0	

in entrepreneurship as well as one in entrepreneurial creativity and innovation be introduced in all the universities in Zimbabwe and be compulsory to every student (Narry, 2018). For example, findings from Nigeria show that entrepreneurship education is mandatory and is offered to every higher tertiary student despite their

different majors (Nwokolo, 2015; Pelletieri and Khalsa, 2018). Additionally, most respondents from the study strongly agreed that universities should promote entrepreneurial education as there is a rise in the promotion of entrepreneurial education in both private and public universities world over (Pelletieri and Khalsa, 2018; Qiao, 2018).

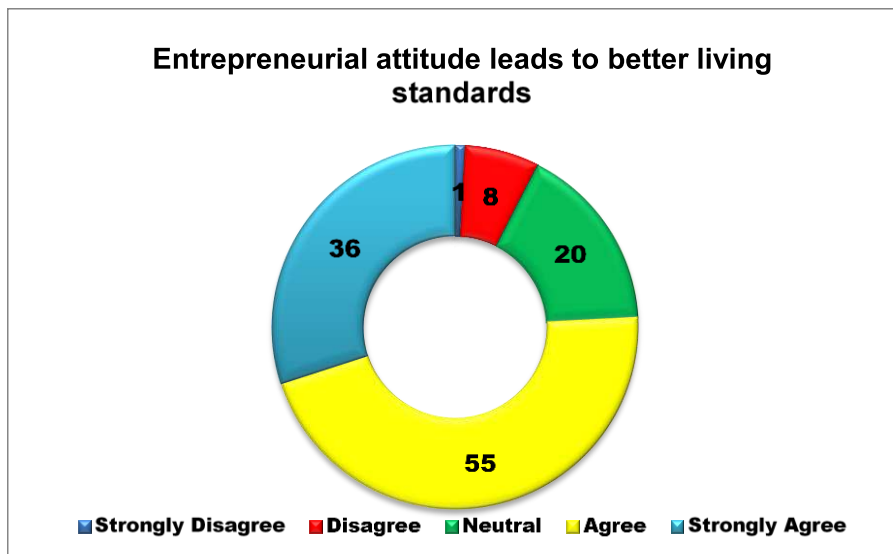


Figure 13. Entrepreneurial attitude leads to better living standards.

Universities should have hubs for nurturing students

Apart from promoting entrepreneurial education, culture and attitude, universities should have business hubs for nurturing students and this is supported by CIPE (2014) whose research findings indicate that in United States of America, 100 entrepreneurship research hubs have been set up to nurture students' entrepreneurial initiatives. Similarly, China universities have invested much in constructing incubation hubs for university students' start-ups as is the case with Chinhoyi University of Technology and University of Zimbabwe just to name a few (Qiao, 2017). This means that universities in Zimbabwe should also improve their infrastructure and obsolete equipment.

Lack of entrepreneurial trained lecturers and skilled manpower

To improve the situation hindering the promotion of an entrepreneurial culture in universities such as the dearth of qualified quality lecturers thus, the study recommends that the university lecturers who teach entrepreneurship should not only have training in business but other disciplines too like psychology, science, engineering as taking business trained lecturers puts others disciplines at a disadvantage (Agbonlahor, 2016). In fact, scholars argue that through entrepreneurial culture, university students should be exposed to three main spheres of learning which are cognitive, affective and psychomotor.

Inappropriate teaching methods with the curricular having a variance with industries' and country's needs

The study recommends that the promotion of entrepreneurial

culture in institutes of higher learning should make use of the teaching techniques that permit practical application of learnt material in a bid to encourage a more holistic development of required set skills (Nwokolo, 2015). Furthermore, efficient teaching methods must go a step further from using unchanged formulas in textbooks to encouraging students to freely grow creative and innovative thinking of applying theory to practice in a real world set up (Massad and Tucker, 2009; Karimi et al., 2013).

