

The Evolution of Entrepreneurship and Small-to-Medium Business Development in Botswana

Jaloni Pansiri

University of Botswana, Botswana

Email: pansirij@mopipi.ub.bw

Alexander Thabo Yalala

University of Botswana, Botswana

Email: thabo.yalala@mopipi.ub.bw

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the evolution of entrepreneurship and small-to-medium enterprises development in Botswana. In doing so, the paper traces such developments from the establishment of the National Development Bank in 1963, to the crafting of the economic diversification drive strategy in 2010. To bring this discussion into perspective, the paper adopts the environmental munificence and carrying capacity conceptual framework for analysing entrepreneurship policies to argue that while entrepreneurship policies in Botswana were developed to counter a number of environmental challenges, the carrying capacity of Botswana with a population of about 2 million, accounts for the high rate of company mortality. The paper identifies a number of intervention policies, programmes, and strategies which include creating funding opportunities for entrepreneurs; enhancing training for entrepreneurs; research innovation and technical assistance; and creating market access. The paper then draws the similarities and differences between entrepreneurship development programmes in Botswana. The paper concludes by arguing that funding and general support of entrepreneurship in Botswana does not take into account the effects of industry size, maturity, and concentration leading to high rate of company failures. The paper therefore recommends that specific prioritised industries should be identified for support, and assessed taking into consideration their carrying capacities as a way of enhancing competition for government support.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship; Small-To-Medium Enterprises; Environmental Munificence; Carrying Capacity; Entrepreneurship Policy.

INTRODUCTION

The role of government in stimulating economic development is a global phenomenon. Governments have tried many approaches to enhance enterprise development including, among others, low interest loans, grants and subsidies; education programs and retraining; business incubators, networking schemes, mentoring programs; and easing government regulations (Bisk, 2002). In Botswana, enterprise development has been seen as a catalyst to

economic development because “without a diversified economy, Botswana will not attain sustainable growth to realise the national vision goals” (Republic of Botswana, 2003, p. 62). It is therefore imperative for the national government to facilitate the creation of an environment that encourages and supports business and entrepreneurial activities (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, [MFDP], 2009).

While there is a general consensus that entrepreneurship is at the heart of national development (Gagoitseope & Pansiri, 2012; Porter, 1985; Wennekers & Thurik, 1999), there is lack of consensus on the definition of entrepreneurship, and this has hindered research progress (Sheriff & Muffatto, 2015). The term entrepreneurship is widely defined with many authors focusing on the process and context (Henry, Hill, & Leitch, 2005; Sheriff & Muffatto, 2015; Toma, Grigore, & Marinescu, 2014). Summarising a number of definitions, Toma et al. (2014) defines entrepreneurship as a creative human process, which mobilizes resources from one level of productivity to another. They argue that this “implies the individual’s will of taking on responsibilities and the mental ability of carrying out the task from idea to implementation. Another component of entrepreneurship consists of identifying opportunities where other people find only chaos, contradictions, or confusion” (Toma et al., 2014, p. 438). From the basis of an understanding of an entrepreneur as an individual who identifies opportunities in the marketplace, allocates resources, and creates value, the United Nations (2012) defines entrepreneurship as the act of being an entrepreneur, implying “the capacity and willingness to undertake conception, organization, and management of a productive new venture, accepting all attendant risks and seeking profit as a reward.

Botswana lacks a coherent definition of entrepreneurship. Government of Botswana documents and policies on entrepreneurship fail to define entrepreneurship and appear to hold the view that the concepts of entrepreneur and entrepreneurship are already known. For this reason, entrepreneurship, informal, and Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) are sometimes used to mean the same thing (see Central Statistics Office, 2009; Government of Botswana, 1999; Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 2009).

Despite these definitional challenges, the promotion of entrepreneurship in Botswana dates back to the 1960s. Much of this support has been directed at small-to-medium enterprises (SMEs). Most business support policies and programmes focused on financial assistance for start-up firms (Pansiri & Temtime, 2010; Sentsho, Maitetso, Sengwaketse, Ndzinge-Anderson, & Kayawe, 2007); entrepreneurship training (Gagoitseope & Pansiri, 2012; Themba & Josiah, 2015); market access (Sentsho et al., 2007); and research innovation & technical assistance (MFDP, 2009). Therefore this paper seeks to evaluate selected entrepreneurship development programmes in Botswana with a view to understand the role they have played in the country’s economic development over the years.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING ENTREPRENEURSHIP POLICIES IN BOTSWANA

Entrepreneurship is fundamental for economic growth, employment growth and economic renewal (Heinonen & Hytti, 2016; Minniti, 2008; Parker, 2008), therefore, entrepreneurship policy has become an important tool in improving the entrepreneurship

culture and environment of a society (Heinonen & Hytti, 2016). A number of reasons have been advanced in support of government intervention in entrepreneurship. It is argued that governments support entrepreneurship in incidences of market failures inhibiting small firm development (Audretsch, Grilo, & Thurik, 2007; Heinonen & Hytti, 2016; Minniti, 2008). Governments also support entrepreneurship because it is in the public interest that such support should be done (Heinonen & Hytti, 2016); and also because of the capacity of SMEs to create jobs; visionary role of government in developing the economy; and address the issue of entrepreneurial motivation and skills with the primary objective of encouraging more people to consider entrepreneurship as an option (Heinonen & Hytti, 2016). Therefore Gnyawali and Fogel (1994) argue that:

the common areas to be addressed by the public policy are: (a) increasing the opportunity for entrepreneurs and creating a general environment that fosters entrepreneurship; (b) encouraging the establishment of institutions that support entrepreneurs; and (c) providing financial and non-financial assistance once entrepreneurs' likelihood to enterprise has been enhanced.

A number of governments have developed entrepreneurship policies and programmes to meet various needs as stipulated above i.e. Botswana (see, Gagoitseope & Pansiri, 2012; Hinton, Mokobi, & Sprokel, 2006; Pansiri & Temtime, 2010; Sentsho et al., 2007); Sweden (Parker, 2008); and Australia (Parker, 2008); Finland (Heinonen & Hytti, 2016; Heinonen, Hytti, & Cooney, 2010).

Few conceptual frameworks have been developed to analyse entrepreneurship policies, for instance, the Competitive Model of Small Business Policy (Heinonen et al., 2010; Parker, 2002, 2008); environmental munificence and carrying capacity (Begley, Tan, & Schoch, 2005; Castrogiovanni, 1991; Specht, 1993; Woolley & Rottner, 2008); GEM conceptual model (Z. J. Acs, Arenius, Hay, & Minniti, 2005; Levie & Autio, 2008); and the policy framework (Audretsch et al., 2007). This paper adopts the environmental munificence and carrying capacity model because of its view of organisations as embedded in social environments that greatly influence their operations and performance (Woolley & Rottner, 2008). This perspective borrows heavily from the resource dependence and organizational ecology perspectives, both of which maintain that organizations are shaped by the environment in which they arise (Woolley & Rottner, 2008). Therefore entrepreneurship policy embraces a broad spectrum of institutions, agencies and different constituency groups which operate within environments that have peculiar general and industry endowments (Audretsch et al., 2007; M. A. Hitt, Ireland, & Hoskisson, 2007).

Environmental munificence has been defined as the scarcity or abundance of critical sources needed by firms operating within an environment (Castrogiovanni, 1991; Davis, NK). Castrogiovanni (1991, p. 543) further observes that “the resources available within an environment influence the survival and growth of firms sharing that environment, they also affect the abilities of new firms to enter this environment.” Citing a number of authors, Davis (NK) maintains that a firm's ability to acquire resources is directly related to the level of munificence of the environment, hence munificence is the key factor in determining the ability of the environment to sustain a firm's growth. Organisations are therefore shaped by the environment in which they exist, hence their activities and outcomes are based on their abilities

to obtain resources from the context in which they are embedded (Woolley & Rottner, 2008). Okeyo (2014) found that environmental munificence has a significant influence on performance of organizations. He concludes that “the higher the quantity of resources in the environment, the more likely it is that organizations could perform better” (Okeyo, 2014, p. 68).

The above argument is complemented by the organizational ecology perspective which argues that “social and economic conditions determine an environment’s carrying capacity or the number of organizations that its resources can support” (Woolley & Rottner, 2008, p. 793). In this paper, carrying capacity is used as in traditional ecological usage, defined as “the total number of individuals of a species that can live in an ecosystem (or habitat) under certain conditions... The “certain conditions” causing the complexity include individual, population, and environmental interactions and feedback mechanisms” (Trakolis, 2003, p. 58). Organizational ecology studies focus on organizational diversity (Amburgey & Rao, 1996; Begley et al., 2005; Hannan & Freeman, 1977, 1987; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2004; Jitendra V. Singh, 1990; J.V. Singh & Lumsden, 1990). According to J.V. Singh and Lumsden (1990, p. 162) organizational ecology’s emphasis is on how social conditions influence “(a) the rates of creation of new organizational forms and new organizations, (b) the rates of demise of organizational forms and organizations, and (c) the rates of change in organizational forms”. J.V. Singh and Lumsden (1990, p. 162) further argue that “in its classical form, the principal tenet of organizational ecology can be stated succinctly: once founded, organizations are subject to strong inertial pressures, and alterations in organizational populations are largely due to demographic processes of organizational foundlings (births) and dissolutions (deaths)”.

