

**DISCOURSES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN CONTEMPORARY
COMMERCE TEXTBOOKS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN SELECTED
SOUTHERN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY (SADC)
COUNTRIES**

BY

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DECLARATION

I, **Maud Victoria Hutchinson**, hereby declare that the work reported in this thesis is my original work. To the best of my knowledge, all the information and visuals included in the thesis have been clearly referenced in the text of the thesis. This thesis has not been submitted for the award of any other degree or qualification at any University.

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ABSTRACT

Strong emphasis has been placed on entrepreneurship in recent times as scholars and policy makers, including those in the field of education, regard it as a remedy for the social and economic challenges facing societies. Various programmes and courses promoting entrepreneurship can thus be found in the official school curriculum in many countries and numerous textbooks, specifically commerce textbooks are dedicated to the study of this phenomenon.

In many classrooms, textbooks are a popular resource for the dissemination of ‘factual’ knowledge, such as entrepreneurship education to students. However, a number of studies have reported that the seemingly objective knowledge in textbooks that has been thoroughly screened by educational officials and approved for classroom use is not neutral but loaded with various ideologies and other one-sided incomplete knowledge.

Against this background, this study adopted a qualitative critical research approach and applied the tenets of Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) to critically analyse entrepreneurship discourses in contemporary commerce textbooks in selected Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries. MDA encompasses Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and Visual Semiotics Analysis (VSA). The CDA and VSA methods drew on the frameworks of Fairclough (1989; 2001), Huckin (1997), Machin and Mayr (2012) and Nene (2014) to uncover the construction of entrepreneurship in the selected commerce textbooks.

The findings of the study indicate that, despite regular revision, the analysed textbooks present an ideological rather than a factual perspective of entrepreneurship. The main ideological formations identified were the ease of business formation; personal enrichment; foregrounding of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers; stereotyping of gender roles; women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy; economic growth; job creation; solution to poverty; improved standard of living and effortless globalisation. This resulted in selective entrepreneurship knowledge being presented to students in textbooks, with little attention paid to the realities of this phenomenon. Moreover, the ideologies that emerged promoted neoliberal and capitalistic values and were gender biased and

gender insensitive. Students are thus presented with a one-sided version of entrepreneurship. This can be attributed to the assumptions in entrepreneurship scholarship and the neoliberal capitalistic ideology that is entrenched in societies and educational institutions around the globe, as well as the fact that entrepreneurship is not gender neutral. Finally, textbooks are biased political and ideological tools.

The implications of these findings are that the different stakeholders involved in the production of textbooks should scrutinise them on a regular basis and improve them by including the reality of entrepreneurship, such as business failure, hardship and the many taken-for-granted assumptions and ideologies underlying entrepreneurship scholarship. The quality of textbooks and whether they are suitable resources to impart entrepreneurship knowledge should also be taken into consideration. This would help to enhance learning and also convey only factual and up-to-date knowledge to students in classrooms.

Keywords: Discourses, Entrepreneurship, Textbooks, Curriculum, Critical Discourse Analysis, Visual Semiotics Analysis, Education.

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DEDICATION

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa
CBI	The Confederation of British Industry
CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
D&B	Dun and Bradstreet
EMS	Economic and Management Sciences
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
HGFs	High Growth Firms
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ILOs	International Labour Organisations
MDA	Multimodal Discourse Analysis
MSMEs	Micro, medium and small-size businesses
NDP	National Development Plan
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SEDA	Small Enterprise Development Agency
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
SMEs	Small and medium enterprises
TEA	Total Entrepreneurial Activity
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
VSA	Visual Semiotics Analysis

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This study examines the discourses of entrepreneurship in contemporary commerce textbooks used in secondary schools in selected Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries. Chapter One provides background information, which is critical to placing the problem into context, presents the rationale for the study, a historical overview of the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship, a discussion on entrepreneurship in institutions of learning, and an analysis of school textbooks. The research objectives and questions underpinning the study are presented in this chapter. Further, the research methodology and the relevant literature are briefly discussed. The chapter concludes with an outline of the structure of the thesis.

1.2 Background to the problem

Textbooks have long been recognised as fundamental resources that impart knowledge to students in many classrooms across the globe. Even in the modern classroom, they still serve as important tools. Heyneman (2006) notes that:

“Textbooks ... will remain an instrument of extraordinary power. They may, in fact, be the most effective of educational technologies yet invented and there is no reason to imagine a modern educational system where textbooks do not play a central role ...” (p. 36).

At all educational levels, textbooks are of paramount importance as they are the primary carriers of knowledge. Without them, the intended curriculum cannot be taught, especially if some teachers may not have received rigorous training (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowdenm 2007). After all, not all teachers arrive in the classroom via the traditional route, having obtained extensive training in an undergraduate or graduate teaching education programme. Some are hired because of emergency permits or waivers and have no thorough formal training or preparation (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowdenm 2007). While some of these non-traditional teachers may have knowledge of child development, they could be ill-informed about

particular areas of content and therefore may not be able to teach students without any aids. Hubisz (no date) also observed that many teachers have not undergone appropriate academic training for the courses they teach. In many instances, **the textbook** is the only support in teaching the subject (emphasis added).

Due to their significant role in many classrooms, nations have paid considerable attention to textbooks' content. After the First World War, The League of Nations, the predecessor of the United Nations, criticised the textbooks used by former opponents. It was lamented that they promoted misleading stereotypes as opposed to combating national prejudices. Many nations, politicians, international and local organisations, researchers and educators followed suit and began to screen textbooks and remove biased presentations of neighbouring countries and other flawed and ideological information. Progress was also made at the international level, with resolutions adopted as early as 1932 for the development of a model for global dialogue on textbooks (Pingel, 2010; Foster, 2011; Fuchs & Sammler, 2016). Across the world, long-established democracies, as well as countries transitioning to democracy and post democracy, reviewed their textbooks and curricula in line with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) "*Declaration and Integrated Framework of Action on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy*". It was emphasised that textbooks should be designed with due consideration of the current situation in a country, and that they should offer different perspectives on a given subject. Furthermore, the content should be based on scientific findings (Pingel, 2010).

These efforts notwithstanding, textbooks in many countries face severe criticism. A number of scholars have argued that textbooks in different fields of study carry hidden ideologies. They are also loaded with errors and other misinformation despite the 'rewriting' of many textbooks. It would seem that ministries select authors to write textbooks without screening them for quality and whether they are fit for classroom use (Malhi, 1999, p. 23, cited in Crawford, 2000). Pingel (2010) notes that, in addition to conveying knowledge, textbooks are used to disseminate a society's political and social norms. They thus not only convey facts, but also transmit political ideologies and propaganda (Pingel, 2010). This robs students of knowledge and hinders their learning.

Entrepreneurship textbooks have not escaped criticism. Entrepreneurship research is criticised for presenting only half the truth regarding the phenomenon, in that it focuses on the ‘good’ and underplays the reality. Jones and Murtola (2012) describe this as a naïve approach that presents a one-sided view of entrepreneurship.

Different scholars’ critiques of entrepreneurship textbooks are discussed in detail in the literature review. Overall, such critiques conclude that entrepreneurship education and related literature is biased as it presents distorted and taken for granted assumptions. Given that entrepreneurship is regarded as the solution to youth unemployment and as a driver of economic growth in many economies around the globe, it has become part of the curriculum at all educational levels. However, the partial knowledge presented in textbooks imposes limitations on students.

It is against this background that this study examined discourses of entrepreneurship in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in selected SADC countries. Fairclough (1992a) notes that there are several definitions of discourse and that these arise from a variety of theoretical and disciplinary standpoints. This study adopts the definition proposed by Fairclough (1992b), who notes that discourses are not limited to language, but encompass ideology and power relations that often promote specific hegemonies.

1.3 Rationale for the study

In recent times, governments and educational policy makers across the world have adopted policies to promote entrepreneurship education programmes and courses at all levels of education, from primary, to secondary and tertiary educational institutions. Textbooks serve as an important teaching resource and are an omnipresent feature in many world classrooms, thus determining what knowledge is taught in the classroom (Ministry of Basic Education South Africa, no date; Kuratko, 2005; Foster, 2011; European Commission, 2016; Ramaphosa, 2017; Fayolle, 2018).

Given that entrepreneurship education is widely encouraged and that textbooks are one of the chief ways to convey knowledge, especially in SADC countries, close scrutiny of the discourses of entrepreneurship in contemporary commerce textbooks is warranted. In South Africa and other African countries entrepreneurship gained

momentum and was promoted to even young children only in the 1990s. However, courses relating to entrepreneurship were not offered in every level at schools. Furthermore, the role of entrepreneurship in economic development is not straightforward. In many countries, including China and the widely cited East Asian Tigers this relationship is still surrounded by controversy (Naudé, 2013) as poverty and other developmental problems persist.

1.4 The entrepreneur and entrepreneurship in their historical context

The term ‘entrepreneur’ is an ancient word of French origin, ‘entreprendre’ that can be traced back to the 14th century. During the 16th and 17th centuries the word was used in a vague manner and suggested an adventurer or government worker, usually in military fortifications or public works (Hérbet & Link, 2006). The “man in charge of the great architectural works: castles and fortifications, public buildings, abbeys and cathedrals” was also described as an entrepreneur (ibid, p. 273). When feudalism was replaced by capitalism, a distinction was drawn between entrepreneurs who fulfilled artistic functions and those that undertook commercial tasks. It is believed that Richard Cantillon was the first person to link the term with economic activities. His *Essai sur la nature du commerce en general* was published in 1755 after it had been shared among a small group of French economists who benefitted from Cantillon’s work (ibid). Cantillon was a successful Irish banker and financier who was also regarded as entrepreneurial and was believed to have accumulated substantial wealth as a result of John Law’s inflationary scheme, commonly referred to as the “Mississippi Bubble”.

In his *Essai sur la nature du commerce en general* he described an entrepreneur as someone who becomes involved in entrepreneurship in exchange for profit. He also identified an entrepreneur as a risk taker, as he buys at a certain price in the present but sells at an uncertain price in the future, reaping a profit or a loss (ibid).

Cantillon did not pay much attention to risk as, to him it was characteristic of the market place. Other economists such as Knight built on Cantillon’s risk theory (which he asserted was ambiguous) and provided a clear distinction between risk and uncertainty (ibid). Those such as Joseph Schumpeter, Nicholas Baudeau, Jean-Baptise Say and Alfred Marshall further developed his notion of an entrepreneur. Although

Cantillon introduced the concept of entrepreneurship to economic theory and his formulation of the entrepreneur was important in understanding this phenomenon, his definition was regarded as incomplete (ibid). Other scholars went on to refine entrepreneurship and proposed many new definitions.

Entrepreneurship continues to be studied, researched and taught by many prominent scholars, economists and policy makers (Timmons & Spinelli, 2009; Carlsson, Braunerhjelm, McKelvey, Olofsson, Persson & Ylinenpää, 2013). There are even a number of academic journals dedicated to this subject. The phenomenon has also evolved rapidly. However, the following questions remain pertinent: Who is the agenda of entrepreneurship for? Is entrepreneurship inherently a good thing? (Blackburn & Kovalainen, 2009, p. 133) and will relentless promotion of entrepreneurship education benefit everyone studying entrepreneurship, or will only certain people be winners?

1.5 Locating entrepreneurship in institutions of learning

Entrepreneurship education¹ as a field of study began in the 1940s. By the 1970s, it was a powerful force in business schools. By 1980, more than 300 universities were offering courses in entrepreneurship and small business (Ronstadt, 1990; Kuratko, 2005). By the 1990s, it had extended to all levels of education and different disciplines, such as Science and Engineering rather than only business schools or Commerce related fields such as Entrepreneurship Studies, Business Studies, Business and Enterprise Education, Commerce Education, Economic and Management Sciences (EMS) and Professional Studies (Lundström & Stevenson, 2006; (Mafela, 2009; Ministry of Basic Education South Africa, 2011a and b). Kingma (2011, p. 3) asserts that, “Effective education in entrepreneurship cannot be limited to a set of courses or a major in a school of business, but must reach students across campus regardless of their major”.

¹ Entrepreneurship education is defined as imparting entrepreneurship knowledge to students in order to enable them start and operate an enterprise. It is the development of an entrepreneurial mindset (Dal, Elo, Leffler, Svedberg & Westerberg, 2016).

Studies have found that as early as kindergarten, children are taught entrepreneurship principles. Half an hour a day is dedicated to such education and the children role play running a business (Beder, 2006). It is believed that this will make them more self-reliant and equip them with life skills (Dal, et al., 2016). It is also held that children are not too young to be taught free market economics (Beder, 2006).

A report published by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in 1989: Towards an ‘Enterprising’ Culture: A Challenge for Education and Training (Dal, et al., 2016) called for urgent attention to be dedicated to the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship in the schooling system. It was followed by other reports, laws, strategies and politicians’ speeches promoting entrepreneurship in education.

For example, in his opening address to the Global Entrepreneurship Congress, the President of South Africa, Mr Cyril Ramaphosa (2017) declared:

*“Entrepreneurship **must** be part of the school curriculum ... So that young people **must from an early age** be encouraged to be problem solvers”* (emphasis added).

The fostering of entrepreneurship continues to date. An enterprising attitude is part of specific or broader strategies in Africa and many other parts of the world and is regarded as critical for economies and nations by educational institutions as well as governments. Entrepreneurship forms part of most curricula and educational reforms in different countries and learning institutions make it a point to include it in new curricula. It is held that entrepreneurship education promotes economic growth and social cohesion (Dal et al., 2016). However, just as there is no universal definition of the phenomenon of entrepreneurship, so there is no universal pedagogical approach that educators should adopt to teach entrepreneurship. Policy and other documents are vague. Moreover, entrepreneurship education differs across countries and even across grades (Hoppe, 2016). In lower grades in some countries it is linked to problem solving and independence, while in secondary schools it is connected with business creation (Hoppe, 2016).

As nations battle to find solutions to the socio-economic problems confronting them

and to grow the number of entrepreneurs, entrepreneurship education appears to offer the answer and large amounts of funds, amounting to millions in different currencies from different sources such as national budgets and private funding have been earmarked for various entrepreneurship education projects at school level across the globe (European Commission, 2016). It is held that young people should benefit from at least one practical entrepreneurial experience before they leave formal education (European Commission). For example, in the Netherlands, the government approved a subsidy scheme amounting to EUR 5 million for the years 2000-2002, to support pilot projects in education institutions, i.e., training of teachers and seminars as well as the development of learning instruments for entrepreneurship education. Additional funds followed and the budget has increased to EUR 30 million (OECD, 2015).

In the Atlantic region of Canada, more than \$43 million has been provided by the Atlantic Canada Opportunities agency, provincial governments and other partners for the development and promotion of entrepreneurship education at all levels of education (Fredrico, Kantis, Bianchi & Parrilli, 2005). South Africa allocated R17.9 million to the Entrepreneurship Development in Higher Education programme for the period 2017/18-2019/20 (Education Training and Development Practices Sector Education and Training Authority, 2018). In 2003, the Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation awarded \$25 million to eight American institutions of higher learning. In late 2006, \$23 million in Kauffman grants was awarded to 11 more schools for entrepreneurship programmes. This was commonly known as Kauffman Campuses II (Kauffman Panel on Entrepreneurship Curriculum in Higher Education, no date). The Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation has played an important role in expanding and institutionalising entrepreneurship education across the United States (US) academic landscape (Mars, Slaughter & Rhoades, 2008). These are but a few examples of the funds injected into schools and institutions of higher learning.

Countries are increasingly investing in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education at school and university level.

Schools in many countries have also received textbooks and other education materials promoting entrepreneurship that were developed by the central authorities and private large corporations (European Commission, 2016). During the 20th century, businesses

collaborated to launch mass campaigns in an effort to promote the free market ideology that originated in 18th century Europe (Beder, 2006). However, some educators were critical of this education during the Great Depression.

Countries differ with regard to the promotion of entrepreneurship education at school level as well as the types of funding. Some have been involved in entrepreneurship education for more than a decade, while others have recently included it in curricula. In some countries and cities, it is compulsory and at times it is an elective or a cross-curricular approach is applied, encompassing active learning, project based learning and practical entrepreneurial experiences. Some funds are dispersed at school level for the teaching of entrepreneurship, while others are for the establishment and further funding of youth-owned business (Mahadea, Ramroop & Zewotir, 2011; Ahaibwe & Kasirye, 2015; European Commission, 2016).

Entrepreneurship education is well-established in the schooling system as it is believed that such education has many benefits and is vital for economic growth as well as individual development. According to McLartey, Highley and Alderson (2010), these claims are generally based on anecdotal evidence or rest on experience as opposed to robust data. They are also patchy as few scientifically grounded studies have been conducted on the impact of such education on students. McCafferty (2010) adds that broader ideological goals are being served. What may seem as “innocent” and “valuable” enterprise education has a direct influence on students as the enterprise values taught to them not only teach the principles of entrepreneurship but also serve another purpose (McCafferty (2010), that of embedding and reinforcing neoliberal principles. Komulainen, Korhonen and Rätty (2013) note that such education poses challenges in the Finnish education system, which is based on the Nordic model of education that focuses on values and goals such as equality of opportunity, cooperation, democratic participation and welfare. In contrast, entrepreneurship education encourages competitiveness and risk taking which in turn reinforce individualism and inequalities among pupils. Such education can be seen as jeopardising the aims and values of pedagogy and education such as equality and solidarity. It is also argued that in entrepreneurial learning, young children learn less about the world and its complexities. The emphasis is on “extracting something from it’ (Pantea, 2014, p. 37) and complex social problems are avoided.

1.6 Entrepreneurship education in the SADC region

Significant economic and social progress has been made by countries in the SADC region since these countries achieved independence. However, the region is often referred to as one in “deep crisis” (Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa, no date) as it confronts numerous socio-economic problems and challenges, including:

- High levels of unemployment in all member states, with 40% of the labour force in the region without work (Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa, no date). Net employment has remained stagnant for some time (Altman, 2003). Available data for South Africa indicates that only two out of five (41%) people of working age are employed. This is in sharp contrast to the country’s Brazil, Russia, India and China (BRICS) partners. The employment rate in Brazil stands at 65%, with China at 71% and India recording 55% (Budget Review, 2011);
- An increase in poverty levels. Poverty has increased in urban areas and the high growth rates achieved by many countries in the region have not resulted in a decline in poverty. Agricultural and resource rich countries such as Malawi, Namibia, South Africa and Angola have been unsuccessful in addressing this issue. The proportion of South Africans living in extreme poverty increased from 21.4% in 2011 to 25.2% in 2015 (Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa, no date; Statistics South Africa, 2017, p. 27; SADC, 2012);
- More than 60% of the population in the region do not have access to an adequate supply of safe water (Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa, no date);
- High and rising food insecurity;
- High inflation rates in all the member states;
- The Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome remains a major scourge in the region (SADC, 2012);
- Persistent high levels of inequality. For example, South Africa is deemed one of the world’s most unequal societies. The country’s Gini coefficient is the highest in the world (World Bank, 2018);
- Poor service delivery, weak governance and corruption; and
- Poor living conditions in general.

These problems require immediate and urgent intervention. Policy makers in the region have turned to entrepreneurship as an effective strategy to resolve them (Boly,

Diallo & Takei, 2018). It is believed that entrepreneurship education fosters an entrepreneurial culture among students.

Despite this and years of researching and promoting the phenomenon, policy makers and academics have continued to search for the source of entrepreneurial activity in the wrong places and have persisted in regarding it as “a condition necessary for economic growth instead of being the result of such conditions” (Bridge, 2017, p. 211). Few studies have investigated whether the perceived benefits of entrepreneurship education have been realised, especially in Africa (Chinguta, Schnurr, James-Wilson & Torres, 2005). Morris, Kuratko and Cornwall (2013) also raise concerns about the development of courses with no agreed common curriculum. Heriot and Campbell (2005) add that due to a lack of consensus on the nature of this phenomenon, it is difficult to develop a curriculum or academic programmes for the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship. Educational policy makers and other stakeholders should thus, be cautious in assuming that such education has the power to address the social and economic problems confronting SADC members. Even if entrepreneurship education courses yield positive results, other binding constraints obstruct the youth from using the skills acquired to start businesses. In a 2016 survey of students who participated in the International Labour Organizations (ILO’s) global know about business curriculum in South Africa, 78% reported that a lack of financial support was the main reason for not starting their own business ventures (Ripley, 2017).

1.7 Previous² studies: an analysis of school textbooks

Textbooks play a central role in schooling. However, many studies have acknowledged that the content presented in a wide variety of textbooks is not neutral. As such, textbooks generally reflect particular constructions of reality and transmit the organised knowledge system of a society (Apple & Christian-Smith, 1991).

Textbooks are not simply instructional tools, operating as a “delivery system of facts” (Apple & Christian-Smith, 1991, p. 1); they reflect the political, cultural, economic

² Prior analysis of textbooks, albeit relating to other topics, is useful and necessary in this study.

knowledge and undermine others (Apple, 1990; Crawford, 2003).

In reality, content in textbooks that is presented as truthful is political and reflects different ideologies (Romanowski, 1996). This is evident in many textbooks and subjects around the world. For example, Rodden (2009a) revealed that simple arithmetic exercises in Math textbooks for first graders were turned into ideological lessons in East Germany. This continued in the upper grades that contained more ideological content (Rodden, 2009a). Children were also told who to admire or dislike and what to think about other leaders and countries. In short, textbooks help to shape students' views about major events and world history (Rodden, 2009a). They are not neutral tools. Apart from Germany, many other countries and even some provinces in some cases openly and unashamedly promote specific ideologies, resulting in knowledge that receives a privileged and authoritative status. In the province of Ontario, Pinto (2007) found that textbooks reflected the dominant ideologies and potentially superficial content. Highlighting some aspects of the past at the expense of others inevitably produces conflict as history is remade as different groups seek a dominant voice in constructing what counts as legitimate knowledge (Foster & Crawford, 2006).

This process is ongoing. Cajani (2007) found that History textbooks published in Italy in the past decade have not shown much improvement. Gaps and discontinuity persist as well as a lack of details regarding certain events. Instead of ideological content decreasing in newer textbooks, it becomes stronger. While 21st century textbooks have undergone many revisions, they continue to present students with ideological information. They lie, misinform, manipulate and ignore the past in pursuit of certain goals. The result is that knowledge that appears in textbooks and is taught to children is watered-down, distorted, biased and even fictional. Some also point to the fact that knowledge in textbooks appears to be of poor quality and is worse than that produced by previous regimes. Despite efforts to produce high quality books, the content of textbooks for Curriculum 2005 in South Africa appeared unchanged. Content from old textbooks was recycled using the veneer of the new curriculum's vocabulary (Johannesson, 2002).

A review of extant literature demonstrated that both political ideologies and recycled

content are prevalent in textbooks. Furthermore, gendered ideologies also claim a fair share in contemporary literature. Maistry and Pillay (2014) examined gender representation in contemporary Grade 10 Business Studies textbooks in South Africa. Earlier Essen (2007) had analysed new textbooks prepared under the curriculum reform in Turkey, while Barton and Sakwa's (2012) study focused on an English language textbook commonly used in Uganda. They found that, the role played by men in the economy was prioritised and foregrounded. Men were also depicted in powerful positions while women are usually shown in stereotypical feminine roles. Gender bias remains pervasive in many countries, including Georgia, Islamic Republic of Iran, Nigeria, Pakistan and Australia (Education for All, Global Monitoring Report, 2015). There is no equal representation of women and men in the curriculum. Such content reinforces gender stereotypes and undermines governments' efforts and commitments to gender equality (Barton & Sakwa, 2012). Schools should ideally be places which facilitate inclusion as opposed to bias and marginalisation of learners. The textbooks used fail to reflect social reality (McKinney, 2005).

In summary, many textbooks bear ideological traces (Rodden, 2009a). "[W]hat purports to be '[neutral] education' veils propaganda" - and how school curricula promote ideology. Of course, it is no secret that education transmits culture or that so-called culture wars have long been waged in schools (Rodden, 2009a). Thus, while it is claimed that the knowledge offered in textbooks is true, this is not the case (Foster & Crawford, 2006). Students do not gain holistic knowledge of a particular field and do not have the opportunity to engage with multiple perspectives. Dissemination of misleading information results in subliminal indoctrination and miseducation. The effects of such indoctrination persist long after leaving school (Rodden, 2009a) as the ideological information remains imprinted in students' minds. Textbooks, that are primary tools in many global classrooms, continue to encode powerful assumptions (Husbands, 2007). It is therefore naive to think of school knowledge as neutral (Apple and Christain-Smith, 1991). What is included and viewed as legitimate knowledge in textbooks is a result of complex power relations and struggles (Apple & Christain-Smith, 1991).

1.8 Research objectives and questions

Given the importance attached to entrepreneurship education that was noted in

Section 1.5, and the issues surrounding contemporary textbooks discussed in Sections 1.2 and 1.7, this study sought to add to the body of knowledge by undertaking a critical empirical enquiry into the discourses of entrepreneurship in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in selected SADC countries. The main objective was to gain an understanding of how entrepreneurship is constructed in such textbooks.

The main objective was guided by the following underlying objectives:

- to examine how the discourses of entrepreneurship are constructed in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries;
- to determine why the discourses of entrepreneurship occur the way they do in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries; and
- to explore the consequences of the entrepreneurship discourses embedded in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries.

The following critical questions were formulated to achieve these objectives:

- How are the discourses of entrepreneurship constructed in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries?
- Why do the discourses of entrepreneurship occur the way they do in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries?
- What are the consequences of the entrepreneurship discourses entrenched in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries?

1.9 Overview of the methodology

This study is rooted in the critical paradigm and a qualitative research approach was adopted. The principles of Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) were employed to address the objectives and the critical questions. MDA incorporates critical discourse analysis (CDA) and visual semiotic analysis (VSA). Fairclough's (1989; 2001) three dimensional framework was used for the CDA. It is made up of three components,

namely, *description*, *interpretation* and *explanation* of the text. In addition, the toolkit for undertaking CDA outlined by Huckin (1997) and Machin and Mayr (2012) directed the first stage of the analysis, the description stage of Fairclough. The VSA drew on the approach for analysing visuals suggested by Nene (2014).

The CDA and VSA methods were ideal tools in the analysis of the entrepreneurship discourses because they enabled the researcher to lay bare the ideologies and assumptions that are entrenched in commerce textbooks.

The textbooks chosen for analysis follow the writing guidelines issued by the Ministries of Education in the selected SADC countries. Six textbooks were purposively selected and in order to successfully analyse them, only selected modules, chapters, themes and topics that related to entrepreneurship were analysed.

The textbooks selected for analysis are from three Anglophone SADC countries, namely, South Africa, Namibia and Zimbabwe. All are easily accessible and permission is not required to use them. Nonetheless, they were assigned pseudonyms to prevent any ethical problems (David, 2012). Chapter four discusses the methodology employed in greater detail.

1.10 Brief literature review

Numerous studies have noted that textbooks are not neutral conveyors of knowledge. Shane (2008, p. 4) argues that the portrayal of entrepreneurship in most texts, policy documents and other sources is *erroneous* and *superficial* and that, entrepreneurship education is thus *not impartial* or *value free*. Certain texts are included, while others are marginalised, especially in school textbooks.

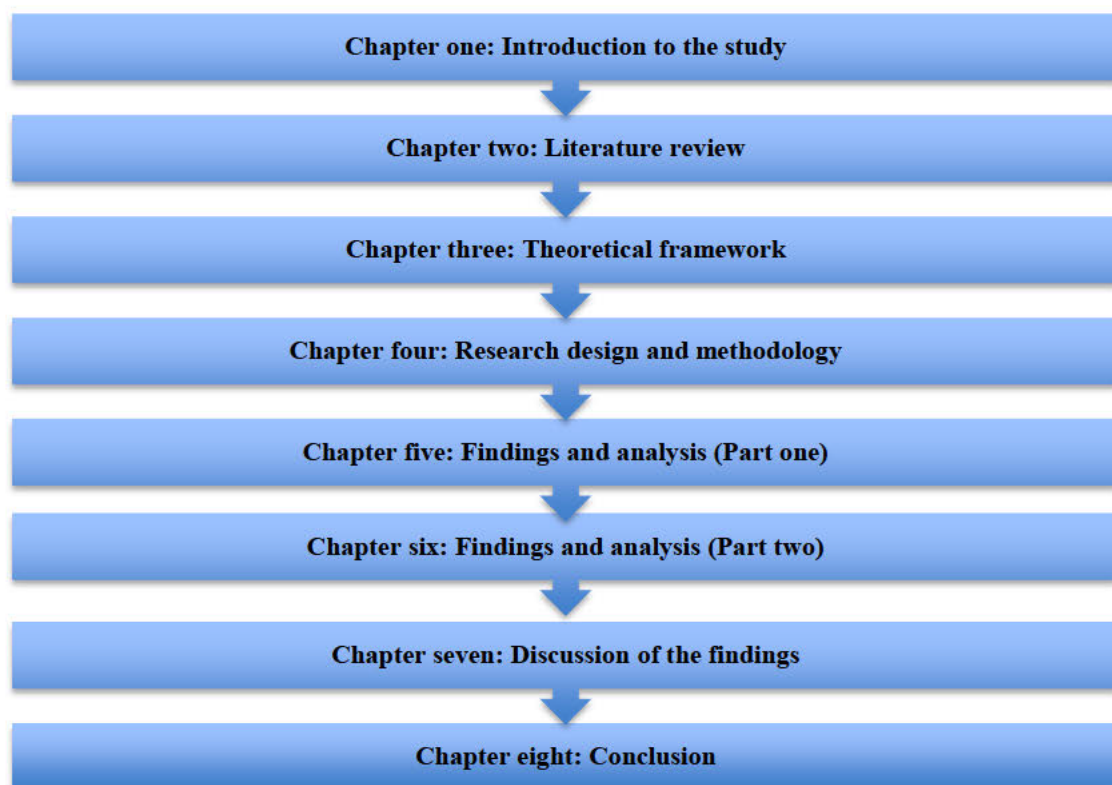
Empirical studies in different settings have concluded that textbooks on entrepreneurship present highly specious and selective content. Furthermore, they promote capitalism and neoliberalism. Many textbooks exclude and devalue women in entrepreneurship and promote taken-for-granted assumptions such as entrepreneurship acting as a driver of wealth creation, economic growth, and job creation, and as a cure for economic downturns and poverty. These issues are discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

Despite calls by many scholars to address these issues (Ogbor, 2000; Ahl, 2004; Petterson, 2004; Jones & Spicer, 2009; da Costa & Saraiva, 2012; David, 2012; Jones & Murtola, 2012; Spicer, 2012; Pillay, 2013, 2017; Tedmanson, Verduyn, Essers & Gartner, 2012), few changes have been made to entrepreneurship textbooks, depriving students of proper education in this field. Given that political considerations drive the overall curriculum and selection of textbooks, authors are wary of including controversial information that might cause their textbooks to be rejected (Fetsko, 1989; Fleming, 1989). Many textbooks are thus deeply flawed and superficial. They are “seen as a form of social control, or, perhaps, as the embodiment of cultural dangers, institutions whose curricula and teaching practices threaten the moral universe of the students who attend them” (Apple, 2014, p. 46). Students thus lack knowledge of the essential skills and concepts of entrepreneurship.

1.11 Outline of the thesis

The outline of the thesis is presented in Figure 1.1 below.

Figure 1.1: Outline of the thesis



Source: Researcher's compilation

This thesis consists of eight chapters. In the first chapter, the study is introduced and the background to the problem is presented. Further, the context of the study is described. In Chapter Two, a review of relevant literature on entrepreneurship and textbooks is presented. Chapter Three comprises the theoretical framework employed for this study, while the methodology is described in Chapter Four. Chapters Five and Six present the research findings on both the textual and visual analysis of the six contemporary commerce textbooks from South Africa, Namibia and Zimbabwe. Chapter Seven is the discussion of the findings. These findings are compared with those of previous studies on entrepreneurship in both textbooks and theory. Finally, the summary of findings is presented in Chapter Eight. In this chapter, a review of the methodology employed in this study, a review of the overall study, and the study's implications and recommendations for future research are presented. The study's significance and contribution to knowledge and the limitations encountered are also included in this chapter.

1.12 Summary of Chapter One

In this chapter, the study is introduced. Both the background to the research problem and the rationale for the study are presented in this chapter, including a brief historical background on the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship. This was followed by a description of entrepreneurship education, with a focus on SADC countries, and an analysis of school textbooks. The research objectives and questions were presented as well as a brief overview of the methodology employed, and the review of relevant literature. The chapter concluded with an outline of the structure of the thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature on entrepreneurship.

The field of entrepreneurship has grown significantly in the past 30 years. There has been a sharp rise in the volume of research on entrepreneurship in SADC and across the globe, with researchers, scholars, policymakers, teachers and other stakeholders conducting many studies on this phenomenon. This is evident in the number of courses, conferences, journal articles and other publications. Such interest is triggered by the alarming rates of unemployment and other socio-economic issues facing the SADC region and other parts of the world. The ‘entrepreneurship syndrome’ remains longstanding and is a major field of intellectual endeavour (Blackburn & Kovalainen, 2009; Landström, Parhankangas, Fayolle & Riot, 2016).

Notwithstanding significant conceptual and theoretical advances in the field of entrepreneurship, problems have beset the literature. It has been accused of being fragmented (Blackburn & Kovalainen, 2009) and the textbooks produced have been described as ideologically biased and value laden (Ogbor, 2000; Shane, 2008; Blackburn & Kovalainen, 2009; Jones & Spicer, 2009; David, 2012; Jones & Murtola, 2012; Spicer, 2012; Tedmanson et al., 2012; Landström et al., 2016), with negative effects on teaching and learning.

The literature is thus characterised by the ‘*selective tradition*’. Shane (2008) also states that entrepreneurship content is not neutral but highly selective, inaccurate and overly rosy:

“Does it matter if your image of the typical entrepreneur is incorrect and most of what you read about entrepreneurship is a myth? That depends. If you approach what you read about entrepreneurship in the same way you think about a good novel - as a work of fiction - then it doesn’t matter. But people

*think of these myths as nonfiction. They take as gospel an **inaccurate** and **romanticized** view of who entrepreneurs are, what they do, and the impact they have. And they act on their beliefs. When people act on fiction thinking it's reality, they often get hurt and harm those around them"* (Shane, 2008, p. 4) (emphasis added).

Rather than presenting balanced and factual knowledge on entrepreneurship, textbooks present students with a selective version of the realities of this phenomenon with no alternative points of view. This is particularly true of school textbooks. Entrepreneurship textbooks are thus not neutral, but instil various assumptions and ideologies.

2.2 Constructions of entrepreneurship in extant literature

The ideologies and assumptions that are rooted in entrepreneurship scholarship have been constructed by foregrounding particular entrepreneurship discourses. These were assimilated in the early period of entrepreneurship research in the 1970s and 1980s and have since persisted (Landström et al., 2016). The following ideologies and assumptions remain dominant in the global entrepreneurship literature:

- *The neoliberal and capitalistic ideology;*
- *Assumptions on economic growth and poverty reduction;*
- *Strong links with job creation;*
- *Gender bias and gender inequality;*
- *Assumptions on globalisation; and*
- *Distorting the reality of entrepreneurship*

2.2.1 The neoliberal and capitalistic ideology

Entrepreneurship is embedded in the neoliberal capitalistic political ideology of Thatcherism and Reaganism (Landström et al., 2016). There are varieties of neoliberalism and it is “multi-stranded” (Connell & Dados, 2014, p. 124). Its features include privatisation, individualism, freedom and market dominance (Landström et al., 2016). Harvey (2007a) adds that neoliberal theory proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by the maximisation of entrepreneurial freedoms within an

institutional framework that is characterised by personal wealth, self-advancement, individual liberty, strong private property rights, free markets and free trade.

Elements of neoliberalism such as entrepreneurship, privatisation, managerialism and even marketisation have found their way into schools and curricula in different countries and new education systems have been adopted to encourage entrepreneurship and privatise education. Teaching entrepreneurship to students is seen as the best way to achieve economic growth as the future businesses started by students will contribute to growth and development (Tomlin, 2016).

Entrepreneurship has become an important feature of the policy agendas of many countries, including education and such values as independence, innovation and the idealising of the free market system, with other economic and social systems relegated to a secondary position are found in most curricula (David, 2012; Landström et al, 2016; Tomlin, 2016). The school is used as a site for the dissemination of neoliberal ideals. According to Tomlin (2016, p. 856), “Schools have become businesses that are run by educational entrepreneurs.”

Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis concur that schools play a role in the reproduction of capitalism (Willis, 2004) as curricula promote neoliberal and capitalistic values such as self-interest, competition and privatisation and exclude alternatives to neoliberalism, depriving students of the necessary economic knowledge. Young students, in particular, are easily influenced and tend to be passive recipients of the knowledge in textbooks. They imbibe the principles of capitalism and neoliberalism disseminated and are unlikely to critique it.

As early as the 1990s, most Economics departments at major research universities as well as business schools were dominated by strong neoliberal principles such as private ownership, self-interest, and non-interference by government through free markets and free trade (Harvey, 2007b). These universities also provided training for many foreigners who took the neoliberal principles they learnt back to their home countries. Prominent figures who led the implementation of neoliberalism in Chile and Mexico such as the ‘Chicago boys’ were trained at foreign universities with strong neoliberal principles. They went on to occupy government positions and

became senior advisors (Beder, 2006). Guillermo Ortiz, Mexico's Finance Minister and later the Governor of the country's Central Bank, attended graduate school in Stanford's Business School. Thailand's Minister of Finance, Tarrin Nimmanahaeminda received his Bachelor of Arts from Harvard and his Master's in Business Administration in Finance from Stanford (Beder, 2006).

