



## GUEST EDITORIAL

# Entrepreneurship and socioeconomic development in Africa: a reality or myth?

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### Abstract

**Purpose** – The purpose of this paper is to examine the development of entrepreneurship education and training in Kenya as a strategic approach to addressing the unemployment problem among the school and university graduates in Kenya and Africa in general.

**Design/methodology/approach** – The study adopted a critical review of the literature method to achieve its purpose and to answer the key research question. The literature search included a computerized search of accessible and available material on entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial spirit, entrepreneurship education and training programs, history of entrepreneurship, and entrepreneurship models, Africa and entrepreneurship development.

**Findings** – It is shown that the development of entrepreneurial spirit and competencies should be a lifelong process. Addressing Africa's socioeconomic development in an entrepreneurial way requires learning successful lessons from within and without Africa. Specific examples of successful use of entrepreneurship to develop micro, small and medium-sized enterprises in Africa and other parts of the world, especially the USA, are cited in the paper. A case study of using technology to promote entrepreneurship in Africa is provided.

**Research limitations/implications** – The paper is limited since it is based on a review of the literature. Quantitative and qualitative research studies focusing on entrepreneurship and socioeconomic development in Africa are recommended.

**Originality/value** – There are limited studies that focus on the issue of entrepreneurship and socioeconomic development in Africa. This paper and the special issue in particular have laid down pioneering ground work for research on entrepreneurship and socioeconomic development in Africa.

**Keywords** Africa, Entrepreneurialism, Education, Training, Unemployment

**Paper type** Literature review

### Introduction

Empirical research shows that entrepreneurship has been the driving force behind every nation's economic development (Schumpeter, 1950; Baumol, 1968, 1990; Christensen *et al.*, 2002). In explaining the USA's new economy, Kuttner (2000) refers to America's enterprising spirit and dynamism. It is not just in the USA where entrepreneurship is valued; the newly industrialized countries of Southeast Asia like South Korea, Malaysia and Taiwan have developed because entrepreneurship was given a free hand to flourish. Several scholars have demonstrated that entrepreneurship is not only beneficial but necessary for a healthy economy (Henry *et al.*, 2003; Gorman *et al.*, 1997; Hisrich and Peters, 1995; Jack and Anderson, 1998). Gavron *et al.* (1998) observed that in the USA, periods of economic growth tended to correlate directly with an increase in the number of new business enterprises started. In



the case of Europe, Garavan *et al.* (1997) observed that since the 1970s, small businesses started by entrepreneurs had become a net creator of jobs and wealth creation.

In Africa, several African governments have developed entrepreneurial skills development programs in order to solve youth unemployment problem and ensure economic growth (Nafukho, 1998). In the case of Kenya for instance, the Government has created both a youth entrepreneurship fund and a female entrepreneurship fund with the belief that this will stimulate the creation of new business enterprises by Kenyan entrepreneurs (Nafukho, 2007). Besides financial help, there is the need to invest in entrepreneurship education and training programs. Kirby (1983) suggested that there could be more entrepreneurial opportunities in developing countries than in developed countries which have not been tapped, hence the need for entrepreneurship education and training in many African countries. As correctly noted, "Entrepreneurship is seen to bring benefits at both the macro and the micro levels of economic development" (Henry *et al.*, 2003, p. 4). This point is further reinforced by Gibb and Cotton (1998) who observed that besides the macro and micro benefits of entrepreneurship, there are global, societal, organizational and individual benefits of entrepreneurship.

According to the United Nations' economic report on Africa, the youth population in Sub-Saharan Africa was estimated at 139 million people in 2002-2003, with 28.9 million or 21 per cent of them unemployed (UNECA, 2005). The issue of unemployment among university graduates, tertiary level graduates, school leavers and other vulnerable members of society in Kenya like in many African countries need urgent attention. Kenya's government's efforts to address this issue have included reforms and diversification of the education and training of the school curriculum. In addition, policies designed to increase the number of young people going into vocational and technical training institutions as a preparation for self employment have been started. An intended outcome of the school curriculum reform agenda in Kenya is to create awareness among school and college graduates that there are opportunities for self employment in the informal sector (Republic of Kenya, 1986, 1992). Despite the introduction of vocational and technical subjects in the school curriculum, unemployment persists among school and college graduates (Nafukho, 2007). In the case of Sub-Saharan Africa, youth unemployment is ranked second in the world. As noted, "At 21 per cent, youth unemployment in Africa is much higher than the world average of 14.4 per cent and second only to the Middle East and North Africa's 25.6 percent." (UNECA, 2005, p. 167). Thus, youth unemployment in African countries like in other countries of the world negatively impacts the economy since unproductive labor force leads to lost output in terms of goods and services. In addition, the governments with many unemployed youths have limited income tax base and continuously lose revenue from indirect taxes (Bellemare and Poulin-Simon, 1994). Youth unemployment also has a social cost in terms of indirect health costs, illicit activities which lead to increased insecurity especially in African urban areas. This has led to the introduction of entrepreneurship education and training to develop entrepreneurial skills among graduates from vocational and technical training institutions, and even among university graduates.