Therefore, the rate and number of new entrants are in part a function of locational carrying capacity. This does determine company infant mortality rate. Inter-organizational relations are a continuous competitive battle for resources which they have little control over (Begley et al., 2005). According to organisational ecologists, organisational chances of success or failure is determined by four factors: population density; industry life cycle; organization age; and organization size (Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2004). The organizational ecology perspective uses the dissolution of a firm as a sign of organizational failure (Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2004). Dissolution is a condition where by an organization “ceases to carry out the routine actions that sustain its structure, maintain flows of resources, and retain the allegiance of its members” (Freeman, Carroll, & Hannan, 1983, p. 694). This could be due to acquisitions, mergers, leveraged buyouts, decline in size (Hannan & Freeman, 1977; J.V. Singh & Lumsden, 1990), liquidation, and bankruptcy (M. A. Hitt et al., 2007; Patterson, Kozmetsky, & Ridgway, 1983).

Specht (1993) argue that environmental munificence is positively related to carrying capacity and that when munificence and carrying capacity increase, the rate of organizational formation increases. Woolley and Rottner (2008, p. 793) summarised Van de Ven’s proposed multilevel infrastructure of entrepreneurship that includes three arenas: “(1) institutional arrangements, such as the legitimation, regulation, and standardization of a new technology; (2) resource endowments, such as basic research, financing, and skilled labour; and (3) proprietary functions, such as R&D, manufacturing, and marketing”.

The Economic Commission for Africa (2001) identified four main constraints and good practices affecting SMEs in Africa: (a) the extent to which the regulatory and policy environment is enabling or disabling SMEs, (b) infrastructure, (c) access to finance, and (d) support services for technology, skills development, and marketing. Hinton et al. (2006) identified a number of challenges facing SMEs in Botswana: (i) excessive, complex and rigid laws and government regulations; (ii) poor entrepreneurial culture; and (iii) access to finance that will enable SMEs to reach their true potential. Sentsho et al. (2007) found that the contribution of SMEs to the economy is hampered by: (i) lack of information on SME programmes; (ii) lack of effective implementation of programmes; (iii) inadequate institutional support; (iv) limited commercial bank financial support; (v) inherent government procurement policy bias towards large firms; and lack of access to reliable and bigger markets.

Despite a number of interventions by the Government of Botswana, problems associated with entrepreneurship development still persist. The following section evaluates selected entrepreneurship development programmes with a view to understand the role they have played in Botswana's economic development over the years. This evaluation is in five sections. First is an evaluation of those programmes aimed at funding of enterprises. This is followed by those policies/programmes aimed at training entrepreneurs; followed by a discussion on the role of research, innovation, and technical assistance for businesses, and creating market access directed programmes. The paper also reviews multifaceted programmes which support entrepreneurship in more than one area listed above. Then conclusions will be drawn from the analysis.

CREATING FUNDING OPPORTUNITIES

Access to finance is one of the most widely recognized object of entrepreneurship policy (Levie & Autio, 2008). Insufficient finance has regularly been cited by prospective nascent entrepreneurs as a barrier to starting a business (Levie & Autio, 2008). Gnyawali and Fogel (1994) maintained that entrepreneurs require financial assistance either to diversify or spread the start-up risk, to accumulate start-up capital, and/or to finance growth and expansion. They further argue that while availability of financial resources appears to be a "major predictor of the frequency of new business start-ups, many lenders seem to be unwilling to invest in high-risk projects or tend to withhold support until the firm has been established successfully" (Gnyawali & Fogel, 1994, p. 51).

Lack of finance has been cited as a major problem for entrepreneurs in Botswana (Sentsho et al., 2007). Because of their lack of collateral, SMEs are perceived by financial institutions as high risk, hence given limited loans (Sentsho et al., 2007). Therefore the Government of Botswana has introduced a number of policies, institutions and programmes aimed at making finance accessible to entrepreneurs such as the Botswana Enterprises Development Unit [BEDU]; the Botswana Development Corporation [BDC]; the National Development Bank [NDB] and the Financial Assistance Policy (FAP).

The National Development Bank

The National Development Bank (NDB) was established by an act of Parliament (as amended) in 1963 in order to promote economic development of Botswana (Republic of Botswana, 1964). NDB is a self-sustaining profit-making Government owned financial institution that focuses on the provision of loan financing to new and existing businesses. Its current lending limits range from a minimum of BWP10 000 to a maximum of BWP60, 000 000 (National Development Bank, 2013, 2015/16). In 1998, NDB became the first Bank in Africa to be certified under the ISO 9001 2000 International Quality Standards (National Development Bank, 2015/16). It focuses on providing loans to businesses in Agriculture¹, Commerce², Manufacturing³ and Real state⁴ (National Development Bank, 2013, 2015/16). For instance, for the 2013 financial year, NDB assessed 2,813 applications worth P644 million (National Development Bank, 2013).

The Botswana Development Corporation

The Botswana Development Corporation (BDC) started as a development arm of government (Sentsho et al., 2007), but was incorporated under the Companies Act Cap 42:01 in 1970 (Botswana Development Corporation, 2015, 2016a, 2016b). BDC is “incorporated as a private limited company, 100% owned by the Government of Botswana, the shareholding and control is through the Ministry of Trade and Industry (MTI), which has assumed the shareholder’s oversight role since 2013” (Botswana Development Corporation, 2015, p. 34).

The corporation’s primary mandate is to drive the industrialisation of the country by providing financial assistance to investors with commercially viable projects (Botswana Development Corporation, 2016a). The corporation provides both debt and equity financing that provide one or more of the following functions: a) pioneer new industries; b) unlock value in existing industries; c) simulate private sector growth and foster linkages with the local industry; d) Drive diversification and exports; and e) create significant employment (Botswana Development Corporation, 2016a). In 1996, Botswana Export Credit Insurance (BECI) was established as is a private company wholly owned by BDC. Its functions are not only to develop and equip businesses with trade credit insurance policies that protect them from the dangers of non-payment by credit customers, but also to offer companies a selection of business growth tools, such as invoice discounting, debt collection and construction bonds and guarantees (Botswana Development Corporation, 2016c; Botswana Export Credit Insurance, 2016).

¹ The NDB finances “all agricultural projects such as game and livestock farming, horticulture, purchasing agricultural machinery & equipment and inputs (fertilizers, chemicals, seeds, feed, land development etc.)” (National Development Bank, 2013, p. 3).

² The NDB finances “all retailing, service industry and tourism” for working capital, machinery and equipment and building construction & refurbishment (National Development Bank, 2013, p. 3).

³ The NDB finances all industrial, manufacturing, processing and mining undertakings (National Development Bank, 2013).

⁴ This include property purchase and property development for office space, commerce and retail space, industrial space and commercial residential space (National Development Bank, 2013).

Financial Assistance Policy

The Financial Assistance Policy was passed in 1982 and operated for almost two decades (Sentsho et al., 2007). It was a major incentive programme that was implemented by government to stimulate investment, create employment, promote citizen entrepreneurship, and diversify the economy. Its objectives were to: (a) facilitate rapid industrialization; (b) assist in diversifying the economy away from dependence on large-scale mining and non-cattle and non-traditional agricultural projects; (c) assist in diversifying the economy across regions, away from the major urban and semi-urban areas, and promote rural industrialization; (d) promote sustained employment of unskilled labour and assist in addressing Botswana's employment problem; (e) promote the acquisition and upgrading of the skills of Botswana citizens through training; and (f) assist in the promotion of citizen participation in the ownership of productive assets (Valentine, 1993).

FAP was based on two premises: Firstly, that government funds were to be used to support new ventures or expansion of existing ventures which could be of benefit to the country; and secondly that such assistance will only be temporary (Sathyamoorthi, 2002), and was funding businesses mainly from the industrial, agricultural and tourism sectors (Sathyamoorthi, 2002).

During the period between 1997 and 2001, FAP funded 5,376 businesses at BWP823,635,000. These were small scale 5,090 (BWP245,917,000); medium scale 226 (BWP81,181,000) and large scale 60 (BWP310,907,000) (Republic of Botswana, 2003).

The scheme suffered many abuses and fraud involving both suppliers and entrepreneurs (Republic of Botswana, 2003). Following a major review in 1999, government concluded that the FAP scheme was no longer effective in achieving the objectives for which it was intended, hence it was replaced by CEDA in 2001, which was not only to provide loans but also mentoring to citizen-owned projects in all sectors of the economy (Republic of Botswana, 2003).