University students should be self-reliant

Findings from the study show that university students should be self-reliant and as indicated by CIPE (2014), United States of America has 1,600 universities and colleges that offer entrepreneurial education as a way to encourage self-sufficiency and self-employment of the university students. The fostering of entrepreneurial culture through entrepreneurship education has turned out to be accepted in Chinese universities due to rise in graduate unemployment in China (Liyang, 2003) resulting in the China's government changing from being the only care taker of its people into partnering and becoming a resource provider to universities by investing immensely in entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial initiatives of university students who want to kick start their own entrepreneurial ventures (Goel et al., 2007; Qiao, 2017). Additionally, the Chinese government has partnered with universities to construct incubation hubs for university students' start-ups and has gone an extra mile of engaging banks to offer easier lending to young entrepreneurs whilst at the same time decreeing policies that aid small businesses not only in funding but networking with large

corporates in the industry. Similarly, the entrepreneurial education offered in Chinese universities promotes creativity and innovative thinking, tolerates failure and overall inculcate entrepreneurial culture in students, which was a missing element prior the introduction of entrepreneurship education in Chinese universities as is the case with Zimbabwean universities (Qiao, 2017). Actually, entrepreneurial culture in Chinese universities advocate for risk taking which according to SEF (2016) has led to altering the mindsets of even parents to support their children on embarking on entrepreneurial journeys (Liyan, 2003). Thus Wang (2012) states that entrepreneurship has significantly contributed to China's economic development and this is hinged on entrepreneurial initiatives by university students who have turned into entrepreneurs who showcase aggressiveness, proactiveness and innovativeness in their entrepreneurial ventures.

Universities should be involved in the promotion of small business

The study revealed that the majority of the respondents are of the opinion that universities should be involved in promoting small business, especially at the time companies are closing down (Afriye and Booheme, 2014; Welkessa, 2015; Munyoro et al., 2016). Consequently, this results in the increase of new small business ventures which will be a good thing as these results in better living standards for the citizens (Woodside et al., 2015; Munyoro et al., 2016; Shobhit, 2019).

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

- Abawi, K. (2013) Data collection instruments. Questionnaire & interview. Geneva: Geneva Workshop.
- Abzari, M., & Safari, A. (2006). The role of culture on entrepreneurship development: Case study of Iran. *International Journal of Knowledge, Culture and Change Management*, 9(4), 135-154.
- Aeeni, Z., & Saeedikiya, M. (2017) Complexity theory as a theoretical basis for entrepreneurship ecosystem research: new paths for future research. 22nd EBES Conference – Rome.
- Afriye, N., & Boohene, R. (2014). Entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial culture among university of Cape Coast students in Ghana. *Athens Journal of Education*, 1(4), 309-322.
- Agbonlahor, A. A. (2016). Challenges of entrepreneurial education in Nigerian Universities: Towards a repositioning for impact. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 6(1), 208-214.
- Ahortor, C. R. K. (2009) The role of the entrepreneur in socio-infrastructure development network in Ghana. Glisten Strategic Solutions, Accra, Ghana.
- Almeida, F. (2014) To fail and to succeed. Lack of entrepreneurial culture is Europe's ultimate business challenge. Phoenix
- Ajzen, I. (2012). *The theory of planned behaviour*. London. UK: Sage.
- Akuegwu, B. A., & Nwi-Ue, F. D. (2016). Developing entrepreneurship culture among university students in South-South, Nigeria. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(2 S1), 315-324.
- Al Qudah, M. A. (2018). The impact of entrepreneurship initiatives in enhancing creativity and innovation. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 13(7), 157-168.
- Alemu, S. K. (2018). The meaning, idea and history of university/ higher education in Africa: A brief literature review. *Forum for International Research in Education*, 4(3), 210-227.
- Alvarez, S. A., & Barney, J. B. (2008). Opportunities, organizations, and entrepreneurship. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 2(4), 265-267.
- Anchorena, J., & Ronconi, L. (2012). Entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial values and public policy in Argentina. Inter-American Department of Research Working Paper Series No. IDB-WP-316.
- Assie-Lumumba, N. (2005). Higher education in Africa: Crises, reforms and transformation. Senegal: Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODSERIA).
- Atkinson, N. J. (1972). *Teaching Rhodesians: A history of educational policy in Rhodesia*. London: Longman.
- Banks, A. (1989). *Cultural aspects of the 19th century*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Baron, R. A., & Henry, R. A. (2011). Entrepreneurship: the genesis of organizations. In: Zedeck, S. (ed.). *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 1, APA, Washington, DC, pp. 241-73.
- Bharucha, J. (2019). Entrepreneurship education management in India. *International Journal of Business Excellence*, 17(4), 456-468.
- Birch, M., & Miller, T. (2002) Encouraging participation: Ethics and responsibilities. *Ethics in Qualitative Research*, Pp. 91-106.
- Blumberg, B., Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2005) *Business research methods*. McGraw-Hill, Maidenhead.
- Fillion, C. (1990) *Entrepreneurship and economic development*. Sussex.
- Ford, J., & Reuter, I. (1990) Ethical dilemmas associated with small samples. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 15(2), 184-191.
- Fouka, G., & Mantzorou, M. (2011) What are the major ethical issues in conducting research? Is there a conflict between the research ethics and the nature of nursing? *Health Science Journal*, 5(1), 3-14.
- Bond, T. (2003) Validity and assessment: A rasch measurement perspective. *Metodoliga de las Ciencias del Comportamento*, 5(2), 179-194.
- Boulton, G., & Lucas, C. (2011). What are universities for? League of European Research Universities.
- Brownson, C. D. (2013). Fostering entrepreneurial culture: A conceptualization. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(31), 146-155.
- Bux, S. (2016). *The effect of entrepreneurship education programmes on the mind-set of South African youth* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria).
- Cakir, B. O. (2016). Cultural aspects of global entrepreneurship and the importance of promoting entrepreneurial orientation. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies*. 5(1), 317-326 (2016).