Promoting neoliberal and capitalistic policies in school curricula promotes ideals that enable the rich to get richer while the poor get poorer (Beder, 2006). It has been observed that, as countries adopt neoliberal practices, income inequality surges. Wealth is concentrated in a small oligarchy, as is evident in the US, Britain, Russia and China. While there are exceptions to this trend, as some countries have contained income inequality within modest bounds. Nonetheless, in most countries there are massive disparities in wealth, income and power. Data shows that in the US, neoliberalism failed to generate economic growth that would eventually trickle down to the average citizen. Only wealthy individuals and large corporations benefited from the upward redistribution of income and wealth produced by neoliberal policies. In contrast to the promised economic growth, there was an increase in economic insecurity, poverty, inequality, privatisation and regulation of the poor. The majority earned very little and were unable to afford food and other everyday goods (Abramovitz, 2012). The World Inequality Report of 2018 reported a large rise in wealth inequality in the US, the highest among rich countries. The wealth share of the top 1% rose from 22% in 1980 to 39% in 2014. This increase in inequality was due to the rise of the top 0.1% wealth owners (Alvaredo, Chancel, Piketty, Saez, & Zucman, 2018). In addition, 12.3% (39.7 million) of the population in the US in 2017 was reported to be living in poverty (Fontenot, Semega & Kollar, 2018). The growing gap between the rich and the poor is not restricted to wealthy countries and many other nations have seen a rise in inequality (OECD, 2015). Privatisation and income inequality were blamed for the rise of wealth inequality among individuals. Despite Mexico's adherence to neoliberal policies, it moved from being a stable country to one experiencing economic crisis and stagnant growth. Similar results emerged in Brazil as well as other economies. Neoliberalism has not stimulated worldwide growth and its record in stimulating economic growth has been dismal. Periodic episodes of growth have been coupled with severe financial crises (Harvey, 2007a). In South Africa, neoliberal economic policies have also made little progress in solving

the country's economic problems and have done little for the black majority (Schneider, 2003). Even though there have been significant improvements, the majority of black people have been left behind. South Africa is faced with very high levels of unemployment and is regarded one of the most unequal societies in the world. According to the Labour Force survey released by Statistics South Africa, in the fourth quarter of 2018, the unemployment rate stood at 27.1%. The Gini coefficient was 0.63 in 2015 (World Bank, 2018; Statistics South Africa, 2019). These social costs cannot be ignored as they have a huge impact on the poor.

In short, neoliberalism has generated an excess of wealth and power for the few while the majority are faced with a deficit of democracy and social justice (Mayo, 2015). Moreover, “[h]uman lives and broad public values are largely ignored in favor of private financial gain, and market determinism as matters concerning the public good, art, and intellectual culture are entirely subordinated to private interests and market values. Every aspect of daily existence is mediated through the lens of commodification, and one's sense of purpose and agency is largely measured by the presupposition that in a market society one's highest calling is to make a profit” (Giroux, 2007, p. 33).

Notwithstanding such trends, many policies and schools encourage neoliberalism. New curricula emphasise neoliberal principles and the business educational vocabulary continues to strongly favour neoliberalism (Telhaug, Mediås & Aasen, 2006). As Sikka, Haslam, Agrizzi and Kyriacou (2007) put it, textbooks sanitise such ideals and the literature rarely discusses the consequences. The neoliberal ideals presented in textbooks could lead students to normalise these ideologies and view them as natural, disregarding other economic and social systems. This leads to the normalising and depoliticising of neoliberalism's basic assumptions and market-based view of the world which is problematic as many do not realise that neoliberal rationality is a historical and political construction, “and that there are alternatives to its conceptions of democracy as an extension of market principles and citizens as hyper-consumers or unthinking patriots” (Giroux, 2007, p. 47).

2.2.2 Assumptions on economic growth and poverty reduction

2.2.2.1 Economic growth

Entrepreneurship as an ideology is also evident in the economic growth literature. Academic publications and policy documents regard entrepreneurship as important for economic growth and development in different nations. High levels of entrepreneurial activity are believed to stimulate economic growth. For example, the European Commission (2003) cites robust statistical studies in different countries to claim that there is a positive link between entrepreneurship and economic growth. This link is not new in the literature and is evident as early as 1911 in the writings of Schumpeter in his treatise *Theorie der wirtschaftlichen Entwicklungen* (Theory of Economic Development). Schumpeter argued that new businesses started by entrepreneurs provided the engine for economic growth (Audretsch, Keilbach & Lehmann, 2006). This relationship is disseminated and reinforced in the schooling system (Ministry of Education Namibia, 2008; Ministry of Basic Education South Africa, 2011a and b; Sánchez, 2011; European Commission, 2016; Bridge, 2017).

However, there is limited knowledge on the link between entrepreneurship and economic growth and the entrepreneurship and economic growth claim made in school curricula is assumed rather than proven (Ács, Autio & Szerb, 2014). The literature on entrepreneurship could be accused of misleading students as it does not cover the kinds of entrepreneurship and the economic contexts that are crucial for economic growth (Stam & van Stel, 2011). This could limit students' knowledge on the role of entrepreneurship in economic growth. The entrepreneurship and economic growth relationship in textbooks also silences empirical evidence on this association.

For example, Cravo, Gourlay and Becker (2012) examined the relationship between small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) and economic growth for an annual panel of Brazilian states for 1985-2004. They concluded that SMEs are negatively associated with economic growth. Similarly, Dvoulety, Gordievskaya and Procházka (2018) found that entrepreneurial activity in low-income countries has a negative impact on a country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Income. Stam and van Stel (2011) investigated the effect of entrepreneurship on economic growth in 36 countries, including high-income countries, transition countries and medium-income countries over a four-year period. They found that entrepreneurship

does not have an effect on economic growth in medium-income countries. This is in contrast to transition and high-income countries, where growth-oriented entrepreneurship contributes more to economic growth. It is held that the non-significant effect of entrepreneurship on economic growth points to a shortage of large businesses in these countries. Most businesses in medium-income countries are necessity, small entrepreneurs that do not contribute to economic growth. Such businesses are started because there are no alternatives. This is in contrast to high-income countries, where entrepreneurship is opportunity driven.

However, Hessels and van Stel (2011) used data from a sample of 34 countries for the period 2002 to 2008 and concluded that there is a positive relationship between entrepreneurial activity and economic growth. They also noted that export-orientated early-stage entrepreneurship had a positive effect, but only in higher-income countries. González-Pernía and Peña-Legazkue (2015) found that Spanish regions with high levels of opportunity driven entrepreneurial activities have high rates of economic growth. Moreover, regions with a higher percentage of the population engaged in export oriented entrepreneurial activity exhibit higher GDP growth rates. Urbano and Aparicio (2016) analysed the effect of entrepreneurship capital types on economic growth using a panel data set from 43 countries between 2002 to 2012 and reported that overall Total Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) and Opportunity TEA has a positive impact on economic growth. Employing panel data from 33 provinces in Indonesia over the period 2008-2013, Nurmlia and Muzayanah (2018) found that entrepreneurship fosters economic growth in the country. However, entrepreneurial activities in different sectors contribute differently to economic growth. For example, entrepreneurs in the formal sector contribute more to economic growth while those in the informal economy, also known as the underground economy are negatively correlated to growth. Finally, Tang and Koveos (2004) concluded that venture entrepreneurship, which encompasses new venture creation is positively related to GDP growth in high-income countries.

The above discussion shows that studies in different contexts have produced mixed results on the relationship between entrepreneurship and economic growth. It is clear that, while the association between entrepreneurship and economic growth has been extensively investigated, this is not a straightforward relationship. Shane (2008) adds

that the evidence is flimsy at best. Little remains known about the relationship between entrepreneurship and economic growth. This can be attributed to the elusive nature of the phenomenon (Thurik, Foreword, empirical analysis of entrepreneurship and economic growth, 2006). It remains ambiguous and largely anecdotal (Acs et al., 2014). Previous studies have been limited to determining whether entrepreneurship matters for economic growth (Naudé, 2010). Research is also driven by bias due to “political demands for positive evidence, which creates a shift toward increasingly positive interpretations as one moves from analysis, through the gray literature, to policy” (Nightingale & Coad, 2014, p. 124). However, studies conducted by modern scholars use better data and methods that produce more nuanced and ambiguous results.

2.2.2.2 Poverty reduction

Poverty reduction is another ideological affirmation made in relation to entrepreneurship. The literature on entrepreneurship asserts that the establishment of enterprises, particularly small businesses, is critical to poverty reduction (Herrington, Kew & Kew, 2010; Agupusi, 2007; Awusabo-Asare & Tanle, 2008; Amorós & Cristi, 2011; Si, Yu, Wu, Chen, Chen & Su, 2013; United Nations, 2015a; Fox & Sohnesen, 2016). Participation in entrepreneurial activities is believed to have a positive impact on economic growth and consequently reduces poverty and inequality and improves standards of living.

Such claims have been challenged as one-sided. The link between entrepreneurial activity and poverty reduction remains open to debate, as research on this issue has not been conducted from a broad range of perspectives (Bruton, Ahlstrom & Si, 2014; Rambe & Mosweunyane, 2017). Moreover, insufficient attention is paid to the fact that in some countries, especially in Africa and the SADC region, the majority of ventures are survivalist informal, unrecorded businesses that are not entrepreneurially orientated (Bruton et al., 2014; Business Environment Specialists, 2014; Rambe & Mosweunyane, 2017). They remain informal and small, and do not grow into medium size or larger innovative formal businesses. Such businesses are unlikely to create jobs and where they are able to do so, they do not offer decent wages and working conditions (Litwin & Phan, 2013). Ninety-two per cent of the small businesses that participated in von Broembsen’s (2010) study made less than R2 500 a month, with

71% accruing less than R1 000 a month. Furthermore, in 11% of the cases, employees, usually family members, received no income. Informal small businesses confront numerous problems, including restricted access to business development services and a lack of physical infrastructure. Low profits, increased competition and a short lifespan are among the other challenges (Western Cape Provincial Economic Review and Outlook, 2007). Evidence indicates that many of these businesses do not survive for longer than three years (Herrington et al., 2011; Adcorp Employment Index, 2012). These obstacles impede their ability to reduce poverty.

In summary, survivalist small businesses do not have the ability to significantly improve the living conditions of the poor (Awusabo-Asare & Tanle, 2008; Bruton et al., 2014). They are thus not the panacea for poverty reduction that much of the literature portrays them as (Shane, 2008; Bruton et al., 2014; Rambe & Mosweunyane, 2017). The entrepreneurship knowledge imparted to students across the globe therefore presents a partial and distorted picture of the link between entrepreneurship and poverty reduction.

2.2.3 Strong links with job creation

The entrepreneurship ideology can also be detected in claims regarding job creation. Textbooks, policy documents and other publications portray entrepreneurship, particularly small entrepreneurial ventures, as an engine that enables job creation and spurs economic growth (National Development Plan of South Africa, 2013; Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA), 2016a and b; The Small Business Administration, 2016). David Birch reported in his 1979 paper, *The job creation process* that small businesses are important to the US economy as they create a substantial number of jobs (Hirschberg, 2015). “Younger firms clearly generate the majority of jobs ... our economy counts on younger and smaller businesses to provide most of its replenishment jobs” (Birch 1979, p. 32-33).

This claim soon gained widespread acceptance and many began advocating for small businesses (Hirschberg, 2015) notwithstanding the limitations of the Dun and Bradstreet (D&B) data used by Birch (Davis, Haltiwanger & Schuh, 1996; Haltiwanger, Jarmin & Miranda, 2013). Presidents of the US were also supportive of small businesses. Among these was President George Bush who asserted: “We often

think of pioneers as those hardy settlers who tamed the American frontier ... However, small business people also stand among our Nation's greatest pioneers. They, too, are men and women of vision. They, too, have the courage to take risks and the willingness to make their ideas work. Industrious and self-reliant, small business men and women continually lead the way in the development of new technology and products and in the creation of economic opportunity for all Americans. Indeed, small business is the lifeblood of America's free enterprise system. It is within this vital sector of our economy that most workers find their first jobs and training. Small businesses account for two out of every three new jobs created in the United States." (Nightingale & Coad, 2013, p. 114). Previous and upcoming presidents after Bush were equally supportive. The Small Business Administration (2016) in the US described such businesses as the driving force behind America's economic growth. In South Africa, as early as 1995, the White Paper on a National Strategy for the Development and Promotion of Small Businesses in South Africa also placed a high value on small businesses:

"Small, medium and micro-enterprises represent an important vehicle to address the challenges of job creation, economic growth and equity in our country. Throughout the world, one finds that SMMEs are playing a critical role in absorbing labour, penetrating new markets and generally expanding economies in creative and innovative ways" (Foreword to the White Paper cited in Department of Trade and Industry, Republic of South Africa, no date).

South Africa's National Development Plan (NDP) (2013) envisages that, by 2030, 90% of the jobs in the country will be created by the small business sector. Such sentiments are reproduced in policy documents and the entrepreneurship literature across the globe.

Birch (1979) continues to be echoed in countries other than the US and South Africa. It is concluded that small businesses are the engine of job creation in different economies. Most notably, policymakers remain positive and there is a ready-made market for research that supports the notion that entrepreneurial activity is good (Nightingale & Coad, 2013).

Brown, Hamilton and Medoff (1990) challenged Birch's (1979) findings as follows: "The image of small firms as both beautiful and bountiful is an appealing one but it needs to both be reexamined and expanded ... Perhaps the most widespread misconception about small businesses in the United States is that they create the vast majority of jobs and therefore the key to economic growth ..." (p. 1).

Although acknowledged by many as playing an important role in job creation and the overall economy, small businesses do not create quality jobs. There is high level of job insecurity in the small business sector because of the high failure rate (Parker, 2001). Small enterprises therefore cannot be viewed as superior to their larger counterparts. Most small businesses are not innovative, do not contribute to employment growth and do not adopt progressive employment practices. Their presence in their numbers in the employment share does not equal economic success. In addition, roughly 76% of new businesses have no employees. The average start-up begins with one employee, inclusive of the business owner (Shane, 2008). Few people work in small businesses and they create few of the gross or net new jobs (Shane, 2008).

Other studies report that Gazelles, which are found in most industries, are important for net job creation and create a large share of new net jobs (Henrekson & Johansson, 2010). According to Birch and Medoff, 1994, p. 163, cited in Mitra, 2012, p. 11, Gazelles are businesses "that move between small and large quickly ... and to classify them by their size is to miss their unique characteristics: great innovation and rapid job growth". Gazelles generated five million net jobs, while total net job growth in the whole US economy only amounted to 4.2 million (Henrekson & Johansson, 2010).

Following criticism of his earlier work by some scholars, including James Medoff, David Birch and Medoff collaborated in an effort to find common ground in the debate on which firms contribute more to job creation (Landström, 2005) and identified the Gazelle. The Gazelle is reported to be receiving attention from policy makers. The Europe 2020 strategy provided explicit support for high growth small businesses (Daunfeldt & Halvarsson, 2015). However, Gazelles/High Growth Firms' (HGF) contribution to job creation is also disputed. Using data on all Swedish businesses from 1997 to 2008, Daunfeldt and Halvarsson (2015) concluded that HGFs

do not grow persistently over time. Their probability of repeating high growth rates is low. The authors termed them “one hit wonders” and were doubtful that they could assist policymakers to achieve their economic aspirations. The explanation is that HGFs experience a pause in one period, then they continue to grow.

Despite the extensive research conducted on entrepreneurship and its role in job creation, there is no conclusive evidence on whether small, HGFs or even large businesses create more jobs (Haltiwanger, et al., 2013). According to the OECD (2016), there are significant differences across countries in the distribution of employment by different size businesses. This is due to a number of factors that include the country’s industrial structure, the size of the economy and how open its market is. Moreover, the definitions of small, medium, high growth or large also differs in many countries. Apparently, the definition of a South African business is different from an American or European business (Nightingale & Coad, 2013). Such variations also complicate the results and the generation of knowledge.

In conclusion, in response to high levels of unemployment and bleak growth opportunities, policy makers and scholars around the globe have turned to entrepreneurship as an engine of job creation and generator of economic prosperity (Acs, Audretsch & Strom, 2009). A number of policies and educational programmes to foster entrepreneurs have also emerged (Economic Development Department, Republic of South Africa, 2014; European Commission, 2016). The findings on entrepreneurship and job creation are thus very pertinent for policy makers and other stakeholders. However, caution is needed when interpreting the results (OECD, 2016) as there are a series of methodological problems and alarming statistical challenges that can lead to distorted results regarding the impact of small and even medium enterprises. Early studies on job creation tended to exaggerate SMEs’ contribution to job creation and did not inadequately account for the impact of job creation and destruction, firm start-ups and closures and movement of firms between size categories. More recent research in this field has made some strides. Such studies note that, when job destruction is taken into account, SMEs’ contribution to net job growth becomes insignificant (Parker, 2001). This calls for regular monitoring of all businesses (Haltiwanger, et al., 2013). It also calls for scrutiny of knowledge in school textbooks.

2.2.4 Gender bias and gender inequality

The entrepreneurship literature also presents a very clear ideology when it comes to gender. While many attempts have been made to free entrepreneurship from gender bias and other stereotypes, men continue to be assigned a prominent position while women are overlooked and excluded from the mainstream entrepreneurship discourse and other literature (Ogbor, 2000; Ahl, 2004; David, 2012; Pillay, 2013, 2017). Entrepreneurship is thus gendered and is associated with masculinity. This ideology remains evident in the contemporary literature with *stereotyping of males and females*, *discriminatory portrayal of female entrepreneurship* and *males as the norm in entrepreneurship* dominating. Each is analysed below.

2.2.4.1 Stereotyping of males and females

Stereotyping of gender roles is common in the literature, especially entrepreneurship literature. Pillay (2017) employed feminist CDA to understand how gender is represented in Business Studies textbooks in four SADC countries. The study found that the textbooks presented biased and stereotypical images of women. They were portrayed performing unpaid domestic and care work that involved looking after children, shopping for the household, cleaning, cooking, serving food and fetching water. While some texts and images portrayed women in paid labour, this was in typical stereotypical occupations such as secretary/receptionist, nursing, primary school educators, and as business people operating small businesses concentrated in pink collar sectors of the economy that were sometimes unsuccessful. The sectors included beauty salons or clothing manufacturers. On the other hand, men were mainly portrayed in high status and well-paid occupations such as Director of Projects, Chief Executive/Financial Officers, regional sales managers, top managers, or successful business people in many fields, namely, Engineering, Printing and Mining. Men were also more likely to be depicted in positions of authority and well-paid jobs than women in British Columbian textbooks (Villar & Guppy, 2015). Gudhlanga, Chirimuuta and Bhukuvhani's (2012) study in Zimbabwe found that males were portrayed in more productive and well-paid occupations such as doctors and engineers while women were depicted in care and supportive roles. Hence Gudhlanga et al. (2012) concluded that textbooks play the dual role of encouraging and sustaining male supremacy. Using feminist CDA, Diabah and Amfo (2015) also found that Akan women were presented in stereotypical ways. In some cases, they

were represented in a positive light, but the aim was merely to lure them to accept their traditional role in order to strengthen hegemonic masculinity and femininity.

Other studies in South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania and Namibia showed that women were portrayed in stereotypical feminine occupations while men were presented in masculine occupations (Mabuza, 2001; Mkuchu, 2004; David, 2012; Maistry & Pillay, 2014; Akawa, 2014). This reinforces stereotypes and discourages women from pursuing other careers. It also undermines women and their contribution to society and the economy (Akawa, 2014). In Slovenian textbooks, Sovič and Hus (2015) observed that these textbooks presented female characters as nurturers. In this regard, even young female characters were depicted taking care of babies (their dolls). Boys were shown as leaders, and mostly pre-occupied with several active roles. They are also the dominant characters in the textbooks and are rarely shown in nurturing roles. This perpetuates the negative stereotype that men are uncaring and are not involved in the upbringing of the family. They are the breadwinners and women are the caregivers that are left to raise the children alone (Wood, 1994). Stereotyping of women in educational materials has been reported in a number of countries (Blumberg, 2014) despite anti-stereotypical guidelines.

In summary, textbooks around the world have been found to portray women in stereotypical feminine occupations and roles. Only in a few cases are they portrayed outside the home, involved in productive ‘masculine’ activities (Chiponda & Wassermann, 2015).

Textbooks contribute to students, particularly young children’s understanding of gender. They learn about the roles of women and men in society from what they see in their textbooks. The stereotypes in the literature may have a negative impact on students’ career aspirations. For example, boys might find stereotyped jobs such as an entrepreneur in a profitable field or a doctor or professor appealing, while girls may lean towards being a housewife, nurse, social worker or small scale business owner in the pink collar sector (Mkuchu, 2004; Pillay, 2017).

Children mimic behaviours that are typical of their gender (Lee, 2014). In kindergarten, the story books they are exposed to influence their behaviour and

contribute to their understanding of what is masculine and what is feminine. In the early grades, storybooks form part of their earliest learning experiences. This was confirmed by the Drawing the Future project, a survey that asked more than 20 000 young children in the United Kingdom (UK) and internationally to draw a picture of the job they want to do when they grow up. The results confirmed that gender stereotypes are evident in children as young as seven. The children's career aspirations were highly gendered. Boys overwhelmingly opted for jobs in traditionally male dominated sectors and professions in comparison to girls (Chambers, Rehill, Kashefpakdel & Percy, 2018). Embedding of gender stereotypes and further socialisation continues in high school. Nkosi (2013) explored gender stereotypes in secondary school literary texts and found that both genders are stereotypically presented. Such images and texts are cause for concern because they perpetuate gender inequality in society (Sigalow & Fox, 2014). These stereotypes are not only evident in learning materials but are reinforced in the classroom itself. Females are expected to clean their classrooms, staffrooms, bathrooms and even wash sports uniforms, with boys exempt from such duties (Diko, 2007).

Stereotypical and biased representations and repeated exposure to such have implications for female children's aspirations and limits their career prospects, particularly with regard to leadership, management or entrepreneurial roles (Davies, Spencer & Steele, 2005, Lee, 2014). It could also affect students' entrepreneurship knowledge. Mahadea et al. (2011) found that when students were asked to cite a business role model, they opted for eminent male business persons in South Africa as well as internationally such as Tokyo Sexwale, Patrice Motsepe, then businessperson Cyril Ramaphosa, Mark Shuttleworth and Bill Gates.

More material with equal representation of males and females in non-stereotypical roles needs to be produced in order to reflect social reality.

Some textbooks have begun to address gender bias. Clark's (2016) study noted that males and females are represented equally in terms of quantity in Japanese textbooks. Lewandowski (2014) employed a diachronic approach to analyse gender stereotyping in English as a Foreign Language grammar textbooks in the UK. The results revealed that textbooks published after the year 2000 were free from blatant sexism. This

contrasts with the set of textbooks published in the 1970s and 1980s. Finally, Blumberg's (2014) research in Jordan also showed that textbooks are gender balanced, with women portrayed as poets, fighters, and political consultants among other occupations. Finally, Moser and Hannover's (2014) study in Germany provided evidence of gender fairness in school textbooks. The depiction of males and females was almost equal and males and females were depicted in a variety of activities, not only gendered ones. In short, gender equality has made its way into the curriculum, though much work remains to be done.

Despite these positive results, gendered ideologies are reinforced in textbooks and remain omnipresent in the curriculum. Females that attempt to rectify stereotypes are not well supported by their colleagues. Male privilege thrives (Diko, 2007) because many authors wear androcentric blinkers (Baker, Aldrich & Nina, 1997).

2.2.4.2 Discriminatory portrayal of female entrepreneurship

The literature also provides a biased portrayal of females in entrepreneurship despite the rise in women's entrepreneurship (Pines, Lerner & Schwartz, 2010). Women are represented in necessity, smaller, insignificant home-based businesses in the retail or service sector. At times women entrepreneurs are described in textbooks solely in connection with social and cultural activities. She is beautiful and dresses well (Achtenhagen & Welter, 2011). It is argued that such depictions portray the "human side" of women entrepreneurs as opposed to ruthless profit maximisers (Achtenhagen & Welter, 2011). As such, traditional gendered social norms prevail in the representation of women entrepreneurs (Bobrowska & Conrad, 2017). They also continue to be misrepresented or presented stereotypically in feminine businesses such as day care facilities and baby-sitting companies, and terms such as superwomen are used to describe women who are able to balance work and family (Bobrowska & Conrad, 2017). In contrast, men are portrayed in larger, thriving, formal masculine businesses that are key in addressing unemployment and promoting economic growth (Lewis, 2006; Kelley, Brush, Greene & Litovsky, 2010; International Finance Corporation, 2011; Langevang & Gough, 2012; David, 2012; Ahl & Nelson, 2015; Pillay, 2017). Females in entrepreneurship are then seen as incapable and not serious (Patterson, Mavin & Turner, 2012). Their businesses are also viewed as less desirable and as an exception to the male norm (Achtenhagen & Welter, 2011). The link drawn

between femininity and underperformance in entrepreneurship reflects gender bias and reinforces gender inequalities (Marlow & McAdam, 2013). It furthers positions women as flawed entrepreneurs with men as the norm and superior. Students that are repeatedly exposed to such texts and images in textbooks are thus likely to believe that women entrepreneurship is non-entrepreneurial and different (Patterson et al., 2012; Ahl, 2004). This further positions women outside the mainstream discourse of entrepreneurship (Bobrowska & Conrad, 2017). It downplays reality and suggests that women are restricted to smaller, informal businesses, despite the prevalence of males in such businesses (Lewis, 2006). “Such a situation has contributed to the maintenance of the dominant discourse of heroic masculinism which informs enterprise and entrepreneurial activities, preserving its privileged position and devaluing the meanings and interpretations contained in this alternative, ‘female’ discourse” (Lewis, 2006, p. 457). It has also reinforced entrepreneurship is something done by a select group, ‘men’ rather than everyone (both men and women) (Lindgren & Packendorff, 2009). The literature’s failure to portray the fact that, in reality, females also operate large businesses in the formal economy is aggravated by society’s perception of entrepreneurship as masculine rather than feminine (Coker, 2011). It is believed that such biased portrayal of women affects women’s self-perception and attitudes and further contributes to the low rates of female participation in some countries (Achtenhagen & Welter, 2011). As much as studies have confirmed that women are concentrated in smaller businesses and in less attractive industries, this does not automatically confirm them as less ambitious, less skilled, less serious and less successful than their male counterparts. Rather, measurements of female entrepreneurship do not present their real value and success as well as the reasons why women may be concentrated in such sectors (Korsgaard, 2007). The fact is that they are constrained by many barriers that inhibit growth and development, including being less able than men to access financial and other resources. Such differences create distortions and result in a situation where women’s businesses are small, less growth orientated and less viable and are therefore not taken as seriously as those of men (Global Partnership for Financial Inclusion, 2011). Lack of access to resources has negative repercussions for women entrepreneurs and the overall economy. Finance enables the formation of new businesses, expansion of existing ones and exploitation of growth and investment opportunities (Global Partnership for Financial Inclusion, 2011).

2.2.4.3 Males as the norm in entrepreneurship

From its inception in society, entrepreneurship gave preference to males. For example, one of the earliest writings on entrepreneurship is Cantillon's 1755 '*Essai sur la nature du commerce en general*'. Cantillon used 'he' to describe the entrepreneur:

*"... **he** is an entrepreneur who promises to pay to the landowner, for his farm or land, a fixed sum of money without assurance of the profit **he** will derive from this enterprise ... As an entrepreneur - producer, the farmer decides how to allocate **his** land among various uses without being able to foresee which of these will pay best. **He** must contend with the vagaries of weather and demand, placing **himself** at risk"* (Cantillon, 1931, p. 47-49, cited in Hérbert & Link, 2006) (emphasis added).

Influential economists like Frank Knight and Joseph Schumpeter also referred to the entrepreneur as male (Ogbor, 2000), while Collins, Moore and Unwalla (1964) stated that: "However we may personally feel about the entrepreneur, **he** emerges as essentially **more masculine than feminine, more heroic than cowardly ... His values and activities** have become part of the character of America and intimately related to our ideas of personal freedom, success, and, above all, individualism ..." (p. 5-6, emphasis added).

John Elliot¹ (p. xxi) also linked entrepreneurship with males:

*"... the entrepreneur must be **a man** of 'vision', of daring, willing to take chances, to strike out, largely on the basis of intuition, on courses of action in direct opposition to the established, settled patterns of the circular flow. The entrepreneur is more of a 'heroic' than an 'economic' figure: **he** must have 'the drive and the will to found a private kingdom' as a 'captain of industry'; the 'will to conquer,' to fight for the sake of the fight rather than simply the financial gains of the combat: the desire to create new things - even at the expense of destroying old patterns of thought and action."*

¹Elliot, J. Introduction in Schumpeter, J.A. (1934/1983). *The theory of economic development*. (Reprint 1971 ed.). New Brunswick: Transaction Publisher.

These views are consistent with those of Casson (2003): “We have all encountered an entrepreneur. He does many things. Sometimes he a property developer or a small businessman. In other cases he is someone who is in the pursuit of quick cash.” Philosophers such as A.N. Whitehead also view the entrepreneur as male: “A great society can be judged by the number of men who are involved in entrepreneurship” (Singh & Gupta, 2016). These tendencies persist in contemporary entrepreneurship textbooks. Williams (2013) observed that influential males such as Roman Abramovich, Duncan Bannatyne, Richard Branson, Bill Gates, Steve Jobs, Lakshmi Mittal and Alan Sugar are depicted as ideal entrepreneurs in textbooks. This appears to be the norm in many countries.

Not only has female entrepreneurship received scant attention in the literature, but few efforts have been made to challenge such perspectives (Williams, 2013). When women are depicted, they tend to be shown in smaller businesses (Pillay, 2017). This is despite the fact that there are numerous instances of successful female entrepreneurs across the globe. Not all female owned businesses are small scale. This reinforces gender stereotypes where women are viewed as not having the necessary skills to operate larger businesses (Pillay, 2017).

The entrepreneurship literature is thus marked by male bias (Ogbor, 2000; Ahl, 2004; Bruni, Gherardi & Poggio, 2004; Petterson, 2004; Pillay, 2013, 2017) and women are portrayed as the ‘other’, as deviant in relation to ‘normal male actors’ in many educational institutions and societies (Rönblom, 2005). Achtenhagen and Welter (2011) observe that this could deter women from becoming entrepreneurs as they might not identify with the content that is presented in textbooks. McCabe, Fairchild, Grauerholz, Pescosolid and Tope (2011) believe that the male norm in textbooks ignores and under-represents women.

It is against this background that David (2012) and Pillay (2017) concluded that females in entrepreneurship are marginalised and not viewed as important. In many countries, including African nations, females have gained equal access to schooling but it would seem that they have yet to achieve equal access to the curriculum (Aikman & Unterhalter, 2007). Efforts to redress such marginalisation are lacking. Women’s contributions to the economy continue to be ignored by textbooks. They are

not recognised as legitimate or alternate entrepreneurial role models (Campbell, no date).

The language of business continues to use masculine military and sports likenesses and terms and this is rarely unsettled (Campbell, no date). According to Ogbor (2000), entrepreneurship discourse regards males as a self-evident unit for the production of entrepreneurship knowledge. In addition, the discourse upholds the existing division between maleness and femaleness, and thus reinforces societal bias and inequality.

The entrepreneurship knowledge that students are exposed to influences their entrepreneurial intentions. The gendered language used to depict entrepreneurs in textbooks (Marlow & McAdam, 2013) reduces female students' entrepreneurial self-efficacy and their entrepreneurial intentions (Camelo-Ordaz, Diáñez-González & Ruiz-Navarro, 2016). Female involvement in entrepreneurship is considered as the antithesis of entrepreneurial norms (Ogbor, 2000, p. 621) as men are seen as '*archetype*'.

Table 2.1 below lists the declarations adopted by different countries, including the sampled SADC nations, to promote gender equality and women's empowerment in society, education and the curricula. However, the literature shows that textbooks have not been amended in response to such intentions and gender bias remains rife in teaching materials. Despite research and other developments relating to gender issues in the past decades, teachers ignore and promote gender stereotypes. For example, teachers compliment boys on their excellent writing skills while females are complimented for their "hairstyle and pretty dresses" (Sadker & Sadker, 1980). While gender equality is explicitly stated and infused in education and other policy documents, the curriculum content in many countries does not follow suit. This creates the impression that policies and legislation that prescribe equal treatment of boys and girls in classrooms, teaching materials and society have not permeated curriculum content. It calls for clear guidelines on gender equality to be set for authors and publishers (Mattu & Hussain, 2003).

Table 2.1: Declarations that promote gender equality in education and curricula

- United Nations, Millennium Development Goals: Goal 3: Promote gender equality and provide empowerment to women (United Nations, 2015b)
- Council of Europe Gender Equality Strategy 2014-2017: “Disseminating education syllabuses and teaching practices which are free from explicit and implicit gender stereotypes ... abolish women’s image of inferiority and submission as well as stereotypes about men’s masculinity” (The Gender Equality Commission of the Council of Europe, 2016).
- United States Agency for International Development (USAID) (2008): “... all learners should be exposed to teaching methods and materials that are free of stereotypes and gender bias. In addition, it means that boys and girls should have the freedom to learn, explore, and develop skills in all academic and extracurricular offerings” (USAID, 2008)
- World Declaration on Education For All 1990: There is an urgent need to remove all obstacles that could hamper the participation of female students in schools. Moreover, there is also a need to ensure access and improvement in the quality of education for girls and women. Gender stereotyping in all forms in education should be abolished (Bellamy, 1999).
- SADC Gender Policy (education): “Adopt gender responsive strategies for reviewing educational methodologies and *eliminate gender stereotypes* in order to ensure women’s empowerment and transformative changes in the education and training sectors” (SADC, no date, p. 13)^{[1][SEP]}
- National Gender Policy Framework South Africa: Non-racism and non-sexism form the cornerstone of the new South Africa. There is a pressing need to de-racialise and engender all institutions of the state, including learning institutions and classrooms and of civil society (The Office on the Status of Women, no date).^{[1][SEP]}
- National Gender Policy, Namibia: The curricula and all teaching and learning materials must be free from gender-stereotyped content at all levels of education. Such should also be evident in teacher training programmes (Republic of Namibia, 2010, p. 27).
- The National Gender Policy, Zimbabwe: Eliminate gender inequalities in all spheres of life and development, including education (The Republic of Zimbabwe, Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development, no date).

2.2.5 Assumptions on globalisation

Other evidence of the entrepreneurship ideology can be found in the literature on globalisation, a phenomenon that has resulted in increased interconnections amongst countries, enabling consumers to access a variety of products from different parts of the world (Surugiu & Surugiu, 2015). Delehanty (2015) states that globalisation enables businesses, particularly small businesses, to access new markets and customers, increase their sales and boost their profitability. The IMF (2008, p. 3) quotes Ernesto Zedillo former president of Mexico as asserting that evidence shows that where poor nations have been able to significantly overcome poverty, this has been made possible through participation in export markets and opening up to the influx of goods from foreign countries, investment and technology. Therefore, countries that have not embraced globalisation or have done so with little enthusiasm have fallen behind and not achieved all the gains it offers (IMF, 2008). Dollar and Kraay (2004) also found that globalising countries such as Argentina, China, Hungary, India, Malaysia, Mexico, the Philippines and Thailand experienced an increase in growth rates, from an average 2.9% per annum in the 1970s, to 3.5% in the 1980s, and 5% in the 1990s. It was noted that the growth rates of rich countries declined. In contrast, non-globalising low to middle income economies' growth rates declined from an average 3.3% per annum in the 1970s to 0.8% in the 1980s. However, in the 1990s, there was a recovery to 1.4%. While it was excluded from the list of globalising countries due to insufficient data, Vietnam provides further evidence that opening up markets significantly reduces poverty; the country's poverty rate dropped from 75% in 1988 to 37% in 1998. Integrated economies enjoy better economic performance, poverty reduction and improvements in the standard of living. Globalisation is viewed as beneficial for economies and societies and thus cannot be disregarded by businesses and countries (Surugiu & Surugiu, 2015), as they need to make the most of the opportunities offered by foreign markets.

The positive impact of globalisation on businesses and countries has however, been refuted. Although acknowledged as a powerful force bearing in mind some of the positive developments it has delivered (Ukpere, 2010), not all countries have benefitted from globalisation. It does not always guarantee development (Huwart & Verdier, 2013) and has presented major challenges and threats such as a decline in growth and employment among micro, small and medium enterprises (Deveshwar,

2014). This has resulted in a number of countries and businesses being excluded from the globalisation process and therefore unable to benefit from the opportunities it presents. They participate in marginal ways that are detrimental to their interests (Khor, 2011).

For example, many countries in sub-Saharan Africa have been negatively affected by globalisation. While the continent contains around a third of the world's total minerals and produces large quantities of oil, gas, diamonds and uranium, countries have not reaped benefits from the globalisation process. Mineral extraction has been linked to corruption, civil wars, and intense suffering. The lack of democratic global institutions to oversee the integration of local and international economies and political and economic instability are among the reasons for this state of affairs (Oxfam, 2002; Griffin, 2003; Stiglitz, 2004). The wealth generated from exporting minerals has produced limited benefits for human development across the region, with the exception of Botswana and South Africa. The sourcing of other goods including timber by French companies from Liberia is also reported to exacerbate conflict (Oxfam, 2002).

Africa appears to be marginalised by globalisation and inequality and poverty have increased (Ukpere, 2011). For every \$1 of wealth generated in the global economy, high income countries receive around 80 cents and low income countries, where there is a high concentration of poverty only receive around 3 cents (Oxfam, 2002). Such unjust distribution of export gains reinforces income inequality. Low income countries have increased their share of global exports, but the gains remain smaller than among rich nations. In the 1990s, per capita income from exports for low income countries increased by \$51 while high income countries generated \$1 938 (Oxfam, 2002). Smallholder farmers that produce coffee and cocoa in Tanzania, southern Mexico and Haiti were reported to be receiving a diminishing share of the total income from their coffee, while buyers received a greater portion (Oxfam, 2002). Countries such as Brazil, Haiti, Mexico, Peru and Zambia rank high in terms of import liberalisation, but they have not been able to reduce poverty or improve growth (Watkins, 2002). Rapid liberalisation in many countries, especially those in Latin America has been associated with extreme inequalities. Instead of narrowing inequalities, the gap keeps widening (Watkins, 2002). When low income countries

enter global markets, they confront tariffs as much as four times higher than those faced by rich countries (Watkins, 2002). The belief held by many that globalisation benefits the poor by decreasing inequality thus does not hold.

Other negative consequences of globalisation include exploitative employment practices, such as long working hours, with some employees reporting that they work 70 hours per week, low wages, compulsory unpaid overtime, a lack of basic employment rights such as maternity leave, no social insurance and prohibition of union membership. Health and safety are major concerns. Workers are exposed to toxic chemicals, and suffer injuries, miscarriages and respiratory problems amongst other health problems (Oxfam, 2002). Thus, while people may have jobs, the working conditions are deplorable.

Low income countries, the poor and their small businesses are left behind. Furthermore, the damage caused to the environment as a result of unchecked exploitation of natural resources undermines the potential for human development (Oxfam, 2002).

Supporters of globalisation have thus vastly exaggerated its economic and social benefits and under-reported its reality among micro, small and medium businesses and nations (Kassim, 2003). Proponents present unconvincing economic arguments and highly selective interpretation and generalisation of data that does not adequately justify the results (Watkins, 2002). Policy makers, especially education policy makers such as curriculum developers should thus be cautious of making sweeping statements about the results of globalisation in textbooks. Rigorous empirical analysis is needed before reaching conclusions (Bardhan, 2007) on its benefits.