ENHANCING TRAINING FOR ENTREPRENEURS

There is a growing recognition for people to have entrepreneurial skills and abilities that would enable them to deal with life's current challenges and an uncertain future (Biza-Khupe et al., 2012; De Faoite, Henry, Johnston, & van der Sijde, 2003, 2004; Henry et al., 2005). Education and training has been identified as having a direct influence on the level of entrepreneurial activity (De Faoite et al., 2004), and governments have realised the importance of promoting entrepreneurship education and training with a view to advance economic development. For instance, training and education of entrepreneurs has been an effective way to reduce small business failure in Canada (Ibrahim & Soufani, 2002). In Botswana, a number of entrepreneurs were trained through the Local Enterprise Authority (LEA), and business and entrepreneurship education was to be integrated into the school curricula in order to foster an entrepreneurial mind-set among young people (MFDP, 2009).

Local Enterprise Authority

The Local Enterprise Authority (LEA) was established by an act of Parliament (Small Business Act) in 2004, but operated in 2007 (Government of Botswana, 2004; MFDP, 2009) to develop entrepreneurship and assist in enterprise development through: “provision of business planning, training and advisory services; identifying business opportunities for existing and future SMMEs; exploitation of government and large firm procurement opportunities; facilitation of regulation, standards, infrastructure and access to finance; Facilitation of technology adoption and diffusion; and promotion of general SMME awareness” (Sentsho et al., 2007, p. 91). According to Section 4 of the Small Business Act (Government of Botswana, 2004) LEA was established specifically to:

- a) provide assistance to SMMEs in the preparation of business plans, feasibility studies and market surveys;
- b) improve the business skills and competence of SMME entrepreneurs through the provision of training and advisory services in entrepreneurship development, technology, marketing and through appropriate mentoring services;
- c) create growth opportunities for SMMEs through securing greater access to Government procurement contracts for goods and services, in consultation with Government Ministries, local authorities and parastatal organisations;
- d) identify SMME firms with export potential and assist them to enhance their productivity and competitiveness for export markets;
- e) promote business linkages between SMMEs and big industries, including the purchasing of locally produced goods and services by larger firms;
- f) facilitate access to information on support services and sourcing of raw materials by SMMEs through publicity, outreach and information technology;
- g) work with relevant institutions to develop and implement appropriate product and service standards, and to enhance both quality awareness and improvement of SMME products and services through training and advisory services that lead to certification of these products and services;
- h) monitor and evaluate the impact of functions set out under paragraphs (a) to (h) and provide mentoring services in order to achieve long term sustainability of SMMEs;
- i) work with SMME entrepreneurs and technology institutions to facilitate innovation, acquisition, adaptation and diffusion of appropriate technology for effective use by SMMEs;
- j) facilitate access to funding for enterprise development as well as expanding existing enterprises through regular consultation with financial institutions;
- k) make recommendations to the Minister on ways to simplify regulations which impose a Copyright Government of Botswana burden on SMMEs in terms of compliance, time, effort and money;
- l) ensure that SMME trainers, training institutions, training programmes and materials are accredited in accordance with the Botswana Training Authority standards or the standards of such other authority as the Minister may approve; and
- m) facilitate and coordinate the provision of infrastructure and facilities such as factory shells and working space, including serviced land and utility services for SMMEs, in conjunction with local authorities, parastatal organisations, the private sector and the Government

Some of the services to be offered included business plan facilitation; training and mentorship; business opportunity identification for present and future SMMEs; promoting

domestic and international linkages; facilitating access to finance; facilitating changes in regulations, quality management systems and standards; facilitating technology adoption and diffusion; promote general entrepreneurship (Local Enterprise Authority, 2016).

Training and Skills Development

Before LEA's inception, MTI (who trained 9,106 between 2000 and 2006), was responsible for implementation of the SMME Policy, including training of entrepreneurs (MFDP, 2009). Between 2007 and 2009, LEA trained 3,387 participants (MFDP, 2009). In 2014 and 2015, LEA delivered 2712 interventions comprising of 2352 training, and 355 mentoring and coaching interventions. Training was mainly on record keeping and sales and marketing; business planning; fruits and vegetable processing; food hygiene; modern technology in vegetable production, and quality management systems (LEA, 2014; 2015), while mentoring and coaching interventions emphasised nutritional analysis and shelf life analysis; development of human resources policies; website development, management systems and product certification; branding; labelling and packaging etc. (LEA, 2015). Furthermore, LEA has been running a business incubation programme since 2009 (LEA, 2014).

Business Planning and Credit Facilitation

In 2014 and 2015 LEA facilitated development and submission of SMME business plans worth BWP 60.500,000 (LEA, 2014; 2015). However, there is a general view that business plan approval rate is very low because financiers regard SMMEs as high risk and therefore applying overly cautious measures on consideration for funding (LEA, 2014; 2015).

RESEARCH INNOVATION & TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

Research, technological development, adaptation and innovation are core elements for competitiveness, economic growth, job creation, and general improvement of the quality of life under the current globalised economic environment (Government of Botswana, 2011a, 2012). Botswana's comprehensive policy approach to science and technology came with the 1998 Science and Technology Policy (Government of Botswana, 1998a) whose objective was to achieve sustainable social and economic development with a view to meeting the present and future needs of Botswana through a co-ordinated and integrated application of science and technology (Government of Botswana, 1998a). The idea was that since science and technology plays a critical role in productivity growth, national competitiveness and the diversification of the economy (MFDP, 2009), it should be used to improve economic growth and the quality of life.

Another national policy on science, technology and innovation was developed and passed in 2011 with a view not only to increase the "national capacity for economic growth through research, infusion of indigenous knowledge into the national R&D agenda, innovation and sustainable technology development, use and application of science and technology to

improve quality of life”, but also to increase the national human resource capacity in research, science, technology and innovation (Government of Botswana, 2011b, p. 4).

Among the many commitments the policy makes is the role of the private sector where the private sector is expected to partner with relevant stakeholders (such as academia, innovators, researchers, the public and fund managers) for knowledge and information exchange. The private sector is also expected to invest in science and technology development in order to strengthen their competitiveness through tailor made technologies according to market challenges (Government of Botswana, 2011b). The policy argues that SMMEs can be able to support high quality national R&D, and subsequent commercialisation of its products and services.

A number of institutions have been created to fulfil this mandate. For instance, the Botswana Institute for Technology Research and Innovation (BITRI) was established in 2012 to identify and/or develop appropriate technology solutions and further maximize the use of local materials and indigenous knowledge in order to ensure efficiency and affordability (Botswana Institute For Technology Research And Innovation, 2014, 2015; Innovation, 2015). In achieving this, BITRI is to collaborate with other organizations and institutions.

These efforts are not new. Apart from the University of Botswana, which is now joined by the Botswana International University of Science and Technology (BIUST) for conducting research, three other technological and scientific research institutions used to operate under the Ministry of Communications, Science and Technology (MCST). These are the Botswana Technology Centre (BOTECH), the Rural Industries Promotions Company (Botswana) (RIPCO[B]) and its subsidiary – the Rural Industries Innovation Centre (RIIC), and the National Food Technology Research Centre (NFTRC) (MCST, 2005) which were combined to form BITRI in 2012. The MCST (2005, p. 41) summarised their responsibilities as follows:

The Botswana Technology Centre is engaged in research, development and technology transfer primarily on renewable energy technologies, electronic systems, sustainable architecture, energy efficiency and energy audits, waste water management, and ICT systems. The Rural Industries Promotions Company (Botswana) undertakes R&D to support industrial, entrepreneurial and socio-economic development. The National Food Technology Research Centre was established to enhance national food security and safety, national nutritional well-being, economic diversification, import substitution, economic empowerment and job creation, by adding sustainable value to local food materials through adoption, adaptation, the development and application of scientific and technological research in food and nutrition.