- Chakraborty, S., Thompson, J. C., & Yehoue, E. B. (2016). The culture of entrepreneurship. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 163, 288-317.
- Chigunhah, B, Svtwa, E., P., and Munyoro, G (2019). Constraints and opportunities for farmer access to bank. *International Conference on Business and Management Dynamics*; ICBMD-2019: ISBN: 978-1-928396-17-8.
- CIPE (2014). Creating the environment for entrepreneurial success. Washington: DC.
- Crowe, S., Cresswell, K., Robertson, A., Huby, G., Avery, A., & Sheikh, A. (2011). The case study approach. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 11, Article Number 100.
- Dorsey, B. J. (1975). *The African school leaver: Aspirations, academic achievement and past school employment. In education, race and employment in Rhodesia*. Salisbury: Artca Publications.
- Dumbu, E. (2014). Promoting entrepreneurship through open and distance education in Zimbabwe. A case study of the Zimbabwe Open University students at Masvingo regional campus. *International Journal of Business, Economics and Management*, 1(6), 101-114.
- Dzikira, H. (2015) *Zimbabwe producing half-baked graduates*. Newsday January 30, page 9. Harare.
- Frick, M., Gilder, L., & Marner, T. (1998). Measuring organisational culture. Elsevier Amsterdam.
- Fukuyama, F. (2001). Culture and economic development. Cultural concerns. *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioural Science*, Elsevier Amsterdam, Pp. 3130-3134.
- Gandawa, G. (2015). *No jobs in sight for many graduates*. Herald 30 January, page 11B. Harare.
- Garrison, J. (1994). Realism, Deweyan pragmatism, and educational research. *Educational Researcher*, 23(1), 5-14.
- Garwe, E. C., & Thondhlana, J. (2018). Higher education systems and institutions, Zimbabwe. *Encyclopedia of International Higher Education Systems and Institutions*.
- Garwe, E., C. (2014) Holistic Initiatives for Enhancing Graduate Employability in Zimbabwe: Research in Higher Education Journal Vol. 23, 2014, ERIC
- Gibbs, G. (2002). Qualitative data analysis. Exploration with NVivo. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Goel, A., Vohra, N., Zhang, L., & Arora, B. (2007). Attitudes of the youth towards entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship: A cross-cultural comparison of India and China, 3(1), 33p.
- Gomba, C. (2017) Post-colonial theory in Zimbabwe's education system: Headmasters' views. *International Journal of Research Studies in Education*, 7(1), 77-88.
- Grecu, V., & Denes, C. (2017). Benefits of entrepreneurship education and training for engineering students. In *MATEC Web of Conferences* (Vol. 121, p. 12007). EDP Sciences.
- Groves, R. M., Fowler, F. J., Couper, M. P., Lepkowski, J. M., & Tourangeau, R. (2009). *Survey methodology*, 2nd edition. New Jersey: Wiley.
- Guan, X., & Qi, W. (2013). *The cultural roots of American entrepreneurship education*. Atlantis Press.
- Heiko, B. (2005). Entrepreneurial culture and attitudes. *Journal for International Business*, Volume 49 No 3(4), pp.185-199.
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture consequences, 2nd edition*. Sage Publications, California.
- Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. (2011) How to design and evaluate research in education. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Hofstede, P. (1994). The cultural relativity of organisational practices and theories. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 14(2), 75-89.
- International Labour Organisation. (2014). *Report on entrepreneurship and unemployment policies in developing nations*. Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education. Harare.
- Ireland, K., & Webb, W. (2007). Entrepreneurial education in the enterprise culture. University of Aberden, UK. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 5(3), 110-125.
- Ireland, R. D., Covin, J. G., & Kuratko, D. F. (2008). Conceptualizing corporate entrepreneurship strategy. *Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice*, 33(1),19-46.
- Jaen, I., & Linan, F. (2012). Work values in a changing economic environment. The role of entrepreneurial capital. Department of Innovation, Science and Enterprise, Project No. P08-SEJ-03542.
- Jarohnovich, N., & Avotiņš, C. (2013). The changing role of the entrepreneurial university in developing countries: The case of Latvia. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, 13(2), 121-148.
- Kaburi, S. N., Mobegi, V. O., Kombo, A., Omari, A., & Sewe, T. (2012). Entrepreneurship challenges in developing economies. A case of Kenyan economy. *International Journal of Arts and Commerce*, 1(4), 264-274.
- Kapungu, R. S. (2007). The pursuit of higher education in Zimbabwe. A futile effort.
- Karimi, S., Biemans, H. J. A., Lans, T., & Mulder, M. (2012). The role of entrepreneurship education in developing students' entrepreneurial intentions. *Proceedings of WICaNeM 2012, The 10th Wageningen International Conference on Chain and Network Science*, Wageningen University, Wageningen, The Netherlands, 22p.
- KEN (2013). *Entrepreneurial education and innovation. Developing entrepreneurial mindset for knowledge economy*. Wolverhampton: UK, 13 – 14 May 2013.
- Kennedy, M. M. (2007). Defining a literature. **Sage Journals; Sagepub.com**
- Khan, M. M., Zhang, J., Hashmi, M. S., & Bashir, M. (2010). Cultural values and economic growth in Asia. An empirical analysis. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 1(2), 15-27.
- Krcmarova, J. (2011). The third mission of higher education institutions: conceptual framework and application in the Czech Republic. *European Journal of Higher Education*, 1(4), 315-331.
- Küttim, M., Kallaste, M., Venesaar, U., & Kiis, A. (2014). Entrepreneurship education at university level and students' entrepreneurial intentions. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 110, 658-668.
- Liyan, Z. (2003). Entrepreneurship education within India's higher education system: asianscholarship.com
- Low, M. B., & MacMillan, I. C. (1988). Entrepreneurship: Past research and future challenges. *Journal of Management*, 14(2), 139-161.
- Luidinga, R. (2014). *Small business entrepreneurs in Europe*. Erasmus University Rotterdam.
- Lysons, K., & Farrington, B. (2015). *Purchasing and supply chain management*. Pearson Education Limited, England.
- Mai, N. P. (2015). *Hofstede's five value dimensions of culture*. CCA course (HvA) 2014-2015.
- Malhotra, N. K. (2010). Introduction: Analyzing accumulated knowledge and influencing future research. *Review of Marketing Research*. Vol 7. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley, Pp. xiii-xxvii.
- Masekesa, C., & Chibaya, M. (2014). *Unemployment turns graduates into vendors*. The Standard.