A large body of literature supports the widely held assumption that globalisation promotes growth, creates jobs, reduces poverty and improves standards of living. This has been reproduced in textbooks (Bhagwati & Srinivasan, 2002). David (2012) maintains that this one-sided perspective of globalisation hides its consequences, especially among small and medium size enterprises and, indeed, nations.

Given this state of affairs, students are not presented with the reality of globalisation,

i.e., that there are winners and sometimes losers (Jenkins, 2004). The losers include millions of the world's most vulnerable households, while the winners are large transnational corporations that dominate world markets and take advantage of low producer prices while they enjoy high profit margins (Oxfam, 2002). Open trade can thus bring about progress and development for some nations and businesses while others are weakened and trapped in a spiral of poverty (Huwart & Verdier, 2013).

Students are likely to internalise the one-sided picture presented of globalisation and rarely interrogate it (David, 2012). Only when they are aware of the downside of globalisation can they comprehend the risks associated with global trading and the steps that can be taken to avoid them (Stiglitz, 2004). Moreover, in order for countries to reap the full benefits of globalisation, a range of economic and social policies must be considered (Huwart & Verdier, 2013).

2.2.6 Distorting the reality of entrepreneurship

The final manifestation of entrepreneurship as an ideology concerns the misrepresentation of the reality of entrepreneurship. The entrepreneur is always depicted as a successful person that has the remedy for 'all' of society's problems. Shane (2008) states that if one had to ask the average student or citizen around the world to describe an entrepreneur, they would probably mention successful and prominent figures such as Bill Gates, Steve Jobs or other highly successful entrepreneurs in their community. Thus, conventional wisdom embeds the myth that entrepreneurs are heroic, innovative, wiser, more insightful, powerful and always prosperous and make a fortune (Shane, 2008).

However, the typical entrepreneur in many countries does not resemble Bill Gates, Steve Jobs, Larry Ellison or Michael Dell and the business ventures started by the typical entrepreneur are often part of struggling sectors that are prone to failure and not the most financially attractive (Shane, 2008).

The literature also has the tendency to glorify the rewards and successes associated with entrepreneurship (Kuratko, 2014) such as a panacea that creates wealth, contributes to economic development, generates employment, reduces poverty and improves standards of living. It turns a blind eye to the reality of entrepreneurship,

such as struggle, financial hardship and business failure (Spicer, 2012). It also ignores the other drawbacks of entrepreneurship, such as its associated social costs, which may be harmful to individuals, communities and societies (Zahra, Pati & Zhao, 2013). Furthermore, the field neglects ethical issues. Although some business schools recognise the importance of ethics content in the curriculum and some include elements of ethics, much remains to be done to eliminate current and future “corporate malfeasance” (Henle, 2006, p. 347). This is a serious concern. The various types of entrepreneurship, including those that have negative outcomes, are also neglected. Not all businesses have positive outcomes as touted in the literature. In pursuit of wealth, some businesses have been found to engage in dysfunctional and illegal entrepreneurship. Illegal activities include the trade in illicit drugs and arms and offering services such as prostitution as well as creating wealth through rent seeking such as monopolies, tax evasion and manipulating disadvantaged people (Zahra et al., 2013). Such entrepreneurial activities are prohibited by law and have extremely negative effects on society. Acknowledgement of the dark side of entrepreneurship is thus required in the literature to provide a more realistic and accurate account of this phenomenon.

2.3 Implications of the findings of the literature review

This review showed that the entrepreneurship literature, especially school textbooks, presents selective entrepreneurship knowledge that is entrenched and rarely challenged. It also presented the views of critical scholars that have begun to contest “taken for granted” notions of entrepreneurship (Tedmanson et al., 2012) as a driver of wealth and job creation, and a source of economic growth and development as well as poverty alleviation. The review highlighted the archetypical entrepreneur as male and the neoliberal and capitalistic ideology that is encouraged in entrepreneurship texts.

The content in textbooks thus embodies the selective tradition that privileges certain knowledge over other knowledge (Apple and Christian-Smith, 1991). This short changes students and does not provide truthful entrepreneurship knowledge. UNESCO (2016) notes that, in many economies in sub-Saharan Africa, textbooks are scarce and investment in such is lacking. In 36 countries with data, it was found that 16 spent less than 1% on textbooks. Other countries have no textbooks. In 2008

teachers in Zimbabwe confirmed that there were no textbooks in schools because the government could not afford to purchase them, let alone replace the few existing ones that were available for teachers (European Union, no date). This suggests that students studying entrepreneurship may be exposed to skewed information due to the lack of updated textbooks or the fact that only the educator is in possession of a textbook.

Educational institutions are not neutral and learning materials are flawed. They are therefore compromised when it comes to imparting critical knowledge and skills to students. What is taught in textbooks differs from reality. This calls for educators to analyse and question the selective, biased and inaccurate content embedded in textbooks (Freire, 2000; Giroux, 1981, 1997; Svendsen, 2015) in order to present students with factual knowledge instead of receiving, memorising and restating fragmented information (Freire, 2000). It is equally important that publishers and authors produce textbooks that are not one-sided but broaden students' entrepreneurship knowledge.

2.4 Summary of Chapter Two

This chapter discussed the various selective assumptions and ideologies underlying entrepreneurship. Based on the literature review, it can be concluded that educational policy makers together with the textbook approval committee need to pay attention to the issues surrounding textbooks raised by numerous scholars, by thoroughly evaluating the content of textbooks before approval and printing.

The following chapter presents the theoretical framework that guided this study.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This study draws on the critical theory framework in order to understand the phenomenon of entrepreneurship in contemporary commerce textbooks. Critical theory in its entirety is vast, multidisciplinary and amorphous. It encompasses different strands and does not have a unified body of thought. Its multifaceted nature makes defining and summarising this theory arduous. However, the primary purpose of critical theory is to challenge the status quo and bring about social change. According to Kellner (1975), critical theory is a revolutionary theory that deals with various issues concerning domination and justice, race, class, and gender as well as ideologies, discourses, education and other social institutions and how these interrelate in order to form a social system (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2011). This study thus aims to contest and deconstruct dominant entrepreneurship assumptions and ideologies in the educational system.

Critical theory's proponents range from different generations of the Frankfurt School of critical theory (discussed in the following section), to other scholars whose work is in line with the critical theory traditions of the Frankfurt School, but who have further enriched the field. Scholars such as Paulo Freire¹, Ira Shor, Donald Macedo, Michael Apple, Henry Giroux and Peter McLaren, to name but a few, were among those who followed the traditions of the Frankfurt School of critical theory but concentrated on education (Abraham, 2014). They challenged the myth that schools are democratic institutions and concluded that, through learning materials and psychological forms, they reproduce ideologies of privilege which, in turn, define the lives of students from different classes, gender and races. The school is thus perceived as a site for indoctrination and socialisation (Weil, 1998).

¹ Paulo Freire is regarded as the founder of critical educational theory, commonly known as critical pedagogy. He is also credited with developing successful literacy campaigns and programmes for peasant students in Brazil (Giroux, 2010). For this study I drew on Apple and Giroux's work that has been widely influential in critical educational theory.

Traditional critical theory and critical educational theory are complex and do not “constitute a homogeneous set of ideas” (McLaren, 2007, p. 185-186). They play an important role in the field of education and have increased scholars’ consciousness of injustice in the school and society and how to go about transforming them (Abraham, 2014). Michael Apple (1982, 1986, 2004), whose work has been very influential in critical educational theory since the 1970s, maintained that the curriculum and schooling is neither a neutral nor value free process. The notion that school knowledge is illusory and entangled with ideology and Henry Giroux’s (1983a, 1988) contention that schools are cultural and political sites, guided this study.

The influential philosopher in education Paulo Freire (undated, cited in Ibrahim and Abidin, 2011, no page number) asserted that education in its totality is political:

“All forms of education are political, whether or not teachers and students acknowledge the politics ... Politics is in the subject chosen for the syllabus and in those left out. It is also in the method of choosing course content ...” (p. 27).

Thus, the knowledge, values and skills transmitted by educational institutions are not objective and cannot be taken at face value; instead, such knowledge embodies ideologies that reflect particular dominant cultures. It is a privileged discourse that is constructed through a discriminatory process of inclusion, neglect, reinterpretation and watering down (Giroux, 1988).

Schools are therefore political sites that rob students of other viewpoints. Moreover, students tend to adapt to the fragmented view of reality transmitted to them in classrooms (Freire, 2000). Students and teachers should therefore be “transformative intellectuals” that have an active voice in the learning process and do not merely accept and regurgitate a restrictive curriculum that is often erroneous and ideological (Freire, 2000). Rather, they should challenge the ideological assumptions, taken-for-granted myths and injustices embedded in the curriculum (Giroux, 1983a, 1988). The more students accept the taken-for-granted ideas and assumptions (‘deposits’) transmitted to them, “the more completely [they] adapt to the purposes which the dominant minority prescribe for them (thereby depriving them of the right to their

own purpose), the more easily the minority can continue to prescribe” (Freire, 2000, p. 76).

The traditional critical theory, together with Apple (1982, 1986, 2004) and Giroux’s (1983a, 1988) work on critical educational theory (which has its origins in critical theory), assisted in revealing the ideologies that are hidden behind what presents itself as “objective” and “neutral” education (McLaren, 2007). It allowed me to challenge the view that the entrepreneurship curriculum is impartial and to show that it is a political, ideological text, while schooling is a stubbornly political and cultural enterprise (McLaren, 2007).

3.2 Origins of critical theory

Critical theory is commonly associated with members and associates of the Frankfurt Institute for Social Research. The Frankfurt School, as it is now known, was established as a centre for Marxist research at the *Institut für Sozialforschung* in 1924 under the leadership of Carl Grünberg (How, 2003; Antonio, 1983). While there are different generations of Frankfurt School critical theorists, the central figures include Herbert Marcuse, Max Horkheimer, Theodor W. Adorno, Walter Benjamin, Erich Fromm, Friedrich Pollock and Leo Löwenthal who are known as the first generation of critical theorists. The work of other generations of critical theorists, particularly Jürgen Habermas who was one of the foremost members of the second generation, is also regarded as significant to critical theory.

The origins of critical theory lie in the work of Karl Marx (Fuchs, 2015) and the theory is thus rooted in the Marxist critique of social and economic injustice (see *Das Kapital* also referred to as *Capital: a critique of political economy*) and is committed to revolutionary change (Kellner, 1975). The term, critical theory is believed to have been used as a disguise/ “secret word” when the Frankfurt theorists were in exile from the Nazis in the US and did not want to disclose themselves as Marxist scholars (Fuchs, 2015). Antonio (1983) and Kellner (1975) note that under Grünberg’s leadership, the Institute was characterised by orthodox Marxism. In 1930, dominant figures of the Frankfurt School such as Marcuse, Horkheimer, Adorno, Benjamin, Fromm, Pollock and Löwenthal departed from traditional Marxism. Influenced by Lukaács and Korsch, they took on board more philosophical, less dogmatic Marxism

that was open to other intellectual currents (Antonio, 1983) and could be interpreted as critical neo-Marxism. Adorno, Marcuse, Benjamin and Löwenthal noted the influence of Lukaács on their work, while Korsch also exerted much influence (Kellner, 1975). Indeed, Korsch participated in several of the Institute's discussions and conferences and his work was also featured in its journal. He is also believed to have played an instrumental role in the formation of the Institute itself. Felix Weil, who financed the Institute, had an encounter with Korsch in 1918 and was heavily influenced by him.

Despite their adherence to Marxism, the first generation scholars affiliated to the Frankfurt School began to shift their focus from a critique of the political economy to a critique of culture (Antonio, 1975). The economic foundations of Marxism and its theory of the historical inevitability of class struggle (Pinar & Bowers, 1992) assumed less prominence. Other scholars, known as the second generation of critical theorists such as Habermas agreed that the Institute should move from its narrow Marxist focus on economic, social and historical issues and take on broad multidisciplinary everyday topics such as sports, fashion, education, law, customs, public opinion and even lifestyle (How, 2003).

Marx's early themes such as alienation, exploitation and capitalism, are no longer the focal point of contemporary critical theorists. Attention is now paid to other topics and fields such as education, the curriculum, gender, politics, racism and history, among others, in order to uncover hidden ideologies and power relations in societies (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Wodak & Meyer, 2009). Nonetheless, and although it is criticised as inadequate by some scholars, traditional Marxist economic theory continues to play a focal role among many contemporary radical scholars. Marxist ideas of injustice and oppression thus remain powerful and influential. According to Fuchs (2015, p. 12), "Marx's insights that class and domination interact and are foundational phenomena of modern society **should lie at the heart of any attempt that sees itself as a critical approach** for studying contemporary society and communication in contemporary society" (emphasis added).

Education researchers have also increasingly turned to the work of Marx, coupled with contemporary critical theories such as critical race theory, post-structuralism,

post-modernism, neo-colonial and queer theory, to name but a few (Rogers, Malancharuvi-Berkes, Mosley, Hui & Joseph (2005) in order to understand how social structures are reproduced in the classroom and schools. There has been a proliferation of studies in critical theory, education and other fields. Abraham (2014) recommends that all educators should encourage critical thinking and learning among students in order to transform societies as they must play their part as “organic intellectuals”.

While many first generation critical theorists adopted Marxist positions, according to Kellner (1975), they also subscribed to Kantian, Hegelian and Nietzschean positions.

3.3 General critical theory and critical educational theory by Michael Apple and Henry Giroux

Michael Apple and Henry Giroux are critical theorists that focus on education. They challenge an array of educational issues and topics and dismiss the idea that knowledge is “objective”. Instead, they argue that it is a “social construction”. The school and curriculum are shaped by power relations, privileging certain forms of knowledge and mainly operating to reproduce inequalities. Schools are not innocent and the knowledge in the curriculum that is generally accepted as ‘neutral’ is always ideological and political. The traditional critical theory framework, as well as the work of critical educational theorists (Apple, 1982, 1986, 2004; Giroux, 1983a, 1988) were thus appropriate tools to interrogate entrepreneurship texts and expose the hidden curriculum. They further allowed me to deepen my understanding of how the school curriculum legitimates various ideologies.

Apple (2013, p. 195) cogently describes the nature of school textbooks:

“whether we like it or not, differential power intrudes into the very heart of curriculum, teaching and evaluation ... there is then always politics of official knowledge, a politics that embodies conflict over what some regard as simply neutral descriptions of the world and others regard as elite conceptions that empower some groups while disempowering others.”

Textbooks are therefore not neutral educational instruments for the dissemination of ‘factual, legitimate and scientific knowledge’ to students; rather, they are political tools that give legitimacy to certain beliefs and ideologies deemed significant by the powerful groups in society (Crawford, 2003).

Entrepreneurship textbooks can thus be viewed as political as they disseminate and reinforce the ideologies of ruling groups to students. This may result in an inaccurate representation of entrepreneurship that suppresses and ignores other points of view. According to Althusser (1970), entrepreneurship textbooks and the school function as the *ideological state apparatuses* that spread dominant entrepreneurship assumptions and ideologies to students.

The textbook is an integral part of learning in many global classrooms and it determines what knowledge should be transferred to students. Most students cannot fully comprehend the ideological content presented to them in textbooks or disrupt such ideologies. Their exposure to biased and ideological knowledge in their textbooks conceals reality.

Entrepreneurship textbooks thus introduce students to the existing social-economic order with its relations of power and domination (Crawford, 2000). From this perspective, “[S]chools do not merely ‘process’ people but they ‘process’ knowledge as well. They enhance and give legitimacy to particular types of resources which are related to unequal economic forms” (Apple, 2004, p. 34). School knowledge is therefore not objective and value free; it is a social construction closely linked to the values and interests of the parties who produced and shaped its meaning (Giroux, 1981). Schools can be viewed as both ideological and instructional sites (Giroux, 1983b) that espouse particular regimes of truth.

The use of traditional critical theory and critical educational theory by Apple (1982, 1986, 2004) and Giroux (1983a, 1988) helped me to demonstrate how the purported ‘neutral’ entrepreneurship content in textbooks encodes ideological information (Wodak, 2002). I was also able to disrupt the ideologies that are taken for granted, regarded as natural, and seldom challenged in the entrepreneurship literature. There is

an assortment of anchored gendered, stereotypical and economic assumptions in the field of entrepreneurship.

3.4 Summary of Chapter Three

This chapter discussed the theoretical lens of critical theory and critical educational theory that guided this study. Given that these are very broad, the study only drew on the traditional critical theory framework and the work of critical educational theorists Michael Apple and Henry Giroux.

The following chapter presents the research design and methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology employed for this study. It covers the research approach, the research paradigm and the data analysis tools (Fairclough's CDA, based on the 2001 three dimensional framework; the guidelines for doing CDA outlined by Huckin (1997) and Machin and Mayr (2012); and the method for analysing visuals established by Nene (2014). Subsequent sections discuss critiques of CDA and VSA, the scope of the study, the sample and the strategies adopted to promote the trustworthiness of the research. Finally, the ethical considerations taken into account are presented.

4.2 Research design

This study adopted a qualitative research design. This type of research was appropriate to understand and gain more insight into the phenomenon of entrepreneurship. It further allowed me to provide an in-depth and multidimensional description of this phenomenon as it is constructed in contemporary commerce textbooks in the selected SADC countries. Understanding that entrepreneurship is complex, the qualitative approach also enabled me to collect rich data and report the phenomenon in its multifaceted form (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

4.3 Research paradigm

The critical paradigm guided this study. This paradigm's purpose is not to merely explain situations and phenomena. Rather, its aim is *transformation* as it seeks to emancipate the disempowered from dogma, redress imbalances and promote greater equality and democratic societies (Cohen et al., 2011). The critical paradigm helped me to contest entrepreneurship assumptions and ideologies in textbooks before they are naturalised and students passively absorb the content instead of being critical of the information that is presented.

4.4 Ontology and epistemology

This research is situated in the critical paradigm; therefore, my ontology is that reality

is socially constructed. The knowledge in textbooks that is regarded as important and beneficial for students is influenced by the political, ideological, or moral beliefs of the educational system and the wider society in which they are produced (Romanowski, 1996). From the immeasurable knowledge available, only certain knowledge is seen as 'official' and selected for textbook inclusion (Hess, 2009). Entrepreneurship texts are not neutral; they are engulfed in political and ideological controversies (Apple, 1990). "Exploring the social construction of school textbooks provides an important context from within which to critically investigate the dynamics underlying the cultural politics of education and the social movements that form it and which are formed by it" (Crawford, 2003, p. 6). The critical paradigm thus allowed me to expose the assumptions and ideologies embedded in entrepreneurship scholarship.

4.5 Method of data analysis

Numerous techniques are used for qualitative data collection and analysis. For the analysis of the textbooks, the tenets of MDA were fitting for the analysis of the entrepreneurship texts and visuals. MDA incorporates both CDA and VSA and allowed me to explore the discourses of entrepreneurship in the contemporary commerce textbooks.

4.5.1 MDA and ideology and power

MDA entails enlightenment. Therefore, its application to texts and images entails unmasking hidden ideologies that are inherent in everyday beliefs and further revealing structures of power. Ideology is an elusive concept and its definition is thus manifold. During different eras, such as fascism, communism or the Cold War, ideology was used in a positive, negative and even a neutral sense (Wodak & Meyer, 2016). Fairclough (2003) defines ideology from the Marxist perspective, as representations of aspects of the world used by powerful groups and institutions to facilitate the establishment and maintenance of social relations of power, control, domination and exploitation (Fairclough, 2003). Ideologies often appear as neutral but if shared widely, they become part of generally accepted attitudes of society and common sense (van Dijk, 2006). They then become dominant and are linked to assumptions that are rarely challenged and are regarded as factual. Those in positions of power will often make every effort to influence society with an ideology that is in

line with theirs. Wodak and Meyer (2016) warn that, when people in society, regardless of their background, begin to think alike about certain issues, disregarding alternatives to the status quo, they have arrived at what the Italian revolutionary, Antonio Gramsci called 'hegemony'. According to Locke (2004, p. 33) hegemony "exists when the subscription base of an ideology is broad in terms of numbers and reinforced 'vertically' by the social status of its subscribers." That is, it occurs when oppression and domination, which take many forms, such as sexism, racism, classism, etc., are accepted as the consensus.

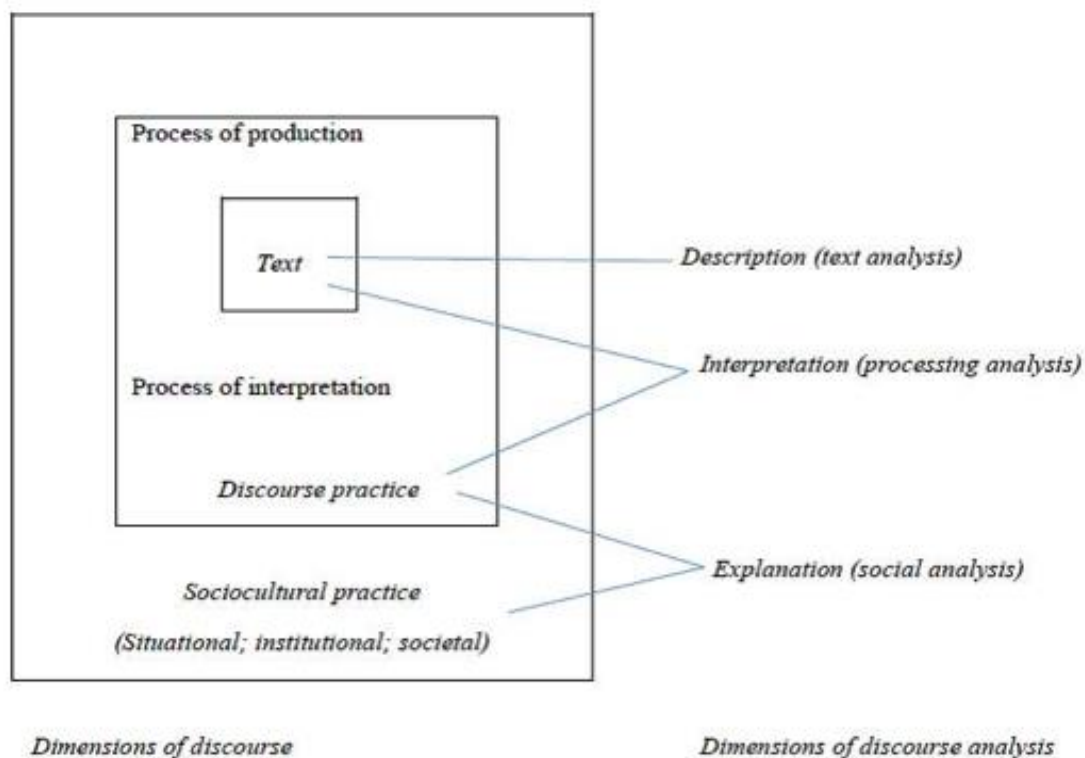
Power is another element that is central in critical enquiries such as MDA. MDA researchers thus pay attention to power, especially the abuse of power by dominant groups or institutions (van Dijk, 2001). Such power may be overt or covert, but ultimately, it shapes beliefs. Power is conveyed by discourses and plays a role in the discursive formation of asserting domination in society (Wodak & Meyer, 2016). MDA was thus the ideal approach to explore the dominant values, assumptions, ideologies and power relations manifested in entrepreneurship curricula. This curriculum is, after all, never neutral, but serves as a vehicle for the dissemination of various ideologies.

4.5.2 Method of data analysis: Part one (CDA)

CDA comprises of different tools to analyse texts. There is no standardised method and the analyst must select the one most suitable for their study (Huckin, 1997). They should construct a "broad inventory" of possible text-analytic tools to draw from (Huckin, 1997). In this study, Fairclough's (1995; 2001) three dimensional framework was the most appropriate for the textual analysis.

Fairclough's three dimensional framework comprises of three interrelated layers of analysis, namely, *description* (text analysis), *interpretation* (processing analysis) and *explanation* (social analysis) (See Figure 4.1 below).

Figure 4.1: Fairclough's three dimensional CDA framework



Source: Fairclough (1995, p. 98)

Fairclough's CDA (Three dimensional framework)

- *Description*

As shown in Figure 4.1 above, the first stage in Fairclough's (1989, 2001) framework is description of the text. The focus at this stage is describing and analysing the linguistic features in the text, such as the vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, turn-taking, types of speech and the directness or indirectness of their expression. Such features help to understand the power relations and ideological processes in discourse.

The toolkit for doing CDA outlined by Huckin (1997) and Machin and Mayr (2012) (See Table 4.1 below) was employed in the initial stage of analysis (Fairclough's *description stage*). In line with their two-stage approach, in the first stage (*the description stage* in Fairclough's framework), I played the role of the everyday reader in the classroom (students studying Commerce Education, EMS and Entrepreneurship Studies). I therefore read the modules/chapters/sections/themes that dealt with entrepreneurship in the selected contemporary commerce textbooks (Commerce Education and EMS) and the whole textbook in the case of Entrepreneurship Studies

in an uncritical manner.

In the next step, the second stage (*description phase*), the modules/chapters/sections/themes were read again, but critically and paying attention to the linguistic features of the text as shown in the table below.

Table 4.1: Linguistic toolkit for doing CDA devised for this study

Linguistic feature	Explanation and example
1. Topicalisation/Foregrounding	Topicalisation is a particular type of foregrounding that takes place at the sentence level. This is done with the intention of stressing the importance of the text and influencing the reader's perception. What authors put first is interpreted as the most important (Huckin, 1997).
2. Lexical repetition	Over emphasis of certain texts. This could create the impression that the repeated texts are important. However, they are a sign that something is problematic or of ideological contention (Machin & Mayr, 2012).
3. Omissions/Suppression or lexical absence	Leaving out important information in texts. The uncritical young mind will hardly notice that there is absent information. According to Machin and Mayr (2012), where significant information is left out in texts, one needs to ask <i>what ideological work this does?</i>
4. 'Taken for granted' words and assumptions	The use of words that take certain ideas for granted as if there is no alternative (Huckin, 1997).
5. Modality	The tone of the text, which is carried mainly by (must, ought to, need, has to, had to, are, is, absolutely, in fact; known as high modality), (would, should, was to, supposed to, usually, probably; referred to as medium modality) and (can, may, might, possibly; known as low modality). The use of high modality conveys greater assertion while low modality communicates more of a possibility (Barnes, 2014).

Source: Adapted from Huckin (1997) and Machin and Mayr (2012)

- *Interpretation*

The second stage of Fairclough's framework is *interpretation*. The situational and intertextual context are central to the process of interpretation (Janks, 1997). Analysts should thus ask questions about time and place. For example, are the texts and images influenced by history? Is the information presented in the textbooks warranted in this day and age? (In this case, do the texts and images relate to the SADC context?) What contextual factors influenced the production of the texts and images? Other questions include the discourse type(s): What discourses are being drawn upon? (considering the phonology/grammar, pragmatics, semantics, sentence cohesion and the schemata) (Fairclough, 1989; Janks, 1997).

- *Explanation*

Explanation is the final stage of Fairclough's (2001) three dimensional framework. The purpose of this stage is to "portray a discourse as part of social process, as a social practice, showing how it is determined by social structures, and what reproductive effects discourse can cumulatively have on those structures, sustaining them or changing them" (Fairclough, 1989, p. 163). At this stage, I was able to bring into the open the hidden curriculum in entrepreneurship texts and demonstrate the relations of power and ideologies underlying the discourses of entrepreneurship and their possible effect.

4.5.3 Method of data analysis: Part two (VSA)

To gain an in-depth understanding of the discourses of entrepreneurship in the contemporary commerce textbooks, the study also analysed the visuals. Entrepreneurship textbooks present students with a variety of visuals that are strategically placed. Some of these visuals are laden with ideology and various strategies are used by authors to embed these ideologies. This is despite authors and publishing houses' claim that the content in textbooks is objective.

VSA helped to expose the different hidden meanings of entrepreneurship images ("what ideas and values do the people, places and things represented in the images stand for?") (van Leeuwen, 2004, p. 92). In order to analyse the data, the study applied Nene's (2014) tools for analysing History images. There are many categories in Nene's toolkit. Only six categories were employed for the analysis of entrepreneurship images in the selected contemporary commerce textbooks, namely:

- i. Gender: How are women and men presented in the entrepreneurship visuals? Is it through ranking of importance (where mostly males are portrayed as successful founders of businesses, while females are portrayed in stereotypical roles taking care of the house and looking after children)? (Goffman, 1979). Moreover, if females are portrayed as entrepreneurs, are they presented in traditionally 'feminine' pink collar businesses (cooking, nurturing, textiles, homeware) while men are portrayed in 'masculine', demanding businesses such as engineering, construction, medicine, mechanic and mining?
- ii. Why are the genders represented in this way? Could history play a role?
- iii. What information about the images is shared?

- iv. What information about the images is excluded?
- v. What is the connotation of the images? (The extended or implied meaning of images in the entrepreneurship textbooks) (Anderson, Dewhirst & Ling, 2006); and
- vi. What do the images denote? (The initial meaning that the entrepreneurship visuals are designed to capture when the student views them) (Anderson et al., 2006).

Given that images are not neutral, but are laced with ideology (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006), Nene's (2014) approach to analysing visuals in the commerce textbooks helped me to reveal structures of power to make known the hidden ideologies in entrepreneurship images (Wodak & Meyer, 2016).

4.5.4 Critique of MDA (CDA and VSA)

4.5.4.1 Critique of CDA

While CDA is a powerful methodology that is recognised and applied by many scholars, it has been heavily criticised. As one of the components of MDA, it has been criticised for being a fashionable term. Every body is talking about CDA but they lack knowledge and certainty about it (Widdowson, 1995, p. 158). The philosophical foundations of CDA are also open to question and it has been accused of being dependent on a naïve sociological model that is over ambitious, undermining sound research (Hammersley, 1997).

Moreover, CDA is criticised for presenting biased and partial interpretations of texts. The texts selected are ideologically loaded in line with the analyst's ideal interpretation (Widdowson, 1995; 1998). There is no consultation with the producers or the viewers of the texts; thus, analysts rely solely on their own interpretations of a text. Analysts are accused of using the linguistic features of the text selectively to confirm their own prejudice and no attempt is made to empirically establish what writers could have intended (Widdowson, 1998).

Despite these criticisms, CDA was an effective tool to bring to light biased and manipulative language buried in texts (Rahimi & Riasati, 2011). Because texts are usually seen as neutral, applying CDA enabled me to deconstruct the text and reveal

the ideologies underlying entrepreneurship. Widdowson (1998, p. 136) who has heavily criticised CDA, nonetheless acknowledges its importance and contribution to knowledge and asserts that:

“what is most plainly distinctive about critical discourse analysis is its sense of responsibility and its commitment to social justice. This is linguistics with a conscience and a cause, one which seeks to reveal how language is used and abused in the exercise of power and the suppression of human rights. In a grossly unequal world where the poor and the oppressed are subject to discrimination and exploitation such a cause is obviously a just and urgent one which warrants support” (emphasis added).

4.5.4.2 Critique of VSA

VSA has also received criticism from some scholars. The main critique is that it relies heavily on the analyst's skills; therefore, an analyst with no experience of visual semiotics and the phenomenon under investigation will be far less likely to produce a complete and comprehensive analysis (Anderson et al., 2006). Nonetheless, Nene's (2014) approach to analysing visuals played a fundamental role in this study as it added depth and richness to the analysis of the entrepreneurship images in the textbooks (Anderson et al., 2006).

A further critique is that the images that analysts analyse have multiple meanings (Anderson et al., 2006). Fellow textbook researchers and academics verified the analysis and arrived at the same interpretations as myself.

Regardless of these criticisms, VSA was a suitable tool to analyse the images in the contemporary commerce textbooks. Furthermore, it has been widely applied to examine different images in different studies and expose hidden meanings.

4.5.4.3 Addressing the criticisms raised

In this study, systematic and rigorous analysis was conducted as in more scientific approaches (Fairclough, Mulderrig & Wodak, 2011). I further ensured that the research was truthful and was not politically motivated. The rationale for the study is provided as well as the different steps in relation to how the analysis was carried out

(Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017). Readers are able to trace and understand what warranted the research and a detailed in-depth textual and visual analysis of how I arrived at the findings is provided (Kendall, 2007). With regard to cherry picking, the texts and images were thoroughly scrutinised. I did not select texts at random or those that have “greater ideological valency” (Widdowson, 1998, p. 148) and would suit my interpretation. I was not able to consult with the producers or the consumers of the text and images, and it is suggested that future CDA and VSA studies not only analyse the text and images but have discussions with the publishers, authors, students and their teachers on the textbook content.

4.6 Sampling

Textbooks were selected from three SADC countries, namely, South Africa, Namibia and Zimbabwe. These countries were chosen because they are Anglophone and English is the medium of instruction in schools. This enabled me to analyse the textbooks (Commerce Education, Entrepreneurship Studies and EMS) without confronting linguistic challenges. The countries were also chosen because they have adopted a wide range of policies to promote the development of entrepreneurs through entrepreneurial education (Nziramasanga Commission of Inquiry, 1999; Ministry of Education Namibia, 2010; Ministry of Basic Education South Africa, 2011a and b). This is particularly important given the high rate of youth unemployment in many SADC countries.

The analysis of the textbooks was undertaken in South Africa in KwaZulu-Natal province where I am located. Thorough analysis of the textbooks allowed me to describe how entrepreneurship is constructed in commerce textbooks in secondary schools. Furthermore, it provided insight into why this phenomenon is constructed in particular ways in the contemporary textbooks.

The six textbooks were purposefully selected. According to Cohen et al. (2011), in purposive sampling, cases included in the sample for analysis are selected based on particular characteristics sought by the researcher. The textbooks thus had to have content that related to entrepreneurship.

The textbooks that were selected for analysis have a strong market presence. Their

publishers, Longman, Shuter and Shooter, Pearson etc., are nationally and internationally recognised. The textbooks follow the writing guidelines set by the Ministries of Basic Education in the selected countries. Given that it would have been impractical to review all the textbooks published for entrepreneurship, two textbooks were chosen from each of the three selected SADC countries. The total sample size was thus six contemporary commerce textbooks.

In order to effectively analyse the textbooks, only textbooks from the first level of secondary school were chosen (Grade 8 in Namibia and South Africa and Form 1 in Zimbabwe) (See Table 4.2 below). The reason is that these textbooks have substantive entrepreneurship content.

Table 4.2 Sample

Year	Title	Modules/ Chapters/ Topics/Themes	Publisher	Country
2013	Spot On Economic and Management Sciences: Grade 8: Learner's Book	Modules 1, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12 and 13	Pearson	South Africa
2013	Shuters Top Class Economic and Management Sciences: Grade 8 Learner's Book	Sections 4, 6, 8, 9, 12 and 13	Shuter and Shooter	South Africa
2006	Step Ahead: Junior secondary commerce	Chapters 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 8	Longman Zimbabwe	Zimbabwe
2011	Junior Course Commerce today	Chapters 1, 3, 7 and 8	ZPH	Zimbabwe
2016	Entrepreneurship	Themes 1, 2 and 3	Pollination	Namibia
2016	Platinum Entrepreneurship	Themes 1, 2 and 3	Pearson	Namibia

Source: Researcher's compilation

The process of coding made it possible to reduce the bulk of the data from the textbooks to manageable proportions (Cohen et al., 2011). Coding involves reading or studying the content, in this case, the textbooks, and interpreting what appears to be pertinent in the textbooks and the paragraphs and sentences read in relation to the research questions. A code (label) is assigned to that interpretation (Harding & Whitehead, 2013). The coding process enabled me to detect patterns and themes in the profuse data and report the phenomenon as observed in the textbooks.

Three steps were followed in coding the data. In the opening coding stage, the researcher scrutinised the texts and codes (labels) were assigned to describe the text analysed (Cohen et al., 2011). The codes identified through the analysis were then

grouped into categories (Cohen et al. 2011). The second step/stage made connections with related codes and grouped them into a larger category. In the third stage, selective coding, I came up with the central category/theme (Cohen et al., 2011).

4.7 Trustworthiness

Different approaches were applied to achieve credible findings and eliminate researcher bias. These are explained below.

4.7.1 Persistent observation/analysis of the textbooks

Sufficient time went into the analysis of the textbooks (Guba, 1981). They were reread in order to thoroughly describe the constructed phenomenon of entrepreneurship. Rereading the texts over a prolonged period enhanced the credibility of the study and identified important items while disregarding irrelevant information in the analysis.

4.7.2 Peer debriefing

“A researcher brings to the data [their] own preconceptions, interests, biases, preferences, biography, background and agenda” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 554). Research may thus be influenced by the subjective features of the researcher, who needs to detach her/himself from the research (Guba, 1981) and interact with other professionals in the field. Peers, colleagues and academics performed the debriefing function by scrutinising and offering feedback on the research project, thereby increasing the credibility of the findings.

4.7.3 A thick description of the phenomenon (textbooks)

The phenomenon of entrepreneurship was richly described and the methodology used to analyse the textbooks was also explained in detail. Direct quotations and images from the textbooks were included (Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, Pölkki, Utrianen & Kyngäs, 2014). This helped to confirm a link between the data and results.

4.8 Ethical requirements

According to Brynard, Hanekom and Brynard (2014), there are two basic ethical requirements for researchers undertaking any research project, namely, honesty and confidentiality. Honesty relates to the way in which the research findings are reported.

Under all circumstances and at any given time, researchers should report the findings honestly. They should never be biased. The description of the textbooks was truthful and accurately recorded.

Researchers should also maintain confidentiality when conducting research. Any confidential information gathered by the researcher should not be published. This study involved non-human subjects. It examined learning materials (contemporary commerce textbooks) that are used in schools. While these textbooks are not of a confidential nature, pseudonyms were assigned, i.e., Textbook A South Africa, Textbook B South Africa, Textbook A Namibia, Textbook B Namibia, Textbook A Zimbabwe and Textbook B Zimbabwe (See Table 4.3 below). This was done to safeguard against any future ethical dilemmas (David, 2012).

Permission was also granted by the University of KwaZulu-Natal Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee on 24 August 2016 to carry out the study (See Appendix two).

Table 4.3: Textbook pseudonyms

Title of the textbooks	Pseudonyms
Spot On Economic and Management Sciences: Grade 8: Learner's Book	Textbook A South Africa
Shuters Top Class Economic and Management	Textbook B South Africa
Step Ahead: Junior secondary commerce	Textbook A Zimbabwe
Junior Course Commerce today	Textbook B Zimbabwe
Entrepreneurship	Textbook A Namibia
Platinum Entrepreneurship	Textbook B Namibia

Source: Researcher's compilation

4.9 Summary of Chapter Four

This chapter presented the methodology employed to conduct this study. It discussed the qualitative critical approach, ontology and epistemology, and the method of data analysis. The MDA tools used to analyse the entrepreneurship texts and visuals were presented, as well as the sampling techniques, different approaches to ensure credible findings and the ethical requirements taken into account.