Table 1: Development of Botswana's entrepreneurship policy environment

| Policy/programme | Gaps to be filled | Ultimate aim | Focus | Remedy | Key actor(s) | Exemplary measures introduced |
|---|--|---|---|--|---------------------------|---|
| Botswana Development Corporation [BDC] | -Lack of financier for large projects -Need for a development finance institution, and debt and equity financier | -Drive the industrialisation of the country | Providing financial assistance to investors with commercially viable projects | Establish a debt and equity financing institution | BDC 1970- Present | Funded commercially viable projects in manufacturing, agriculture, services, property & infrastructure, Energy. |
| Botswana Enterprises Development Unit [BEDU] | -Scarcity of SMME financing -Lack of service provider for industrial machinery lease purchase -Need for technical training and support to SMMEs | -Development of sustainable SMMEs -Import substitution and employment creation | Provide extension services and financial assistance | Establishment of a Unit to provide multi-faceted services and technical support to SMMEs | BEDU 1974- 1986 | -Establishment of factory shells -Operation of financing revolving fund -Mentorship |
| National Development Bank | -Absence of a Bank to finance SMEs and large businesses and projects -Absence of Financier to fund agricultural projects -Need for guarantor of agriculture credit | -Empower Botswana through tailor-made banking products and services. -Employment creation -Economic diversification | Provide funding | Establish an entity with funds to finance SMEs and large businesses -Provide an agriculture funding vehicle -Set up an agriculture credit guarantee scheme | NDB 1963- Present | -Leading agriculture financier -Establishment of the Agriculture Credit Guarantee Scheme -Operation of Mobile Branches. |
| Botswana Institute for Technology Research and Innovation [BITRI] | Need for organised technology research | -Maximise use of local materials -Develop appropriate technology solutions | Development of appropriate technologies | Establish an organisation to drive and carry out needs based technology research | BITRI 2012- Present | Establishment of BITRI |
| Citizen Enterprise Development Agency [CEDA] | -Lack of affordable funding for start-up businesses | -Foster citizen entrepreneurship and empowerment | -Citizen empowerment -Financing vibrant & | Establish a funding organisation for capital | CEDA 2001- Present | -Entrepreneur and enterprise mentorship -Offer low Interest Loans - Credit Guarantees |

| | | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|--------------------|---|
| | -Inadequate technical support to newly financed enterprises | -Promote economic diversification & encourage the development of competitive and sustainable citizen enterprises -Create sustainable employment opportunities | sustainable SMMEs | expenditure, working capital and stock for new and existing enterprises. | | -Business advisory services -Citizen Entrepreneurial Mortgage Assistance Fund |
| Local Enterprise Authority [LEA] | -No structure for identifying business opportunities -No system for linking SMMEs with Government and Large Businesses, both domestic and international -Need to facilitate technology adoption and diffusion -Need to promote general entrepreneurship and SMMEs | -Entrepreneurship and Enterprise Development -Economic Diversification | Facilitation of Entrepreneurship and Development of SMMEs | Establishment of an Entrepreneurship Centre of Excellence | LEA 2004-Present | -Entrepreneur Screening -Training to Micro Enterprises -Business Counselling & Coaching -Business Plan Development Assistance -Business Growth assistance -Market access facilitation -Entrepreneurship Awareness Workshops -Business Incubation Program |
| Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board [PPADB] | -Lack of capacity to handle rapid expansion in the volume of government procurement -Increase in the range and complexity of procurement -Lack of efficient citizen involvements as beneficiaries -Need to promote greater transparency, public accountability and efficiency in the public procurement system. | Creation of a Centre of excellence for public procurement and asset disposal | Fairness, equity, integrity, transparency and customer in public procurement, and facilitate citizens in supplying goods and services to government. | Setting up of an Agency for the coordination and management of government procurement of public works, supplies, services and disposal of assets | PPADB 2002-Present | -Standardised bidding package -Contractor registration -Publishing of procurement guidelines and policies -Capacity building training programs -Setting up of an independent complaints review committee -Regular public notices of invitations to bid/tender |

| | | | | | | |
|--|--|---|---|--|---|--|
| | | | | | | -Availability and publishing of government procurement plans |
| Economic Diversification Drive [EDD] | Economy dominated by minerals, especially diamonds | -Diversify the Economy, and export markets -Create/facilitate new engines of economic growth | Diversified economy with a globally competitive private sector | Creation of the economic diversification drive medium to long term strategy | Ministry of Trade and Industry 2010-Present | Creation of EDD thematic areas |
| Southern African Customs Union [SACU] | Small markets of individual Southern African Countries | -Create a market bigger than the population of individual countries. -Eliminate customs duties payable on goods moving across member country borders | -Trade growth -Regional export development -Collect customs duties on member countries' imports from outside SACU | - No customs duties between member states. - Formation of a single customs territory in which tariffs and other barriers are eliminated on substantially all the trade between the Member States for products originating in these countries. - A common external tariff that applies to non-members of SACU | SACU 1910-Present | |
| Southern African Development Community [SADC] [Successor to SADCC] | Lack of coordination on trade and economic policies by the Southern African Regional Countries | To achieve economic development, peace, security and growth.to alleviate poverty and enhance the standard and quality of life of the people of Southern Africa. | Promotion of sustainable and equitable economic growth and socio-economic development, deeper | -Establishment of formal regional coordination of economic development of the Southern African States. | Southern African Development Coordinating Conference [SADCC] 1980-1992 | Signing of Twenty Seven SADC Protocols |

| | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|--|--|--|--|---|---|
| | | | cooperation and integration | -Forge cooperation among and integration of the SADC Member States. Form and Launch an implementing Structure | SADC 1992-Present | |
| World Trade Organisation [WTO] | -Need for open international trade. -Need for an International Trade Dispute Settlement Organ -Need for a forum for trade negotiations -Need to minimise international trade barriers | To help producers of goods & services, exporters & importers conduct their business, while allowing governments to meet social and environmental objectives. | -International Trade, exports and imports. | To establish an international trade organisation | World Trade Organisation [WTO] 1995-Present | -Settlement of trade disputes -Administration of WTO Trade Agreements. -Monitoring national trade policies -Technical assistance and training for developing countries -Facilitated trade negotiations -Facilitated cooperation with other international organisations |

CREATING MARKET ACCESS

Studies have also focused on market-specific determinants of entrepreneurship, such as profit opportunities and opportunities for entry and exit (Audretsch et al., 2007), and these could be in foreign markets (Heinonen et al., 2010) or local markets (Agrell, Bergman, Hallerby, & Ring, 1986/2). In fact, market opportunities have been identified as the source of entrepreneurial action (Levie & Autio, 2008). Not only should entrepreneurs be trained on marketing skills but should also be helped in identifying domestic and international markets. Agrell et al. (1986/2) found that entrepreneurs in Botswana associated their lack of success in sales to lack of assistance in marketing.

Over the years the Government of Botswana has helped entrepreneurs to access both domestic and international markets. A number of programmes have been developed to help entrepreneurs identify and access local markets. The government has also entered into bilateral and multilateral trade agreements that would, if utilised, enhance entrepreneurs' access to regional and international markets (Southern African Development Community, 2012; The EFTA States & the SACU States, 2006).

Regional and International Markets

At the regional level, Botswana's proximity to Africa's biggest economy (South Africa) and its potential to be used as an exit route through major trading partners such as South Africa and Namibia is cited as one of the greatest advantages (Government of Botswana, 2011a). More importantly, Botswana has signed several trade agreements and arrangements at the regional level in order to facilitate trade. These include, but are not limited to, the Southern African Development Community (SADC), and the Southern African Customs Union (SACU) (MTI, 2009).

International markets

For many years, Botswana has remained a member of several regional and international trade agreements. "These include the Southern African Customs Union (SACU), the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Trade Cooperation, the Cotonou Agreement and the World Trade Organization (WTO) Agreements (Republic of Botswana, 2003, p. 115). Botswana is also party to the Africa Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) and the European Free Trade Association (EFTA). It is therefore not possible to evaluate all the international arrangements that Botswana is involved in. Therefore this paper will consider four of them, two at regional level (SADC and SACU), and the other two at international level (AGOA and EFTA).

Southern African Development Community (SADC), and The Southern African Customs Union (SACU)

SADC is a regional organisation consisting of fifteen (15) member countries committed to: liberalise intra-regional trade in goods and services on the basis of fair, mutually equitable

and beneficial trade arrangements, complimented by protocols in other areas; ensure efficient production within SADC reflecting the current and dynamic comparative advantages of its members; contribute towards the improvement of the climate for domestic, cross-border and foreign investment; enhance the economic development, diversification and industrialisation of the Region; and establish a Free Trade in the SADC Region (Southern African Development Community, 1996). “Trade and financial liberalisation, competitive and diversified industrial development, and increased investment remain critical aspects of the SADC integration agenda for poverty eradication (Southern African Development Community, 2012, p. 13).

SACU Agreement, is the world’s oldest customs union rooted in the 1889 Customs Union Convention between the British Colony of Cape Good Hope and the Orange Free State Boer Republic (Söderbaum, 2016; Southern African Customs Union (SACU), 2016) which was extended to the Union of South Africa and the British High Commission Territories of Basotholand (Lesotho), Bechuanaland (Botswana), and Swaziland (Southern African Customs Union (SACU), 2016). The 2002 SACU agreement, which included Namibia, emphasised free movement of goods grown, produced or manufactured in SACU member states, within SACU, without any customs duties or quantitative restrictions (Southern African Development Community, 2002).

The Africa Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) and the European Free Trade Association (EFTA)

At the multilateral level, the Botswana government is part of, amongst others, Africa Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA), and the Free Trade Agreement between the EFTA States and the SACU States. AGOA is a nonreciprocal trade preference program that was passed as a law in 2000 by the USA to provide for duty-free imports treatment of certain products from 39 eligible Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries into the USA (Schneidman, 2012; Williams, 2015). The objective of AGOA is to encourage export-led growth and economic development in SSA and improve the United States’ economic relations with the region (Williams, 2015). However, by October 2002 only six companies from Botswana were exporting textiles and clothing to the United States under the program (Trade Law Centre, 2016). While South Africa has remained a major AGOA exporter (at US\$2.1 Billion in 2011), Botswana has only managed to export apparel products of US\$15.500,000 the same year.