This paper examines the development of entrepreneurship education and training in Kenya as a strategic approach to addressing the unemployment problem among the school and university graduates. It is shown in the paper that the development of

entrepreneurial spirit and competencies should be a lifelong process. In addition, the paper argues that addressing Africa's economic and social development in an entrepreneurial way requires learning from lessons initiated by other countries world over. Specific examples of successful use of entrepreneurship education to develop micro, small and medium size enterprises in Africa and other parts of the world especially the United States of America are cited.

### Method

The key research question to be answered in this paper: Is entrepreneurship and socioeconomic development in Africa a reality or myth? To achieve the purpose of the study and to answer the key research question, a critical analysis of relevant literature was conducted. The literature search included the following: a computerized search of accessible and available material on entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial spirit, entrepreneurship education and training programs, history of entrepreneurship, and entrepreneurship models, Africa and entrepreneurship development, and a manual search of existing literature. The computer searches accessed PRO QUEST, EBSCO, WebSPRIS, and INGENTA (UNCOVER) to search ERIC documents. The sections of the paper that follow provide information obtained from the search.

### History of entrepreneurship

In the development of entrepreneurship, Smith (1776) observed that division of labor, though leading to higher productivity, discouraged innovation because of repetition. Langlois (2002), however, argued that division of labor heightened innovation by increasing diversity of ideas in the society. Alfred Marshall (1842-1924) recognized the central role of entrepreneurship in society by identifying entrepreneurship as the fourth factor of production after land, capital, and labor. Most people world over put a premium on hard work and thrift, which is in line with entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship has gained recognition in the modern world as will be seen later in this paper. Thus, to study the entrepreneur is to study the central figure in the economy (Cole, 1954).

The works of Austrian émigré and a former professor at Harvard University Joseph Schumpeter, gave the greatest impetus to the study of the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship education. Not only did Schumpeter give entrepreneurship a modern focus, he also gave it a central place in the study of economic growth. Landreth and Colander (1994) referred to him as "a renaissance man in the twentieth century". Thus, Schumpeter attributed the growth of the industrial world to entrepreneurs, the risk takers who introduce innovative products, services and new technology to the economy. On the central role of entrepreneurs, Landreth and Colander (1994, p.375), noted, "... the real source of economic growth is fostered by the activities of the innovative entrepreneur not in the activities of the followers who are risk averse." Unlike classical economists who saw growth as originating from capital accumulation, Schumpeter saw it as arising from non-economic factors such as culture or institutional set up. He realized the need for a supportive environment, both social and economic, for the entrepreneur to be successful. (Casson, 1990). Nafukho (1998) argued that political environment is equally necessary for the success of an entrepreneur especially in Sub-Saharan Africa where many entrepreneurs operate in countries with fragile political systems.

In Africa, entrepreneurship has existed since time immemorial. Barter trade existed in and along the African coast before the money economy came into existence (Otunga *et al.*, 2001). In Kenya, for instance people engaged in exchange of goods such as beads, pottery, fish, basketry, and grains (Ogutu, 1985). With the coming of the money economy, entrepreneurs emerged among several African communities. To survive in the modern economy and in a globalized world, there is need for every African country to build capacity in the important field of entrepreneurship education and training.

### Who is an entrepreneur?

Having looked at the history of entrepreneurship, a key question to ask is who is an entrepreneur? In this section of the paper, we address this important question. An entrepreneur has been defined as an individual who undertakes new tasks and adds value to a product or service. Such new tasks may involve creating a new business venture or managing an ongoing operation but the tasks must be creative or must respond to change and add value to the product or service being created (Stapleton, 1985). Regarding the meaning of an entrepreneur, Schumpeter (1950) emphasized that an entrepreneur is an individual who is both innovative and creative. While Backman (1983) compared an entrepreneur to a scientist by observing that an entrepreneur should be as skeptical as a scientist.