- Msuko, L. (2005). Current performance of the education sector in Zimbabwe: key policy challenges facing the sector. Paper presented at workshop on Sectoral Economic Development, Policy Challenges and the Way Forward held at Harare International Conference Centre, 26-27 June 2003. The workshop is jointly organized by Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce and Freidreich Ebert Stiftung.
- Mauchi, F.N., Karambakuwa, R. T., Gopo, R, N., Njanike, K., Mangwende, S., & Gombarume, F. B. (2011) Entrepreneurship education lessons. A case of Zimbabwean tertiary education institutions. *Educational Research*, 2(7), 1306-1311
- Mawere, D. (2013). Evaluation of the Nziramasanga report of inquiry into education in Zimbabwe, 1999: The case of gender equity in education. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, 3(5), 1077-1088.
- Mazonde, N. B., & Carmichael, T. (2016). The influence of culture on female entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe. *The Southern African Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management*, 8(1), 1-10.
- McClelland, D. C. (1965) Achievement and entrepreneurship. A longitudinal study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 4, 389-392.
- McDonald, R. W. (2007) *Beat the system. Eleven secrets of building an entrepreneurial culture in a bureaucratic world.* Fenton: John Wiley & sons.
- Minguzzi, A., & Passaro, R. (2000). Relationship between the economic environment and entrepreneurship in small firms. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 16(2) 181-207.
- Mlambo, A. S. (2005). Postcolonial higher education in Zimbabwe: The University of Zimbabwe as a case study 1980–2004. *African Historical Review*, 37(1), 107-130.
- Moyo, J. (2016). *Graduates living in poverty.* Current e-Paper.
- Mubika, A. K., & Bukaliya, R. (2011). Education for All: Issues and challenges. The case for Zimbabwe: *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education: Vol. 1(4) 2011: ijsse.com*
- Munyoro, G. (2014). The significance of group work in the assessment of students in higher education. A case study of the university of Dundee, Scotland, United Kingdom.
- Munyoro, G., & Gumisiro, C. (2017). The significance of entrepreneurial culture in the security sector: A case study of Zimbabwe prisons and correctional service. *IMPACT: International Journal of Research in Business Management*, 5(5), 15-28.
- Munyoro, G., Makota, B., & Tanhara, J. R. (2016). The significance of entrepreneurial culture in vocational training centres. A case study of Mupfure vocational centre. *IMPACT: International Journal of Research in Business Management*, 4(10), 55-70.
- Mwenje, S. (2018). Entrepreneurship curriculum implementation strategies in Zimbabwean universities. Zimbabwe Open University.
- Narry, L. (2018). What are cultural factors that inhibit entrepreneurship? Business Ecosystem: Quora publisher
- Ngorora, G. P. K., & Mago, S. (2013). Challenges of rural entrepreneurship in South Africa: insights from nkonkobe municipal area in the Eastern Cape Province. *International Journal of Information Technology and Business Management*, 16(1), 1-11.
- Nherera, C. (2000). The role of emerging universities in Zimbabwe. *Zimbabwe Journal of Educational Research*, 12(3), 38-61.
- Nwoko, E. (2015). Entrepreneurship education as a strategy for the promotion of entrepreneurship culture and poverty reduction among university students. University of Fort Hare