Another opportunity for accessing international markets by entrepreneurs is through the Free Trade Agreement between the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) states and the SACU states. The objectives of this agreement are to: (a) achieve the liberalisation of trade goods in conformity with the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade [GATT 1994]; (b) increase investment opportunities in the free trade area; (c) promote adequate and effective protection of intellectual property rights; (d) establish a framework for the further development of their trade and economic relations with a view to expanding and enhancing benefits of this Agreement, and; (e) contribute in this way to the harmonious development and expansion of world trade by removal of barriers to trade (The EFTA States & the SACU States, 2006). Fundira (2007) maintains that this agreement covers trade in goods and lays the foundation for a further engagement of the Parties with regard to intellectual property; competition; trade in

services; investment; public procurement; and cooperation and assistance. However, Fundira (2007) further observes that Botswana's trade under this agreement was of low significance, only on copper ornaments (100% share) with a value of only US\$427,000,000. "Textiles and clothing and beef are entirely insignificant in the entire portfolio. The beef exports should be a sector where Botswana should place strategic and strong interest in" (Fundira, 2007, p. 9).

Domestic Markets

An important factor in entrepreneurship is accessibility to the local market for entrepreneurs, particularly small and micro enterprises which may not have the capabilities of competing in international markets. The Government of Botswana has not only provided incentives towards improving domestic market access but supported accessibility to local markets for few reasons. First, to support local enterprises by purchasing locally produced products, through interventions such as local procurement, the use of preference margins and citizen economic empowerment strategies (Botswana Government, 2011; Republic of Botswana, 2008). To achieve this, central government, local authorities and parastatal organizations were directed to purchase locally produced goods and services from locally based manufacturers and service providers (Republic of Botswana, 2015). Secondly, such initiatives were seen as actions through which government would reduce the country's import bill that has for five years preceding 2010, averaged P20 billion per annum. Through this strategy, P240 million was used to purchase locally produced products and services (Republic of Botswana, 2008).

Economic Diversification Drive

Economic diversification drive was developed in 2010, not only to diversify the economy, but to also reduce the import bill which averaged P20 billion over the last five years preceding the implementation of EDD (Botswana Government, 2011). In this strategy, government made a commitment to intensify efforts to diversify the economy through the EDD Short-Term Strategy and the EDD Medium to Long-Term Strategy (Botswana Government, 2011).

For the short-term, the strategy relies on government interventions such as local procurement, the use of preference margins and citizen economic empowerment strategies with a view to promote consumption of locally produced goods and services. However, the government acknowledges the need to provide a medium to long-term strategy emphasising the diversification of the economy through the development of globally competitive enterprises that need little or no government protection and support (Botswana Government, 2011). The aim of the medium to long term strategy is therefore "to develop globally competitive sectors; diversify exports and export markets through a vibrant and globally competitive private sector; develop goods and services that comply with local and international standards; and develop an entrepreneurship culture for business growth and enhanced citizen participation in the economy" (Botswana Government, 2011, p. 6).

This strategy resulted in a significant improvement in the growth of purchases from local enterprises (Republic of Botswana, 2015). However, it was noticed that some procuring entities continued to import products and services while they were available in the country. Furthermore, in some instance, procuring entities faced problems of unreliable supplies, poor quality of products, and uncompetitive prices (Republic of Botswana, 2015). In order to rectify this problem, procuring entities are now required to seek authority from the Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board (PPADB) and its Committees, and the Local Authorities Procurement and Asset Disposal (LAPAD) Committees if they are to import products and services.

Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board

The Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board (PPADB) was created through an act of parliament in 2002 with a view to overseeing the procurement or disposal of all assets acquired by any means, and the procurement of all works, services, supplies, or any combination by all entities of the central Government which are involved in public procurement or the disposal of public assets, whether they are located abroad or within Botswana (Republic of Botswana, 2002). The authority was brought into being due to rapid expansion in the volume of procurement; increase in the range and complexity of procurement; shift from simple supplies based contracts to technically sophisticated works and service contracts; increasingly complicated procurement procedures; lack of efficient citizen involvement as beneficiaries of public procurement; the need to promote greater transparency, public accountability and efficiency in the management of the public procurement system (Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board, 2016). PPADB has also been responsible for the implementation of citizen empowerment schemes pertaining to tendering (Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board, 2012), therefore it maintains lists of citizen contractors providing ICT supplies and services; and suppliers and/or manufacturers of medical supplies, drugs, laboratory reagents, equipment, and related products (Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board, 2011, 2016).

MULTIFACETED PROGRAMMES

The Government of Botswana also developed multifaceted policies and programmes which were designed to improve entrepreneurship from more than one perspective. Three programmes fall in this category. These are: the Botswana Enterprises Development Unit (BEDU) with its approach of using locally available skills and providing equipment for leasing by BEDU to entrepreneurs, and marketing advice and assistance (MFDP, 1977; Agrell et al., 1986/2). The Policy on Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMME) in Botswana and the Small Business Act were further introduced to promote exports and provide training for entrepreneurs with a view to achieving policy objectives (Government of Botswana, 1999) while the Citizen Entrepreneurship Development Agency [CEDA] was developed to address the need for a coherent and holistic support for the development of small, medium and large scale enterprises (CEDA, 2011b) particularly in respect to the FAP and SMME projects which needed to be streamlined (MFDP, 2003 ; CEDA, 2011b).

The Botswana Enterprise Development Unit

BEDU was established in 1974 to provide local entrepreneurs with extension services and financial assistance (MFDP, 1977; Agrell et al., 1986/2). The objectives of the programme were to: (1) establish viable enterprises owned and managed by Botswana entrepreneurs; (2) create new employment opportunities in urban and rural areas; (3) establish enterprises using locally available skills, and where possible, locally available raw materials; (4) establish a more equitable distribution of income, in particular between the urban and rural areas; and (5) increase the direct participation by Botswana entrepreneurs in the industrial and commercial development of Botswana (Agrell et al., 1986/2).

To achieve these objectives, the programme was designed to offer a composite of services to carefully selected entrepreneurs. Such services included: (a) small workshops rented to entrepreneurs; (b) Technical and managerial advice and training; (c) Credit facilities, through the agency of the National Development Bank [NDB]; d) Bulk buying by BEDU on behalf of entrepreneurs; (e) Equipment leasing by BEDU to entrepreneurs; and (f) Marketing advice and assistance in obtaining contracts (MFDP, 2009). The BEDU programme was divided into three phases, with the first phase commencing in 1974. This phase comprised of establishing industrial estates as follows: (i) Gaborone: Garment enterprises estate, construction enterprises estate, general (wood & metalwork) enterprises estate; (ii) Pilane: Leather enterprises estate; and (iii) Francistown: wood and metalwork enterprises estate. Pottery was later added in Francistown. In addition, other entrepreneurs outside the categories in the estates were also assisted. Examples were processors of semi-precious stones, printing as well as screen printing enterprises (MFDP, 1977). Entrepreneurs housed in estates were meant to graduate to their own facilities and make way for new ones. However, even after the entrepreneurs have relocated outside the estates, BEDU continued to offer managerial advice and general assistance (MFDP, 1977).

The second phase increased BEDU's capacity by 100% in terms of additional enterprises and employment opportunities (Agrell et al., 1986/2). It also aimed at making BEDU entrepreneurs to move out of the BEDU estate and into regular industrial areas (Agrell et al., 1986/2). The third phase saw unprofitable businesses phased-out and the introduction of new procedures for the disbursement of development funds (Agrell et al., 1986/2). By the end of the third phase 915 employees were employed by businesses established by BEDU. In addition, 65 enterprises were established and an additional 30 enterprises were phased out due to non-viability (Agrell et al., 1986/2). However, the programme had achieved less than 50% of its target in both enterprise and employment creation.

BEDU was later transformed to the Integrated Field Services (IFS) Division under the Department of Industrial Affairs (DIA), Ministry of Trade. Following the reorganisation of the Ministry of Trade, IFS together with the Small Business Promotion Agency (SBPA), and Enterprise Botswana (EB) were amalgamated into the Local Enterprise Authority (LEA) in 2004 with a view of consolidating some of the existing organisations responsible for entrepreneurial development in Botswana (Government of Botswana, 2004; MFDP, 2009)

Policy on Small Medium and Micro Enterprises in Botswana and the Small Business Act

Following the 1997 Task Force established to comprehensively address SMME issues and steer their development, the Government of Botswana passed the Policy on Small Medium and Micro Enterprises in Botswana (SMME) (Government of Botswana, 1998b, 1999; Task Force Report, 1998) and the Small Business Act (Government of Botswana, 2004) to address problems and constraints facing SMMEs which included: high failure rate among start-up businesses; lack of access to finance; lack of entrepreneurial skills; bias of the educational system against self-employment; lack of business start-up training; shortage of business premises; excessive government laws and regulations; lack of information on government assistance programmes; lack of marketing skills; lack of data on SMMEs; and inherent biases against SMMEs (Government of Botswana, 1999).