Kao (1989) observed that an entrepreneur is someone who is committed, goal oriented, achievement oriented, persistent, realistic, humorous, a risk taker and seeker, reliable, has low need for status and power, and has internal locus of control and high integrity. While Kets de Vries (1997) noted that as a result of their backgrounds such as conflict with parental authority, entrepreneurs often feel rejected, do not have a full identity and often feel that their path to upward mobility was blocked. Kets de Vries observed further that some entrepreneurs left big firms to start their own firms after their ideas were rejected. Evans and Leighton (1989) observed that social misfits, people with low pay or who are unemployed are more likely to enter entrepreneurship. Such people often have high locus of control. They also found that contrary to the popular belief, entrepreneurship is not influenced by age. Successful entrepreneurs are risk seekers, like uncertainty and use intuition (DeVol *et al.*, 2002). Kao (1989) pointed out further that successful entrepreneurs were not necessarily successful managers.

In summary, there seem to be no one definition of an entrepreneur. Thus, an entrepreneur has been described in terms of having desire for achievement in any activity that one is engaged in (McClelland, 1961), being proactive instead of reactive (Miller, 1983), having tolerance for ambiguity (Betaman and Crant, 1993; Schere, 1982), being innovative and creative (Drucker, 1985), being able to take risks (Brockhaus, 1980), being an opportunity identifier (Venkataraman, 1997), moderate risk takers (Sexton and Bowman, 1984), and having an internal locus of control (Brockhaus, 1982; Rotter, 1966). The best way to define an entrepreneur is by providing some examples of entrepreneurs.

Examples of good entrepreneurs may include Mohammed Ibrahim who saw an opportunity in Africa of mobile telephones and pioneered the first mobile company in Africa when everyone else in the Western world dismissed the idea that Africans could use cell phones. Isaac Newton the great scientist of our time is another good example of an entrepreneur since he saw the force of gravity in the fall of an apple, not its ripening. Bills Gates of Microsoft Corporation is another excellent example of an entrepreneur

who developed a new product, Windows 1995 as a means to remove the difficulty of recalling commands in MS-DOS. The reader of this paper is challenged to think of entrepreneurial teachers, politicians, preachers, leaders, and parents that they have encountered in their lives.

### **Entrepreneurship education and training and enterprise education**

The meaning of the term entrepreneurship has been summed by Garavan and O'Connell (1994, p. 1) as "Entrepreneurship is in a vogue." The definition of the term entrepreneurship by scholars in this field has remained elusive. Gartner (1989) reviewed several research studies on entrepreneurship and concluded that there was a lack of an agreed definition of entrepreneurship as a discipline of study. While in this paper an attempt has been made to explain who is an entrepreneur, however, Markku (2002) noted that the lack of a basic agreement of who is an entrepreneur makes the work of defining entrepreneurship education almost an impossible task. As Garavan and O'Connell (1994, p. 2), observed "The literature and practice illustrate much confusion between the terms entrepreneurship, enterprise and small business."

A thorough review of literature for this article revealed that there was no one agreed definition of entrepreneurship education. Gibb (1993) and Garavan and O'Connell (1994) observed that the term entrepreneurship was commonly used in Canada and the USA and not Europe. Regarding differences in the uses of the term in Europe, it is noted, "The preferred term in the UK and Irish context is enterprise rather than entrepreneurship education and it is primarily focused on the development of personal attributes." (Garavan and O'Connell, 1994, p. 2). Thus, Garavan and O'Connell observed further that the major objectives of enterprise education are to develop enterprising people and inculcate an attitude of self-reliance using appropriate learning processes. This was differentiated from entrepreneurship education and training programs which aim directly at stimulating entrepreneurship and which may be defined as independent small business ownership or the development of opportunity seeking individuals in organizations and society (Colton, 1990). The definition answers one key question raised by Venkataraman (1997) on why some individuals in society exploit opportunities which exist while others do not exploit the many existing opportunities.