The following chapter presents and describes part one of the findings on the six contemporary commerce textbooks.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS PART ONE

5.1 Introduction

The research methods that were used to analyse the data were outlined in the previous chapter.

This chapter presents the first part of the findings from the analysis of the six contemporary commerce textbooks. Three objectives and questions were devised for this study. This chapter responds to the first research question: How is entrepreneurship constructed in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in selected SADC countries? Chapters seven and eight deal with the remaining analysis.

Ten discourses with regard to the construction of entrepreneurship emerged from the analysis of the reading passages, exercises, activities, case studies, images and illustrations in the six contemporary commerce textbooks:

- *The ease of business formation*
- *Personal enrichment*
- *The foregrounding of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers*
- *Stereotyping of gender roles*
- *Women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy*
- *Economic growth*
- *Job creation*
- *Solution to poverty*
- *Improvement in the standard of living*
- *Effortless globalisation*

These discourses were identified using Fairclough's (1989; 2001) three dimensional CDA framework that enables critical analysis of texts, aided by the toolkit for doing CDA outlined by Huckin (1997) and Machin and Mayr (2012) and the approach to

analyse visuals established by Nene (2014). These instruments provided deep understanding and insight into the discourses.

This chapter focuses on *the ease of business formation discourse, the personal enrichment discourse, the economic growth discourse, job creation discourse, a solution to poverty discourse, improvement in the standard of living discourse and the effortless globalisation discourse*. The remaining discourses are addressed in Chapter Six. The discourses were evident in all the analysed textbooks and the findings are thus based on all six.

The discourses that emerged during the analysis are divided into two chapters. For example, the visual analysis and all those that relate to gender are grouped together in Chapter Six while the textual analysis and those that romanticised and did not reflect the reality of entrepreneurship are grouped together in this chapter.

5.2 Ease of business formation discourse

The analysis revealed that the textbooks presented the formation of a business as a simple process. While the harsh realities of establishing a business are stated, they are downplayed. When I began the analysis of the textbooks, words that related to the ease of business formation discourse were very noticeable when the phenomenon was introduced in the first pages. These words were grouped into categories and assigned a label. The keywords that emerged in the initial stage of analysis, the open coding stage, were examined for any connections and further grouped into broader categories. In the next step, I identified the central discourses, with the first being the ease of business formation (similar steps were followed in order to bring to light the remaining nine discourses). The ease of business formation discourse was noticeable in all the textbooks. They all foregrounded the simplicity of business formation, but noted that the formation of a business is not without difficulty. A number of keywords and phrases in the textbooks provide evidence of the ease of business formation discourse. They include *easy, quick, relatively inexpensive, no long forms, very little capital is required for start-up, simplest, and few legal requirements*. These can be seen in the following extracts.

- i. “The start-up costs of the business **are easy and quick**. It’s also **relatively inexpensive**. There **are no long forms** to be filled in or requirements to meet. **Only** a trading licence is needed for the business **to start trading**” (Textbook A South Africa, page 151).
- ii. “A close corporation **is very easy and inexpensive to form** ... There are not too many legal requirements when starting a close corporation” (Textbook A South Africa, pages 154-155).
- iii. “A sole proprietorship **is inexpensive and easy to set up**, and **very little capital is required for start-up investment**” (Textbook A Zimbabwe, page 24).
- iv. “A sole trader **is the simplest form** of business ownership. The enterprise is owned by one person ... Sole traders are often **simple** enterprises that can be managed by one person ... A sole trader is the **simplest** form of ownership. This type of enterprise **is inexpensive and easy to establish as there are few legal requirements**” (Textbook B Namibia, pages 36-37).
- v. “A partnership is owned by more than one person. It **is** therefore **usually easier to raise enough money to start the enterprise**” (Textbook B Namibia, page 38).
- vi. “It **is** easy to start a partnership as **no formal procedures*** need to be followed” (Textbook B South Africa, page 116).
- vii. “The business unit **is** easy to start since there are less formal procedures required. The sole trader requires little capital to set up ... Procedures for forming a partnership **are** easy. There are few formal procedures required and the partnership deed is not a must” (Textbook B Zimbabwe, page 47-50).
- viii. “Partnerships **are** relatively easy and inexpensive to start up” (Textbook A South Africa, page 152).

These extracts show that the textbooks declare with certainty that the formation of a business is simple and uncomplicated. It is inexpensive to start as well as easy to raise sufficient capital. A business can be formed in a very short space of time and not much paperwork is involved. Furthermore, few legal requirements have to be met. This message is conveyed through the use of different linguistic features, including high modality, omission/lexical absence and lexical repetition. Each is explained below.

High modality

The use of specific words by authors reflect a degree of certainty or uncertainty. These words are known as modality in CDA (McGregor, 2003). They are identified by verbs, adverbs, adjectives, nouns, etc., which express high modality (must, ought to, need, has to, had to, are, is, absolutely, in fact), medium modality (would, should, was to, supposed to, usually, probably) and low modality (can, may, might, possibly) (Barnes, 2014). Through the use of modality, texts can be used for influence, manipulation or propaganda (Lillian, 2008). Modality can also be used to signify the analyst's belief or ideology (Price, 2005). Evidence of high modality can be seen in the following eight examples from the above extracts.

- Extract i, Textbook A South Africa, page 151: 'The start-up costs of the business **are** easy and quick' and 'There **are** no long forms to be filled in or requirements to meet';
- Extract ii, Textbook A South Africa, page 154: 'A close corporation **is** very easy and inexpensive to form';
- Extract iii, Textbook A Zimbabwe, page 24: 'A sole proprietorship **is** inexpensive and easy to set up, and very little capital **is** required for start-up investment';
- Extract iv, Textbook B Namibia, page 37: 'A sole trader **is** the simplest form of business ownership' and again 'A sole trader **is** the simplest form of ownership. This type of enterprise **is** inexpensive and easy to establish as there **are** few legal requirements';
- Extract v, Textbook B Namibia, page 38: 'A partnership is owned by more than one person. It **is** therefore usually easier to raise enough money to start the enterprise';

- Extract vi, Textbook B South Africa, page 116: ‘It **is** easy to start a partnership as no formal procedures* need to be followed’;
- Extract vii, Textbook B Zimbabwe, page 47-50 also employs *high modality* ‘**is**’ and ‘**are**’; and
- Extract viii, Textbook A South Africa, page 152 uses high modality ‘**are**’.

Through the use of *high modality* ‘**are**’ and ‘**is**’ in these extracts, a strong tone of certainty and authority is used to convey to the reader that starting a business is easy and quick and also inexpensive as very little capital is required. There are also few administrative and legal procedures and, in some cases, no formal procedures need to be followed when starting a business.

The use of high modality in the texts reports the ease, speed and low cost of business formation in a factual tone. There is no trace of doubt or uncertainty regarding this effortless process.

In contrast, it is common cause that a person that wishes to establish a business must comply with lengthy requirements. While not all businesses follow these steps, before trading, the majority need to write a business plan; obtain business assistance and training; select a business location; decide on a profitable product or service; finance the business; register it; register for taxes; obtain the necessary business licenses and permits; open business accounts; recruit employees; find customers, etc. A number of scholars and government departments that promote entrepreneurship attest to this (Hlatshwako, 2012; Siaw & Rani, 2012; Holland & Herrmann, 2013, Lopucki, 2014; Kalane, 2015; Ministry of Industrialisation, Trade and Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) Development Namibia, 2016). Much time and energy are therefore invested in starting any form of business. Regardless of the size of the business, this is not a simple, straightforward process with little paperwork and legal requirements as suggested by extracts i, ii, iii, iv, v, vi, vii and viii, but complicated and costly. Dedication, effort and resources are required to get a business up and running. There will also be hurdles to overcome, making the process of starting a business very challenging. The use of high modality (factual tone), with no trace of uncertainty by the textbooks reinforces the idea that it is easy and inexpensive to start a business.

Even though it is foundational business knowledge, students that are exposed to the above extracts may be led to believe that the formation of a business is not fraught with challenges, but is simple, costs very little and requires minimal effort. They may also believe that no formal administrative or legal procedures need to be met when starting a business venture. Such thinking may extend to their later years. In reality, it is quite a lengthy and expensive process to launch and build a profitable business as various problems and costs are encountered, regardless of how small it is.

Such assertions in the textbooks are unlikely to be challenged (McGregor, 2003). Given that the uncritical young mind takes all knowledge as given, especially that from authoritative sources, the textbook may discourage students from questioning its accuracy. The statements made in extracts i, ii, iii, iv, v, vi, vii and viii are presented as facts and this could influence readers to accept them as true even if they are contested. This oversimplification of the ease of business formation is risky as it can lead to misconceptions on what it actually takes to create a business.

Omission/ lexical absence

Omission is another linguistic feature used by the textbook authors in the construction of the formation of a business. Pertinent information that should have been included in the texts was excluded; this is acknowledged as omission/lexical absence in CDA theory. Missing information in texts conceals reality. The reader is therefore not exposed to the missing information and it is not subjected to their scrutiny (Price, 2005; Huckin, 1997). It is also difficult to critique the text when some information is missing. Furthermore, failing to include all the necessary information offers readers a skewed perspective. The following seven examples from the above extracts provide evidence of omissions/lexical absence, thereby further promoting the ease of business formation discourse.

In extract i, Textbook A South Africa, page 151: **‘The start-up costs of the business are easy and quick. It’s also relatively inexpensive. There are no long forms to be filled in or requirements to meet. Only a trading licence is needed for the business to start trading’;**

In extract ii, Textbook A South Africa, page 154: **‘A close corporation is very easy and inexpensive to form’;**

In extract iii, Textbook A Zimbabwe, page 24: ‘A sole proprietorship is **inexpensive and easy to set up**’ and **very little capital is required for start up investment**’;

In extract iv, Textbook B Namibia, page 36-37: ‘A sole trader is the simplest form of enterprise. This type of enterprise is **inexpensive and easy to establish as there are few legal requirements**’;

In extract v, Textbook B Namibia, page 38: ‘A partnership is owned by more than one person. It is therefore **usually easier to raise money to start the enterprise**’;

In extract vi, Textbook B South Africa, page 116: ‘**It is easy to start a partnership as no formal procedures* need to be followed**’; and

Extract vii, Textbook B Zimbabwe, page 47-50: ‘**Procedures for forming a partnership are easy. There are few formal procedures required and the partnership deed is not a must.**’

The use of omission/lexical absence in the following extracts reproduces the myth that little money is required to establish a business:

i. ‘The start-up costs of the business are **easy and quick. It’s also relatively inexpensive**’ (Textbook A South Africa, page 154).

ii. ‘A close corporation is **very easy and inexpensive to form**’ (Textbook A South Africa, page 154).

iii. ‘A sole proprietorship is **inexpensive and easy to set up and very little capital is required for start up investment**’ (Textbook A Zimbabwe, page 24).

v. ‘A partnership is owned by more than one person. It is therefore **usually easier to raise money to start the enterprise**’ (Textbook B Namibia, page 38).

This is inaccurate. Starting any business can be hard work. It is also expensive and challenging with many costs that need to be considered. Ideally these expenses need to be included in the planning process. Meticulous planning is thus essential when starting a business in order to avoid failure. The textbooks do not discuss the true business start-up process. Rather, misleading language is used.

The textbooks’ use of omission/lexical absence thus provides a distorted picture of the capital required before a business of any size begins to trade. It also presents a distorted representation of the process of raising finance among partners to start a

business. This has been found to pose challenges, regardless of business size. Struggling disadvantaged entrepreneurs and poor access to internal and external sources of financing are examples. The information presented in the textbooks might distort the reality of raising capital in the real world, regardless of whether or not one is in a partnership.

Volatile market conditions could result in high interest rates. Owners of businesses, whether in a partnership or not, that have the necessary collateral security and are in good financial standing may be unable to raise funds due to unfavourable loan terms and rates. The formation of a business is not trouble-free. The authors of these South African, Namibian and Zimbabwean textbooks could thus be seen as influencing readers to think in a particular way by downplaying the reality of business formation as they fail to give due cognisance to all the possible complications that may be experienced in real life.

Further examples of the use of omission/lexical absence can be seen in the following extracts:

Extract iv, from Textbook B Namibia, page 36-37: **‘A sole trader is the simplest form of ownership. This type of enterprise is inexpensive and easy to establish as there are few legal requirements ...’**;

Extract vi, Textbook B South Africa, page 116: **‘It is easy to start a partnership as no formal procedures* need to be followed’**;

Extract vii, Textbook B Zimbabwe, page 50: **‘Procedures for forming a partnership are easy. There are few formal procedures required and the partnership deed is not a must’**; and

Extract i, Textbook A South Africa, page 154: **‘There are no long forms to be filled in or requirements to meet. Only a trading license is needed for the business to start trading’**.

These extracts fail to mention the paperwork and other requirements that have to be taken into consideration before a business begins to trade. A series of steps needs to be followed; for example, there are different types of partnerships, namely, a general partnership, limited partnership or a limited liability partnership. In addition, careful

consideration should be given to the partnership agreement, which details the purpose of the business venture, the tasks and share of each partner, how business decisions will be made, how disputes and buyouts will be handled, and what will happen if a partner withdraws or dies. Furthermore, how will the partnership be governed (by the state or will the partners set their own rules?) and who will hold the legal authority and be able to act on behalf of other partners etc.? (Spadaccini, 2005).

Sole traders also need to fulfil certain requirements. While the business is small and is managed by one person, the owner must comply with health and safety regulations and obtain certain business licences and permits. Some of these are essential for every business, but others are industry specific. Sole traders also need to register for personal tax and value added tax (depending on annual turnover). If the business hires employees, workers will have to pay tax and contribute to the Unemployment Insurance Fund (Finance24, 2013).

By downplaying the complexities involved in establishing a business and providing selective information, Textbooks B Namibia, A and B South Africa and Textbook B Zimbabwe can be accused of suppressing vital information regarding the formation of a partnership and a sole trader. This makes it difficult for students to question what is not properly presented and persuades them to adopt a particular manner of thinking.

The business start-up details presented in the analysed textbooks are thus flawed and somewhat deceiving. Students that are exposed to such omissions in their textbook may not interrogate the text as they view it as factual; they are thus likely to unquestionably absorb it (Romanowski, 1996). It can therefore be concluded that the analysed commerce textbooks are inadequate to impart entrepreneurship knowledge, especially that relating to establishing a business.

Lexical repetition/Overlexicalisation

Lexical repetition/overlexicalisation refers to a profusion of identical words or near synonyms in texts. This points to preoccupation with a particular aspect of reality – which may suggest an underlying ideological struggle (Fairclough, 1989, p. 115). An example of preoccupation with the simplicity of business formation can be seen in extract iv, Textbook B Namibia, page 36-37: ‘A sole trader is the *simplest* form of

business ownership. The enterprise is owned by one person ... Sole traders are often *simple* enterprises that can be managed by one person ... A sole trader is the *simplest* form of ownership. This type of enterprise is inexpensive and *easy* to establish as there are few legal requirements.'

The reoccurrence of words and their synonyms relating to the simplicity of forming a business overemphasises and strengthens the simplicity of forming a sole trader business. This is likely to reinforce the image of an effortless and uncomplicated form of ownership in the minds of students, while downplaying business reality (the many complications that sole trader businesses face on a daily basis). Machin and Mayr (2012, p. 37) state that overemphasis and over-persuasion are evidence that something is problematic or is part of an ideological struggle. In this case, the simplicity of starting a business may be ideologically motivated. Students thus need to be aware of the hidden meanings and messages embedded in lexical repetition.

5.3 Appraisal of the ease of business formation discourse

The use of high modality, omissions/lexical absence and lexical repetition by Textbooks A and B South Africa, A and B Zimbabwe and B Namibia could create the impression among students that establishing a business is effortless, simple, straightforward and unchallenging.

The statements in the textbooks appear to be truthful (few start-up costs, easy, quick and relatively inexpensive) while backgrounding and silencing the darker aspects of business start-up (how difficult, expensive and time consuming it is to launch any type of business, the use of informal loans from family and friends in order to start the business as formal lending institutions are not willing to fund most small businesses, the many hidden costs that come with launching a business, and disagreements between partners). The textbooks create the impression that establishing a business is simple, trouble free and affordable and anyone can do it.

Students are repeatedly exposed to such knowledge in their textbooks, in the classroom and at home while doing schoolwork. The linguistic features used by the authors of Textbooks A and B South Africa, A and B Zimbabwe and B Namibia do not provide a holistic account of the trials and tribulations involved in establishing a

business. The textbooks are thus uncritical when it comes to the formation of a business. They do not mention controversial business information and this is likely to have dire consequences.

5.4 Personal enrichment discourse

The personal enrichment discourse was also brought to light during the analysis of the textbooks. This discourse was identified by the following words: *keep all the profits, entitled to all the profits, profits of the business belong entirely to the trader, the trader has full rights to all profits and profits do not need to be shared with anyone*. The manifestation of the personal enrichment discourse is presented in the extracts below.

- i. “The owner of a sole trader can *keep all **the profits** the company makes. **The profits** do not need to be shared with business partners or anyone because the owner is the only person running the business*” (Textbook A South Africa, page 151).
- ii. “The owner provides the capital and *is entitled to all the profits*” Textbook B South Africa, page 114).
- iii. “The trader *has full rights to all the profits and uses them as he/she wishes*” (Textbook B Zimbabwe, page 47).
- iv. “***Profits of the business belong entirely to the trader***” (Textbook B Zimbabwe, page 48).
- v. “***All the profits belong to the trader***” (Textbook B Namibia, page 37).
- vi. “Sole proprietorships ***do not share their profits with anybody***” (Textbook A Zimbabwe, page 25).

These extracts show that the textbooks authoritatively assert that the owner of a sole trader is entitled to all the profits and that they do not need to be shared with other business stakeholders. This is accomplished through the use of different linguistic

tools, including high modality, foregrounding and ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases. Each is explained below.

High modality

As explained in section 5.2 above, modality indicates certainty or uncertainty. The higher the modality in texts, the greater the certainty while low modality expresses less certainty. The following example shows high modality.

Extract ii, Textbook B South Africa, page 114: ‘The owner provides the capital and *is entitled to all the profits.*’

The use of *high modality* ‘**is**’ signals certainty and presents the statement as factual: *the owner of the business is entitled to all the profits.* This statement reinforces individualism. As such, business owners will only enrich themselves (Ferguson, Collison, Power & Stevenson, 2005; McCafferty, 2010; David, 2012). In addition, the use of high modality by Textbook B South Africa strengthens the neoliberal capitalistic ideology where businesspeople accumulate more profits in their businesses and get richer. Other stakeholders such as employees, customers and the community do not share in the rewards and success.

Foregrounding

Writers sometimes assign textual prominence to certain texts (Huckin, 1997). This is referred to in the CDA literature as foregrounding. The use of foregrounding could result in some ideas being emphasised and others de-emphasised. The following example from the extracts above displays foregrounding.

Extract i, Textbook A South Africa, page 151: ‘The owner of a sole trader can *keep all the profits the company makes. The profits do not need to be shared with business partners or anyone because the owner is the only person running the business.*’

This extract uses *foregrounding* very successfully to highlight ‘*the profits*’ in a business. The authors placed the text at the top of the page where readers will notice it first. Repetition of ‘*the profits*’ in the second sentence of the same paragraph again foregrounds and gives textual prominence to profits. This suggests that sole traders

keep all the profits the business makes. The single bottom line (profit and personal wealth accumulation) is thus promoted in entrepreneurship textbooks. Strong emphasis on profit at the expense of other stakeholders such as employees, customers and the community could, however, encourage unethical business behaviour (Henle, 2006).

South Africa does not only focus on the single bottom line (profits for the business owner or shareholders). The emphasis has shifted to a triple bottom line (which incorporates social and environmental aspects) (See the 1994 King I Report and the latest 2016 King IV Report on corporate governance for South Africa) (Dekker, 2002).

However, this shift in emphasis does not seem to be incorporated in the analysed South African textbooks that still focus on the single bottom line (profit and self-elevation) and do not pay much attention to ethical, social and environmental issues (the triple bottom line). In addition, little space is dedicated to the consequences when profits/wealth maximisation is prioritised. These are evident in business scandals, discussion on which would encourage students to be reflective (Sikka et al., 2007).

‘Taken for granted’ words and phrases

‘Taken for granted’ words and phrases refer to the use of language in a way that takes certain ideas for granted (Huckin, 1997; McGregor, 2003). These ideas may be contestable or even ideological (Machin & Mayr, 2012, p. 137). Readers may not notice or question texts that give the impression of being taken for granted (Huckin, 1997). Extracts iii, iv, v and vi above are examples of ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases.

In extract iii, Textbook B Zimbabwe, page 47, ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases include: **“The trader has full rights to all the profits and uses them as he/she wishes”**;

In extract iv, Textbook B Zimbabwe, page 48, states: **“Profits of the business belong entirely to the trader”**;

In extract v, Textbook B Namibia, page 37 maintains: **“All the profits belong to the trader”**;

Again, in extract vi, Textbook A Zimbabwe, page 25: “Sole proprietorships ***do not share their profits with anybody.***”

Textbooks A Zimbabwe, page 25 and B pages 47 and 48, and Textbook B, Namibia, page 37 successfully employ ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases through their lexical choices: ‘*The trader has full rights to all the profits and uses them as he/she wishes*’; ‘*Profits of the business belong entirely to the trader*’; ‘*All the profits belong to the trader*’ and ‘*Sole proprietorships do not share their profits with anybody.*’ According to Prendergast, Hill and Jones (2017), such statements permit wealthier groups to accumulate wealth without restraint, while employees continue to earn poverty wages. In South Africa, top management, which represents 10% of the workforce, receives half the wage income while lower level workers who make up 50% of employees, receive 12% of all wages. It also takes just over four days for a Chief Executive Officer (CEO) in a well-established garment company to make what an ordinary worker earns in their life time (Oxfam, 2018). The “profit at any cost” mentality is thus deeply entrenched in different businesses, sectors, societies and countries (Henle, 2006).

In the absence of knowledge on collectivism, public well-being and economic justice in the textbooks, students are offered limited knowledge that focuses on individualism and privatisation. This results in avarice being embedded in society and legitimised in textbooks from an early age (Beder, 2009). It could result in students perpetuating these values in their later years.

The neoliberal ideology is disseminated in textbooks despite the inequalities that exist in SADC countries. Because textbooks are viewed as legitimate and authoritative tools, students regard them as truthful and are less likely to be critical of ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases.

5.5 Appraisal of the personal enrichment discourse

The analysis of the contemporary commerce textbooks from South Africa, Namibia and Zimbabwe indicates promotion of the personal enrichment claim. The linguistic features of high modality, foregrounding and ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases encourage neoliberal values, i.e., profits belong exclusively to the business owner.

The analysed texts are silent on profit sharing among employees and employers or even society. Instead, they focus on the further enrichment of business owners. Friedman's theory that the social responsibility of a business is to increase its profits, has been reviewed in light of the fact that an organisation is an integral part of society. It does not exist in its own narrow universe of internal stakeholders and the resources required to create value. Businesses also operate in, and form a central part of communities (Ramalho, 2016, King IV Project Lead in South Africa). However, textbooks give prominence to some pieces of knowledge while other information is disregarded (Sleeter & Grant, 1991).

Textbooks are a common teaching resource in many classrooms around the world. They are therefore trusted sources of knowledge for many students. A textbook deludes students if it fails to provide them with alternative viewpoints to broaden their horizons.

5.6 Economic growth discourse

The economic growth discourse also emerged during the analysis of the textbooks. This discourse was also widespread in the literature reviewed. Numerous studies and other literature link entrepreneurship to growth. In scrutinising the texts, words and phrases that promote the *economic growth discourse* emerged, including: *economy, growth, contribution, wealth* and *progress*. Extracts i, ii and iii below from Textbook A South Africa, Textbook B South Africa and Textbook B Namibia exemplify the economic growth discourse. This discourse did not feature in the Zimbabwean textbooks.

- i. “Entrepreneurs are constantly looking for and adopting new ideas and methods to improve productivity, reduce costs and increase profits. They *are* important because they create economic growth and employment. This contributes to wealth and progress of a country” (Textbook B South Africa, page 85).
- ii. “A small business that gets established *is* a big factor in the South African economy as it *cuts down on unemployment and contributes towards the economy*” (Textbook A South Africa, page 159).

- iii. “*Enterprises make the Namibian economy grow*” (Textbook B Namibia, page 91).

The textbooks thus create the impression that entrepreneurial activity has an impact on economic growth. This is achieved through the use of different linguistic tools, namely, high modality and omission/suppression. The details are provided below.

High modality

As explained in Section 5.2 above, modality refers to the tone of the text, with particular types of words that signify the authors’ degree of certainty or uncertainty (McGregor, 2003). High modality can be seen in extracts i and ii.

Extract i, Textbook B South Africa, page 85 employs *high modality* as follows: “... They **are** important because they create economic growth and employment. This contributes to wealth and progress of a country”.

Extract ii, Textbook A South Africa, page 159 also applies *high modality*: “A small business that gets established **is** a big factor in the South African economy as it cuts down on unemployment and contributes towards the economy.”

In the above extracts, the use of ‘**are**’ and ‘**is**’ denotes certainty that entrepreneurs are of fundamental importance to a country’s economy because they contribute to economic growth and reduce unemployment rates. This could lead readers to be swayed by such ‘facts’, despite the abundance of counter evidence on the association between entrepreneurship and economic growth/employment. Numerous studies in different countries have been unsuccessful in providing convincing evidence to support the claim that entrepreneurship promotes economic growth and creates jobs. Lack of evidence in the form of solid empirical studies or explanations that link entrepreneurship to economic growth and employment in Textbooks A and B South Africa means that students are exposed to biased and inaccurate information.

Omission/ lexical absence

Omission/lexical absence is another linguistic tool used in the textbooks to advance the economic growth claim. Certain information is deliberately excluded in texts. The

student will not notice the absence of such information and it is therefore not subjected to their scrutiny.

An example of omission/ lexical absence can be seen in extract iii Textbook B Namibia, page 91: “*Enterprises make the Namibian economy grow.*” There is no mention of the specific enterprises that contribute to the growth of the Namibian economy. Instead, the textbook uses the general term ‘enterprises’. Students are unlikely to notice this omission and will therefore not interrogate the information in their textbooks. Rather, they will believe that, regardless of the sector and size (survivalist, micro, small, medium and large), enterprises contribute to the growth of the Namibian economy. Empirical evidence gathered from many countries, shows that not all enterprises have an impact on economic growth. This is usually restricted to HGFs and even in such cases the relationship is inconclusive.

5.7 Appraisal of the economic growth discourse

The above analysis shows evidence of the economic growth discourse in the written text in Textbooks A and B South Africa and B Namibia. This is achieved through the use of the linguistic tools of high modality and omission. These tools reinforce the widely held claim that entrepreneurs create economic growth. Little attention is paid to the rate of growth that is likely to be or has been created, or the sectors that are likely to do so. Moreover, the existing evidence which indeed links entrepreneurship to economic growth in both the South African and Namibian contexts is not cited. The fact that a large number of studies in different countries have not found strong evidence on the relationship between economic growth and entrepreneurship is also omitted. These textbooks thus provide an overly optimistic picture of the association between entrepreneurship and economic growth. Students may not have the critical skills to question this portrayal. Moreover, they regard textbooks as factual, accurate and objective and do not question or substitute the knowledge in texts. They may thus internalise the information presented therein.

5.8 Job creation discourse

The job creation discourse is also very evident in the textbooks. Examples of this discourse can be seen in the following excerpts from Textbook A Zimbabwe, Textbook A South Africa and Textbook A Namibia.

- i. ***“Businesses create employment for many people”*** (Textbook A Zimbabwe, page 39).
- ii. ***“Sustainable job creation”*** (Textbook A South Africa, page 158).
- iv. “When sole traders start their own businesses, ***they create jobs***. First of all, they create jobs for themselves and then for all the people they hire to work for them ... This is important in South Africa because there ***are*** millions of unemployed people. If more people start their own business, there ***will*** be more work available and therefore less unemployment” (Textbook A South Africa, page 158).
- v. “When a new partnership is formed, ***several jobs are created***” (Textbook A South Africa, page 158).
- vi. “The more businesses there are in a community and a country, ***the more employment opportunities there will be***. This means that ***more people will be employed and the unemployment rate of the country will be much lower***” (Textbook A Namibia, page 43).
- vii. “Your business ***will*** also ***offer employment opportunities*** to the rest of your family, ***reducing the chance that they will be unemployed and poor***” (Textbook A Namibia, page 44).

The use of different linguistic tools, namely, omission/lexical absence, topicalisation, high modality and ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases implies that various types of entrepreneurial ventures result in job creation. Each is explained below.

Omission/lexical absence

As explained in Section 5.2 above, omission/lexical absence refers to the exclusion of information in texts. When writers omit certain information from texts, it often does not enter the reader’s mind and is therefore not subjected to their scrutiny (Huckin, 1997). Van Leeuwen (1996, p. 38) notes that, some omissions may be ‘innocent’, as the reader is assumed to already be in possession of such information, or omitted

information is considered irrelevant and not significant to the reader. However, other omissions are part of a strategy to promote certain values and ideals. Extract i below is an example of omission.

Extract i: “***Businesses create employment for many people***” (Textbook A Zimbabwe, page 39).

The authors omit crucial evidence regarding the type of businesses that create employment. There are different types of business ventures and each makes a different contribution to job creation. The actual number of jobs created by various types of businesses is also not mentioned, nor is it recorded when this took place. Moreover, the demographic details (race, gender, age) of those who were employed are left out. The omitted information deprives students as it fails to provide them with complete information on the job creation process. Thus, readers may be made to believe that various enterprises in Zimbabwe employ many people.

Topicalisation

Topicalisation is another linguistic tool used by the textbooks to further the job creation discourse. This is a kind of foregrounding that is applied at the sentence level. It signifies importance and influences viewers (Huckin, 1997). Extract ii below from Textbook A South Africa, page 158 is an example of topicalisation:

Extract ii: “***Sustainable job creation***”

In this extract, *topicalisation* gives textual prominence to the statement ‘*Sustainable job creation*’ by making it a heading with a bold, larger font and placing it at the top of the page where the students are likely to notice it first. The use of the term *sustainable* leads the reader to believe that the jobs created by businesses in South Africa are long-term, permanent, quality jobs.

High modality

High modality involves using words that express a high degree of certainty. The words ‘*are*’ and ‘*will*’ in extracts iii, iv, v and vi below from Textbooks A South Africa and A Namibia are examples of high modality:

Extract iii: “When sole traders start their own business, they create jobs ... This is important ... because there are millions of unemployed people. If more people start their own business, there *will* be more work available and therefore less unemployment”;

Extract iv: “When a new partnership is formed, several jobs *are* created”;

Extract v: “The more businesses there are in a community and a country, the more employment opportunities there *will* be. This means that more people *will* be employed and the unemployment rate of the country *will* be much lower;” and

Extract vi: “Your business *will* also offer employment opportunities to the rest of your family, reducing the chance that they *will* be unemployed and poor.”

The sentences presented above appear factual. There is no suggestion of uncertainty. These ‘facts’ may lead the reader to believe that, regardless of their size, all businesses create large numbers of jobs. This is cause for concern. While the literature and the textbooks acknowledge that businesses play a significant role in job creation, a number of studies have found opposing evidence regarding necessity small businesses such as sole traders (see extract iii) and job creation (See the literature review in Chapter two). The same is true of HGFs and larger businesses. There is no categorical evidence on the type of businesses that create jobs in many countries. Nonetheless, the selected textbooks state with certainty that all types of businesses (small, medium, HGFs and large) create jobs and reality is concealed.

‘Taken for granted’ words and phrases

Extracts iii and vi below are instances where the textbooks utilise ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases when constructing the job creation discourse.

Extract iii: “*When sole traders start their own business, they create jobs ...*”

Extract vi: “*Your business will also offer employment opportunities to the rest of your family ...*”

The lexical choice in Textbook A South Africa: “*When sole traders start their own business, they create jobs ...*” leads readers to believe that when a sole trader establishes a business in South Africa, job creation is guaranteed. Readers may accept

this statement because a factual tone is used, even though the statement is debatable, because sole traders rarely create employment. There is limited empirical evidence that shows that survivalist, small businesses create meaningful jobs (von Broembsen, 2010). The only employment they create is usually for themselves. The unemployment rate has increased in South Africa and other African countries despite the large number of small businesses established. In many instances, where sole traders have provided employment, both employer and employees are poorly paid. It is also estimated that only 3% of employees that are employed in small informal businesses are paid. These facts are not reported in the textbooks; instead, they emphasise the job creation capabilities of sole traders.

Textbook authors thus need to be cognisant of the current employment statistics across businesses. Otherwise, they run the risk of creating a false consciousness of small businesses and their impact on job creation and limit students' understanding of entrepreneurship.

The lexical choice '*Your business will also offer employment opportunities to the rest of your family*' in Textbook A Namibia, page 44 further reinforces strong certainty in the mind of the reader that establishing a small business will create jobs for family members. This is based on the naïve assumption that family members' existing skills will suit the needs of the type of business that the reader (student) may start in the future. It also suggests that entrepreneurs should employ anyone, regardless of their skills set. Finally, the statement implies that, when starting a business, first priority should be given to family members, whether skilled or unskilled.

It is, however, critical for students to be aware that merit is very important in business. Thus, family members should not be privileged and anyone with the required skills and abilities should be treated fairly in the employment process. This needs to be reflected in the textbooks.

5.9 Appraisal of the job creation discourse

Textbooks A South Africa, A Namibia and A Zimbabwe present entrepreneurship as central to job creation. The linguistic features of omission/suppression, topicalisation,

high modality and ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases provide support that every business, regardless of size, will create jobs. This is notwithstanding the mixed statistical evidence on the relationship between entrepreneurship and job creation. Apparently HGFs create a large share of new net jobs (Henrekson & Johansson, 2010). On the other hand, small businesses are viewed as the engine of job creation in different economies (National Development Plan of South Africa, 2013; SEDA, 2016a and b; The Small Business Administration, 2016).

Despite this evidence, the selected textbooks create the impression that various types of businesses (necessity, small, medium, HGFs and large, formal and informal) are an important source of job creation. The mixed empirical evidence alluded to above, is not mentioned, nor is the fact that businesses (various types, first or second economy) are unable to absorb many job seekers, especially the youth, despite them having tertiary qualifications and the necessary skills. In addition, small businesses are inherently volatile and there is a high exit rate. They thus contribute less to job creation (Haltiwanger et al., 2013). In contrast to the claims made in the textbooks and in many policies, unemployment continues to rise in the SADC region as well as other regions.

5.10 A solution to poverty discourse

The textbooks also embodied the solution to poverty discourse that came to the fore when analysing them. The following words and phrases emerged: *poverty reduction*, *earning money*, *income generation* and *satisfaction of basic needs*. This discourse was mainly evident in the Namibian textbooks.

- i. “Poverty in the country and in your household *will* be reduced, because *you will* be earning money from your business enterprise” (Textbook A Namibia, page 44).
- ii. “**Importance of the enterprise to the entrepreneur:** Enterprises *are* important to entrepreneurs as it helps them to: **Reduce poverty:** the enterprise *generates an income which reduces the poverty of the entrepreneur*. The owner can afford to *satisfy his or her needs*, such as for food, shelter and clothing” (Textbook B Namibia, page 28).

- iii. **“Importance of the enterprise to the entrepreneur’s family:** Enterprises are not only important to the entrepreneurs themselves, but also to their family. The following points illustrate how important the enterprise is to the entrepreneur’s family: **Reduce poverty**, *enables family members to satisfy their basic needs*” (Textbook B Namibia, page 28).

The linguistic strategies employed to further this discourse include high modality and topicalisation. An explanation of each is given below.

High modality

An example of high modality can be seen in extract i below:

Extract i: “Poverty in the country and in your household **will** be reduced, because **you will** be earning money from your business enterprise.”

The use of high modality ‘*will*’ indicates certainty and confidence that poverty in Namibia as well as households will decrease if students establish business enterprises. This is presented in a factual tone. However, not all businesses are successful and generate lots of profit. A large number of businesses, especially small and medium businesses in Namibia have very high failure rates (Mukata & Swanepoel, 2017) while some engage in low profit informal businesses. The notion presented in the textbooks that businesses have a positive impact on poverty reduction may not hold. While statistics show that Namibia enjoys high levels of entrepreneurial activity, poverty remains a common feature in Namibian societies (National Planning Commission, no date; Schmidt, 2009; Mukata & Swanepoel, 2017). The establishment of entrepreneurial ventures has therefore not led to a decline in poverty levels.

The information presented in these textbooks on entrepreneurship and poverty reduction is misleading. However, given that they adopt a tone of certainty and authority, students may not challenge the text and they will thus absorb this ‘questionable’ knowledge.

Topicalisation

Topicalisation is also used to further the solution to poverty discourse. The following two examples from extracts ii and iii above show the use of topicalisation in Textbook B Namibia, page 28:

“Importance of the enterprise to the entrepreneur: Enterprises are important to entrepreneurs as it helps them to: **Reduce poverty:** the enterprise generates an income which reduces the poverty of the entrepreneur. The owner can afford to satisfy his or her needs, such as for food, shelter and clothing’; and

“Importance of the enterprise to the entrepreneur’s family: Enterprises are not only important to the entrepreneurs themselves, but also to their family. The following points illustrate how important the enterprise is to the entrepreneur’s family: **Reduce poverty**, enables family members to satisfy their basic needs.”

The use of *topicalisation* (a larger bold font and different colour text) by Textbook B Namibia signals relevance and importance. This creates a slant that influences the reader’s perception (McGregor, 2003). The information that is given priority and prominence in this textbook focuses on the desirable aspects of entrepreneurship, namely, ‘*income generation*’, ‘*poverty reduction*’ and ‘*satisfaction of needs*’. The less desirable aspects such as possible inability to generate profits, hardship and even failure (Spicer, 2012) that many entrepreneurs experience are de-emphasised and not given textual prominence.

5.11 Appraisal of the solution to poverty discourse

The Namibian texts assert that entrepreneurship is a solution to poverty. This can be seen through the authors’ use of high modality and topicalisation. The use of these linguistic features implies importance and certainty. It also strengthens the notion that anybody (including students) can start a business and alleviate poverty. However, no factual evidence is presented to show that entrepreneurship has alleviated poverty in particular areas in Namibia. Indeed, the textbooks are completely silent when it comes to providing examples of places where it has done so. They also ignore the fact that despite high levels of entrepreneurial activity and rapid economic growth, poverty is still widespread in Namibia and the rest of Africa (Dulani, Mattes & Logan, 2013;

Republic of Namibia, National Planning Commission, 2015; Mukata & Swanepoel, 2015) and that many people in Namibia and the SADC region live below the poverty line.