- Nwosu, J. C., & Chukwudi, J. H. (2018). Entrepreneurship education and the challenges of graduate employability in Nigeria. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, 9(5), 189-193.
- Nziramasanga, C. T. (1999). Report of the presidential commission of inquiry into education and training: Government of Zimbabwe Printers.
- OECD (2013). Culture: The role of entrepreneurship education in entrepreneurship at a glance 2013. London: OECD Publishing.
- Oosterlinck, J. (2016). The influence of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial behaviour. Universiteit gent.
- Padilla-Diaz, M. (2015). Phenomenology in educational qualitative research. Philosophy as science or philosophical science? *International Journal of Educational Excellence*, 1(2), 101-110.
- Pelletieri, L., & Khalsa, R. (2018). Facing high unemployment rates, Argentina's young people create their own jobs. *Global Press Journal*.
- Polit, D. F., Beck, C. T., & Hungler, B. P. (2001). Essentials of nursing research. Methods, appraisal and utilization. 5th edition. Lippincott, Philadelphia: Williams & Wilkins.
- Popescu, C. C., Bostan, I., Robu, I. B., Maxim, A., & Diaconu, L. (2016). An analysis of the determinants of entrepreneurial intentions among students: A romanian case study. *Sustainability*, 8(8), 771.
- Postigo, S., & Tamborini, M. F. (2004). Entrepreneurship education in Argentina: The case of the San Andres University. Internationalizing Entrepreneurship Education and Training Conference- IntEnt 20021. Malasya, July 8 –10, 2002.
- Qiao, Y. (2017). A research on education system of innovation and entrepreneurship in Chinese colleges. *3rd International Conference on Education and Social Development (ICESD 2017)*: ISBN: 978-1-60595-444-8
- Rehman, A. U., & Elahi, Y. A. (2012). Entrepreneurship education in India-scope, challenges and role of B-schools in promoting entrepreneurship education. *International Journal of Engineering and Management Research*, 2(5), 5-14.
- Reynolds, P. (2012). *Global entrepreneurship monitor.* Morgan James Publishing, London.
- Riside, B. (2019). Is our education system right? Retrieved from www.unicef.org
- SARUA (2012). Seven years of regional HE and advancement 2006-2012. Johannesburg: SARUA.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research methods for business students, 5th edition.* New Dehli: Pearson education limited.
- Schendel, D., & Hitt, M. A. (2007). Strategic entrepreneurship. Creative competitive advantage through streams of innovation. *Business Horizons*, 50(1) 49-59.
- Schwartz, S. H. (2012). *An overview of the Schwartz theory of basic values.* Online Readings in Psychology and Culture, Unit 2, Subunit 1, Chapter 11.
- SEF (2016). The entrepreneurial challenge. A comparative study of entrepreneurial dynamics in China, Europe and the US. www.gemconsortium.org
- Seidel, J. V. (1998). Qualitative data analysis [Online]. (Originally published as Qualitative data analysis, in The Ethnograph v5. 0: A users guide, Appendix E, 1998, Colorado Springs, Colorado: Qualis Research).
- Seidel, J., & Kelle, U. (1995). Different functions of coding in the analysis of textual data. Computer-dided qualitative data analysis.
- Shapero, D. C. (1984). Culture: The missing concept in organisational studies. Sexton: *Journal of Conservative*