The meaning of the term enterprise education and entrepreneurship education and training also touches on an important issue on whether entrepreneurial education training programs designed and delivered by several African countries can help individuals in these countries to be self-reliant and to be successful in wealth generation or they would equally fail like many other educational reforms which have never been successful in Africa (Nafukho, 1998). The section of the paper that follows seeks to answer the important question – Is the link between entrepreneurship and socioeconomic development in Africa a reality or myth?

### **Development of entrepreneurship education and training in Africa**

In many African countries including Kenya, entrepreneurship has been considered as the panacea to the unemployment problem. In the case of Kenya, the development of entrepreneurship education and training programs can be traced to the Ominde report of 1964, the Ndegwa report of 1971 and the International Labor Organization (1972) report. These three reports emphasized the importance of teaching business education

in schools as a strategy to develop entrepreneurship. The Mackay report of 1981 that led to the introduction of the 8.4.4 (eight years of primary education, four years of secondary education and a minimum of four years of university education) system of education had notable effects on the development of entrepreneurship education and training in the country's educational institutions (see Republic of Kenya, 1964; Republic of Kenya, 1976; Republic of Kenya, 1981; Republic of Kenya, 1988).

The Kamunge report of 1988 recommended for the introduction of entrepreneurship education and training in all levels of training programs to promote self-employment among graduates of these institutions. In response to this recommendation, the then Ministry of Technical Training and Applied Technology aimed at creating awareness and providing entrepreneurial skills necessary to enhance productivity and profitability of the self-employed by introducing entrepreneurship education and training in all vocational and technical training institutions. Regarding the importance of entrepreneurship to Kenya's economy, Mburugu and Thion'go (1991, p. 4) noted "...by teaching technical and entrepreneurial skills that are compatible with market realities, a training system is able to influence youth in the formative years of growth to acquire appropriate business habits and use them later in their lives."

The entrepreneurship education and training program which was initially funded by the United Nations Development program (UNDP) and executed by the International Labor Organization (ILO) was introduced as a compulsory course in all vocational and technical training institutions in 1990. The students enrolled in entrepreneurship courses were required to produce a business proposal outlining the new business ventures to be started on graduation from technical training institutions. The entrepreneurship education and training program was intended to develop positive attitudes among students toward self-employment and self-reliance. The program also aimed at ensuring high success rates among graduates who became self employed in micro and small business enterprises. It had been realized that small business enterprises that had been in existence for some years and had growth potential, required a special focus for management training, business counseling and extension services (Republic of Kenya, 1992). Research on the success of the entrepreneurial training program is urgently needed.

### **Entrepreneurship education in the USA**

In the USA, it has been observed that entrepreneurial capacity and behavior are the prime drivers of economic growth and job creation (DeVol *et al.*, 2002). Thus in the USA, entrepreneurship has been recognized as one of the secrets behind economic growth (Christensen *et al.*, 2002; Kirby, 1983; Schumpeter, 1950). Acs *et al.* (1999) argued correctly that entrepreneurial vitality is one of the factors explaining the superior performance of the US economy in generating innovation and employment.

Vesper (1982) observed that at the end of the 1970s the curricula in the USA universities with one or more courses in entrepreneurship were approximately 130, more than ten times when compared to the 1960s. Vesper and Gartner (1997) observed further that during the 1980s and 1990s curricula entrepreneurial courses rose steadily from 250 in 1985 to 370 in 1992 and to approximately 400 in 1995. In recognition of the importance of entrepreneurship studies, in 1997, there were 160 permanent chairs in the USA in the area of entrepreneurship. Katz (2003) noted that by the late 1990s there was a well established education infrastructure in the USA in the field of

entrepreneurship with more than 300 endowed faculty positions, more than 100 centers of entrepreneurship, more than 40 refereed journal articles and several professional organizations. Thus the field of entrepreneurship education in the USA is well recognized than in any other country of the world. It is a dynamic field that is rapidly growing. In addition, a plethora of research studies in the field of entrepreneurship education exists in the USA. Outside the USA only Canada and the UK have the highest number of courses and programs in the field of entrepreneurship education Vesper (1982).