5.12 Improvement in the standard of living discourse

The improvement in the standard of living discourse was only found in Textbooks A and B Namibia and A Zimbabwe and was identifiable through phrases such as *increase in living standards, more money available, satisfaction of needs and wants and affordability of goods and services*. Examples are presented below.

- i. “When you start to earn income, you **will** increase your living standards, because you **will have more money available** to buy good things for your family” (Textbook A Namibia, page 44).
- ii. “**Importance of the enterprise to the entrepreneur:** Enterprises **are** important to entrepreneurs as it helps them to ... **Increase the living standard:** through income generation the owner satisfies their needs and wants” (Textbook B Namibia, page 28).
- iii. “**Importance of the enterprise to the entrepreneur’s family:** Enterprises **are** not only important to the entrepreneurs themselves, but also to their family. The following points illustrate how important the enterprise is to the entrepreneur’s family: **Increase the standard of living:** earning income gives the entrepreneur’s family an opportunity to afford goods and services that they could not afford before” (Textbook B Namibia, page 28).

The linguistic tools of high modality and topicalisation are used to strengthen this discourse.

High modality

Examples of high modality can be seen in extracts i and ii:

- i. “When you start to earn income, *you will* increase your living standards, because you *will* have more money available to buy good things for your family”; and
- ii. “Enterprises *are* important to entrepreneurs as it helps them to ... *Increase the living standard*: through income generation the owner satisfies their needs and wants.”

High modality ‘*will*’ and ‘*are*’ convey authority that entrepreneurship will lead to an improved standard of living. This discourse is presented in a factual tone (McGregor, 2003). Students may then believe that, even while they are still at school, if they start their own entrepreneurial ventures, they will be able to improve their standard of living, that of their families and even of society. The high modality in the text is very powerful. It is thus very important that both teachers and students acquire the critical skills required to challenge the long revered curricular assumptions hidden in language and entrepreneurship texts (Hinchey, 2004), which are then accepted as common sense, as they are unlikely to be noticed by the ordinary reader that is not equipped with the necessary skills to unearth the ideological assumptions embedded in texts.

Topicalisation

Topicalisation denotes the positioning or location of words in larger font and a strategic position, usually at the beginning of a sentence, in order to give them prominence. The topic often continues as a sentence topic that is used to further reinforce the topic (Huckin, 1997). An example of topicalisation can be seen in extracts ii and iii below:

- ii. **“Importance of the enterprise to the entrepreneur:** Enterprises *are* important to entrepreneurs as it helps them to ... *Increase the living standard*: through income generation the owner satisfies their needs and wants”; and
- iii. **“Importance of the enterprise to the entrepreneur’s family:** Enterprises *are* not only important to the entrepreneurs themselves, but also to their family. The following points illustrate how important the enterprise is to the entrepreneur’s family: *Increase the standard of living*: earning income gives

the entrepreneur's family an opportunity to afford goods and services that they could not afford before.”

Using topicalisation (brightly coloured and a bold, larger font) as seen in extracts ii and iii, Textbook B Namibia foregrounds the information presented. This creates a perspective that may go on to affect readers' perceptions (McGregor, 2003) to accept that *'enterprises are important to the entrepreneur as well as the entrepreneur's family'*. The linguistic choice of *'importance'* could further persuade the reader to believe that the information that follows is significant. The message conveyed is that entrepreneurs and their family members earn an income from entrepreneurial activities and are then able to afford goods and services which, in turn, improves their standard of living.

5.13 Appraisal of the improvement in the standard of living discourse

The above textual analysis shows that the improvement in the standard of living discourse is clearly portrayed in Textbooks A and B Namibia and A Zimbabwe. These textbooks confidently assert that entrepreneurship improves the standard of living. Words with a trace of uncertainty are absent. Instead, the extracts present as a 'fact' that entrepreneurship improves the standard of living. However, evidence suggests that not all entrepreneurial ventures improve the standard of living (This is discussed in more detail in the discussion chapter).

5.14 Effortless globalisation discourse

Critical analysis of the texts and case studies also revealed evidence of an uncomplicated and romanticised globalisation.

The examples below show that the Zimbabwean and South African textbooks pay superficial attention to the realities of globalisation:

- i. The first evidence of the effortless globalisation discourse can be seen in Passage one, Textbook B South Africa, page 88 below:

Passage one

Key concepts:

International markets – In today's world many goods and services are bought and sold from one country to another, creating large international markets. When South Africa buys products from other countries it is buying on the international market.

Examples from the text include:

- iii. “*By engaging in trade and exchange, people obtain a large variety of goods and services.* This improves people’s standard of living” (Textbook A Zimbabwe, page 16);
- iv. “Trade *helps to improve society’s standard of living* by providing a wide variety of goods to satisfy consumer’s needs ... Furthermore it *creates employment for many people*” (Textbook A Zimbabwe, page 17); and
- v. “*Export trade creates employment opportunities in the home country leading to the country’s economic development*” (Textbook Zimbabwe B, page 62).

These extracts paint an uncomplicated picture of globalisation. The linguistic features of topicalisation and ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases further entrench this representation.

Topicalisation

An example of topicalisation can be seen in extract i.

Extract i: ‘**Key concepts**’ (Textbook B South Africa, page 88, Passage one).

The use of topicalisation (pink, large print) emphasises the term **‘Key concepts’**. Its placement, and different font, size and colour suggest that this is an important topic. Furthermore, it could influence how readers view international markets and lead them to believe that South Africa can access many goods and services when venturing into global markets. Consequently, a superficial picture of globalisation is presented. The negative aspects, for example, currency volatility, are completely ignored. Moreover, concerns relating to the destabilisation of small and medium size business if they are not flexible to the changes that might occur due to participation in global markets (Lewis-Ambrose, 2009), are overlooked. Textbook B South Africa, page 88, camouflages the globalisation process. One-sided, limited details are given to students.

‘Taken for granted’ words and phrases

The following examples from the extracts above show the occurrence of ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases.

Extract ii: ***“By engaging in trade and exchange, people obtain a large variety of goods and services.*** This improves people’s standard of living”;

Extract iii: “Trade ***helps to improve society’s standard of living*** by providing a wide variety of goods to satisfy consumer’s needs ... Furthermore it ***creates employment for many people***”; and

Extract iv: ***“Export trade creates employment opportunities in the home country leading to the country’s economic development.”***

This use of these ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases may lead the reader to believe that when people engage in international trade, they acquire various goods and services from many countries. It also suggests that export trade creates many employment opportunities in the exporting country. By implication, this will improve the standard of living and the overall economy. The World Bank and IMF are also of the opinion that when businesses operate at a global scale, they benefit from access to a wider variety of goods and services, better jobs, increased profits and an improved overall standard of living for employers and employees (The World Bank, 2002; IMF, 2008). This suggests that it is necessary to globalise businesses. While these statements are taken for granted, they are extremely one-sided and contestable, as

they ignore the pitfalls of globalisation identified in the literature, such as the impact on employees and communities in both importing and exporting countries; surplus production; growing trade deficits; corruption; unequal distribution of the benefits of globalisation; institutional weaknesses (a lack of institutions to oversee the globalisation process and the fact that the global governance structure is not well organised) and increased inequality and poverty in some countries, amongst other shortcomings (Griffin, 2003; David, 2012). Students might not question such statements simply because they appear in textbooks, the credible source of knowledge in classrooms.

5.15 Appraisal of the effortless globalisation discourse

Three of the textbooks from the sample showed evidence of the effortless globalisation discourse, by stating that trading on both local and global markets improves standards of living and promotes economic development. The positive side of globalisation is highlighted while there is complete silence on its negative consequences (for example, some economies in sub-Saharan Africa amongst others, have not been able to reap the full benefits of the international trade regime). As noted in the literature review in Chapter Two, numerous studies have brought this to light. Given that the textbooks fail to provide a frank discussion on all facets of global trade, students are not presented with a realistic depiction of this phenomenon.

5.16 Summary of Chapter Five

This chapter described the discourses that emerged from the textual analysis of the selected contemporary commerce textbooks in South Africa, Namibia and Zimbabwe. Seven discourses emerged from the analysis, namely, *ease of business formation*, *personal enrichment*, *economic growth*, *job creation*, *solution to poverty*, *improvement in the standard of living* and *effortless globalisation*.

These discourses are cause for concern because the more students draw on them, intentionally or naively, the more entrenched and powerful they may become (Ahl & Nelson, 2015). In order to broaden students' business knowledge and develop their critical thinking, there is a need to include knowledge that reflects the reality of entrepreneurship. Various viewpoints should also be included.

The textbook is an authoritative tool to impart knowledge in classrooms and students take the knowledge presented in their textbooks as truthful and legitimate. Educators and students thus need to be equipped with the critical skills required to contest the claims deeply embedded in commerce textbooks.

Having described the textual analysis and the first seven discourses that emerged from the entrepreneurship dialogues, reading passages, exercises and activities in this chapter, in the next chapter I describe the entrepreneurship case studies, illustrations, images and supporting texts from the contemporary commerce textbooks.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS PART TWO

6.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the second part of the findings and analysis, the analysis of the visuals. As indicated in the discussion on the methodology, visuals are used as a strategic technique by writers as an aid in explaining meaning. However, some images reinforce specific ideologies. Therefore what we view in textbooks should not be assumed to be neutral images and texts rather they can be viewed as bearing hidden meanings. These are usually reflective of cultures where the images emerge from (Sassatelli, 2011).

The gendered discourses which emerged in the analysis of the visuals are *foregrounding of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers; stereotyping of gender roles and women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy*. Fairclough's (1989; 2001) CDA framework and the instrument for analysing visuals established by Nene (2014) assisted greatly in revealing the hidden meanings of gender embedded in the case studies, illustrations, images and supporting texts in the selected contemporary commerce textbooks.

The first discourse that this chapter describes is *'the foregrounding of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers.'* This discourse was uncovered in the textbooks after a count of all the male and female entrepreneurship images and how they are represented in the texts. The reading passages, case studies, illustrations, images and supporting texts revealed that males are foregrounded and linked to entrepreneurship, management and leadership. This is a recurring pattern in all the analysed textbooks. When the phenomenon entrepreneurship is introduced, it is linked to men. Some women are depicted as successful entrepreneurs, leaders and managers but are found in the later pages in the Textbooks. Males on the other hand are used as first examples of entrepreneurs and receive prominence (with the exception of Textbook A South Africa, page 6, 7 and 12 women were used as examples. The following illustrations from the textbooks show men as exemplary businessmen, leaders and managers.

6.2 Foregrounding of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers discourse

The results show that there is an almost equal representation of males and females in the textbooks. The number of male and female entrepreneurs, leaders and managers from the case studies, illustrations, images and supporting texts of each analysed textbook is indicated in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1 Occurrence of male and female figures as entrepreneurs, leaders and managers

Textbook	Male occurrence	Female occurrence
A South Africa	18	19
B South Africa	2	2
A Namibia	14	12
B Namibia	18	13
A Zimbabwe	7	2
B Zimbabwe	0	0
Total	60	47

Based on the results of Table 6.1, one can immediately deduce that the occurrence of male and female entrepreneurs in the South African textbooks is close to being equal. Women were found to outnumber men in Textbook A South Africa, but by a very small number. The difference in Namibia and Zimbabwe is also not that noteworthy. However, closer scrutiny of this ‘illusion of equity’ (both genders are presented equally and in diverse roles) (Zittleman & Sadker, 2003) reveals that women are backgrounded and not given prominence in the texts and bias persists. Evidence of this can be seen in Textbook A Namibia, pages 13, 17, 39, 73, to name a but a few. Successful businesswomen are only found on later pages in textbooks as opposed to the men that are foregrounded and mentioned at the very beginning of the textbooks when the concept of entrepreneurship is introduced to students (Textbook A Namibia, Pages 2, 6, etc., Textbook B Namibia, Pages 1, 2, 3, 4, etc.). In Textbook B South Africa men were also used as first examples of entrepreneurs. But due to scant images

in the textbooks, these images of males were only found on page 34 but they remained first examples of entrepreneurs.

There are therefore only a few examples of women who are foregrounded and depicted as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers but an abundance of examples of men (Evidence of this will be revealed throughout this chapter). Moreover, the women that are portrayed are mostly limited to philanthropic and smaller business ventures that lack innovation. Their businesses are often partnerships and typical 'pink collar' enterprises (Tailoring, baking, hairdressing). In other cases, they are depicted as needing business support, suggesting that they are not coping.

Compared to the one South African and the Namibian textbooks, it should be noted that in Textbook B South Africa and Textbook A Zimbabwe there were few explicit illustrations depicting females and males as entrepreneurs. On the other hand, Textbook B Zimbabwe contains no images of male and female entrepreneurs. In Textbook A Zimbabwe, the few images identified were mostly male sketches/illustrations in black and white. Other images in this textbook were unclear and difficult to make out. Unclear images were excluded from the analysis. Compared to Textbooks from South Africa and Namibia. These contain high quality images. In all the textbooks where images were identified, some images were ambiguous, I was therefore unable to determine whether a male or female figure was depicted and in what role. These images were not counted.

Some of the representations that arose of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers in the case studies, illustrations, images and supporting texts are examined in the following section. Males were depicted as exemplary successful real life entrepreneurs. They also had leadership and management qualities. In other representations, male graphical fictitious examples were used. The total 60 different representations of males as shown in Table 6.1 above will not be discussed. This is to eliminate repetition. Only explicit images where males are depicted as exemplary and prominent figures in entrepreneurial ventures are examined.

- i. The first example of the forerounding of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers is evident in Textbook A South Africa, page 169, Image

one (The caption states that the male who is in a standing position is a manager).

Image one



Image one depicts a formally dressed male manager in a standing position engaging with what can be taken to be his employees who are seated. He appears as friendly (smiling), confident, and in control of the people surrounding him. Those seated appear focused to what the male manager is saying. The male figure is foregrounded and is therefore very prominent in the textbook.

Based on the analysis of Image one, it can be inferred that men are befitting of management positions. They are also the norm in management. While such gender bias could be unintended and simply a hypothetical example that the author has used, it could however have negative consequences, as students may internalise these images of men as good examples of managers. The bias could also perpetuate male supremacy in the business world if more examples similar to image one are found in textbooks (David, 2012; Al-Jumiah, 2016).

- ii. In Textbook A South Africa, on page 174, Image two, males are also portrayed as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers.

Image two



Image two depicts a male as a good manager who consults employees and is open to new business ideas (As seen in the caption). Although his back is to the viewer, he still occupies a prominent position in the image as he is depicted as larger and is in the foreground, while the others in the picture can be taken to be employees.

The male in the role of a good manager is also smartly dressed with a collared shirt, while the employees are less formally dressed. He appears to be taking notes on the topic being discussed in the conversation. He is thus given authority and prominence by the textbook. This image might further reinforce males as the standard in management. The textbook thus obscures the role of women in management.

Such an image is likely to influence students that males are the ideal managers in entrepreneurial ventures. Students that are constantly exposed to textbooks that portray management with male figures might be led to believe that only the male gender can assume management positions, especially if their educators ignore the gendered suppositions in textbooks and do not rectify them (Kizilaslan, 2010). It could also lead to a reluctant attitude from females towards management because management continues to be attributed with male characters (Achtenhagen & Welter, 2011).

- iii. Textbook A Namibia, pages 6, 15, 34, 58, 88, 157 also reinforces males as exemplary entrepreneurs, managers and leaders. See Images three, four, five, six, seven, eight and nine below.

Image three



Image four



Image five

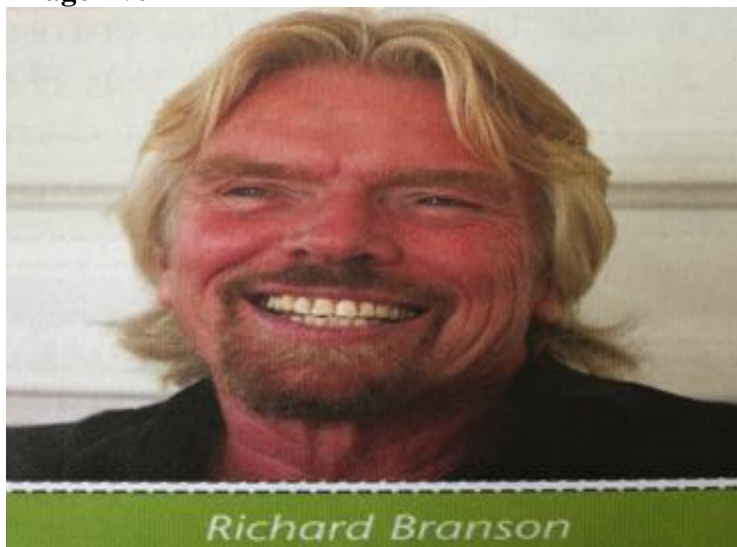


Image six



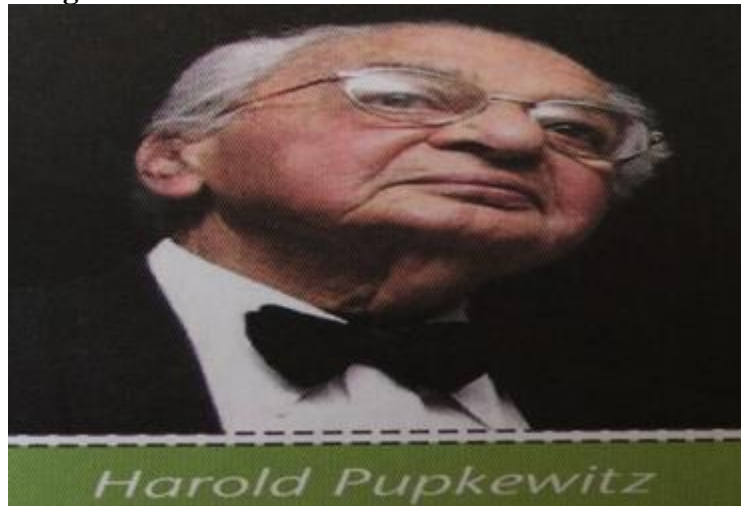
Image seven



Image eight



Image nine



Images three to nine above show seven successful male entrepreneurs, namely, Bill Gates, Dr Leake Hangala, Richard Branson, Quinton van Rooyen, Aupa Frans Indongo, Martin Shipanga and Harold Pupkewitz. These men are entrepreneurial giants and household names in their countries and across the globe. They operate successful businesses and some of the owners are listed among the world's wealthiest people according to the Forbes list of Billionaires and Bloomberg's Billionaire Index. The supporting text next to the images further reinforces this. For example, in Textbook A Namibia, page 6, the supporting text next to Bill Gates' image reads: "Bill Gates is known as an IT architect, an outstanding communicator and an *icon* of the 'economic entrepreneur'". Again, in Textbook A Namibia, on page 15, next to Richard Branson's picture, the supporting text reads: "What does a **successful entrepreneur** like Richard Branson say about the qualities of being an entrepreneur?". Martin Shipanga's picture is accompanied by the text: "What does the **successful owner and founder** of Moola Mobile and Mama Fresh Supermarkets, Martin Shipanga say about handling a business?" (emphasis added). Furthermore, the text next to Quinton van Rooyen's picture states: "What does the **successful entrepreneur** and businessman, Quinton van Rooyen say about business?" (emphasis added).

These images associate entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs with powerful and successful males. This challenges the many efforts that have sought to present entrepreneurship as inclusive of both genders. It disseminates a sexist ideology that all male businesses are successful and well run. Moreover, the depiction of these famous

and successful male entrepreneurs as exemplary entrepreneurs in textbooks suggests that the standard entrepreneur is male and successful. Even though women are involved in different economic activities in SADC countries, they are backgrounded in the textbooks and only found on later pages. When the authors of Textbooks A and B Namibia introduce entrepreneurship, focusing on its origins, definition and different areas of entrepreneurship, they only use images of males (Bill Gates, Dr Leake Hangala and graphical male fictitious representations) as examples of an entrepreneur. Entrepreneurship continues to be persistently male (Nicolson & Anderson, 2005) as a higher value is placed on successful and powerful males.

- iv. A look into Textbook A Namibia, page 100 (Image ten) and Textbook B Namibia, pages 1, 2, 4, 60, 63, 86 and 96 (Illustrations one, two, three, four, five, six and seven) offers more illustrations of the foregrounding of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers.

Image ten

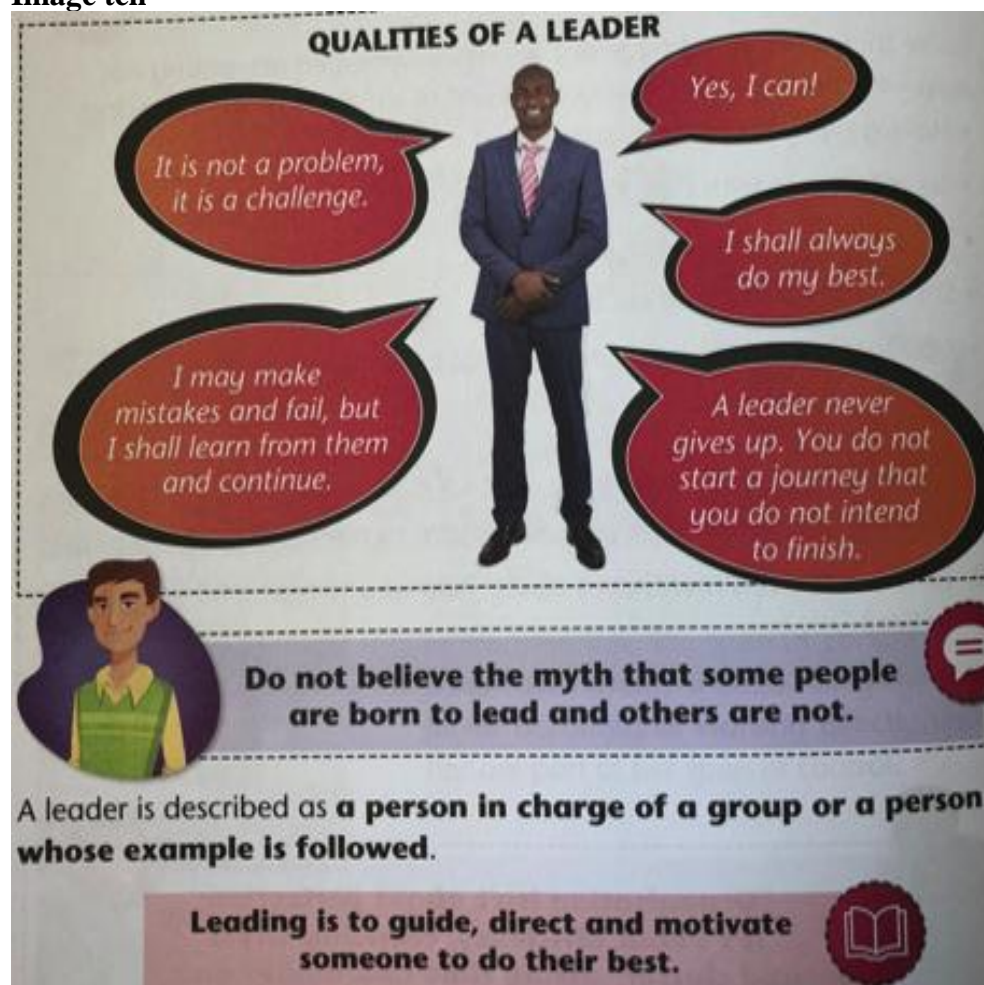


Illustration one

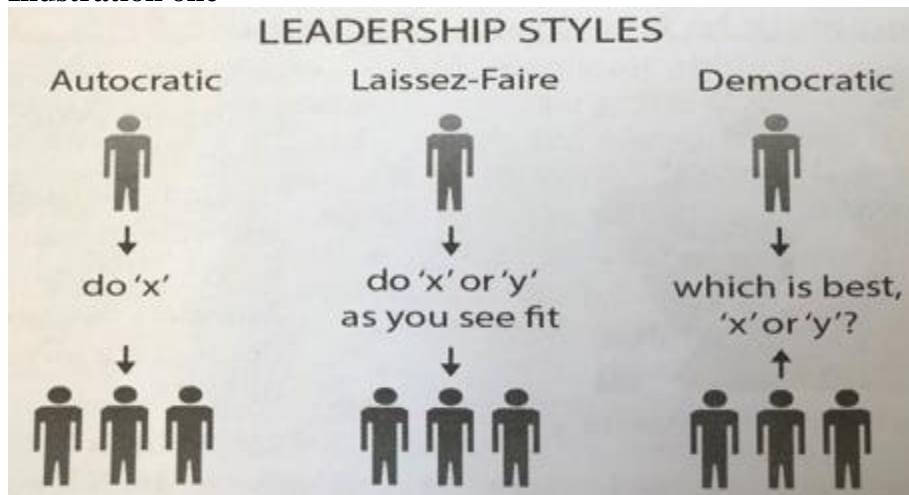


Illustration two

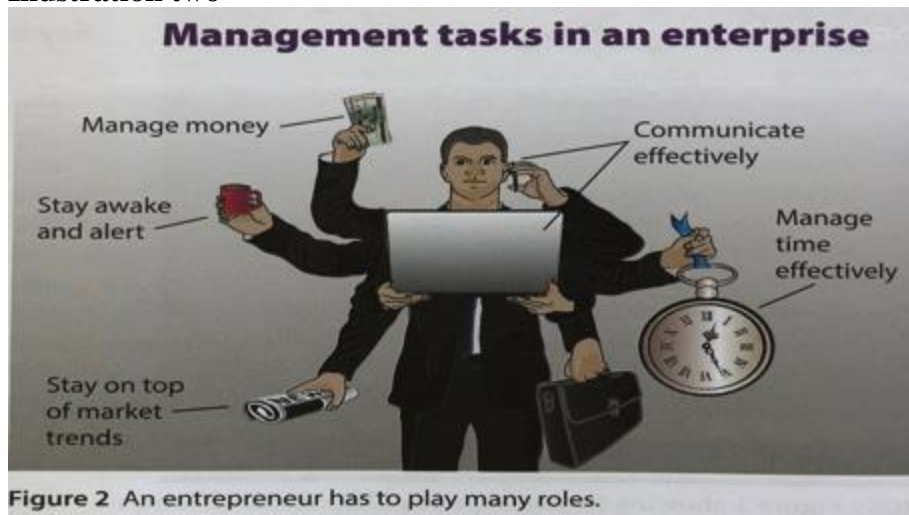


Illustration three

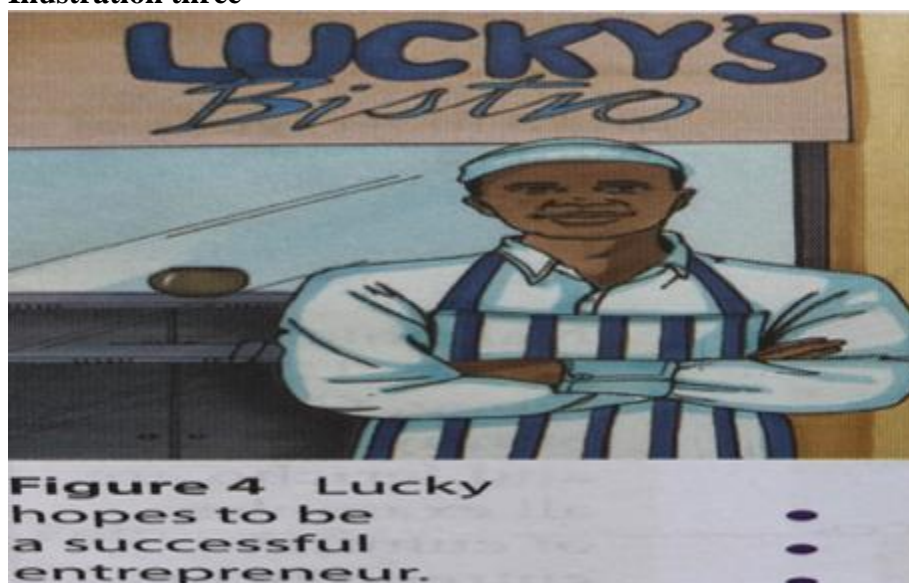


Illustration four

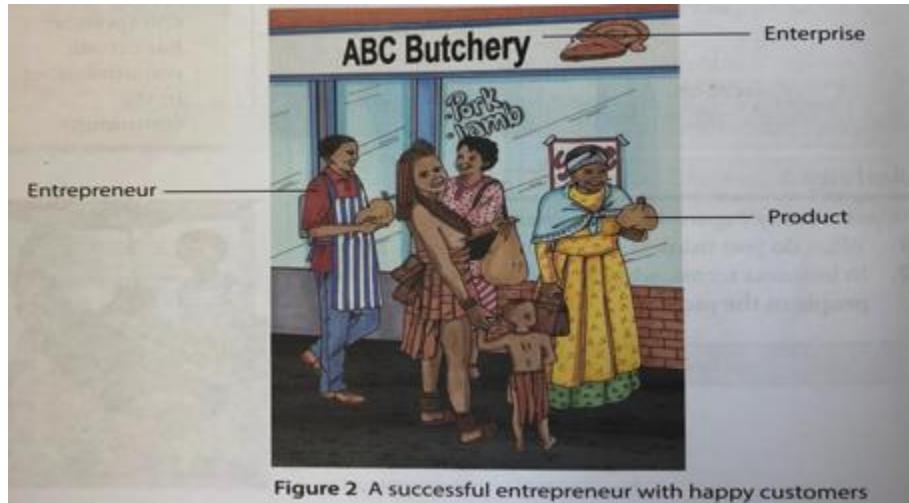


Illustration five



Illustration six

Activity 1

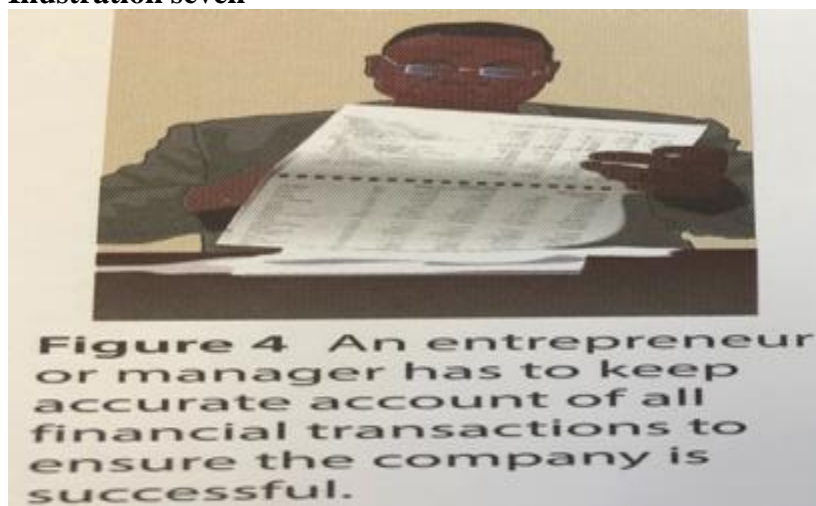
In pairs, study Figure 1, and answer the questions.

1. What do you think is happening in this picture?
2. In business terms, what would you call the two people in the picture?

The illustration shows a man in a blue shirt and a woman in a pink dress standing behind a vegetable stand. The man is handing a green vegetable to the woman, who is holding a basket. The stand is filled with various vegetables like carrots and leafy greens.

Figure 1 An entrepreneur running his vegetable-selling enterprise.

Illustration seven



The above image and illustrations display male figures as leaders and successful entrepreneurs (as seen in the captions and text descriptions). On the other hand, women are shown as customers buying goods from the successful businesses run by men. This is reflected in Illustrations four and six. However, when the texts define an entrepreneur or a leader, they use gender-inclusive language. For example, Textbook A Namibia, page 5 defines an entrepreneur as “A **person** who is skilled to see new opportunities and has the willingness and the ability to take calculated risks to turn these opportunities into a successful business enterprise” (emphasis added). On page 100 of the same textbook, a leader is defined as “A **person** in charge of a group or person whose example is followed” (emphasis added).

Textbook B Namibia, page 2 also uses gender-inclusive language to define an entrepreneur: “An entrepreneur is a **person** who uses an idea to start and run an enterprise in the hopes of making a profit ...” (emphasis added). On page 83 of this textbook, a leader is defined in a gender-neutral way: “A leader is **someone** who gives passion and direction to a group of people” (emphasis added).

While the definitions of an entrepreneur and leader appear to be gender inclusive, the authors foregrounded male entrepreneurs (Textbook A from Namibia uses a picture of Bill Gates and an influential businessman from Namibia, Dr Leake Hangala, See page 6). Textbook B from Namibia, pages 1-2 uses male graphical representations of entrepreneurs as well as males as examples of leaders (Mohandas Gandhi and Nelson Mandela) (See Textbook B from Namibia, pages 84-85 and Appendix one).

According to Pillay (2017), this reflects veiled neutrality as the textbooks initially define entrepreneurship and leadership as gender-neutral (a person or someone, as seen in the texts above) but only one gender (male) is connected with entrepreneurship (refer to the images above). It should also be noted that in some examples, entrepreneurs and leaders are solely associated with males and females are totally excluded. In Reading passage one below from Textbook B Namibia, page 112, the pronoun 'he' is used. Again, in Textbook A from Zimbabwe, Reading passage two, on page 14, the possessive pronoun 'his' is used. Further, in Reading passages three and four, Textbook B from Zimbabwe (pages 48 and 50), the pronouns 'him' and 'he', are used. Reading passage five, Textbook B South Africa, page 135 uses the possessive pronoun 'his'.

Reading passage one




Figure 16 There are many different sources of capital that you can consider.

Own and borrowed capital

An entrepreneur can use his own capital to start an enterprise or he can borrow money from a financial institution. When the entrepreneur uses his own money it's called **own capital**. Money borrowed from financial institutions is called **borrowed capital**.

Capital needed to start an enterprise can either be acquired internally within the enterprise or externally, outside the enterprise. Internal capital is money from within the enterprise itself, for example, the owners' savings or from selling old or unwanted assets. External capital is money the enterprise obtains from outside sources such as banks.

Reading passage two

The manufacturer advertises his products extensively in magazines and catalogues and invites customers to place orders using post. He sells a wide range of goods, for example household goods, sporting equipment, clothing and electronic goods.

Reading passage three

Partnerships

Partnerships are usually the expansion of a sole trader business unit discussed above. Two or more friends may decide to go into business together. A partnership solves the sole trader's problems of little capital to start or expand business, too much work that deprives him of resting time and lack of specialisation.

Reading passage four

In a partnership more skills are available. Partners of different skills team up for the success of the business. Each partner will therefore concentrate on that part of the business where he is best suited.

Reading passage five

A good leader is enthusiastic about his work or cause and also about his role as leader. People will respond more readily to a person of passion and dedication. Leaders need to be a source of *inspiration** and a motivator towards the required action or cause.

This exclusion or backgrounding of females in some entrepreneurship writings could strengthen the existing and stubborn stereotype that males are the entrepreneurs and leaders in society. The description of an entrepreneur, leader and manager is not neutral. This may create impressions in the mind of the student. The impressions created by the representations in Textbooks A and B Namibia and A and B Zimbabwe are presented in textbooks that carry power and authority (Romanowski, 1996).

Students may accept unquestionably the representations in their textbooks and not challenge them (Romanowski, 1996). This has an effect students' understanding of entrepreneurship, leadership and even management.

- vi. Males are also portrayed as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers in Textbook A South Africa, pages 159 and 177 (Illustration eight and Case study one), Textbook B South Africa, pages 34 and 39 (Image eleven and Illustration nine), Textbook A Zimbabwe pages 24, 25 and 52 (Illustration ten, eleven and twelve), Textbook A Namibia, pages 21 and 163 (Case study two and six a and b) and Textbook B Namibia, pages 10, 30 and 42 (Case study three, four and five).

Illustration eight



Image eleven



Illustration nine

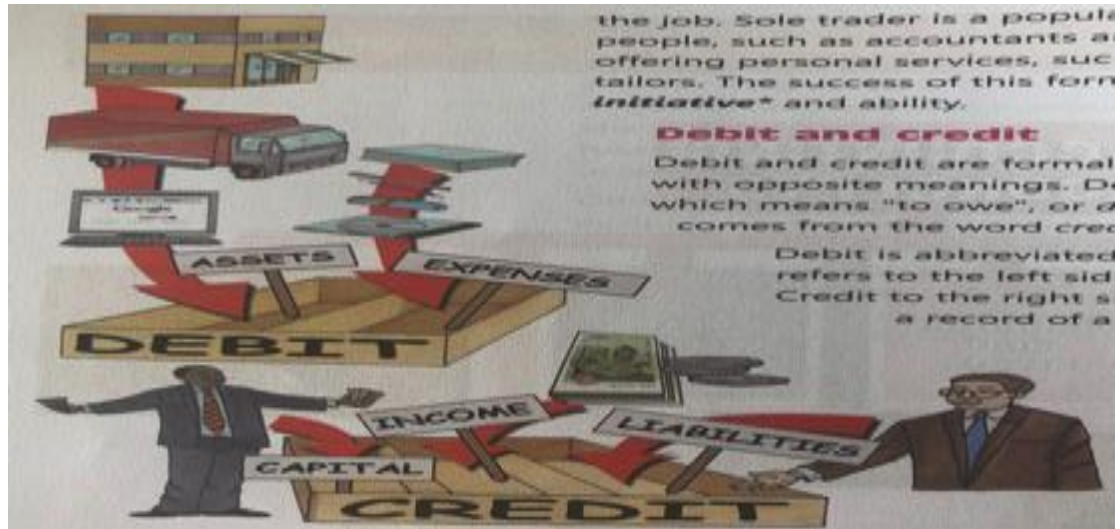


Illustration ten

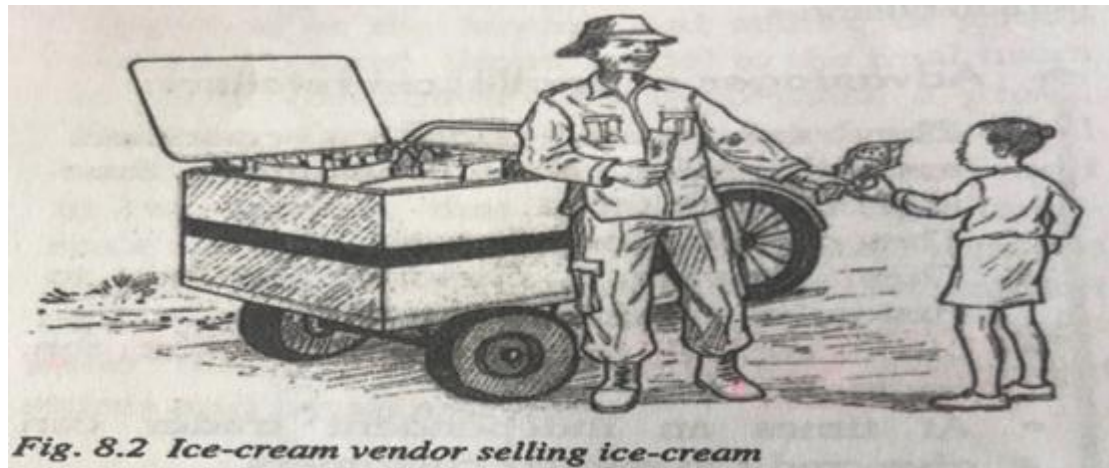


Illustration eleven



Illustration twelve

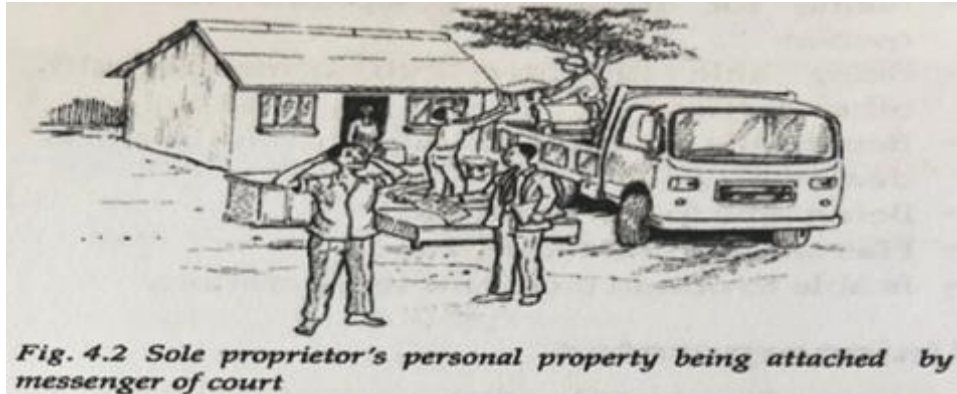


Fig. 4.2 Sole proprietor's personal property being attached by messenger of court

Case study one

Activity 5.2 Case study: Three managers

15 minutes

Read the case study and answer the questions that follow.