- Dentistry*, 14 (3), 205-207.
- Shizha, E. (2011). The development of higher education in Zimbabwe. Education and development in Zimbabwe. In critical perspectives on neoliberal globalization, development and education in Africa and Asia. Rotterdam: Sense. 15-31.
- Shizha, E., & Kariwo, M. T. (2011). Education and development in Zimbabwe. A social, political and economic analysis. Sense Publishers, Rotterdam.
- Singh, H. P., & Tailor, R. (2005). Estimation of finite population mean using known correlation coefficient between auxiliary characters. *Statistica*, 65(4), 407-418.
- Spigel, B. (2011). Series of unfortunate events: The growth decline and rebirth of Ottawa's entrepreneurial institutions. Advances in the study of entrepreneurial Innovation and Economic Development, Ottawa
- Stevenson, H. H. (2000). *Why entrepreneurship has won! USA*: Coleman White Paper.
- Stevenson, H. H., & Jarillo, J. (1991). *A new entrepreneurial paradigm. In socioeconomics: Toward a new synthesis*. New York: M.E. Sharpe, Inc.
- Stevenson, H. H., & Sahlman, W.A. (1991). *Introduction to the entrepreneurial venture*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business.
- Suddle, K., Beugelsdijk, S., & Wennekers, S. (2010). Entrepreneurial culture and its effect on the rate of nascent entrepreneurship. In *Entrepreneurship and culture* (pp. 227-244). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. *Research* (Vol. 19, No. 3).
- Suzanne, T. (2013). *Four elements of entrepreneurial culture*. Fenton: John Wiley & Sons.
- Tassone, B. G. (2017). The relevance of Husserl's phenomenological exploration of interiority to contemporary epistemology. *Palgrave Communications*, 3(1), 1-11.
- Thornton, P. H. (1999). The sociology of entrepreneurship. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 25(1), 19-46.
- Thurik, R., & Dejardin, M. (2012). *Entrepreneurship and culture*. London: Routledge.
- UNESCO (2018) The Global Education meeting held in Brussels, Belgium from 3rd to 5th December 2018.
- Urban, B. (2004). Understanding the moderating effect of culture and self-efficacy on entrepreneurial intentions. University of Pretoria.
- Urban, B. (2007). A framework for understanding the role of culture in entrepreneurship. *Acta Commercii* 2007.
- Vaziri, S. A., Hosseini, S. E., & Jafari, A. (2014). The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial skills of university graduates. Case study: Payame Noor University of Torbat-E- Heydariye. *International Conference on Arts, Economics and Management (ICAEM'14) March 22-23, 2014 Dubai (UAE)*.
- Venkataraman, S. (1997). The distinctive domain of entrepreneurship research. *Advances in Entrepreneurship from Emergence and Growth*, 3, 119-138.
- Wang, R. (2012). Chinese culture and its potential influence on entrepreneurship. *International Business Research*, 5(10), 76-90.
- Witter, L. (2012). *Cultural entrepreneurship*. Fenton: John Wiley and Company.
- Wong, M. A. (2014). Entrepreneurial culture: Developing a theoretical construct and its measurement. University of Western Ontario, Canada
- Woodside, A. G., Mir, P., & Coduras, A. (2015). The general theory of culture, entrepreneurship, innovation and quality of life. Comparing nurturing versus thwarting enterprise start-ups in BRIC, Denmark, Germany and the United States. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 53, 136-159.
- Yuda, S. (2011). Encourage entrepreneurial culture and spirit. Zimbabwe entrepreneurial series. Zim Daily News: Harare.
- Zainal, Z. (2007). Case study as a research method. Faculty of management and human resource development. Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
- Zvobgo, R. J. (1994) *Colonialism and education in Zimbabwe*. Harare: Sapes Book.