In view of these challenges, the SMME policy sought to achieve the following objectives: foster citizen entrepreneurship and empowerment; achieve economic diversification; promote exports; encourage the development of a competitive and sustainable SMME; create sustainable employment opportunities; promote the development of integration and linkages between SMMEs and primary industries in agriculture, mining and tourism; and improve efficiency in the delivery of services to business (Government of Botswana, 1999).

The Citizen Entrepreneurship Development Agency

The Citizen Entrepreneurship Development Agency [CEDA] was developed to consolidate and streamline various projects providing similar schemes (i.e. Financial Assistance Policy (FAP), and Small, Medium and Micro Enterprise (SMME) scheme, which had previously provided financial assistance to potential entrepreneurs and investors (MFDP, 2003 ; CEDA, 2011b). CEDA was created to address the need for a coherent and holistic support for the development of small, medium and large scale enterprises (CEDA, 2011b).

CEDA was established by the Government of Botswana as a company limited by guarantee in April 2001, as a result of recommendation made by the 1999 National Conference on Citizen Economic Empowerment (NCCEE) (CEDA, 2012). Its mandate is to fund, train and mentor citizen entrepreneurs (Sentsho et al., 2007) with a view to diversify the economy. Specifically, CEDA was established to provide funding for citizen owned businesses and joint ventures operating in/outside Botswana in order to nurture citizen entrepreneurship and empowerment; promote integration and linkages of citizen enterprises through effectively pursuing business opportunities associated with the exploration and exploitation of natural resources; assist citizens with finance for acquisition of foreign owned businesses; improve access to international markets; provide mentoring, technical assistance and other appropriate support to CEDA funded enterprises; and retain citizen investment in commercial/industrial property sectors and land (Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency, 2016).

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Overall findings of this study adds credence to the environmental munificence belief that “resources available within an environment influence the survival and growth of firms sharing that environment” (Castrogiovanni, 1991, p. 543). Majority of the policies and programmes developed in Botswana were directed at affecting the environment in such a way that would enhance the survival and profitability of entrepreneurial activities. The resource-based view argues that resources (tangible and intangible) and capabilities provide the basis for successful strategy implementation (M.A. Hitt, Nixon, Clifford, & Coyne, 1999). These resources include financial resources; physical resources; human resources; organisational resources (M. A. Hitt et al., 2007); assets; and skills (Hall, 1992). This study reviewed fourteen (14) policies, project and trade agreements, four (4) of which were developed to make funding for SMEs accessible. Funding opportunities were availed for entrepreneurship activities since 1963 when the NDB was created. While FAP was discontinued in 2001, NDB, BDC and CEDA are still operational. However, this study shows that accessibility to funding is not the sole panacea to successful entrepreneurship.

The issue of resources as perceived from the environmental munificence perspective also entails human resources (training, experience, judgment, intelligence, insights, adaptability, commitment, and loyalty of a firm’s individual managers and workers); organisational resources (firm’s formal reporting structure and its formal planning, controlling, and coordination system) (Hall, 1992; M. A. Hitt et al., 2007); and intangible resources such as innovation; human capital; managerial skills; organisational reputation; organisational culture; internal auditing, organisational communication (Barney, 1991; Carmeli & Tishler, 2004; Surroca, Tribó, & Waddock, 2010). This study found that through programmes and organisations such as BEDU, SMME Policy, CEDA, and LEA, the Government of Botswana sought to improve entrepreneurship in Botswana through training and skills development, business planning and facilitation, technical and managerial advice and training, and mentoring. While these forms of training are essential for business development, it can be argued that these are first level (order) skills which do not necessarily enhances a firm’s capabilities and sustainable competitiveness. These depend on intangible resources. Capabilities and intangible resources cannot necessarily be developed through government support programmes because they evolve over time and “they are difficult to acquire or develop, to replicate and accumulate, and to be imitated by competitors” (Surroca et al., 2010, p. 466). “These capabilities generally cannot be bought; they must be built” (D. Teece & Pisano, 1994, p. 553). It is argued that an organization in the founding stage does not have any dynamic capabilities (Boccardelli & Magnusson, 2006; Helfat & Peteraf, 2003) but go through an evolutionary process of three stages: founding, development and maturity stages to achieve capabilities (Helfat & Peteraf, 2003).

It is safe to say that most firms that have been supported by these various government programmes are failing to develop capabilities. This view is evidenced not only by the high failure rate and non-growth of such firms but also by the failure of Botswana to diversify its economy despite funds which have been availed to such firms for over sixty years. It seems that government support in the form of funding and training only lays the basis for subsequent development of capabilities, which is the first stage of the Capability Lifecycles - the founding stage. To move forward, firms need to organize themselves around the objective of developing

a particular capability that should then be maintained and embedded in the memory structure of the organization (Helfat & Peteraf, 2003). Previous studies have found that environmental munificence has an effect on SME performance. For instance, Okeyo (2014) found that environmental munificence has a significant influence on performance of organizations in Kenya. Capabilities are necessary to sustain superior enterprise performance in an open economy (D. J. Teece, 2007).

This review has also found that there are a number of policies, programmes and international agreements that seek to enhance firm's accessibility to markets, domestic, regional and international. For instance, the Economic Diversification Drive and the Public Procurement and Asset disposal Board promote local production and consumption through implementation of citizen empowerment schemes pertaining to tendering.

Given limitations associated with the domestic market, Botswana entered into regional and international agreements to help its businesses to diversify their market base. SADC and SACU seek to enhance free trade among member countries. In addition, AGOA and the free trade agreement with the EFTA avail opportunities for Botswana entrepreneurs to access international markets (USA and Europe). This is a significant imperative particularly considering the fact that Botswana is a small market.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper seeks to evaluate selected Botswana entrepreneurship development programmes with a view to understand the role they have played in Botswana's economic development over the years. In doing so, these programmes were discussed in three categories: funding; training; market access; research and innovation; and those that are multifaceted programmes. Following the conceptual framework adopted in this study: environmental munificence and carrying capacity model, it can be argued that the social environment within which entrepreneurs are embedded, either as organisations or individuals, greatly influence their operations and performance (Woolley & Rottner, 2008). Table 1 identifies gaps which each policy or programme sought to fill. These policy initiatives sought to address aspects of the environment as referred to by Gnyawali and Fogel (1994). They sought to (a) increase the opportunity for entrepreneurs and creating a general environment that fosters entrepreneurship (SMME, CEDA); (b) encourage the establishment of institutions that support entrepreneurs (BEDU, LEA); and (c) provide financial and non-financial assistance (FAP; BDC, NDB, BEDU, CEDA).

Botswana government efforts have focused mainly on reducing financial constraints, reducing market access barriers, training, research innovation and technical assistance. These are common themes in many entrepreneurship policies in the world (Kreft & Sobel, 2005; Minniti, 2008).

Through policies such as Science and Technology Policy (Government of Botswana, 1998a, 2011a, 2012), LEA and CEDA (CEDA, 2011a; 2012; LEA, 2014; 2015) the Government of Botswana has also been developing human capital, upgrading technology availability, and promoting enterprise development as suggesting by some authors (Zoltan J. Acs & Szerb, 2007; Minniti, 2008). However, it is safe to say that Botswana's economy

remains undiversified, heavily depending on mining, particularly diamonds, with high unemployment, poverty, and inequality (African Development Bank, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, & United Nations Development Programme, 2015; Statistics Botswana, 2014a). This contradicts reasons for which entrepreneurship policies and programmes were developed – economic diversification and creation of employment. Why Botswana failed to diversify the economy given the many policies and programmes directed towards entrepreneurship remains an important issue for discussion and analysis. Anecdotal evidence suggest that a significant number of companies were created and/or helped by the various policies and programmes that were implemented by the Central Government (Agrell et al., 1986/2; Republic of Botswana, 2003). However, no questions on carrying capacity have ever been raised. Botswana's population has grown from 941,027 in 1981 to 2,024,904 in 2011 (Statistics Botswana, 2014b) with 870817 (43.0%) of them being below the working age group of above 20 years (Statistics Botswana, 2014b). Furthermore, unemployment rates have been fluctuating from a 10.2% in 1981 to a high of 25.3% in 1984. (Statistics Botswana, 2014b). The latest figures show Botswana's unemployment rate as 17.8% (Statistics Botswana, 2014b). On the other hand, currently there are 215113 registered companies, and the total number of deregistered companies is 65,711⁵. In addition to the above, the number of informal sector businesses in Botswana is estimated at 40,421 (Central Statistics Office, 2009). The rate of businesses to the Botswana adult population (1154087) is 1: 4.52. While there are no proposed ratios for organisational carrying, there is a general agreement that there is a carrying capacity for each of the economic, physical, and social subsystems in an economy (Jovicic & Dragin, 2008). The high failure rate of companies as shown by the number of deregistration companies is an indicator of a critical environmental factors that embed the development of entrepreneurship.