Case study

Three brothers each buy a restaurant. They open up in different towns at very similar locations. They employ the same number of staff with similar experience. Their restaurants have the same décor and the same menus. The only difference between their restaurants is the management style each brother employs.

George is the oldest brother. He is used to being in charge. He prefers to be in control of every aspect of the restaurant personally and does not delegate. He checks every order that goes out and checks on the food himself. He places orders at suppliers and checks the inventory. He allows his staff no freedom and feels they are too irresponsible to function without him. His staff has no pride in their work because they are not trusted. Service is slow and sloppy. This affects the atmosphere in the restaurant and customers often do not come back.

David is the youngest brother. He has a very relaxed attitude. He trusts his staff to do what they are supposed to do and only occasionally checks up on them. Sometimes he does not come to work at all. Initially the staff members were very happy. However, some of them now feel that they are working harder than others who are getting away with being slack. There are times when they run out of stock and cannot fill orders. With time, even the hard-working staff members become unproductive. Regular customers have noticed a downward slide in the quality of food and the service and have decided to go elsewhere.

Andrew is the middle brother; he is used to solving disputes between his brothers. From the beginning Andrew involves his staff in policy decisions. They decide together on their responsibilities, and incentives are introduced to motivate the staff to work efficiently. Andrew is always approachable and makes the running of the restaurant smoother. He praises and encourages his staff. As a result, the staff enjoys coming to work. This reflects in the atmosphere of the restaurant and the same customers return time and again.

Activity 7



CASE STUDY

Realising a dream

Christophe van de Vijver was only 18 years old when he was diagnosed with cancer. He was given a twenty percent chance to survive.

His girlfriend at the time had just returned from Namibia and shared her stories of Africa with Christophe. She told him about the lodge of her aunt in Namibia, where she had worked for a few months. Christophe was immediately interested and in the following months he read over 900 books on Namibia. "I asked my mother to bring me every book on Namibia that she could find."

Paul asked his son on his sickbed what he wanted to become in life. He answered straight away, "The manager of a lodge in Namibia."

"Get well, my son, and I will realise your lifelong dream," his father said.

With this dream Christophe remained strong and nine months later the doctors were able to reduce a four-kilogram tumour by half with chemotherapy and they also removed the lump from his lungs.

After the successful therapy the entire Van de Vijver family left for a holiday to Namibia. Paul's main focus was to honour his son's wish during his illness – searching for a hotel which they could take over. Then he saw a 13 000 ha piece of land, and immediately purchased it. He had decided to trade the textile industry, where his experience lay, for a new adventure namely opening a lodge. Paul and Christophe travelled throughout Tanzania, Botswana and South Africa to find ideas and inspiration to realise their dream.

On their return Paul designed the plans for his own lodge, and nine months later the luxurious *Epacha Game Lodge and Spa* stood there in all its glory. Today *Leading Lodges of Africa* is proud to manage eight lodges in Namibia, continuously striving for perfection.

The company is known for having built their foundation on human relationships, and for investing in the human capital of Namibia to whom they entrust their vision and whom they train, develop and educate to become highly skilled and professional citizens of the hotel and hospitality industry.

Adapted from SPAFARI, Issue 1 (www.leadinglodges.com)



Epacha lodge

Case study three

First-time entrepreneur

Mr Gerson Kazevembi is the first entrepreneur in Opuwo who identified the needs of his community and started a grocery store. He registered his enterprise

with the Opuwo Local Authority. 'My enterprise is growing and I employ 10 workers who are all members of the Social Security Commission,' he said.

1. Identify the type of enterprise that Mr Kazevembi is running.
2. In which sector does his enterprise fall?
3. He registered his enterprise with the local authorities. List four reasons why he registered his enterprise.
4. Name four benefits that his workers may get from the Social Security Commission?
5. Explain two characteristics of a partnership.
6. Explain one advantage of a sole trader.

Case study four

Success in business requires sacrifices

June 8th, 2015 | by *New Era* Staff Reporter

Windhoek – Bradley Kloppers, a qualified auditor by profession, was brave enough to give it all up to become his own boss.

As an audit and financial manager, Bradley advised corporate giants on how they could expand their enterprises and increase their profits.

While doing his articles at Deloitte Namibia in 2010, he opened his first enterprise, a car wash, in Khomasdal, Windhoek. This enterprise is still operational today, has grown substantially and he now owns several other small shops on the premises.

Bradley says: 'One of the biggest challenges experienced by SMEs (Small and Medium Enterprises) is trying to get funding. You should be able to demonstrate that you can work with money. Don't over-complicate your proposal. What is important is whether the

business idea is viable and the fixed overheads are manageable,' he added. Bradley said all his enterprises are doing well.

[Source: *New Era Newspaper*, June 8th, 2015]

- a) Define entrepreneurship.
- b) Bradley is a successful entrepreneur in Namibia. List:
 - i) two challenges he faced as an entrepreneur.
 - ii) two benefits he enjoys as an entrepreneur.
- c) Explain two qualities that he possesses that have helped him become a successful entrepreneur.
- d) Explain how job creation is one of Bradley's responsibilities to the community.

Case study five

Disability not inability

Moses Haufiku, who lost his legs in a car accident in 2010, is living proof that a disability does not mean an inability. He is the owner of the Sunshine Project in Ohangwena, that grows vegetables and fruit. Apart from creating jobs for seven permanent workers, he also donates left-over fruit and vegetables to schools

in the community. 'I faced many challenges such as funding, getting machines and equipment, a lack of skills and knowledge to start and operate my farm successfully,' he said. 'Through hard work and perseverance I earn enough to sustain myself and my family, pay my employees and save for the future,' he concluded.

- a) Moses is a successful farmer. List two benefits that he enjoys as an entrepreneur. (1)
- b) Based on the passage, explain the following responsibilities of Moses in the community:
 - i) Social (2)
 - ii) Job creation (2)

Case study six (a)

Section C

CASE STUDY 1

A mark of true excellence

It is true to say that any person can sell a product, but only a few people can successfully create a business. In an area where the majority of people cannot afford to buy good quality products at a cheaper price, **Complete Lifestyle Warehouse (CLW)** has come up with a workable solution by offering quality products at reasonable prices for all Namibians.

Located in the Northern Industrial Area in Windhoek next to China Town, **CLW** opened its doors in September 2011 with a mission to provide reasonably priced quality products.

The company assembles and sells exclusive dining and coffee tables, beds, wardrobes and side cabinets shipped from the United Kingdom. The products arrive at the shop as dismantled pieces of wood and are then assembled by the company's local experts in the workshop, before being displayed in the store for sale.

The owner of the company, Peter Benz, has an honours degree in Accounting and ten years' working experience as a chartered accountant. He says he has no experience in manufacturing and retailing, but was strongly driven by the passion to provide a complete lifestyle warehouse for Namibians.

Having spent most of his time overseas, the 35-year-old entrepreneur returned home only to be saddened by the fact that almost all products sold in the country were at premium prices, thereby denying a larger part of the community the privilege of owning goods such as an ordinary kitchen cupboard.

"When I came back, I was saddened by the fact that most products in Namibia were not affordable to most people and part of the community is excluded from owning basic goods."

"I then thought of how we could go about providing quality, reasonably priced products to Namibians. Then **CLW** came as an initiative to do something that could benefit a lot of people and at the same time create employment for the local youth," says Benz.

Case study six (b)

"Without exception, people who walk into our shop are impressed with the range of products we provide because we provide quality at good prices. Our staff members are very friendly and treat every customer with respect. We also offer financing options and we do not charge interest on our lay-by," he asserts.

The company's pricing system for exclusive goods has managed to put them on the map, as many people from all walks of life visit the shop daily, buying quality goods.

He has a staff of nine vibrant young people who are eager and willing to learn and they operate as a corporate family, with a shared sense of ownership of resources and responsibility.

The inspiration to start the company, for Benz, came from his grandparents and parents, who he says have always been honest people that have stood up to achieve whatever they set themselves to do.

"I come from a peasant family; a family of hard workers. Through my upbringing I have developed the desire to build things and to provide services to people in need. Seeing them happy gives me a sense of satisfaction," says Benz.

What has enabled him to do the kind of work he does, even though it is a different field to the one he studied at college, is a willingness to take risks.

"In business, you have to be willing to take a risk and the only way you can lessen that risk is by proper planning. There is nothing particularly special about me. I just find good people to do the things that I cannot do and I am gifted in the ability to attract people who are forward-thinkers."

QUESTIONS


1. "The company assembles and sells exclusive dining and coffee tables, beds, wardrobes and side cabinets shipped from the United Kingdom." Explain the type(s) of business this company runs.
2. "He was strongly driven by the passion to provide a complete lifestyle warehouse for Namibians." Having a passion for what you do is a characteristic of an entrepreneur. Identify 2 (two) more characteristics of an entrepreneur **from this case study**.
3. Identify one advantage of a business to the community **from this case study**.

Illustration eight, nine and ten and case studies one, two, three, four, five and six also used the names of males and illustrations to depict successful entrepreneurs and managers in lengthy case studies and graphical images. The male names include Mike, George, David, Andrew, Christophe, Mr Gerson Kazevembi, Bradley Kloppers, Moses Haufiku and Peter Benz. With the exception of Illustration eleven and twelve (Males however remained foregrounded as entrepreneurs but they were portrayed as sick and in debt and their personal possessions were seized). The use of

male names and images indicates male superiority and may affect readers perception that entrepreneurs and managers are male and successful. It should be noted that, while there are some positive case studies that feature females, with a few exceptions, they are not as descriptive as those of males and females are depicted as relying on family for assistance (See Case study seven, Textbook B Namibia, page 119). The businesses depicted are also home-based enterprises that are not performing well (See Case study eight, page 39, Textbook A South Africa and Case study nine, page 116, Textbook B Namibia). In other case studies that depict females, the business closed down (See Case study ten, page 110, Textbook B Namibia), suffers from limited funds and is unlikely to survive (See Case study eleven a and b, Textbook B Namibia, pages 114-115) or are nurturing businesses such as child-minding services (See Case Study twelve, page 55, Textbook A Namibia). These are just some of the examples in the textbooks of typical female small businesses. Numerous others associate women with cooking, baking, hairdressing and dressmaking (See Appendix one).

It can thus be concluded that the entrepreneurship textbooks downplay and misrepresent female entrepreneurship. They present an incomplete picture of women entrepreneurs and favour male entrepreneurs, despite compelling evidence to the contrary. Writers continue to ignore reality. Students may come to know little about women entrepreneurs because their textbooks provide limited coverage of females in entrepreneurship (Sadker & Sadker, 1995).

Case study seven

<p>Family in fashion</p> <p>Rachel Tjivikua won the Best Designer of the Year 2015 title. Her husband is responsible for marketing the products and delivering orders. Her grown children help her to cut out patterns, take orders and measure the customers' sizes. Her sister, Uetuu, takes care of the finances of the enterprise.</p>	<p>Question</p> <p>Describe two advantages of working with family members in an enterprise.</p> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> <p>Figure 17 Rachel runs her fashion enterprise with the help of her family.</p>
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Case study eight

Activity 2.2 Profit and loss

15 minutes

- Betty decides to set up a hairdressing business. She works from a room in her uncle's home and agrees to pay him rent. At the end of the first month she draws up the following list of money she received and paid. Use this list to determine whether she made a profit or a loss.

Rent paid to uncle	R500
Money received from customers	R1 200
Shampoo and hair products purchased	R350
Transport	R400
Loan received from sister	R200
Advertising	R250

- Consider the ways in which Betty could aim to improve her business profitability in future.



A business has various monthly expenses.

Case study nine

Nandesora is selling *vetkoeke* to learners at Otjiperongo Junior Secondary School during their break. She spent N\$ 370 on ingredients. She sold 30 at N\$ 1 each. Did Nandesora make a profit or a loss? Show all your calculations.

How would you advise Nandesora to run her enterprise successfully?

Case study ten

Decline in services

Meno is a teacher at Academia Secondary School and she also runs her own enterprise called Salon Donzela. She employs eight workers who specialise in hairdressing. They do all types of hair styles in a very short period of time. They are well-known for their quick service and excellent customer care.

Two of her employees started being absent and reported late to work when they had to visit the clinic to get their HIV and AIDS treatment (anti-retrovirals). On some days they were too weak to work and spent a lot of time on only one customer. Customers started complaining about the slow and poor service.

Salon Donzela was not making enough profit to sustain its operations. The healthy workers started complaining about the workload and some even quit the salon. Finally, Meno had no other option but to close her enterprise.

Questions

- List the effects of HIV and AIDS on the performance of Salon Donzela's employees.
- Explain the effects of HIV and AIDS on the productivity of Salon Donzela.
- If you were Meno, what would you do to maintain the production in the work place?

Case study eleven (a)

Ngeni's Salon

Ngeni inherited a small sum of money from her grandmother. It has always been her dream to start her own hair salon. With this inheritance, she starts to consider her options to start her own enterprise and she makes a list of everything she has and what she needs to consider.

Ngeni has:

- Enough money for two months' rent at an ideal location in town.
- Her own equipment and tools.
- A good phone with unlimited data that she uses to communicate with her regular clients frequently.
- A Facebook page where all her customers make appointments and promote her services to their friends.



Case study eleven (b)

- A friend who does make-up at the same salon who also wants to start her own enterprise. Her friend has a small sum of money, but not as many customers.

Ngeni needs:

- Money to clean the salon before she can start.
- Products to use on her customer's hair.
- Money for marketing.
- Money to set up and pay bills

such as water and electricity, telephone, internet, etc.

Questions

1. Do you think Ngeni is ready to start her own enterprise? Why or why not?
2. Should Ngeni go to a financial institution to get a loan or should she pool her money and resources with her friend? Give reasons for your answer.
3. What are the implications of the source of capital that you have chosen in question 2?

Case Study twelve

Activity 18



CASE STUDY

Ndapewa's dilemma

Ndapewa is a young Grade 10 learner. She noticed a need in her community for a reliable child care provider. Many parents in the community where she lives need someone to look after their young children in the afternoons and evenings. Ndapewa loves children and she has a passion for helping young people develop into successful, well-educated people. She decides to start a sole trading business, which she calls "Edu-Nanny". The services she will provide are normal babysitting, helping young learners with homework and also additional educational games and lessons that could help young ones learn without even realising it.

6.3 Appraisal of the foregrounding of males as entrepreneurs, leaders and managers discourse

Scrutiny of the contemporary commerce textbooks from South Africa and Namibia revealed that successful, powerful male entrepreneurs and leaders such as Bill Gates, Dr Hangala, Richard Branson, Mr Hafeni, Quinton van Rooyen, Aupa Frans Indongo, Martin Shipanga, Harold Pupkewitz, Nelson Mandela and Mohandas Gandhi are depicted as exemplary in entrepreneurship.

Male priority was also evident in the graphical illustrations and case studies. Male figures are depicted as good leaders and managers operating successful, profitable businesses that create employment and improve employees' standard of living. In some of the depictions the men want to expand their businesses. They are also concerned about their businesses because they are not well. In a rare case the personal property of a male entrepreneur has been attached. The depiction of entrepreneurs however remains male. While women are mentioned in their numbers in textbooks, they are poorly represented in the entrepreneurship texts and images, and gender stereotypes persist. Entrepreneurship is thus fragmented. Students might infer that entrepreneurship is a male activity, because women remain marginalised.

The foregrounding of males in these textbooks indicates a masculine bias and further bolsters the erroneous belief that men are the archetype in business, leadership and management. Because the textbooks seldom foreground female characters as exemplary entrepreneurs leaders and managers, this has implications for female and even some male students. They may be negatively impacted by such. Textbooks offer a partial picture of entrepreneurship reality. There therefore remains room for improvement in these textbooks when it comes to the depiction of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship (Olivo, 2012). It is argued that the lack of attention to women's entrepreneurship is due to the small number of research on women entrepreneurship as well as women's engagement in entrepreneurship (Olivo, 2012). But there has been many developments regarding gender and women's entrepreneurship. Research has proven that women engage in a variety of economic activities, including entrepreneurship in most countries. They have started businesses in many sectors of the economy. There therefore remains many examples to use of entrepreneurs in textbooks.

6.4 Stereotyping of gender roles discourse

The second gendered discourse described in this chapter is the *stereotyping of gender roles discourse*. The presentation of male and female figures in stereotypical roles in the visuals and supporting text in the six textbooks was identified in order to bring to light this discourse.

- i. One of the explicit examples of gender stereotyping can be seen in Image twelve in Textbook A South Africa, page 98.

Image twelve



Image twelve presents females and males in different roles and tasks in society. Mrs Bheki is depicted as a wife (Mrs) who looks after children: “Mrs Bheki had to leave school at the age of nine to help look after her baby brothers”. The other female in this image, Miss Becks is shown as someone who was trained on site to work with computers: “Miss Becks left school after matric. Her boss trained her to work with computers”. In contrast, the male is presented as someone who is techno savvy (he is surrounded by gadgets and has a computer and a telephone) and attended university: “Mr Harmse went to university. He has a degree in business”. In addition, his computer, telephone and its positioning are more visible than those in Miss Becks’ office. Further reinforcing the idea that he is proficient in technology. Miss Becks does not have a post matric qualification and Mrs Bheki did not even complete primary school.

The first part of Image Twelve portrays the female as a nurturer. Mrs Bheki's brothers did not have to leave school at a young age to take care of their siblings. Females are naturally expected to fulfil domestic responsibilities like child raising or child minding that might need to be attended to. It is acceptable for girls to leave school at a young age. The textbook makes no attempt to put an end to this practice. Rather, it suggests that it is perfectly fine. Guardianship is then seen by students as a woman's central and all-encompassing role (Mattu & Hussian, 2003).

The textbook also suggests that it is unnatural for females to attend higher education institutions (the caption in the second part of Image twelve states that Miss Becks was trained on site by her boss to work with computers). However, it is natural for men to study for university degrees.

The textbooks also portray women as unskilled workers that receive low pay. This is evident in Activity 1.3 below in Textbook A South Africa, page 98 that poses the following questions based on the pictures of Mrs Bheki, Miss Becks and Mr Harmse.

Activity 1.3

- “Look at the profiles of the people in Image twelve (Mrs Bheki, Miss Becks and Mr Harmse).
- Who do you think gets paid the highest and lowest salaries? Give reasons.
- Do you think this is fair? Why do you say so?
- Say whether these jobs are skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled.
- Can you think of another way of classifying (describing) these people instead of using words like skilled and unskilled?
- For each person, use what you know about their opportunities and choices to suggest jobs they could do”.

Activity 1.3 depicts men as skilled, having a degree and being better paid than their female counterparts that look after young ones and those that need assistance. This finding echoes those of Olivo (2012) and Pillay (2017) who concluded that when women are mentioned in the literature, their family situation (Mrs Bheki looking after her brothers) is emphasised as well as the fact that they are responsible for

housework. A woman's personality, appearance (usually slim, beautiful, long hair) and fashion sense, are also mentioned. On the other hand, when men are mentioned, the focus is on their experience (skills), accomplishments (qualifications) (Mr Harmse is very skilled and has a degree in business) and knowledge of current affairs.

The positioning of Mrs Bheki as nurturing and unskilled could propagate existing gender inequalities and stereotypes of women as nurturers and guardians within the family, regardless of their age, and that they are unskilled. Men, on the other hand, run the business world.

Furthermore, the positioning of Miss Becks could lead to the conclusion of women as semi-skilled, uninformed and lacking knowledge (technologically incompetent). They therefore need help: "Miss Becks left school after matric. Her boss trained her to work with computers". Such seemingly innocent stereotypes are dangerous and likely to lead to discrimination and inequality among students in the classroom. Male students will naively conclude that women will always be in a subservient position in the workplace and need help, while men are educated, skilled, intelligent and in control. They attend university and acquire knowledge about business. They are the archetype of entrepreneurship. They are not dropouts, but business experts: "Mr Harmse went to university. He has a degree in business". This however undermines and further ignores women's diverse roles in the economy. It fails to address reality thus sending a message that women remain excluded in entrepreneurship. This perpetuates the stereotype that women are not entrepreneurial. They are suited for nurturing roles and jobs that require only on the job training such as being trained by the boss to work with computers. "[C]hildren are [afterall] not simply being taught [entrepreneurship]; they are also learning-sometimes subliminally - how society regards certain groups of people (Macmillan guidelines cited in Sadker, Sadker & Klein, 1991).

- ii. Another example of the stereotyping of gender roles discourse is Illustration thirteen in Textbook B Namibia, page 72.

Illustration thirteen



In this illustration, a woman is standing next to a man. She is wearing an apron and holding what seems to be a dishcloth and there are food and kitchen items on the table in front of her. The man is smartly dressed in a suit and is giving her money. The supporting text next to this image is about developing a business budget. It is emphasised that: **“In an enterprise, you cannot know how many products you will sell next month. It is therefore difficult to say what your income will be. In order to set up a budget you need to predict future income and expenses”.**

The textbook portrays a woman in the precarious position of uncertain income and thus cash flow difficulties. This reflects male domination and reinforces the power of men (Davies & Carrier, 1999) as the woman entrepreneur is portrayed as needing financial assistance from the male, because she did not make enough sales. It further engrains the stereotype that women lack business skills and cannot comprehend business issues such as cash flows and managing a budget. Illustration thirteen thus implies that women are not sufficiently skilled to run their own businesses. They need a man to rescue them from any problems they might face. Wood (1994) observed that this trend is evident in various strands of literature where women are depicted as helpless, with men coming to their rescue. It begins from kindergarten. Children’s literature implements the idea that females are powerless and males will save them. Sleeping Beauty’s rising from the dead depends on a male, Prince Charming’s Kiss (Wood, 1994).

While this might be a hypothetical example, it is powerful as the authors employ a ‘denigrating stereotype’ to represent women entrepreneurs. It is a misrepresentation of business reality as women have been found to have knowledge and experience of the

business world as well as the financial side of business. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) 2007 reported that:

“a company led by a female CEO is, on average, slightly more than a percentage point - in practice about ***10 percent - more profitable than a corresponding company led by a male CEO***. This observation holds even after taking into account size differences and a number of other factors possibly affecting profitability” (Allen, Elam, Langowitz & Dean, p. 16) (emphasis added).

In a more recent study, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2019) confirm Allen et al.’s (2007) finding and add that:

“Of the companies surveyed that track the impact of gender diversity in management, 74 percent report profit increases of 5 to 20 percent. Our assessment shows that enterprises with a gender inclusive culture are 9 percent more likely to have improved business performance” (p. xii).

PricewaterhouseCoopers (2018) posit that improving female participation in the labour market in OECD countries could boost OECD GDP by US\$6 trillion.

This suggests that women that run businesses possess exceptional leadership and management qualities. Therefore the inclusion of women in their numbers in economic activities has a positive effect on businesses and nations. Women are therefore more likely to budget for day-to-day activities, and keep track of their financial affairs and may not necessarily need the help of a male as depicted in Illustration thirteen.

- iii. Another example of the stereotyping of gender roles can be seen in Image thirteen, Textbook A South Africa, page 125. It depicts Ms James, who owns a scrapbooking company called Immortalise Your Memories. She is pictured next to a small boy, who appears to be her son.

Image thirteen



As established from the supporting text for this image, Ms James is an entrepreneur who owns a scrapbooking company called *Immortalise Your Memories*. However, she is also shown as a mother. It can be inferred that, regardless of the textbooks portrayal of Ms James as an entrepreneur, her primary responsibility is her family (taking care of her son). She is therefore first seen as *a mother* who must fulfil her family responsibilities by keeping an eye on her child. Thereafter, she is seen as an *entrepreneur* (Bobrowska & Conrad, 2017).

This depiction of Ms James emphasises her traditionally expected ‘feminine’ qualities (nurturing and caregiver). It situates her outside the mainstream discourse on entrepreneurship and denies her the status of a ‘typical entrepreneur’ (Bobrowska & Conrad, 2017). In all the analysed textbooks, men were not depicted with their children in their business. Research by Wood (1994) and more recently by Pillay (2017) confirms that whenever someone is shown looking after children, it is almost always a female figure. Virtually no effort is made in the literature to depict males involved in family life or any domestic responsibilities.

According to Allen et al. (2007) and David (2012), readers are likely to conclude that women continue to carry a dual burden, working two jobs, running their business (paid employment) and taking care of the household, cleaning, doing laundry, cooking and looking after the family and children (unpaid employment), while men only have one paid job. Textbook A South Africa does not dismantle these omnipresent stereotypes. Rather, it strengthens patriarchal expectations. Women

continue to assume the bulk of the nurturing and domestic responsibilities and if they have time, they can add entrepreneurship.

The depiction of Ms James appears progressive (a woman running her own business), but it is problematic as it reinforces the nurturing role and responsibilities that society traditionally expects from women in relation to their economic activities (Kelan, 2007; Hamilton, 2013). It promotes unrealistic expectations of women as “superwoman” who is able to do it all without encountering any challenges nor being helped by their husbands (Wood, 1994).

It should be noted that Textbook A South Africa as well as other studies do acknowledge women as entrepreneurs and contributors to the economy, and have increased their visibility in textbooks, as evidenced in the sample and other studies in order to promote gender equality (Lee, 2014; Pillay, 2017), these efforts are undermined by the stereotyping of gender roles and discrimination against women. Such bias undermines womens contribution in entrepreneurship. They are depicted differently (pictured with children), even though their businesses are not connected with children.

- iv. The stereotyping of gender roles can also be seen in Textbook A Namibia, page 7 (Image fourteen) and Textbook B Namibia, page 8 (Illustration fourteen).

Image fourteen



Illustration fourteen



This image and illustration associate women with social entrepreneurship; the emphasis is not on economic value (making a profit) but social value (improving society). The depiction of women as social entrepreneurs assumes that only women are involved in entrepreneurial activities that assist the disadvantaged and work for social change (as seen in Illustration fourteen above). Tietz (2007) also found that when women are depicted as entrepreneurs in textbooks, they tend to be presented as involved in philanthropic business ventures. On the other hand, their male counterparts are depicted as purely economic entrepreneurs that operate a wider variety of businesses in order to realise a profit. An overt example can be seen in Textbook A Namibia, page 6: “Economic entrepreneurship focuses on the profit that is made for the entrepreneur. Wealth creation and job creation are the main focus points of the economic entrepreneur. Bill Gates is known as an IT architect, an outstanding entrepreneur and *an icon of ‘the economic entrepreneur’*” (emphasis added). The textbooks’ exclusion of males as examples of social entrepreneurs promotes the stereotype that males are only involved in private economic entrepreneurship where profit is the overall goal. It also creates the impression that men are not interested in addressing the many societal challenges in order to bring about change in communities and thereby create ‘fairer economies’ (British Council, 2017). They do not care about the triple bottom line and are only interested in profit and empowering themselves.

6.5 Appraisal of the stereotyping of gender roles discourse

The analysis of the textbooks revealed that women and men were presented in stereotypical roles. Women are portrayed in the textbooks as nurturers and guardians surrounded by children. In other illustrations they are depicted as social entrepreneurs that lack business and financial knowledge. They are also presented dressed in aprons and running businesses that involve food while men are portrayed as intelligent, in control and helpful. The portrayal of women as uninformed about business, deficient in financial knowledge, and as nurturers and caregivers surrounded by children and food while men are depicted as intelligent, in control and helpful by Textbooks A South Africa and B Namibia is widespread and resonates with the results of other textbook studies conducted in SADC countries and other parts of the world (Ansary & Babaaii, 2003; Mkuchu, 2004; Hamid, Keong, Othman, Mohd-Yasin & Baharuddin, 2008; David 2012; Maistry & Pillay, 2014; Pillay, 2017). According to Chiponda and Wassermann (2015), the stereotypical portrayal of women as caregivers that look after children, dressed in aprons and running businesses that involve cooking while men are portrayed differently echoes the highly patriarchal societies of countries in SADC and around the world and how they view women's role.

Such stereotyping in textbooks could have serious implications for male and female students. It could sway female students' into traditionally accepted 'feminine' occupations, even though men and women have similar career choices and can pursue any job in modern society.

The gender stereotypes identified in the visual analysis of six textbooks in South Africa, Namibia and Zimbabwe calls for different and urgent strategies to be taken to address gender bias and stereotyping in learning materials. Decades later they remain fixed in textbooks.

6.6 Women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy discourse

The third gendered discourse described in this chapter is women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy. To formulate this discourse, I examined the portrayal of women and men in entrepreneurship. The visuals presented a two-fold perspective. Men and some women are associated with the formal economy, but some women are associated with the informal economy (the lowest rung on the business hierarchy).

They are portrayed as operating informal, typical feminine survivalist businesses with little economic value.

The following images (fifteen, sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, nineteen and twenty) from Textbooks A South Africa (pages 14, 107, 108, 114, 151) and B Namibia (page 44) exemplify women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy.

Image fifteen



Image sixteen



Image seventeen



Image eighteen



Image nineteen



Image twenty



The above images depict women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy (in the informal economy) where the mark-up profit is very small (As seen in Image fifteen, coins are used as a method of payment instead of large denomination notes). The women are also depicted in typical feminine/pink collar businesses, selling food and beauty products as well as rendering services such as hairdressing. The product offering of these businesses is very limited and these women work under poor conditions. They have no infrastructure or formal space to protect themselves and their products from the weather as their businesses are situated on the street (street traders). There are neither refrigerators nor air conditioners to preserve their products. These are available in more formal business settings. Women in the informal sector are vulnerable as there is no security and they may fall prey to criminal elements. There is no means of measuring the products sold (See Image fifteen); scales are replaced by plastic utensils. There are also no counters to serve customers.

The portrayal of mainly women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy in Textbooks A South Africa and B Namibia gives students the impression that women are found in the informal economy, in smaller unproductive businesses. They also work under poor conditions for low profits. Minniti and Naudé (2010) note that such depictions discriminate against women and may reduce their likelihood to pursue entrepreneurship in many countries. The more students are exposed to these types of

discriminatory images of women, the greater the chances of them internalising them (Pillay, 2017).

This constructed reality of women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy does not reflect the current situation in SADC countries as women are found in different sectors of the economy, including large formal businesses, assuming top positions. Barkawi's (2015) study found that approximately 126 million women had launched new businesses in 67 economies around the globe and roughly 48 million female entrepreneurs and 64 million female business owners provided employment to at least one or many people. While women do establish micro and small businesses in the informal economy, they do not remain in this sector forever. Indeed, there is evidence to the effect that women's participation in entrepreneurship has increased rapidly in past years and they are not confined to survivalist and small businesses. Women can also be found in large numbers in the formal economy running successful businesses (Minniti & Naudé, 2010). However, the economic contribution, astonishing growth and success of women entrepreneurs seems to be disregarded by the textbook authors that continue to portray men as formal entrepreneurs.

It would therefore seem that despite calls for gender-neutral textbooks throughout the world, males continue to be favoured by authors as they are not depicted in the informal sector, even though they also work in large numbers in the informal economy. Authors thus continue to neglect issues of gender inequality in textbooks.

6.7 Appraisal of the women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy discourse

The above analysis reveals evidence of the women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy discourse. The pictures depict women in the informal second economy. They are also depicted in typically female orientated businesses that involve food and beauty products. In contrast, their male counterparts are depicted in these textbooks as managers, successful entrepreneurs and leaders.

Such depictions are biased against women and reinforce male dominance and supremacy in entrepreneurship (Talbot, 2003). Women are then positioned outside of

mainstream entrepreneurship (Talbot, 2003; Bobrowska and Conrad, 2017) and males as the protagonists of entrepreneurship.

6.8 Summary of Chapter Six

This chapter described the gender related discourses which emerged from the visual analysis of the contemporary commerce textbooks from South Africa and Namibia. Three major discourses emerged, namely, *the foregrounding of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers; stereotyping of gender roles and women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy.*

The discourses that emerged reflect gender bias, discrimination and inequality as women are mostly portrayed in stereotypical caring roles, looking after children. While some images portray women in productive roles, such as working with computers and operating businesses, these women are also depicted as needing help, or their businesses are struggling. In addition, their enterprises are small typical feminine philanthropic businesses in the informal economy, while their male counterparts are presented in the formal economy, and as powerful, successful and knowledgeable in many business areas, with only a few males not depicted as such (Textbook A Zimbabwe, Illustration eleven and twelve).

Despite the fact that there are many successful women entrepreneurs in the formal economy in South Africa, Namibia and Zimbabwe, only a few were foregrounded and portrayed as exemplary and powerful characters in the analysed entrepreneurship visuals and supporting texts, even though they feature in numbers in the textbooks. Given that textbooks are an important educational tool, this could affect students' entrepreneurship knowledge. The images in the textbooks may become facts especially if students are repeatedly exposed to such stereotypical content throughout their schooling years (Lester, 2000, p. 78).

The following chapter interprets, explains and discusses the findings from the textual and visual analysis that emerged from Chapters five and six. The seemingly neutral discourses were found to be ideological.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

This study examined the discourses of entrepreneurship embedded in first level secondary school contemporary commerce textbooks in selected SADC countries. The data analysis in Chapters five and six revealed that, particular ideological claims that are deemed ‘factual’ are made in these textbooks with regard to entrepreneurship, through the use of various linguistic features. This chapter interprets, explains and discusses the claims that emerged in Chapters Five and Six. These are grouped into four themes, namely:

- Oversimplification of entrepreneurship;
- Promotion of individualistic norms and values;
- Glamorising the facts of entrepreneurship; and
- Gender inequality and male domination

7.1.1 Oversimplification of entrepreneurship

Oversimplification of entrepreneurship is evident in the *ease of business formation discourse*. The textbooks’ use of high modality, omission/lexical absence and lexical repetition created the impression that it is easy to establish a business. The complexity and hard work involved in starting a business, irrespective of its size and the sector or industry in which it operates, is backgrounded and at times omitted in the sampled textbooks. These include selecting a product/service, research on the industry/market, customers and competitors, and start-up cost analysis. Furthermore, the textbooks do not pay adequate attention to the composition of the management team, the name of the business, licensing requirements and registration for tax purposes (Siaw & Rani, 2012; Lopucki, 2014; Kalane, 2015). Other issues that are neglected and obscured include global competition, the necessary business skills, protecting intellectual property, zoning requirements, environmental considerations, recruiting employees, business insurance, and access to finance, which many cite as a constant obstacle for entrepreneurs. Most have to rely on their own capital or obtain informal loans from

friends and family (Evers, 2003; Hlatshwako, 2012; Holland & Herrmann, 2013; Ministry of Industrialisation, Trade and SME Development Namibia, 2015). The textbooks thus underplay critical details and create the impression that it is easy to establish a business.

The analysed textbooks glamorise the formation of a business. Contrary to their depiction of business formation and society's mental image, this is often an uphill battle that is coupled with struggle, debt and even failure (Shane, 2008; Jones & Spicer, 2009). It certainly is not a "quick, painless, linear, collective, or all-encompassing process" as the textbooks and other literature suggest (Shane, 2008, p. 77-78). Only a small percentage of entrepreneurs, around a third, manage to get a business established within seven years of starting the process. Furthermore, this process often takes several years. There is also no one way to start a business. However, the quick and painless business formation process has become so ingrained in the mythology that attention is not paid to those that fail to launch their business ventures (Shane, 2008).

Such distorted information deprives students that use these textbooks of learning opportunities. Indeed, it could lead to some taking unnecessary business risks. Avoidance of information that might be seen as controversial in order to ensure that the textbook is acceptable to the authorities; the tight deadlines set by publishing houses for writing textbooks (There is not enough lead time, and manuscripts have to be finished quickly and distributed, notwithstanding the fact that some authors have full time jobs in addition to writing textbooks. They therefore have to work under tight deadlines); text recycling using other authors and publishing houses' work without thorough inspection of the facts to improve the work and avoid misleading and incomplete knowledge; the lack of expert knowledge of entrepreneurship; page count limitations and the fact that no other sources are available to supplement the textbook could account for these deficiencies and the filtered view of business formation which presents one-sided knowledge (Loewen, 2007; Pinto, 2007).

The textbooks thus promote inaccurate perceptions about how to start a business and distort the formation of a business. Preparing students for the world of business and safeguarding them against the ideological assumptions embedded in these textbooks,

requires that they have sound and realistic knowledge of the formation of a business. Biased, inaccurate information should be disrupted and exposed before it becomes naturalised.