### **Lifelong learning model of entrepreneurship**

Entrepreneurship education and training is not only a precondition to Kenya's growth and development but the nature in which it is taught and nurtured will determine its significance. Ashmore (1987) came up with a lifelong learning model of entrepreneurship that Kenya borrowed from heavily. The model is based on the premise that skills and attitudes necessary for successful small business developments are not learned at anyone place in time. In fact, the earlier young people begin to learn such skills, the more likely they are able to be successful entrepreneurs. One approach to enhancing entrepreneurial activity and enterprise growth in African countries like Kenya is to encourage the development of an entrepreneurial spirit among the youth of the country (Nafukho, 1998). By focusing on the youth while they are still in school, this approach may provide long-term solution to the problem of job creation and business growth (Nelson and Scott, 1997). The lifelong learning model of entrepreneurship developed by Ashmore (1987) and Ashmore (1990) and applied in Kenya has five stages. The first three stages are school and college based. Stage one starts at a very early age and is offered from primary (elementary) level of education upwards. Stage two is mainly designed to teach an understanding of the management skills in subjects such as business education, commerce and accounting at secondary level of education. Stage three provides a more in depth understanding of the competencies needed for one to become a successful entrepreneur. It is offered by vocational and technical training institutions in Kenya. Students are required to prepare a business plan before graduation. The emphasis here is for one to look for a business opportunity related to ones skills. Owano's (1988) study among self employed youth polytechnic graduates revealed that those in self employment lacked management skills. This led to the introduction of entrepreneurship education by all vocational and technical training institutions. The fourth and fifth stages, entrepreneurship venture development and long-term expansion and redirection respectively address the continuing need for helping entrepreneurs to get a business started and to keep it operating successfully. In stages four and five, non-governmental organizations such as Kenya Management Assistance Program (K-MAP) and Kenya Institute of Management target those individuals already in business and require entrepreneurial skills. This is done through seminars, workshops, focus groups, business counseling and visits to the premises of the entrepreneurs.

### **Government role in promotion of entrepreneurial spirit**

Rao and Wright (1991) and Nafukho (1998) noted that entrepreneurship concerns not only the way individuals operate in the sphere of economic activities but also the way in which the government manages the economy. The government should facilitate and

not stifle entrepreneurial spirit. The existing political establishment in Kenya has a major role in ensuring that entrepreneurial spirit is fostered among graduates of vocational and technical training institutions.

While the government considers the informal sector the major employer of the graduates from vocational and technical training institutions (Republic of Kenya, 1986), there is need for a more conducive business environment. Ikiara (1991) highlights the fact that a conducive business environment is lacking for self-employed entrepreneurs in the informal sector in major urban centers in Kenya. This trend needs to be corrected. "Government policies regarding the small enterprise sector should be reviewed to identify changes which are needed to make the external business environment more conducive for small enterprise development" (Gichira and Nelson, 1997, p. 107).

The government should also ensure that important sectors of the economy such as agricultural and industrial sectors are well managed to support the self employed in the informal sector to promote entrepreneurial spirit.

The increased trend in Kenya of using vocational and technical training institutions for entrepreneurial skills development is due to strong government belief that entrepreneurship can indeed be taught. This calls for a systematic build up of knowledge to make entrepreneurship a rich and valid curriculum. Thus, all efforts of teaching entrepreneurship education to create an enterprise culture should place a high premium on experiential learning (Nafukho, 1998). Also required is research to determine the effects of entrepreneurship training on the management of small businesses enterprises operated by graduates from vocational and technical training institutions. This research should be sector specific and should focus on businesses in a particular sector (Gichira and Nelson, 1997). Besides government role in promoting entrepreneurship, empirical research shows "that in many instances people are indeed born with ambition, motivation, and a willingness to take risks, but encounter barriers that erode this spirit of adventure" (Rabbior, 1990, p. 54), therefore, a well designed entrepreneurship education and training program should aim at removing some of the barriers that have eroded self-confidence and self-esteem among the youths especially in Africa. In addition, entrepreneurial skills development programs in Africa should both aim at developing enterprising behavior, skills and attributes and the promotion of small businesses and entrepreneurship as a socioeconomic development strategy.

### **The M-PESA case study as an opportunity identification success story**

To conclude this article, a case study of how Kenyan entrepreneurs are using information and communication technologies (ICTs) to become entrepreneurial and self reliant is presented. This case study confirms the argument that there are many entrepreneurial opportunities in Africa waiting to be exploited by entrepreneurs especially in this era of increased use of information and communication technologies. Thus, entrepreneurial skills development programs should be encouraged and nurtured as a strategy to promote socioeconomic development in Africa.