7.1.2 Promotion of individualistic norms and values

The entrepreneurship literature also embeds individualistic norms and values. In the textbooks from South Africa, Namibia and Zimbabwe, this discourse was disseminated through the use of high modality, foregrounding and ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases. These linguistic tools created the impression that sole traders are exclusively entitled to all the profit that accrues to their businesses. It is thus inferred that other stakeholders have no claim on such profit. Profit sharing among employees is disregarded and there is also complete silence on the contribution that entrepreneurs could make to the community the business operates in. The textbooks also overlook the use of profit to address environmental issues triggered by businesses such as pollution, dangerous products and damage to the environment (Ellis, 2010). Instead, profit maximisation (nowadays referred to as the single bottom line) is the chief focus in the textbooks.

Similar findings were reported by Neumann (2014). In the eight current editions of the Economics textbooks analysed, the author found no discussion on the distribution of wealth in society. The topic was absent in all the textbooks with the exception of one outlier. Concealment of such knowledge continues to favour the interests of the 5% of the global population that controls the majority of the wealth in the world, their beneficiaries and the overall status quo (Neumann, 2014).

This could result in capitalistic and neoliberal values being embedded in the minds of students. This conclusion is in line with that of Ferguson, Collison, Power and Stevenson (2006) who observed that textbooks imbue students with values that give primacy to shareholders, neglecting other stakeholder groups. This has implications for students’ ethical and moral development (Ferguson et al., 2006). Studies by McCafferty (2010); David (2012) and Al-Jumiah (2016) also found that school textbooks cultivate capitalistic and neoliberal values. The knowledge presented to young children focuses on free market values and beliefs. This unobtrusively emphasises capitalist norms, reinforcing the idea that society is open and one is able

to reap rewards and be successful if one works very hard and uses the opportunities provided. In reality, most entrepreneurs have had access to funds which made it possible to start businesses and generate a profit (Baksh, 1990). Hard work is not necessarily equal to entrepreneurial success. Neoliberal values have, however, gained significant currency in many textbooks (Kosar-Altinyelken & Akkaymak, 2012).

The values supported by the textbooks thus encourage “rapacious acquisition and accumulation of wealth” and power (Muzaffar, 2012). This is a purposeful stratagem by authors to legitimise greed as a social phenomenon despite the social and economic inequalities it has created between the rich (business owners) and the poor (employees) (David, 2012; Muzaffar, 2012).

Textbooks should thus also cover alternative viewpoints like the triple bottom line, rather than focussing on the single bottom line which concentrates on profits and individual benefits. Financial performance alone no longer serves as proxy for all-inclusive value creation (Ramalho, 2016). Businesses need to have a positive impact on society and the environment in order to bring about change (Ramalho, 2016). Students should also be made aware of the negative impacts of capitalism and neoliberalism such as inequality, increased poverty and concentration of wealth among the privileged few (Espiritu, 2015). Given that textbooks are regarded as authoritative sources, students are unlikely to question the content that promotes entitlement to all the profit and will instead, internalise such knowledge.

There is therefore an urgent need for textbooks to be critically examined by publishers and writers before they go to print in order to ensure that the information they convey is not one sided. Educators also have a critical role to play in the classroom and should be duty-bound to bring asymmetrical and biased information to their students’ attention.

7.1.3 Glamorising the facts of entrepreneurship

The critical analysis of the texts also revealed that the textbooks embellished the reality of entrepreneurship. Overly romanticised depictions of entrepreneurship were presented in the texts. One of these relates to economic growth. The textbooks support the widely held view that entrepreneurship is the primary engine of economic growth.

Different linguistic features such as high modality, and omission/lexical absence embedded this discourse. The economic growth claim is in line with various policy documents and other literature that continually proclaim that entrepreneurship facilitates economic growth (National Development Plan of South Africa, 2013; SEDA, 2016a and b; The Small Business Administration, 2016).

While the sampled textbooks and the overall literature acknowledge that entrepreneurship is a mechanism that is essential for economic growth, this relationship is debatable and the empirical literature has been silent on the subject (Wong, Ho & Autio, 2005). There is therefore mixed and contradictory evidence on the association between entrepreneurship and economic growth which was not presented in the sampled textbooks. Some studies report that entrepreneurship has a positive effect on economic growth (Hessels and van Stel, 2011; González-Pernía & Peña-Legazkue, 2015) while others note a negative effect, especially in relation to small and medium businesses (Cravo et al., 2012). Others only found evidence of a positive relationship between entrepreneurship and economic growth in transition and high growth countries with many opportunity-driven entrepreneurs (Stam & Stel, 2011). Other scholars found that a positive relationship exists between formal entrepreneurship (Nurmlia & Muzayanah, 2018), opportunity TEA and overall TEA and economic growth (Urbano & Aparicio, 2016). Finally, some studies have shown that despite the wealth of data on small scale new businesses and economic growth, there is no evidence that new businesses cause economic growth (Shane, 2008). Small-scale, survival entrepreneurship has a negative relationship with economic growth (Acs, 2006).

The impact of entrepreneurship on economic growth thus varies among different types of entrepreneurial activity (González-Pernía & Peña-Legazkue, 2015). Certain types of entrepreneurship are antithetical to economic growth (Larroulet & Couyoumdjian, 2009). The effect of entrepreneurship on economic growth is thus not straightforward (van Stel, Carree & Thurik, 2005). However, the sampled textbooks present the association between entrepreneurship and economic growth in SADC and other economies as given. They thus create the impression that it is irrefutable that entrepreneurship contributes to economic growth, irrespective of the size of the business, industry, region, nation and even the mechanisms that foster economic

growth and development (Carree & Thurik, 2010). The textbooks can therefore be accused of misleading students.

Finally, given that “entrepreneurship is *missing* from most empirical models explaining economic growth” (Wong et al., 2005, p. 336), it would seem that the relationship between entrepreneurship and economic growth should be treated with caution, especially in textbooks. There is also a need for more empirical research on this relationship in order to present students with a realistic picture rather than disseminating debatable theories or ideologies and reinforcing policies from other countries that are not applicable in the SADC context.

The rose tinted view of entrepreneurship presented in the sampled textbooks is further reinforced by their claim that entrepreneurship creates jobs. Linguistic features used to further this claim included omission, high modality, topicalisation and ‘taken for granted’ words and phrases.

The literature also supports the view that entrepreneurial ventures, especially start-ups make important contributions to job creation and growth. They therefore play an important role in many economies. For example, in Europe they represent 99% of all businesses, and are responsible for 85% of new jobs and two-thirds of total employment in the private sector. In Arab countries, SMEs account for 90% of all businesses and generate 10 to 40% of formal employment and almost two-thirds of total employment. These businesses are a major source of job creation (European Commission, no date; World Economic Forum, 2018; IMF, 2019). In New Zealand, small businesses make up 97% of all businesses, account for 29% of employment and contribute over a quarter of the country’s GDP (Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment, New Zealand, 2017). In South Africa, despite the lack of regular monitoring of small businesses, and the absence of reliable and comprehensive data on such (Small Business Institute, no date), it is believed that small and medium-size businesses play a critical role in the country. Indeed, some go as far as asserting that they are the solution to South Africa’s unemployment problem (Njiraini & Botha, 2019) and that, with adequate institutional support, they could fuel job creation in the country (Makwara, 2019). It was estimated that 33,700 micro-, medium and small-size businesses (MSMEs) provided employment and income to 160,000 people in

Namibia, accounting for nearly a third of the nation's workforce and contributing approximately 12% to GDP (Ministry of Industrialisation, Trade and SME Development Namibia, 2016). These statistics are however, obsolete, as 2004 data was used by the Ministry. The figures could have changed given the high rate of job losses among MSMEs in Namibia. Cross-country evidence thus indicates that these enterprises are the engine for growth.

However, the contribution of businesses, especially small businesses, to jobs and productivity is a complex process (Decker, Haltiwanger, Jarmin & Miranda, 2014). Many small businesses are necessity, stagnated businesses that are established in order to survive. They suffer high failure rates and, even if they survive, few grow, are innovative and make a significant contribution to job creation. For example, in 2014, South Africa's then Minister of Trade and Industry, Rob Davies noted that as many as 70% of the country's small- and medium-size businesses failed in their first year of operation, the highest failure rate in the world (Business Environment Specialists, 2014). Those that survive employ far less people compared to earlier years. Thus, while Africa has many entrepreneurs, these businesses are of less importance when it comes to job creation (ibid). This phenomenon was also observed across the African continent and the world. Available data indicates that a significant number of small, medium and even large businesses in Namibia and Zimbabwe are struggling to survive. Overall job creation among small- and medium-size businesses has weakened in different economies, not only Africa. Such businesses have not managed to create new jobs (International Labour Organisation, 2017). Small- and medium-size businesses thus do not have the opportunity to be successful and develop into high-growth innovative businesses that are viewed as critical to job creation in many countries. Their low survival and growth rates suggest that these entrepreneurial ventures make a limited contribution to job creation. The notion that such businesses create more jobs is a misconception (Shane, 2008).

Start-ups thus create fewer jobs. Only 1% of people work in businesses that are less than two years old, while 60% are employed in businesses that are more than ten years old (Shane, 2008). Empirical evidence has also demonstrated that most start-ups, small businesses and even some medium-size enterprises do not make a lasting contribution to net job creation. Most of these businesses fail. In the SADC region, a

hostile business environment and lack of finance are cited as reasons for the high exit rates among start-ups and small businesses (Business Environment Specialists, 2014; Decker et al., 2014). They are therefore less valuable than policy makers and other stakeholders claim (Shane, 2008). It has also been noted that when governments intervene and relentlessly encourage entrepreneurship, a large number of people are lured into entrepreneurship and go on to start businesses in competitive, low-entry threshold sectors with high failure rates (Shane, 2009). Job creation by entrepreneurs is not about quantity; it is about establishing quality, high growth businesses that create stable jobs and will be around for a long time (ibid).

Textbooks thus present students with a one-sided version of entrepreneurship and its role in job creation. They do not empower students but deny them access to the realities of entrepreneurship. Textbooks need to present truthful content to students. Educators should also disrupt any erroneous entrepreneurship knowledge in textbooks. It is often argued that textbooks cannot cover all aspects of the subject, but the incorporation of more in-depth, complex information could make entrepreneurship more interesting and also offer more accurate and balanced knowledge rather than providing students with incomplete knowledge (Alridge, 2006), and thus undermining the curriculum goals.

The solution to poverty claim also strengthens the rosy picture of entrepreneurship. Some of the textbooks in the sample state that entrepreneurship plays a critical role in alleviating poverty. Starting a business venture is believed to have an impact on an individual's socio-economic status.

A number of scholars have also argued that entrepreneurial activities, both productive and survival, reduce poverty over time (Awusabo-Asare & Tanle, 2008; Amorós & Cristi, 2011; United Nations, 2015a; Fox & Sohnesen, 2016; SEDA, 2016a and b). However, some studies have produced conflicting results especially in terms of the type of entrepreneurship that reduces poverty (micro entrepreneurship or large scale entrepreneurship?). Si et al. (2014) found that entrepreneurship has been successful in reducing poverty in Yiwu, China as the poor were able to exploit business opportunities. A recent study by Naminse, Zhuang and Zhu (2019) in China also concluded that there was a significant relationship between entrepreneurship and real

poverty alleviation in this country. However, over time, the positive impact of small businesses on poverty alleviation tends to be smaller (Giang, Nguyen & Tran, 2016). Notwithstanding this, governments in other regions in China such as Zhejiang adopted policies urging citizens to embrace the Yiwu model in local economic development. Cudia, Rivera and Tallao (2019) also provided evidence that entrepreneurship in the Philippines can be viewed as a route out of poverty. In contrast, Alvarez and Barney (2014) found that self-employment with marginal opportunities may yield marginal opportunities but these businesses are subject to imitation and are easily replicated until profits fall away. Similarly, Howells (2000) stated that microenterprises typically operate in marginal areas of the economy and have limited income generating potential (Howells, 2000). Establishing a business therefore does not necessary translate into a reduction in poverty levels. Nor is the proliferation of small businesses a positive indicator that start-ups/micro businesses will alleviate poverty: “Individuals who exploit easily observable opportunities may move from abject poverty to poverty only to be trapped in poverty” (Alvarez & Barney, 2014).

It would thus seem that even though a large number of people engage in entrepreneurship, single-handedly, entrepreneurship (small, high growth and even large scale) cannot enable economic growth which encourages poverty reduction. Millions of people still live in poverty in many parts of the world. The poor are, after all, heterogeneous and will therefore be impacted differently by entrepreneurship. Furthermore, other factors such as education, good governance, proper infrastructure, more even income distribution, empowerment of entrepreneurs via training in business and financial skills, etc. also play a role in poverty alleviation and further enhance economic development (Varis, 2008; Furlough-Morris, 2017). Caution should therefore be exercised in drawing conclusions on the relationship between entrepreneurship and poverty reduction.

The sampled textbooks do not seem to have taken the empirical evidence presented above into account. Furthermore, they are silent on other factors apart from entrepreneurship that may contribute to poverty alleviation. The textbooks thus conceal vital information and serve as a means of social control as they fail to incorporate multiple voices and perspectives. This calls for the disruption of the

normalised assumptions and ideologies inherent in entrepreneurship scholarship by teachers and students in order to address imbalances in the curriculum and provide students with balanced, truthful knowledge (Mills, 1997; van Eeden, 2008).

A claim that further glamorises entrepreneurship is the improvement in the standard of living discourse. The sampled textbooks create the impression that entrepreneurship has a positive impact on the quality of life of many individuals. For example, it is claimed that the living conditions of individuals who are involved and employed in various entrepreneurial activities will improve.

While some studies assert that entrepreneurship improves standards of living as well as promoting the stability of nations (Mahembe, 2011; Moloi, 2013; United Nations, 2015a; Fox & Sohnesen, 2016), others note that not all entrepreneurial activities have a meaningful effect in this regard. In many countries such as those for whom the sampled textbooks were produced, most entrepreneurial activities are unproductive survival ventures that are based on necessity as opposed to innovation. They do not realise a healthy profit. Such ventures also confront fierce competition and have very little growth potential. Therefore, they do not graduate into medium-sized or larger businesses. This type of entrepreneurship usually only benefits the entrepreneur and at most some family members who are used as labour and assist with the everyday running of the business (Ratten, 2017). While they may temporarily improve their standard of living, this is not always sustainable due to the high rate of failure (van Praag & Versloot, 2007; Decker et al., 2014). Based on the evidence, it would seem that survival/small entrepreneurship may not be the panacea to improve the living standards of individuals in many communities/countries. On the other hand, high-growth businesses provide high paying stable employment, offer good non-wage benefits and promote innovation. They therefore have a positive effect on general living standards (Edmiston, 2007; van Praag & Versloot, 2007). Nonetheless, the job creation capabilities of both survival and larger businesses are complex.

This information is not presented in the sampled textbooks, which can thus be viewed as ideological tools as they present an idealised picture of entrepreneurship and its contribution to an improved standard of living. In many classrooms, the textbook is viewed as an authoritative tool in terms of transmitting content. This disadvantages

students as the information presented may mislead students who often interact with textbooks in an uncritical manner. Their teachers may also not be trained to encourage critical thinking among students. They then view the knowledge in textbooks as legitimate, resulting in indoctrination, which produces “dogmatic close minded graduates” and is a threat to education and democracy (Lammi, 1997, p. 10 cited in Pinto, 2007).

The final claim that reinforced the glamorising of entrepreneurship theme is the effortless globalisation assertion. The integration of local and global markets is regarded as an uncomplicated process that allows businesses and countries to access a variety of goods and services. It also fuels economic growth, assists in job creation, reduces poverty and significantly improves standards of living. Zealous advocates of globalisation also claim that it has resulted in a substantial decline in poverty levels in many countries.

While globalisation offers many benefits, including better jobs, poverty alleviation and enhanced economic growth and development, especially in low income countries, authors and organisations such as Oxfam (2002); Griffin (2003); Stiglitz (2004); Desai (2005); Middleton (2007); Pangestu (2012) and the Ministry of Industrialisation, Trade and SME Development Namibia (2016) warn that the benefits of globalisation have not been evenly distributed among countries. The rules that govern globalisation are rigged to benefit only the rich (Oxfam, 2002). Rich countries are capturing the lion’s share of the world’s exports and gains while poverty persists in low income countries. In the words of a Thai student, “[Globalisation] is like bigger fish eating smaller fish. The big countries set the standards, and they use them to suppress the smaller countries. The weaker nations should have more power. Whatever we try to do ... the bigger nations get in first and try to take it all” (Cited in Oxfam, 2002, no page number). This has resulted in increased competition from imports. Globalisation is also linked to environmental degradation, business closures, substantial job losses, lower pay for displaced workers, inequality, poverty, corruption and economic imbalances among other issues. This has been the case in many industries in different countries. Small, medium and micro enterprises with limited resources, together with their employees and families, are most negatively affected by

the globalisation process, with businesses finding it difficult to compete, especially in the presence of larger multinational companies.

Globalisation is therefore not always benign (Oxfam, 2002) as championed in various literature, including the sampled textbooks. While one cannot disregard its notable success in some countries, for others, the results have been disappointing. *“Rising tides are supposed to lift all boats; but the rising tide of wealth generated by trade has lifted some boats higher than others, and some are sinking fast”* (Oxfam, 2002, p. 9). Omission of the negative aspects of globalisation in the sampled textbooks does not reflect the reality of global economic integration faced by many businesses and countries. One version of economic reality is thus presented to students.

Textbooks play an important role in many countries, especially the SADC countries covered in this study. Students use them as a primary resource in the classroom and at home. Authors thus need to exercise caution and ensure that they present all sides of the globalisation story.

7.1.4 Gender inequality and male domination

Another finding that emerged from the critical analysis of the texts was persistent discrimination and bias against women. Evidence of this powerful and pervasive prejudice could be seen in the images and the supporting text used to describe entrepreneurs, leaders and managers. Priority is given to powerful and successful men from around the world and in SADC countries such as Bill Gates, Dr Hangala, Richard Branson, Mr Hafeni, Quinton van Rooyen, Aupa Frans Indongo, Martin Shipanga, Harold Pupkewitz, Nelson Mandela and Mohandas Ghandi, to name but a few. Other graphical fictitious representations were also used to illustrate men as exemplary successful entrepreneurs, leaders, and managers.

This finding is in line with that of Pillay (2017) and Smith (2006) who found that the vast majority of entrepreneurs featured in textbooks are successful, prominent men and that this side-lines the roles played by women in the economy. Bijedić, Brink, Ettl, Krywoluzky and Welter (2016) also concluded that school textbooks promote and reproduce the notion that entrepreneurship is masculine. Prominent and successful entrepreneurs such as Mark Zuckerberg and Bill Gates are used as

examples in entrepreneurship textbooks. The end result may be that female students may not identify with the male entrepreneurial personalities in their textbooks and may struggle to find role models while at school. They may then lose interest in entrepreneurship because the impression created by textbooks is that women are unfit for entrepreneurial roles.

This is a false portrayal of entrepreneurship and reveals evidence of economic supremacy (Clark, 2016). Not all male entrepreneurial ventures are largescale. Globally, there are many male and female smaller-scale ventures in less attractive industries (Shane, 2008). Moreover, there are many successful female entrepreneurs. Kelley, Baumer, Brush, Greene, Mahdavi, Cole, Dean and Heavlow (2017) found that, in 63 economies that participated in the GEM survey, the TEA among women rose by 10% on average between 2014 and 2015 and the gender gap narrowed by 5%. In three Southeast Asian countries, Thailand, Vietnam and Indonesia, the number of established business owners among women is equal to and in some cases greater than that of men. Women also have strong growth prospects. More than half of the women entrepreneurs in the United Arab Emirates, Qatar and Tunisia look forward to hiring six or more employees in the next five years. Women are also 5% more likely than their male counterparts to be innovative in their businesses. More women start businesses in the sub-Saharan African and Latin American regions. The Mastercard Index of Women entrepreneurs (2017) also noted that out of 54 economies, Uganda has the highest percentage of women business owners, followed by Botswana. In addition, Score (2018) found that in America, women are slightly more likely than men to start businesses. Women mentored businesses are as successful as male businesses when measured in terms of business start-up, revenue, growth, job creation and number of years in business. American Express reported that 1 821 net new women-owned businesses were added each day in the US between 2017 and 2018 (American Express, 2018). Women have gone from owning 4.6% of all businesses to owning 40% and have generated revenue of more than \$1 million US dollars. There was also an increase in the past 11 years of women-owned businesses that generated revenue of more than \$1 million US dollars. The increase was 46% vs 12% for businesses in general. Businesses in this income bracket also represent 68% of total employment for all women owned businesses as well as 69% of total women-owned enterprises' revenue (American Express, 2018). A similar picture emerges in many

economies, where there has been a surge in women-owned businesses. Exceptions in some countries are attributed to institutional barriers that inhibit their entry and growth in the economy.

The above statistics show the impact of women entrepreneurs in many economies and also highlight their contribution despite having to overcome many barriers and discrimination when establishing their businesses. They are persevering in the face of such challenges and making important contributions to the economy by providing employment, income for other women and men and providing goods and services for many people around the world (Kelley et al., 2017), but the textbooks paid little attention to them. If obstacles were to be totally removed, women would be on par with their male counterparts in many parts of the world. It can thus be concluded that there is pro-male bias in the analysed commerce textbooks. The literature has failed to disrupt the notion that entrepreneurship is the preserve of men. Men continue to be portrayed as the archetype of entrepreneurs.

The masculine bias in textbooks is dangerous and could reinforce existing gender stereotypes in entrepreneurship. By being “[e]xposed constantly to a one-dimensional, mono-visual world in texts that allow no room for discussion or debate ... students will absorb these gender-biased and culturally skewed messages from class 1 onward, simply because they echo the biases and prejudices of society” (Mattu & Hussian, 2003, p. 96).

Another gender bias that was noted in the analysis of the textbooks was the stereotypical roles of males and females. Both genders are portrayed performing stereotypical tasks. This is seen in the pictorial depictions as well as the supporting text. Women are depicted in nurturing roles, as mothers surrounded by children. Even where the supporting text states that they are businesswomen, they are depicted with children. They thus carry the double burden of mother/caregiver first and then an entrepreneur or career woman. Women are also portrayed as social entrepreneurs who are involved in business ventures for the betterment of society as opposed to economic gain. At times they are depicted as helpless and powerless, sometimes needing the help of men. The impression is thus created that they lack the capability to become successful professionals or businesswomen without assistance. In contrast,

men are depicted as highly-skilled, competent professionals with business knowledge who command respect. Notably, they are not depicted as caring for children or society as a whole. Previous research by Tietz (2007), David (2012), Chiponda and Wassermann (2016), Pillay (2017) and Bijedíc et al. (2016) also found that textbooks disseminate prevailing patriarchal ideologies that strengthen gender stereotypes and contribute to gender-based occupational segregation.

Textbooks continue to uphold gender stereotypes and discrimination against women instead of eliminating them. They disregard the promotion of gender equality in society and schooling. The images they present are highly influenced by patriarchal culture. It is held that females are not disregarded and discredited, but they are protected and preserved in the conventional archetypes of mother, wife and daughter. Whether the entrepreneur is a woman or man, the construction of an entrepreneur tends to reproduce and sustain masculinity, despite the change in gender roles in society. Being both an entrepreneur and woman is yet to be seen as 'usual' (Bruni, Gherardi & Poggio, 2005).

Learning materials are still far from achieving gender equality (African Union Gender Policy, 2009). These textbooks are recent editions that were used in classrooms at the time of the analysis. This is alarming given the progress that women have made in all spheres of social, political and economic life. According to Pillay (2017), stereotypes have become so 'normalised' that even textbook reviewers and publishers do not see anything wrong with them; hence, year after year and edition after edition, they fail to disrupt them. Given the manner in which women are presented in the selected textbooks, it would appear that, together with the efforts of different governments and organisations nationally and internationally, they are paying lip service to the elimination of stereotypes as stereotypical representations are omnipresent (Schoeman, 2009).

Hamid et al.'s (2008) literature review observes that such stereotypes could create a sexist mind-set in students and legitimise the ideology that sexism is the natural order of things. Furthermore, it could reduce students' (both male and female) ambitions and self-esteem, especially if they are young and do not have the necessary critical skills to challenge such stereotypes. It could also make the classroom environment

unpleasant, especially for the girl child. Finally, linguistic stereotypes may cause social ills such as violence, sexual violence, domestic violence and sexual harassment in the home and at school. Textbooks need to present students with gender-neutral content. The presentation of males and females in stereotypical roles must be abolished and males and females should be depicted in a range of professions.

Another manifestation of gender bias and inequality in the texts is the depiction of women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy. Despite the progress made by women in recent decades, some women owned businesses are associated with pink-collar fields and industries, semi-formal (small) businesses, and informal (micro and survivalist) businesses. These businesses require less start-up capital than larger businesses. Profits are very low and they are prone to failure.

This finding concurs with Pillay's (2017) study on gender representation in four SADC Business Studies textbooks that depicted women entrepreneurs as running smaller ventures than their male counterparts. The Meeting of the OECD Council at Ministerial Level (2012) also observed that women are restricted to smaller scale businesses in a limited range of sectors with low sales that often yield low profit. Although their studies were conducted in a different context, Nene (2014) and Chiponda and Wassermann's (2015) analyses also showed that women were underrepresented in textbooks. Gupta, Wieland and Turban (2019) note that low growth unsuccessful business ventures are more often than not linked with women and thus perceived as feminine whereas high growth innovative businesses are alleged to be masculine. While such misrepresentations are often subtle and covert, they distort and water down women's contribution to entrepreneurship and the economy and further encourage inequalities between women and men (Gupta et al., 2019). As such, entrepreneurship "is a process that is marked by deep stereotypical gender divisions" (Hanson, 2009, p. 245).

The construction of female entrepreneurs in the analysed textbooks is not a true reflection of current realities in SADC and across the world. While research shows that women are found in their numbers in the informal economy, they are also present in different economic sectors. For example, in many middle and high income economies, women are starting businesses at a more rapid pace than men and are thus

making important contributions to economic growth (Global Partnership for Financial Inclusion, 2011). They are also making significant contributions to other economies with a low Human Development Index. Women make substantial revenue from their businesses. Their entrepreneurial capabilities are evident and can no longer be ignored in the literature.

The image of the powerful, successful male operating a large business in the formal economy remains a stereotype of the archetypical entrepreneur in textbooks and where women are acknowledged, they tend to be portrayed as a different, inferior type of entrepreneur. This has severe implications for students who use these textbooks. Both male and female students are placed at a disadvantage as the texts fail to provide them with examples of women in different business sectors and industries as opposed to the traditional feminine smaller sectors (Pillay, 2017). Apple (1986) notes that, this situation is not likely to change unless the field of entrepreneurship undergoes extensive refinement.

While many scholars have made efforts to challenge the status quo, it would seem that they have not succeeded in unsettling the rigid gender bias and stereotypes (Ahl, 2002; Bruni et al., 2004; Pillay, 2017). Women entrepreneurs continue to be portrayed as running smaller businesses in the informal sector while, for the most part, men are depicted in the formal economy as the prototype, operating large prosperous businesses (as evidenced in the visual analysis). This could suggest that women entrepreneurs “are playing the same game but with different rules or perhaps that they are playing an entirely different game!” (Campbell, no date, p. 9) because their entrepreneurship differs from male entrepreneurship. They are still not seen as credible and legitimate. The difference in portrayal challenges gender equality and the inclusion of women in previously male dominated domains. This has a negative impact on students as the literature distorts female entrepreneurship and ultimately their understanding of entrepreneurship. They may assume that the stereotyped images are the reality because they do not always have the critical skills to see the depictions as biased and insensitive. Their teachers may also not substitute the knowledge in textbooks (Al-Jumiah, 2016).

7.2 Summary of Chapter Seven

This chapter interpreted, explained and discussed the findings from the textual and visual analysis in Chapters five and six. It noted that, despite the sampled textbooks having been revised, they remain gender biased and gender insensitive. Furthermore, they have naturalised capitalism and neoliberalism. They also romanticise the phenomenon of entrepreneurship and present only one version of the reality. Students may internalise the knowledge presented in their textbooks. While some teachers may contest and rectify such knowledge, what students encounter in their commerce textbooks still holds weight (Sleeter & Grant, 1991).

The ideological assumptions inherent in most textbooks need to be disrupted. Entrepreneurship textbooks and those in other fields of education need to offer multiple perspectives. Ministries of Education textbook task teams should do more to ensure that this is the case before textbook approval and printing.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

Chapter Seven interpreted, explained and discussed the findings that emerged from the analysis of the selected textbooks. In this chapter, a presentation of the study summary and conclusion is provided. A synopsis of each chapter is presented, followed by a revisit of the research objectives that underpinned the study. Further, a review of the methodology employed in this study and a review of the overall study is also provided. The implications of the findings are also discussed and suggestions are made for further research. Finally, I highlight the significance of the study, its contribution to knowledge and its limitations, and draw overall conclusions.

8.2 A synopsis of each chapter

Chapter one: Introduction to the study

Chapter One presented the context of the study, including the research problem; the rationale for the study; the historical background on the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship; entrepreneurship in institutions of learning (the global and SADC context); and an analysis of previous textbook studies across the globe. While many of these did not focus specifically on entrepreneurship, they were beneficial as they demonstrated the global problem relating to the content in learning materials. The chapter also presented the study's research objectives and questions, briefly outlined the methodology employed and also provided a short literature review.

Chapter two: Literature review

This chapter reviewed the literature relating to entrepreneurship and textbooks. The literature review provided me with a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of entrepreneurship and school textbooks. However, few empirical studies have been conducted on entrepreneurship in textbooks; this was addressed by consulting other literature on entrepreneurship from various sources. There is consensus in the literature that while entrepreneurship is regarded as a panacea for numerous economic and social challenges, its presentation in textbooks is not neutral, and is often

distorted as well as gender biased and gender insensitive. A distorted representation of entrepreneurship is thus presented to students. It was concluded that entrepreneurship textbooks promote particular economic and gendered ideologies.

Chapter three: Theoretical framework

This chapter presented the theoretical framework that guided this study. The general critical theory lens and the work of critical educational theorists such as Apple (1982; 1986, 2004) and Giroux (1983a; 1988) was of great assistance in revealing the ideologies, assumptions and power relations within the entrepreneurship texts and visuals.

Chapter four: Research design and methodology

Chapter four discussed the research design and methodology adopted to conduct this study. The critical qualitative approach enabled an in-depth exposé of the ideological assumptions in the commerce texts. The chapter also discussed the methods employed for data analysis. The study adopted MDA, which incorporates CDA and VSA. The combination of CDA frameworks employed was described, including Fairclough's three-dimensional CDA framework that is considered as one of the most important and useful frameworks in the field of CDA. Huckin (1997) and Machin and Mayr's (2012) toolkit for doing CDA were also explained. For the VSA, Nene's (2014) instrument to analyse visuals was explained. The criticisms levelled against CDA and VSA as well as how I addressed these were also discussed, as were the location of the study and the sampling process. Finally, the chapter presented the approaches used to ensure trustworthy and ethical findings.

Chapters five and six: Findings and analysis (parts one and two)

Chapters five and six presented the study's findings based on the textual and visual analysis. These findings addressed the first research objective and question. The ten discourses that emerged from the analysis of the texts and visuals in the commerce textbooks were described. These were the ease of business formation; personal enrichment; economic growth; job creation; solution to poverty; improvement in the standard of living; the effortless globalisation discourse; foregrounding of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers; stereotyping of gender roles and women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy.

Chapter seven: Discussion of the findings

This chapter presented an in-depth interpretation, explanation and discussion on the findings that emerged in Chapters five and six. These included simplicity in establishing a business; individualistic values; males as the prototype in entrepreneurship; stereotypical depictions of women entrepreneurs; and entrepreneurship as a universal remedy that enhances business opportunities, economic growth and development, creates jobs, reduces unemployment, poverty and inequality, increases incomes and standards of living and generally empowers people. These findings were further grouped into four themes, therefore summarising the findings from the critical enquiry on the phenomenon of entrepreneurship in SADC. They included the oversimplification of entrepreneurship, promotion of individualistic norms and values, glamorising the facts of entrepreneurship, and gender inequality and male domination.

Chapter eight: Conclusion

This chapter presents the study's overall conclusion. It re-examines the findings in relation to the research objectives and questions that underpinned the study and provides a review of the methodology employed in this study and a review of the overall study. The implications of the current constructions of entrepreneurship in textbooks are also discussed in this chapter followed by the suggestions for further research. The study's significance and contribution to knowledge are also highlighted. To conclude the chapter, a discussion on the study's limitations is presented.

8.3 Research objectives and questions

This study set three research objectives and questions. The first research objective and question were addressed in Chapters five and six, while the second and third research objectives and questions are addressed in this chapter. The following section combines all the findings that emerged from the two data analysis chapters (both textual and visual) in order to briefly present the main findings. Thereafter, the second and third research objectives and questions are addressed and possible explanations are provided for why the discourses of entrepreneurship occur in the way that they do in the contemporary commerce textbooks and what the consequences are of the entrepreneurship discourses that are deeply rooted in these textbooks.

8.3.1 Research objective and question one:

- *Objective:* To examine how the discourses of entrepreneurship are constructed in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries.
- *Question:* How are the discourses of entrepreneurship constructed in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries?

The textual and visual analysis of the six contemporary commerce textbooks revealed the following ten main ideological discourses:

- *The ease of business formation*
- *Personal enrichment*
- *Economic growth*
- *Job creation*
- *Solution to poverty*
- *Improvement in the standard of living*
- *Effortless globalisation*
- *The foregrounding of males as exemplary entrepreneurs, leaders and managers*
- *Stereotyping of gender roles*
- *Women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy*

These ideological discourses became evident in the second stage of the analysis. As explained in Chapter four, the analysis involved two stages. The first involved reading the textbooks in an uncritical manner, like an ordinary, undiscerning reader, i.e., the student. This was followed by the second stage where the analyst takes a “step back” but returns to read the text critically. Analysing the textbooks critically made it possible to disrupt and lay bare the entrepreneurship ideologies and assumptions anchored in the literature and entrepreneurship scholarship. If left unchallenged, these ideologies could further entrench themselves in entrepreneurship scholarship and literature and be regarded as natural and common sense by students (Tedmanson et al., 2012).

8.3.2 Research objective and question two:

- *Objective:* To determine why the discourses of entrepreneurship occur in the way they do in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries.
- *Question:* Why do the discourses of entrepreneurship occur in the way they do in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries?

Having analysed the phenomenon of entrepreneurship in six contemporary textbooks, the following five factors help to explain the discourses that emerged and some of the possible reasons why the discourses of entrepreneurship occur in the way they do in the textbooks. These are, *the principles of neoliberalism are embedded in societies and educational institutions; entrepreneurship as a panacea for the many socio-economic challenges; entrepreneurship as a gendered phenomenon; the knowledge in textbooks is not neutral and constructions of entrepreneurship*. Each is explained below.

- **The principles of neoliberalism are embedded in societies and educational institutions**

Neoliberalism emerged in Central Europe in the 1930s and was later embraced by the Economics Department at the University of Chicago. Many states, including the UK, US and Chile also adopted the neoliberal ideology (Davidson & Saull, 2016). In the 1970s, it gained impetus due to inflation and falling profits that affected economic elites (Wilson, Calhoun & Whitmore, 2014). The ideals of neoliberalism were then embraced by many countries. Neoliberalism has become a hegemonic paradigm (Bello, 2009). For example, Holborow (2012, no page number) stated that “neoliberalism has become the stamp of our age. In the space of less than a generation, neoliberal principles have spread across every continent and have become so integral to public and private life that thinking outside its parameters is almost unthinkable.” Neoliberalism proposes a diminished role for the state, privatisation of public companies, individualism, abolishment and/or cuts in welfare programmes and a more business-focused mission, free markets and free trade and the removal of laws

that may interfere with commercial activities (Haque, 2008; Wilson et al. 2014). Others scholars note that nations that have adopted neoliberal policies thus advance from state government, to private-public governance and entrepreneurial citizenship (Bockman, 2013).

Neoliberal principles have found their way into schools and learning materials are reported to inculcate neoliberal values. Such principles are embedded in entrepreneurship/ enterprise education. According to McCafferty (2010), the UK government has adopted numerous measures to embed enterprising values across the whole curriculum. These are supported rhetorically and financially by both government and business across political and national boundaries.

*“... enterprise should not just be an 'add-on' to the school curriculum or a form of business studies. Enterprise should be **at the heart of the school curriculum, running across academic subjects for all age groups**”* (The Confederation of British Industry (CBI), 2005, p. 2 quoted in McCafferty, 2010, p. 554) (emphasis added).

However, scholars warn that “the uncritical promotion of values of enterprise and entrepreneurship ... lead to greater ‘frontline’ business involvement in schools, helping to normalize free market values and ‘neoliberal commonplaces’” (McCafferty 2010, p. 541). Kosar-Altinyelken and Akkaymak (2012) also found that neoliberal ideology, such as a focus on individualism and less emphasis on working for society was evident in Social Studies textbooks in Turkey, that also promoted consumption, competition and entrepreneurship. The authors add that the educational system seeks to create individuals with a neoliberal orientation. Such education may further sideline students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. In contrast, students with better access to cultural, economic and social resources are in a more favourable position (Kosar-Altinyelken & Akkaymak, 2012). Advocates of free enterprise have sought to embed free enterprise in every major institution (Beder, 2006). This is evident in statements from a variety of sources that when students do not have adequate understanding of the economic system, this threatens the prosperity of countries such as America. As indicated in Chapter One, Section 1.5, such education is evident in many countries, including the sampled countries.

The increased dominance of the neoliberal agenda in society and schools is however, coupled with the devastating effects of capitalism such as increased inequality (Bockman, 2013) despite nations not experiencing economic scarcity (Labonté & Stuckler, 2016). Nations that have adopted neoliberal policies also struggle with poverty, social cohesion, economic growth and unemployment (Sakellariou & Rotarou, 2017). When neoliberal policies have been embraced citizens have been negatively impacted, from their right to basic services, to minimum living standards, social equality, political power and even intergenerational justice (Haque, 2008).

Despite its negative effects on countries, neoliberalism remains entrenched in societies. Educational institutions reinforce these ideals in classrooms and fail to contest them despite their clear failings (Labonté & Stuckler, 2016). It is held that there are no alternatives to this economic system. Without radical reforms, neoliberal policies will continue to imperil nations and their economies (Labonté & Stuckler, 2016). They will also continue to be promoted in schools and embedded in learning materials as such principles are constantly advocated for by policy makers and pro-neoliberal scholars.

- **Entrepreneurship as a panacea for the many socio-economic challenges**

Entrepreneurship is widely touted as the panacea that will solve the social and economic problems faced by nations. This has resulted in the phenomenon gaining momentum around the world in the past few decades. Policy makers, the academic literature and the media all advocate for entrepreneurship. Many people are also pursuing entrepreneurship as a career and learning institutions are offering courses on entrepreneurship. From only a few institutions in the 1970s, internationally, almost all institutions offer this subject that is generally expensive. A four-week course on entrepreneurship at Dartmouth College costs US\$8, 200.00 (Shane, 2008). Educational departments, both private and public and private investors have also devoted huge amounts towards entrepreneurship education. Millions are set aside for such education in most countries. Curricula have also been restructured and subjects that relate to entrepreneurship are found at different levels of education. This upsurge in interest has been driven by research that asserts that entrepreneurial skills can be learnt. Entrepreneurship is thus not a talent, but an acquired skill.

Policy makers, scholars and many other groups in many countries thus regard entrepreneurship as a crucial ingredient to promote economic development and growth, job creation, poverty eradication and improved social conditions.

Governments in the sampled countries, i.e., South Africa, Namibia, Zimbabwe and other parts of the region as well as at the global level (Fredrico et al., 2005; Co, Groenewald, Mitchell, Nayager, van Zyl, Visser, Train & Emanuel, 2006; Republic of Namibia, Ministry of Trade and Industry, 2018) have implemented school programmes and policies aimed at broadening entrepreneurship at school and societal level and improving access to finance among businesses, including youth businesses. Examples include *The National Policy on micro, small and medium enterprises in Namibia* drafted in 1997 (Republic of Namibia, Ministry of Industrialisation, Trade and SME development, 2016) and later reviewed. The Zimbabwe Small and Medium Enterprises Development Corporation and the South African Ministry of Small Business Development that was established in 2014 aim to facilitate the promotion and development of small businesses (SEDA, 2016a and b; Small and Medium Enterprises Association of Zimbabwe, 2019). Many scholars are also teaching and researching this phenomenon around the world.

There is consensus in the literature that students should be exposed to some form of entrepreneurship knowledge before they complete compulsory schooling. Furthermore, the literature highlights that the learning process needs to start as early as possible; indeed, some scholars suggest that it should begin in kindergarten. Schools thus started to introduce entrepreneurship from a very young age. Prior to this, courses relating to entrepreneurship were initially restricted to secondary schools as stand-alone courses. The subject is now part of the ‘official curriculum’ at primary school (Pinto, 2014). Skills and attitudes of entrepreneurship are thus explicitly integrated in a large number of European countries from primary school level in all fields of study. Courses are also offered to students from non-business disciplines (European Commission, 2016). Other countries in many parts of the world, including SADC have also introduced entrepreneurship education at different levels of schooling, mainly among the youth due to the global youth unemployment problem. Entrepreneurship is seen as the solution to unemployment by many nations. It is being promoted in the schooling system despite the fact that the impact of entrepreneurship

education on students is under-researched.

- **Entrepreneurship as a gendered phenomenon**

Most literature on entrepreneurship privileges masculinity. This is corroborated by the examples presented in Chapter Six that showed that entrepreneurship is not neutral (Ahl, 2004). The names of famous men were cited as successful entrepreneurs who were depicted as exemplary entrepreneurs. Other studies featured in extant literature confirm this tendency.

For example, Pillay's (2017) study on educational materials in selected SADC countries and other comparable contexts concluded that entrepreneurship is masculine. The literature continues to associate entrepreneurship with men operating successful companies. According to Baker et al. (1997), scholars do not pay attention to women's entrepreneurship as they are mainly involved in small sole proprietorships and are considered insignificant. Large businesses, preferably the Fortune 500 businesses started and managed by men, are favoured in the literature (Baker et al., 1997). Contemporary research continues to preserve gendered assumptions by presenting entrepreneurship as male (Patterson et al., 2012). Instead of challenging and disrupting such thinking and constructions of entrepreneurship, masculinity is assumed to be the norm.

Masculinity is anchored in the entrepreneurship literature. When women enter entrepreneurship they are seen as "intruders" in male domains (Patterson et al., 2012). This gives the impression that men are more befitting of being entrepreneurs than women. Despite decades of research on gender bias in different fields and the various policies and strategies adopted to challenge such bias, females, especially in the entrepreneurship literature, continue to be stereotyped and underrepresented. Other studies in various fields show that, while blatant sexist content is a thing of the past, progress has been very slow and gender bias remains pervasive as subtle biased images engulf contemporary textbooks. Sexism thus remains widespread in schools and learning materials (Sadker, Sadker & Zittleman, 2009). The slow rate of change can be attributed to "gender fatigue", where feminist and other radical scholars regress and do not pay as much attention to gender bias (Sadker et al., 2009).

Gender bias is also ignored, especially by educators, because it is not very explicit in the literature and is thus assumed to not have an impact on children. While, a few decades ago, the content in textbooks devoted less than 1% to the contributions and experiences of women, Zittleman and Sadker (2003) found that it had only increased to 7.4% at the time they conducted their study. Many textbooks thus continue to devote minimal space and attention to females. ‘Cosmetic bias’ also occurs when women are included in textbooks and portrayed in non-traditional careers, but there is little narrative on their contribution. For example, the text on eight celebrated female educators in a textbook analysed by Zittleman and Sadker (2003) only comprised three sentences. In stark contrast, 26 pages were devoted to detailing the contributions of the male educators (Zittleman & Sadker, 2003). Education seems to be a “zero sum game” (Zittleman & Sadker, 2003), with boys given preferential treatment at the expense of girls.

Despite a wealth of evidence that the literature foregrounds men and females continue to be short-changed, gender bias issues in the curriculum and schooling as a whole are not given much attention (Sadker & Sadker, 1995). Very few teacher training colleges offer preservice teachers methods to promote gender fairness in the classroom. When confronted with gender issues many teachers are unprepared and tend to overlook gender bias in textbooks as well as in the classroom and schooling environment (Sadker & Sadker, 1995; Zittleman & Sadker, 2003). In some countries there is no formal code of practice when it comes to gender equity for publishers to follow when writing textbooks (Lee, 2014). Even though publishing houses acknowledge the need for more gender-neutral textbooks, they are left to interpret the gender stipulations on their own (Lee, 2014), resulting in the production of textbooks that are laden with stereotypes and other ideological information. In the case of this study, the rigid gender bias and stereotypes in entrepreneurship textbooks could reduce the number of women who wish to pursue this career path, thus increasing the significant gender gap that already exists in entrepreneurship in many countries. “Because textbooks are microcosms of society, mirroring its strengths and ills alike, it follows that the normal socialization patterns of young children that often lead to distorted perceptions of gender roles are reflected in classrooms [and textbooks]” (Goodnow, 1994, cited in Marshall & Reinhartz, 1997, p. 333). It could also reduce their entrepreneurship knowledge, because the content excludes women and does not provide them with an

accurate account. It is likely that if students were to be asked to name 10 entrepreneurs from anywhere in the world, they would be able to name ten male entrepreneurs without difficulty, but might be hard-pressed to name even five female entrepreneurs, because their books tell them so little about female entrepreneurship and women's contribution to the overall economy. Commerce textbooks thus promote masculinity. In summary, despite educational policies and commitments that aim to promote gender neutrality in learning materials, the Ministries of Education in the selected SADC countries could be accused of reinforcing gender bias in the curriculum and textbooks as they have failed to eliminate it.

- **The knowledge in textbooks is not neutral**

Textbooks are critical tools in the teaching and learning process in many countries. However, many scholars have questioned the contents of most textbooks used in schools. Textbooks are accused of falling short of their important role in the educational system. They continue to provide mediocre material to learners at all levels of schooling. Further, learners are also exposed to selective, biased and at times political knowledge contained in textbooks (Cajani, 2007, Pinto, 2007, Rodden, 2009a), which is often the only tool to convey knowledge in many countries, including SADC members.

The content of textbooks is thus not neutral. Only certain knowledge is included and other knowledge that is not regarded as suitable is excluded. This results in a selective, political, ideological and manipulated curriculum that often aligns with the political agendas of those in power (Ndlovu, 2009). Ross (2012) also reported that textbooks promote ideals that are in line with the social and economic hierarchies and relationships dominated by the ruling socioeconomic class (Ross, 2012).

Although not explicit, the selective and at times political knowledge in textbooks is powerful given that students spend around 80 to 95%, of their time utilising textbooks at home and in the classroom. Teachers also use textbooks to deliver lessons in the classroom (Sadker et al., 2009). Their content thus needs to be free of errors, contradictions and biases in interpretation (Williams & Ogosto, 2012) and it should be thoroughly scrutinised before exposing students to it. Educators also need to be

critical of the biased knowledge in textbooks and should be able to identify and challenge such bias (Romanowski, 1996).

- **Constructions of entrepreneurship**

Generally, the field of entrepreneurship is viewed as a ‘positive’ one (Landström et al., 2016). Entrepreneurship is often perceived as an advantageous economic activity (Tedmanson et al., 2012). Outside academia, it is almost universally accepted that entrepreneurship is beneficial to both economies and nations (Nightingale & Coad, 2013). Apparently, the positive constructions of entrepreneurship are taken for granted. According to Nightingale and Coad (2013, p. 135) “the value of entrepreneurs has become such a part of the cultural zeitgeist that to ask for evidence, or even question the robustness of that evidence, has become the height of political incorrectness”. This has led to the many taken for granted assumptions in the field of entrepreneurship. As observed in this study, the most dominant assumptions in the literature are that entrepreneurship creates wealth, fuels economic growth, creates jobs, reduces poverty, and improves the standard of living. While it is acknowledged that entrepreneurship has a positive impact on the economy, this is a one-sided view that is rarely challenged (Jones & Murtola, 2012; Landström et al., 2016). As a result, textbooks follow suit and present entrepreneurship in a one-dimensional manner, focusing on its positive aspects. Other viewpoints are rarely mentioned and there is limited critical debate (Landström et al., 2016).

Only recently have some scholars began to address the “layers of ideological obscuration” (Martin, 1990 cited in Tedmanson et al., 2012, p. 532) in entrepreneurship and to engage with the assumptions, contradictions and ideologies of entrepreneurship scholarship (Tedmanson et al., 2012, p. 532). However, few have posed the question, “Is entrepreneurship truly a vehicle of economic and social mobility”? (Landström et al., 2016, p. 6).

There are thus gaps between the literature and the reality of entrepreneurship (Landström et al., 2016). Attention needs to be paid to the empirical anomalies that have emerged from the field and the serious methodological problems that tend to promote an unrealistically positive view of this phenomenon (Nightingale & Coad, 2016). Its role in promoting and maintaining economic growth, job creation, poverty

alleviation and the overall well-being of nations requires further scrutiny (Nightingale & Coad, 2016).

In terms of economic growth, Nightingale and Coad (2014, p. 130) found that “for most of the time, most of the firms and for most of the performance metrics, the economic impact for entrepreneurial firms is poor.” Moreover, mixed results have been reported on whether many policy makers’ belief, that entrepreneurship, especially small businesses, will create jobs, holds true.

Notwithstanding the mixed evidence, entrepreneurship continues to be regarded as a “good thing” (Nightingale & Coad, 2014) and this is widely promoted in the literature, including textbooks. Many policy makers and scholars continue to encourage entrepreneurship and nowhere is this more evident than in schools especially among the youth. It is for this reason for the current construction of entrepreneurship in the sampled textbooks and other entrepreneurship literature needs to be disrupted.

Farny, Frederiksen, Hannibal and Jones (2016) advise educators to address the hidden curriculum of entrepreneurship by, for example, challenging the uncontested values and beliefs that underlie this scholarship. They call for a more critical reflective approach as educators that do not embrace such an approach can be accused of furthering this hidden curriculum.

8.3.3 Research objective and question three:

- *Objective:* To explore the consequences of the entrepreneurship discourses embedded in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries:
- *Question:* What are the consequences of the entrepreneurship discourses entrenched in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in the selected SADC countries?

There are enormous consequences of the entrepreneurship discourses identified in the selected contemporary commerce textbooks. These become embedded in the minds of

students as the curriculum has an impact on their learning. As seen in the literature review in Chapter two, and the interpretation, explanation and discussion in Chapter seven, the construction of entrepreneurship is distorted and tends to omit its darker side. For example, evidence was found that the texts maintain that it is an uncomplicated process to start a business, and that entrepreneurship contributes to economic growth, reduces poverty, creates employment for many people, and improves the standard of living in society. Furthermore, the globalisation process is portrayed as unproblematic and individualism and self-interest are emphasised. While the evidence in other textbooks and literature supports the above views, these claims are not true. This is alarming as students will lack information on other important aspects of entrepreneurship. Where such information is provided, it is often sketchy, leaving students with incomplete entrepreneurship knowledge. Such distortions and partial knowledge are not warranted in an age where there is a profusion of entrepreneurship knowledge. Furthermore, textbooks on entrepreneurship are seldom updated and tend to be clones of one another. When editors recruit authors to write textbooks, they send them numerous examples of texts from their competitors (Loewen, 2007). They then use the same format and literature to write the textbooks. Gaps are not addressed and new knowledge that challenges distortions and provides an accurate account of entrepreneurship rarely emerges. Given that students continue to depend on textbooks, they are prone to indoctrination (Loewen, 2007).

There remains evidence of sexist stereotypes in the vast scholarship on entrepreneurship. Men are portrayed as superior and more influential while women are either underrepresented or not represented at all. While many scholars have documented women's contribution to economies around the world, textbooks seemingly ignore developments in entrepreneurship, business and society. They are active in all aspects of both the economy and society. However, entrepreneurship texts are not gender-balanced. This has a negative effect on women and society as a whole. When male and female students are frequently told that entrepreneurship is a masculine field, male students will be more interested in entrepreneurship than their female counterparts. This socialises students and in turn limits females' career opportunities. The stereotypes in textbooks thus need to be dismantled, beginning in the classroom and extending to the home and the broader society. If this does not occur, girl children's skills and abilities will be lost to society (Sadker & Sadker, 1995). It

has been noted that when teachers devote more time and attention to boys than girls, females are negatively affected (Sadker & Sadker, 1995).

In summary, textbooks do not deserve their reputation as factual, unbiased and value free tools (Romanowski, 1996). It is therefore important for writers to begin to include factual and non-stereotypical content in texts, because textbook content is powerful. While it is easier and more convenient to recite the customary entrepreneurship story, authors and teachers have a major influence on students (Loewen, 2007). In-service and practicing teachers should be required to take modules in critical pedagogy in order to recognise and rectify ideological content in the curriculum that they may unknowingly be imparting to students on a daily basis (Loewen, 2007). However, Loewen (2007) found that some teachers that taught controversial topics ran the risk of disciplinary action or even dismissal. They thus chose to remain silent and not deviate from the textbook.

8.4 A review of the methodology employed in the study

This study examined the discourses of entrepreneurship in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in selected SADC countries. The tenets of MDA, which incorporate CDA and VSA were applied. The CDA instrument used in this study was based on the three-dimensional framework presented by Fairclough (1989; 2001). It was further supported by Huckin (1997) and Machin and Mayr's (2012) CDA toolkit. Nene's (2012) instrument for analysing visuals was used for the VSA.

Both the CDA and VSA methods assisted me greatly and provided me with the tools to critically interrogate the entrepreneurship texts and images. Through this interrogation, I was able to reveal the many taken for granted assumptions embedded in entrepreneurship texts. Entrepreneurship encompasses a range of assumptions and stereotypes. For example, as seen in Chapters five and six, entrepreneurs are commonly stereotyped as men, with women the 'other'. The textbooks also assumed that establishing an entrepreneurial venture is simple and uncomplicated and that globalisation is an effortless process. They portray entrepreneurship as a panacea that can boost economic growth, create jobs, reduce poverty and improve standards of living. The use of CDA and VSA helped to reveal these assumptions, stereotypes and power relations that are buried in the texts and the visuals.

The CDA and VSA present different frameworks and approaches for analysts. In the initial stage of analysis, I struggled to select appropriate framework(s) and toolkit(s) to draw from. I did not have a starting point. Only after immersing myself in the CDA and VSA literature, was I able to choose which frameworks and toolkits were most applicable to my study.

A CDA and VSA enquiry thus requires extensive understanding of the topic of interest. Bearing in mind that CDA and VSA are made up of different grammatical approaches (Wodak & Meyer, 2009), a full understanding is required of the linguistic and visual frameworks and toolkits that will be applied in a study, as it is not possible to use all the toolkits from the available frameworks and approaches.

8.5 A review of the study

Using the critical lens to examine entrepreneurship textbooks was enlightening. By reading and analysing the textbooks, I gained a great deal of knowledge and understanding of learning materials and institutions and the critical, yet ideological and political role played by textbooks in many classrooms. Using the MDA tools, I learned much about the phenomenon of entrepreneurship and its many contradictions that are rarely challenged and are regarded as “facts”. The MDA tools were very instrumental. Before embarking on this study, I did not question the presentation of entrepreneurship in textbooks, or, indeed, how other phenomena are represented in textbooks and other written content. Like most people I assumed that entrepreneurship is the solution to the socio-economic problems facing many countries and that textbooks are conveyors of legitimate knowledge and therefore incontestable. With MDA knowledge, I am now able to identify the ideologies and assumptions embedded in entrepreneurship and textbooks.

8.6 Implications of the research findings

This study examined the discourses of entrepreneurship in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in selected SADC countries. Ten discourses emerged during the analysis. The study’s findings on the construction of entrepreneurship in textbooks have the following implications for education stakeholders:

- There is a need for Ministries of Education to rigorously scrutinise texts before they go to print. This will result in the production of high quality textbooks and eliminate

superficial, biased or selective textbooks;

- Ministries of Education and textbook approval committees should also pay attention to gender bias and stereotypes in textbooks; these must be abolished in the curriculum;
- Adequate time should be allocated to the planning and writing stages of textbooks. This should not be a rushed process;
- Writers should be change agents and exclude prevailing entrepreneurship assumptions and ideologies from textbooks;
- Lee (2014) observed that teachers sometimes transmitted gender-neutral content in a gender-biased way and therefore embedded stereotypical thinking and behaviours in the minds of students, not realising the adverse effects this has on their development. Curriculum designers at teacher education institutions therefore need to ensure that gender equality is a central part of the curriculum so that future teachers can bring about change in classrooms and the school environment. Teachers with no training on gender issues may unknowingly transmit sexist attitudes to students;
- Teachers represent a potentially powerful force for social change (Giroux, 1997). They therefore need to develop critical skills in order to challenge any distortions, errors, bias and other skewed information in textbooks. However, many teacher training institutions offer watered-down training on critical skills. Furthermore, educators are often comfortable with known errors in textbooks as they are accustomed to the content and this makes teaching easier, rather than having to begin again and learn new content that they are unfamiliar with (Loewen, 2007);
- Publishing houses should continuously seek feedback from schools on their publications; and
- A textbook task team should be formed to scrutinise textbooks and ensure that those included in the official catalogue sent to schools annually do not overlook important issues in a particular field.

8.7 Suggestions for further research

- Entrepreneurship education is taught in many world classrooms at all levels of education. Textbooks are regarded as critical tools in education; therefore, entrepreneurship textbooks should be analysed in countries where such education is offered;

- Given that textbooks are the main instructional tools in many schools, the content of textbooks relating to all grades and subjects should be analysed, not only commerce textbooks or secondary schooling;
- Different tools and techniques could be employed to gather and analyse data. The use of multiple sources (data triangulation) would ensure that the research is described in depth (Lietz & Zayas, 2010). It would also strengthen the credibility of the study and enable better understanding of the topic at hand rather than relying on textual and visual analysis;
- It is also suggested that analysts collect what Guba (1981, p. 85) terms “referential adequacy materials”, such as audio recordings and video tapes and other “raw” and real life data that can be tested for bias;
- Future analysts could share their draft findings with the authors of textbooks before finalising the report; and
- The teacher and the textbook are important in the teaching and learning process. Thus, future research could focus on both.

8.8 Significance and contribution of the study to knowledge

Meagre attention has been paid to the single most vital tool that defines whose knowledge is taught in classrooms, the textbook (Apple & Christian-Smith, 1991). Other ideological concerns have been raised with regard to textbooks, especially commerce textbooks such as Entrepreneurship Studies, EMS and Commerce education in SADC and around the world. However, few studies have analysed entrepreneurship in textbooks in SADC countries. The myths and misconceptions surrounding entrepreneurship have rarely been challenged in this context. David’s (2012) study that explored the ideology manifested in selected EMS textbooks and Pillay’s (2013 and 2017) studies on gender representation in four SADC high school Business Studies textbooks could be regarded as exceptions as they touched on entrepreneurship. The findings from the current study therefore contribute to the existing but limited body of literature on entrepreneurship. The study adds to the literature by foregrounding the assumptions and ideologies underlying entrepreneurship scholarship rather than relying on mainstream knowledge that maintains that entrepreneurship is an undeniably positive economic activity. For example, it was noted that entrepreneurs face many obstacles and that the assumption

that entrepreneurship contributes to economic growth and more equitable wealth distribution that in turn, improves standards of living in society is contested. Other negative aspects of traditional notions of entrepreneurship are its emphasis on individualism, and its impacts on employees, families, societies and nations. Certain individuals such as women are also excluded from the entrepreneurship discourse. While studies in the SADC region and other parts of the world have noted the exclusion of women, other contradictions of entrepreneurship have not featured in studies within the SADC context. Finally, in SADC countries, entrepreneurship is rarely approached from a critical standpoint; the current study fills this gap.

The findings of this study are therefore timely. They unsettle deep-rooted entrepreneurship assumptions and ideologies. The findings also lay bare some of the “blind spots” (Landström et al., 2016) of entrepreneurship research which could, in turn, assist Ministries of Education in the SADC region, publishers and authors in their promotion and construction of this phenomenon and thus facilitate more effective teaching and learning of this subject in the region.

8.9 Limitations of the study

The study’s limitations include the following:

- The study only analysed the approved six popular new editions of contemporary commerce textbooks for classroom use for Grade eight and Form one students in the selected SADC countries in 2015. The findings therefore cannot be generalised to all textbooks and publishers of Grade eight and Form one contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in SADC countries;
- The study only analysed the texts and visuals in the textbooks. Other data collection methods like questionnaires, individual interviews, focus groups and observation were not utilised. Some of these methods have been suggested for future researchers to apply to supplement the textual analysis and add to the credibility of the study; and
- The contemporary commerce textbooks (EMS, Commerce Education and Entrepreneurship Studies) were not analysed in their entirety. The focus was on entrepreneurship education in these textbooks.

8.10 Conclusion

The overall aim of this study was to examine the discourses of entrepreneurship in contemporary commerce textbooks in secondary schools in selected SADC countries. The study's objectives were achieved as it identified the different entrepreneurship discourses in these textbooks. These were found to be ideological. The study provided an explanation as to why the different discourses of entrepreneurship occur in the way they do in the analysed textbooks. The consequences of the construction of the entrepreneurship discourses were also discussed.

The ideologies that emerged from this study will provide insights to Ministries of Education, publishing houses, authors and educators regarding school textbooks and the phenomenon of entrepreneurship in the education system. It is hoped that the study will promote meaningful discussions and action on how textbook content can be improved and promote truthful knowledge and quality learning materials.

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Appendix 1: Supplementary Images

i. Men as leaders

Image one

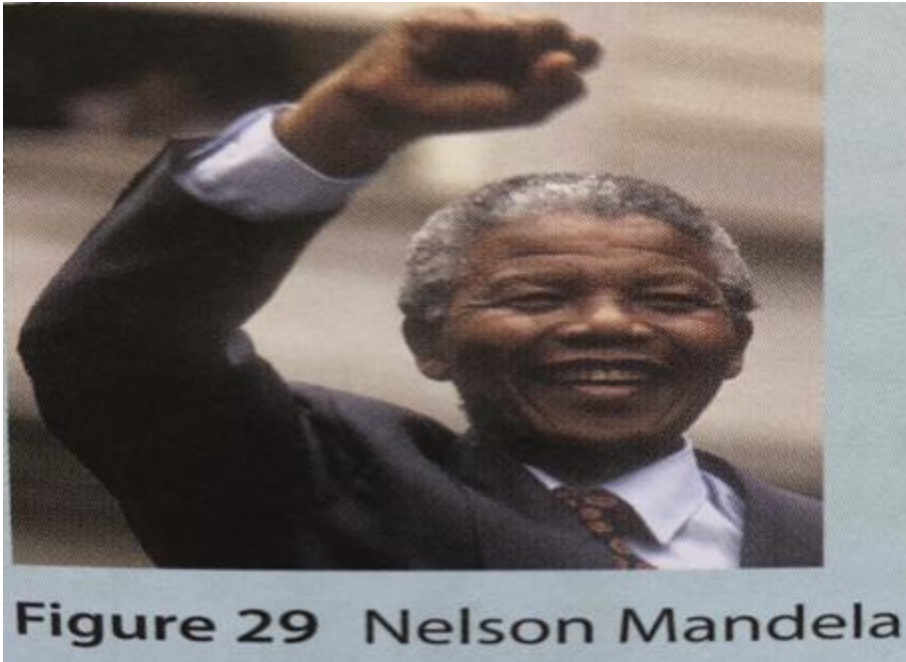
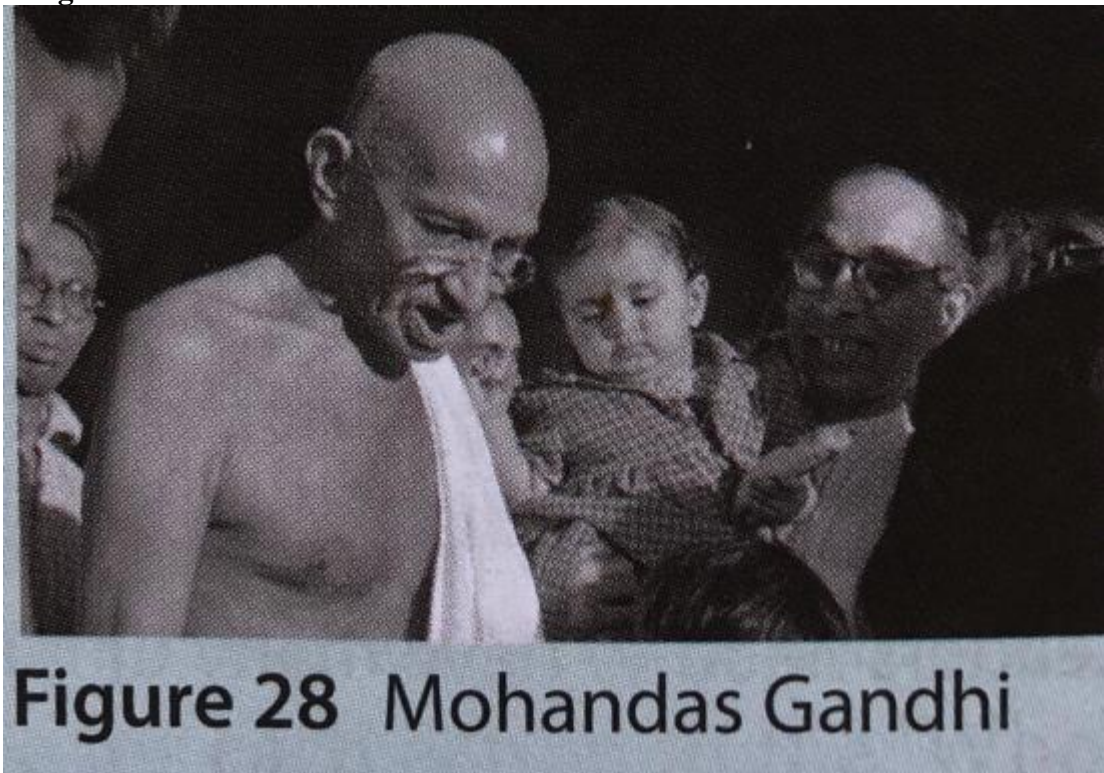


Image two



ii. Biased depictions of women in mostly pink-collar businesses

Case study one

Mary started a dressmaking business with capital of R70 000. She invested R20 000 of her own savings in the business and also obtained a loan from Absa bank for the rest of the capital. She employs an accountant, pattern designers, machine operators, cleaners, messengers, packers and drivers. She spent R40 000 on two sewing machines, a cutting table, a computer and a printer.

1. How much own capital did Mary start her business with?
2. How much borrowed capital did Mary start her business with?
3. How much did Mary spend on fixed assets?
4. Which workers are unskilled?
5. Which workers are semi-skilled?
6. Which workers are skilled?
7. Why are workers so important in a business?

Your teacher will discuss the answers with you.

Reading passage one

Jane opened a bank account in the name of her business, Jane's Hairdressing Salon. She will deposit money at the bank once a day.

Enter the following transactions of Jane's Hairdressing Salon for March 2013 in the Cash Receipts Journal.

Reading passage two

Enter the following transactions in the Cash Receipts Journal and the Cash Payments Journal of Ms H Moolla who started her own organic shampoo and hairdresser shop, Organo Hair, for the month ended February 2.14. All columns should be added up and the totals should be written down in each column at the end of the month. Make sure that all columns balance at the end of the month.

Image three



Figure 1
A successful
enterprise
manager

Case study two

Thandi operates her hair and beauty salon. The following transactions took place on 14 June 2011:

- received R200 in cash (2 × R100 notes) from a customer, Opal Winfrey, and issued receipt number 84
- received a cheque for R350 from Diane Spence for hair and beauty treatments and issued receipt number 85
- paid Best Beauty Buys R480 for hair products, using cheque number 1036.

Using the templates provided:

- Create source documents for each of the three transactions described above, using the templates below.

Receipt Number _____	Date: _____
Received from:	
Cash <input type="checkbox"/> Cheque <input type="checkbox"/> Other <input type="checkbox"/>	
For: _____	
Amount (in words) _____	
Received by: _____	

Receipt template

Date: _____	
To: _____	
Balance b/f	
Amount paid in	
Balance	
Other debits	
Balance	
This cheque	
Balance c/f	
Cheque number _____	

Cheque counterfoil template



Reading passage three

Activity 27

Tasha is the owner of *Fantastic Fabrics*, a business selling cushions and duvets. She started the business with a sewing machine of N\$4 000.

Her expected sales for one year are:

Cushions: 540

Duvets: 300

Selling prices per unit:

Cushions: N\$50

Duvets: N\$100

Cost prices per unit:

Cushions: N\$35

Duvets: N\$80

Other expenses:

Repayment of N\$10 000 loan @ N\$550 p/m for 24 months

Tasha takes N\$500 per month as wages for herself.

Draw up a budget for Tasha's shop for one year.



Case study three

Lolita runs a business called Sew What, which does repairs and alterations to people's clothing. To earn additional income, she has decided to take in washing too and offer a laundry service. She wants to track her two sources of income separately, so that she can see which side of her business is making more money.

1. Design the layout of the Cash Receipts Journal for Sew What in such a way that Lolita will be able to clearly identify her two sources of revenue.
2. Enter the following transactions into the Cash Receipts Journal for the month of January 20.2:
 - 12 January: received R350 in cash for sewing repairs. Receipt number 65 was issued.
 - 15 January: received R400 in cash for laundry services. Receipt number 66 was issued.
 - 18 January: received R600 in cash, of which R200 related to laundry and R400 was for sewing alterations.



Case study four

Day 1 (first day of business)

Mbali has R8 000 of her own money. She has decided to start a sewing business. She has calculated that she needs R15 000 to start her business. The bank has agreed to lend her R7 000. Use the table below as a guide to help you

<p>Week 1</p> <p>Mbali bought a sewing machine for R10 000, some material for R4 000, and some sewing equipment for R500.</p>	<p>Week 2</p> <p>Mbali paid rent of R50.</p>	<p>Week 3</p> <p>Mbali has completed the clothing and sold it for R7 000. She used her whole stock of material.</p>

Case study five

Moline Mayova from Grootfontein loves baking. She started baking birthday cakes for her community and the demand grew to the neighbouring towns of Tsumeb and Otavi.

Soon she couldn't keep up with the demand. She needed to employ more people and get more capital to invest in a new, bigger oven and other equipment. Her mother, Sylvia, advised her to register her enterprise to make it easier for her to obtain a loan.

After registering her enterprise, she was given a loan by SME bank. She employed 10 workers from her community. In two years, she would like to open another branch in Oshakati.

- a) Identify and describe the type of enterprise Moline is running.
- b) List any two direct and two indirect costs.
- c) Describe the source of capital for this enterprise.
- d) Explain the role of Moline's family members in her enterprise.
- e) Distinguish between the two types of capital.
- f) Name three ways in which Moline can advertise her products.
- g) State two management functions.
- h) Name three conflict situations that could occur in her enterprise.
- i) Explain to Moline why she should pay tax.

Reading passage four

Ruusa would like to sell her pancakes in your community. Suggest a marketing mix for her new enterprise. Think about your community and their needs and spending habits. Use what you know about your friends and neighbours to suggest an appropriate marketing mix. The following questions will help you get started.

1. Product: which products should she sell?
2. Price: what should the price be?
3. Place: where should she sell her products?
4. Promotion: how should she promote her products?

Here are some ways to promote products or services that you can look at for ideas:

Case study six

Activity 45

CASE STUDY

Judy and Jasmine wanted to open a small business together. They were two sisters and they loved each other very much. The sisters had different talents. Judy was very good at baking and she loved working with people. Jasmine was more of a shy person, but she was very good with maths and accounting.

The sisters decided to open a little bakery with a small sitting area where people could relax and have coffee and something to eat.

Both sisters had some **money saved**, so they put in an equal amount of money to start the business.

Judy baked fresh cakes, pastries and bread each day.

Case study seven

Mariental – Mrs Julia Goagoses, 48, is a determined Namibian businesswoman who was born and bred in Mariental in the Hardap region. Goagoses, who wakes up at 4:00 every morning, lets nothing get in her way to achieve her dreams. She owns a home bakery and catering enterprise known as Julia's Bread Bakery. She ventured into the enterprise in 2009 with only four employees, but as her bakery grew she employed more people.

Julia went into the bakery enterprise because she saw the need and high demand for bread since only a few shops in Mariental had bakeries. Currently she employs 16 people, whose benefits include

free loaves of bread daily. Goagoses also runs a catering enterprise that caters for parties and weddings in Mariental.

Goagoses encourages other Namibians to stop asking for handouts and to use their hands instead to do something productive and to give each other moral support. Her philosophy is that one is never too old or too young to start an enterprise. She believes young people should work hard, instead of going to clubs and messing up their lives with alcohol and drugs. She says positivity will result in constructive ideas that will build and contribute to a stronger nation.

- a) Describe two types of enterprise that Mrs Goagoses is running.
- b) List two other types of enterprise in Namibia and give one example for each.
- c) Mrs Goagoses is a sole trader, explain two characteristics of this form of ownership.

Reading passage five

The bookkeeper from Lynette's Laundry is on leave and her temporary replacement is having difficulty preparing the Trial Balance for August 2011. Help her to balance the Trial Balance by advising whether the following amounts should be entered on the debit or credit side:

- a) Wages R7 500
- b) Capital R25 000
- c) Current income R17 000.

Reading passage six

Katie Irons has a small business. She does ironing for busy housewives.

Appendix two: Ethical Clearance Report



24 August 2016

Ms Maud V Hutchinson 215075392
School of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear Ms Hutchinson

Protocol reference number: HSS/0524/016D

Project title: Discourses of entrepreneurship in contemporary commerce textbook in secondary schools in selected Southern African Development Community (SADC) Countries.

Expedited Approval

In response to your application dated 09 May 2016, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol have been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. Please note: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/px

cc Supervisor: Prof SM Maistry

cc Academic Leader Research: Dr SB Khoza

cc School Administrator: Mrs B Bhengu-Mnguni, Mbalenhle Ngcobo, Phillisiwe Ncayiyana, Tyzer Khumalo

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Founding Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville


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Hutchinson thesis

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ABSTRACT

It is generally accepted that entrepreneurship is the 'holy Grail' that will solve the social and economic challenges facing societies. It is also acknowledged that textbooks are the most common educational tools to deliver 'legitimate' knowledge to students.

However, a plethora of empirical studies has found that the reading passages in textbooks that are regarded by students, educators, parents and the general public as 'authentic' are laden with ideology and shaped by power relations.

Against this background, this study adopted a qualitative critical research approach and applied the tenets of Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) to critically analyze entrepreneurship discourses in contemporary commerce textbooks in selected Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries. MDA encompasses Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and Visual Semiotic Analysis (VSA). The CDA and VSA methods drew on the frameworks of Fairclough (1989, 2001), Harkin (1997), Machin and Mayr (2012) and Nene (2014) to uncover the ideological construction of entrepreneurship in the selected commerce textbooks.

The findings of the study indicate that, despite regular revision and amendment, the analyzed textbooks present an ideological rather than a factual perspective of entrepreneurship. The main ideological formations identified were the ease of business formation; personal enrichment; males as successful entrepreneurs, leaders and managers; stereotyping of gender roles; women on the lowest rung of the entrepreneurship hierarchy; economic growth; job creation; solution to poverty; improved standard of living and the effortless globalization discourse. This resulted in entrepreneurship being carelessly romanticized in the selected textbooks, and failure to reflect the realities of this phenomenon. Moreover, the ideologies that emerged promoted capitalistic and neoliberal values. In addition they were gender biased and gender insensitive. Students are thus presented with a one-sided version of entrepreneurship. This can be attributed to the existing entrepreneurship ideology that is entrenched and legitimized in societies and educational institutions around the globe. It can also be attributed to the neoliberal capitalist and gendered nature of

entrepreneurship that is constantly prioritized and naturalized. Finally, textbooks are themselves political and ideological tools.

The implications of the study's findings are that the different stakeholders involved in the production of textbooks should be aware of the ideological nuances inherent in entrepreneurship scholarship and should continuously review, revise and improve them by including the 'dark side' of entrepreneurship, such as business failure and hardship. They should also monitor how textbooks are received at schools or viewed by other stakeholders such as researchers. This would help to ensure that they impart accurate and impartial knowledge to students.

Keywords: Discourses, Entrepreneurship, Textbooks, Curriculum, Critical Discourse Analysis, Visual Semiotics Analysis, Education.

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Text-only Report

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Appendix four: Letter from Language Editor

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Tel: 072 442 7896
Email: deanne.collins30@gmail.com
Income tax number: 0526066204

19 June 2019

I

This serves to confirm that I have edited the thesis, "Discourses of Entrepreneurship in Contemporary Commerce Textbooks in Secondary Schools in Selected Southern African Development Community (SADC) Countries," by Maud Victoria Hutchinson.

DISCLAIMER: The editor cannot be held responsible for any errors introduced due to changes being made to the document after the editing is complete.

Yours sincerely,



(Ms) Deanne Collins (MA)