According to Hughes and Lonie (2007), in March 2007, Kenya's largest mobile company Safaricom launched M-PESA, an innovative money transfer service for the people with no bank accounts. "Pesa" is a Swahili word for money while "M" stands for mobile, hence the term M-PESA. An entrepreneurial individual in the mobile company saw an opportunity with the use of mobile phones and launched a service where



Kenyans can now use mobile phones to conduct business and to send money. The initial methods of using the post office to send money especially from urban to rural areas were very slow and unreliable. The commercial banks had become very selective in admitting customers and they also charged a very high fee to their customers. Hughes and Lonie (2007) observed further that within the first month, over 20,000 customers were using the service, a number well ahead of targeted business plan. Regarding the product or service offered, it is noted, "The product concept is very simple: an M-PESA customer can use his or her mobile phone to move money quickly, securely, and across great distances, directly to another mobile phone user. The customer does not need to have a bank account, but registers with Safaricom for an M-PESA account." (Hughes and Lonie, 2007, p. 1). The case study below illustrates how entrepreneurship using e-money added value to money transfer service using the mobile phones.

Olga Morawcznski, a doctoral candidate at the University of Edinburgh is currently in Kenya studying customer adoption and usage of M-PESA services in both urban and rural Kenya. The information provided in this case study is based on her preliminary findings.

It is early morning in Bukura, a small village in Western Kenya, where the authors of this article happen to come from. The shop-keeper and his wife are preparing to open their small store, which sells household commodities such as flour and cooking oil. They also offer M-PESA services. There is already a queue outside. A group of about twenty villagers are crowding the entrance. "It is always like this," the shop-keeper complains while pointing to the crowd. "Since we have become M-PESA agents we have no time to rest. This thing has even over-run our other business". He then holds up a packet of sugar. "We have not sold any sugar in months. They only want M-PESA". Not just the Bukura agent has seen a great demand for M-PESA services. Since its introduction in March of 2007, by 2008, the M-PESA application had great success all over Kenya. There are currently over 2.3 million registered users. Over 18 billion Ksh. (\$240,000,000) had been moved through the system, via person-to-person transfers.

Olga observed that some of the work that she had been doing made several arguments as to why M-PESA has become so successful and popular. First, it is the young, male, urban migrants who are driving the uptake of services – customer adoption. These migrants are what innovation researchers call "early adopters" of a technology. They are better educated and earn higher incomes than those in the village. Because these migrants are the senders, they can choose the channel for money transfer. They then influence recipients in the rural area – who are usually female, less educated and poorer to also use M-PESA. This segment is referred to as the "technology laggards". They are usually the last, and often the least likely, to adopt an innovation.

Because the majority of transactions in the village are withdrawals, agents must maintain their cash float. They do this by making frequent trips to the bank. This can be problematic if the agent is not close to an urban centre, where most banks in Kenya are located. An agent in Malaha, a small village in Western Kenya, commented, "almost every day I ride my bicycle to Kakamega to top-up my float. This takes me almost three hours. I have to leave at 6 a.m. because I want to be there when the bank opens. I must then come back again and serve my customers". When asked if there was

any other means of transport to Kakamega, the agent shook his head. He said that he was several kilometres away from the main road. He also said that he could not afford to pay the 200 ksh (\$3) fee for the matatu (shared taxi).

Despite these cash float problems, the majority of customers in both the urban and rural areas assert that they prefer M-PESA over other money transfer services offered by banks. This means that M-PESA must be offering them some kind of substantial benefit. In Bukura, this benefit comes in the form of savings on transport. Customers do not need to travel to Kakamega, the nearest town, to access the service. One elderly farmer commented that "I can just walk from my shamba (farm) and get money. I don't have to spend and go into town. If the agent does not have cash today, then I will come back tomorrow. It is cheaper to wait". (see Rosenberg, 2008).

The success of M-PESA as an entrepreneurial venture involved with money transfer services can be explained by the fact that by January 2009, it had 5 million registered clients in Kenya, a number that the existing 48 commercial banks have never been able to achieve (Pickens, 2009). In conclusion, it is important to point out that investing in entrepreneurship education and training is one of the strategies that the Kenyan government and other African countries can initiate to build capacity and develop human resources needed to promote socioeconomic development. Human resource development professionals need to rely on organizational development, training and development and career development expertise to design and deliver efficient and effective interventions aimed at addressing the youth unemployment problem in Africa. Thus, youth unemployment problem is an individual, organizational, community and societal issue which should be of great interest to human resource development scholars and practitioners with national and regional human resource development focus.

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