Apart from the numerous causes of business failure as identified in the literature (Pansiri & Temtime, 2008, 2010; Temtime & Pansiri, 2003, 2004), carrying capacity is a major challenge for companies in Botswana, given the country's population size. Programmes for regional and international markets have not increased Botswana's footprint in international markets either. For instance, in October 2002 only six Botswana companies were exporting textiles and clothing to the United States under AGOA (Trade Law Centre, 2016), with exports of apparel products amounting to only US\$15.500,000.

This has implications for future policies and programmes on entrepreneurship. Firstly, it can be argued that past policies and programmes were the same and were applied without due regard to sustainability of companies arising from such programmes. By its nature, public policy on entrepreneurship is meant to have an effect on environmental munificence [scarcity or abundance of critical sources needed by firms operating within an environment] (Castrogiovanni, 1991; Davis, NK). Funding and general support of entrepreneurship without regard to variables such as industry size, maturity, and concentration (Thornton, 1999) will not necessarily lead to developing successful entrepreneurship, but rather create more failing companies. While industry priority areas can be identified owing to environmental munificence, specific prioritised industries should be assessed taking into consideration their

⁵ These figures were obtained from Marietta K Magashula, Awareness and Communications Manager at the Companies & Intellectual Property Authority (CIPA) on the August 17th, 2016.

carrying capacities. This would create appropriate targets for the number of entrepreneurs that could be created and supported per industry over a given period of time. This would further enhance competition for such kind of government support. Secondly, local businesses have not utilised Botswana's various bilateral and multilateral trade agreements, which could enhance and broaden entrepreneurs' market opportunities.

Limitations and implications for future research

This paper must be understood in the context of the following study limitations: Firstly, the study relied only on secondary data. This presents a limitation because there is lack of empirical data to test such observations. Secondly, this study only used selected policies and programmes. It is almost impossible to cover every policies, programmes, projects and institutions that are involved in entrepreneurship development. Thirdly, the paper does not attempt to offer solutions to lot of challenges entrepreneurs are facing in Botswana.

This paper adopts the environmental munificence and carrying capacity conceptual framework in order to analyse entrepreneurship policies in Botswana. Previous studies have assessed entrepreneurs' attitudes as critical success factors in developing SMEs in Botswana (Gagoitsepe & Pansiri, 2012); and perceived critical success/failure factors affecting the development of SMEs (Pansiri & Temtime, 2010; Temtime & Pansiri, 2004). The environmental munificence and carrying capacity framework offers another perspective of understanding entrepreneurship in Botswana. Therefore this paper could be a springboard upon which such studies, using empirical data could be undertaken. This study has also identified capabilities as sources of successful strategy implementation (M.A. Hitt et al., 1999) which cannot be developed through government support programmes, but evolving over time. This is an aspect of entrepreneurship development which is rarely emphasised in Botswana. Therefore, there is need for appropriate programmes that would help entrepreneurs on how they can lead their companies to develop capabilities over time. In addition studies which look at developing capabilities are insufficient, particularly in the Botswana Context. Furthermore, comparative studies with some of the countries which have managed to develop entrepreneurship is necessary for learning purposes.

REFERENCES

- Acs, Z. J., Arenius, P., Hay, M., & Minniti, M. (2005). Global entrepreneurship monitor 2004 executive report. Babson Park, MA: : Babson College; London, UK: London Business School.
- Acs, Z. J., & Szerb, L. (2007). Entrepreneurship, Economic Growth and Public Policy. *Small Business Economics*, 28(2), 109-122. doi: 10.1007/s11187-006-9012-3
- African Development Bank, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, & United Nations Development Programme. (2015). African Economic Outlook 2015.
- Agrell, J.-O., Bergman, B. D., Hallerby, P., & Ring, K. (1986/2). Developing Entrepreneurs: An Evaluation of Small Scale Industry Development in Botswana 1974-84. 5- 105 25 Stockholm: Swedish International Development Authority.
- Amburgey, T. L., & Rao, H. (1996). Organizational Ecology: Past, Present, and Future Directions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(5), 1265-1286. doi: 10.2307/256999

- Audretsch, D., Grilo, I., & Thurik, R. (2007). Explaining entrepreneurship and the role of policy: A framework. In D. B. Audretsch, I. Grilo, & A. R. Thurik (Eds.), *Handbook of research on entrepreneurship policy* (pp. 1-17). Cheltenham, U.K.: Edward Elgar.
- Barney, J. (1991). Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 99-120.
- Begley, T. M., Tan, W.-L., & Schoch, H. (2005). Politico-Economic Factors Associated with Interest in Starting a Business: A Multi-Country Study. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(1), 35-55. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2005.00068.x
- Bisk, L. (2002). Formal entrepreneurial mentoring: the efficacy of third party managed programs. *Career Development International*, 7(5), 262-270. doi: doi:10.1108/13620430210440082
- Biza-Khupe, S., Kealesitse, B., Mphela, T., Pansiri, J., Sathyamoorthi, C. R., Tsheko, T. T., . . . Morakanyane, R. (2012). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) 2012 Botswana National Report. Gaborone: University of Botswana.
- Boccardelli, P., & Magnusson, M. G. (2006). Dynamic capabilities in early-phase entrepreneurship. *Knowledge and Process Management*, 13(3), 162-174. doi: 10.1002/kpm.255
- Botswana Development Corporation. (2015). Annual Report 2015. Gaborone: Botswana Development Corporation.
- Botswana Development Corporation. (2016a). About BDC. Gaborone: Botswana Development Corporation.
- Botswana Development Corporation. (2016b). BDC History. Retrieved 27/07, 2016, from <http://www.bdc.bw/bdc-history>
- Botswana Development Corporation. (2016c). Botswana Export Credit Insurance (BECI). Retrieved 16/11, 2016, from <http://www.bdc.bw/botswana-export-credit-insurance-beci>
- Botswana Export Credit Insurance. (2016). About Us. Retrieved 16/11, 2016, from <http://www.beci.co.bw/content/id/1/about-us/>
- Botswana Government. (2011). Economic Diversification Drive: Medium to Long-Term Strategy 2011 - 2016. Gaborone: Ministry of Trade and Industry.
- Botswana Institute For Technology Research And Innovation. (2014). Annual Report 2013/14. Retrieved 02/16, 2015, from <http://www.bitri.co.bw/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/bitri-annual-report.pdf>
- Botswana Institute For Technology Research And Innovation. (2015). Annual Report 2014/15. Retrieved 02/16, 2015, from http://www.bitri.co.bw/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/bitri_annual_report_2015.pdf
- Botswana. Ministry of Finance and Development Planning. (2003). Title National Development Plan 9, 2003/04 - 2008/09 Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and development planning.
- Carmeli, A., & Tishler, A. (2004). Resources, capabilities, and the performance of industrial firms: A multivariate analysis. *Managerial and Decision Economics*, 25(6-7), 299-315. doi: 10.1002/mde.1192
- Castrogiovanni, G. J. (1991). Environmental Munihcence; A Theoretical Assessment. *Academy of Management Review*, 16(3), 542-565. doi: 10.5465/amr.1991.4279475
- Central Statistics Office. (2009). 2007 Informal Sector Survey Report. Gaborone: Central Statistics Office.
- Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency. (2011a). 2010/11 Annual Report. .
- Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency. (2011b). CEDA Corporate Profile. Retrieved 26/08, 2011, from <http://www.ceda.co.bw/corporate-profile>

- Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency. (2012). 2011/ 2012 Annual Report. Retrieved 28/01, 2015, from http://www.ceda.co.bw/sites/default/files/Publications/annual_report_2012.pdf
- Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency. (2016). CEDA Corporate Profile. Retrieved 29/07, 2016, from <http://www.ceda.co.bw/objectives>
- Davis, J. (NK). Effects of Environmental Munificence, Dynamism, and Complexity on Principal-Agent Contracts. Retrieved 21/07, 2016, from http://ibrarian.net/navon/paper/Effects_of_Environmental_Munificence_Dynamism_a.pdf?paperid=875426
- De Faoite, D., Henry, C., Johnston, K., & van der Sijde, P. (2003). Education and training for entrepreneurs: a consideration of initiatives in Ireland and The Netherlands. *Education + Training*, 45(8/9), 430-438. doi: doi:10.1108/00400910310508829
- De Faoite, D., Henry, C., Johnston, K., & van der Sijde, P. (2004). Entrepreneurs' attitudes to training and support initiatives: evidence from Ireland and The Netherlands. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 11(4), 440-448. doi: doi:10.1108/14626000410567080
- Economic Commission for Africa. (2001). Enhancing the Competitiveness of Small and Medium Enterprises in Africa: A Strategic Framework for Institutional Support
- Freeman, J. H., Carroll, G. R., & Hannan, M. T. (1983). The liability of newness: age dependence in organizational death rates. *American Sociological Review*, 48, 692-710.
- Fundira, T. (2007). The SACU-EFTA Agreement: current trading relationship and implications. tralac Trade Brief No 11. Retrieved 02/08, 2016, from <http://paulroos.co.za/wp-content/blogs.dir/12/files/2011/uploads/TB11%20FUNDIRA%20SACU%20EFTA%20Agr%2018122007.pdf>
- Gagoitsope, P. K., & Pansiri, J. (2012). Evaluation of Critical Success Factors for Developing Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises in Botswana. *Journal of African Business*, 13(1), 51-61. doi: 10.1080/15228916.2012.657955
- Gnyawali, D. R., & Fogel, D. S. (1994). Environments for Entrepreneurship Development: Key Dimensions and Research Implications. *Entrepreneurship, Theory and Practice*, 18(4), 43-62.
- Government of Botswana. (1998a). Science and technology policy for Botswana. Retrieved 05/08, 2016, from http://www.ub.bw/ip/documents/1998_Science%20and%20Technology%20Policy%20for%20Botswana.pdf
- Government of Botswana. (1998b). Small, medium and micro enterprises task force report. Gaborone: Government Printing Press.
- Government of Botswana. (1999). Policy on small, medium and micro enterprises in Botswana, Government White Paper No.1. Gaborone: Government Printing Press.
- Government of Botswana. (2004). *Small Business Act, 2003: Act No. 7 of 2004*. Gaborone: Government Printer.
- Government of Botswana. (2011a). Economic diversification drive: Medium to Long-Term Strategy 2011 – 2016. Gaborone: Ministry of Trade and Industry.
- Government of Botswana. (2011b). National Policy on Research, Science, Technology and Innovation Gaborone: Minister of Infrastructure, Science and Technology.
- Government of Botswana. (2012). National Policy on Research, Science, Technology and Innovation, 2012 Implementation Plan. Gaborone: Minister of Infrastructure, Science and Technology.
- Hall, R. (1992). The strategic analysis of intangible resources. *Strategic Management Journal*, 13(2), 135-144.

- Hannan, M. T., & Freeman, J. (1977). The population ecology of organizations. *American Journal of Sociology*, 82(5), 929-964.
- Hannan, M. T., & Freeman, J. (1987). The Ecology of Organizational Founding: American Labor Unions, 1836-1985. *American Journal of Sociology*, 92(4), 910-943.
- Heinonen, J., & Hytti, U. (2016). Entrepreneurship mission and content in Finnish policy programmes. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 23(1), 149-162. doi: doi:10.1108/JSBED-10-2014-0170
- Heinonen, J., Hytti, U., & Cooney, T. M. (2010). The context matters: Understanding the evolution of Finnish and Irish entrepreneurship policies. *Management Research Review*, 33(12), 1158-1173. doi: doi:10.1108/01409171011092202
- Helfat, C. E., & Peteraf, M. A. (2003). The dynamic resource-based view: capability lifecycles. *Strategic Management Journal*, 24(10), 997-1010. doi: 10.1002/smj.332
- Henry, C., Hill, F., & Leitch, C. (2005). Entrepreneurship education and training: can entrepreneurship be taught? Part I. *Education + Training*, 47(2), 98-111. doi: doi:10.1108/00400910510586524
- Hinton, P., Mokobi, U., & Sprokel, C. (2006). Botswana Small and medium enterprise under - Banked market research. Retrieved 04/10, 2010, from http://www.finmarktrust.org.za/documents/2006/AUGUST/Report_EBG.pdf
- Hitt, M. A., Ireland, R. D., & Hoskisson, R. E. (2007). *Strategic management: Competitiveness and globalisation* (7th ed.). Mason: Thompson South-western.
- Hitt, M. A., Nixon, R. D., Clifford, P. G., & Coyne, K. P. (1999). The development and use of strategic resources. In M. A. Hitt, R. D. Nixon, P. G. Clifford, & K. P. Coyne (Eds.), *Dynamic strategic resources: Development, diffusion and integration* (pp. 1-14). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, LTD.
- Ibrahim, A. B., & Soufani, K. (2002). Entrepreneurship education and training in Canada: a critical assessment. *Education + Training*, 44(8/9), 421-430. doi: doi:10.1108/00400910210449268
- Innovation, B. I. F. T. R. A. (2015). Research and innovation policy handbook. Retrieved 02/08, 2016, from <http://www.bitri.co.bw/wp-content/uploads/2015/08/bitri-research-and-innovation-policy-handbook-june-2015-version.pdf>
- Jovicic, D., & Dragin, A. (2008). The assessment of carrying capacity - a crucial tool for managing tourism effects in tourist destination. *Turizam*, 12, 4-11.
- Kreft, S. F., & Sobel, R. (2005). Public policy, entrepreneurship, and economic freedom. *Cato Journal*, 25(3), 595-616.
- Levie, J., & Autio, E. (2008). A theoretical grounding and test of the GEM model. *Small Business Economics*, 31(3), 235-263. doi: 10.1007/s11187-008-9136-8
- Local Enterprise Authority. (2014). Annual Report 2013/14. Retrieved 01/08, 2016, from <http://www.lea.co.bw/sites/default/files/publications/final%20annual%20report%2015-9-14.pdf>
- Local Enterprise Authority. (2015). Annual Report 2014/145. Retrieved 01/08, 2016, from http://www.lea.co.bw/sites/default/files/publications/LEA%20Annual%20Report_2015.pdf
- Local Enterprise Authority. (2016). Local Enterprise Authority. Retrieved 13 July 2016, 2016
- Mellahi, K., & Wilkinson, A. (2004). Organizational failure: a critique of recent research and a proposed integrative framework. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 5-6(1), 21-41. doi: 10.1111/j.1460-8545.2004.00095.x
- Ministry of Communications and Technology. (2009). Consultancy on the Development of the Science and Technology Human Resource Strategy. Gaborone: Ministry of Communications, and Technology.

- Ministry of Communications Science and Technology. (2005). Botswana National Research, Science And Technology Plan Final Report. Gaborone: Ministry of Communications, Science and Technology.
- Ministry of Finance and Development Planning. (1977). National development plan, 1976-81. Gaborone: Republic of Botswana: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.
- Ministry of Finance and Development Planning. (2009). National Development Plan 10: NDP 10 towards 2016 (April 2009 - March 2016) Gaborone: Botswana Government Printer.
- Ministry Of Trade And Industry. (2009). National trade policy for botswana Gaborone, Botswana: Ministry Of Trade And Industry,.
- Minniti, M. (2008). The Role of Government Policy on Entrepreneurial Activity: Productive, Unproductive, or Destructive? *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 32(5), 779-790. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2008.00255.x
- National Development Bank. (2013). Annual Report 2013. Gaborone: National Development Bank,.
- National Development Bank. (2015/16). Introduction. Retrieved 27/07, 2016, from <http://www.ndb.bw/introduction>
- Okeyo, W. O. (2014). The Influence of Business Environmental Dynamism, Complexity and Munificence on Performance of Small and Medium Enterprises in Kenya. *International Journal of Business and Social Research*, 4(8), 59-73
- Pansiri, J., & Temtime, Z. T. (2008). Assessing managerial skills in SMEs for capacity building *Journal of Management Development*, 27(2), 251-260
- Pansiri, J., & Temtime, Z. T. (2010). Linking firm and managers' characteristics to perceived critical success factors for innovative entrepreneurial support. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 17 (1), 45-59.
- Parker, R. (2002). Coordination and Competition in Small Business Policy: A Comparative Analysis of Australia and Denmark. *Journal of Economic Issues*, 36(4), 935-952. doi: 10.1080/00213624.2002.11506530
- Parker, R. (2008). Governance and the Entrepreneurial Economy: A Comparative Analysis of Three Regions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 32(5), 833-854. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2008.00258.x
- Patterson, R. A., Kozmetsky, G., & Ridgway, N. M. (1983). Perceived Causes of Small Business Failures: A Research Note. *American Journal of Small Business*, 8(1), 15-19.
- Porter, M. E. (1985). *Competitive advantage: Creating and sustaining superior performance*. New York: Free Press.
- Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board. (2011). PPADB Annual report 2011. Gaborone: PPADB.
- Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board. (2012). PPADB Annual report 2012. Gaborone: PPADB.
- Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Board. (2016). About PPADB. Retrieved 13 July 2016, 2016, from <http://www.ppadb.co.bw/about.html>
- Republic of Botswana. (1964). National Development Bank Act (Chapter 74:05). Gaborone.
- Republic of Botswana. (2002). Public Procurement and Asset Disposal Act (Cap. 42:8). Gaborone: Government Printer.
- Republic of Botswana. (2003). National Development Plan 9 Gaborone, Botswana: Government Printer.
- Republic of Botswana. (2008). State of the Nation Address By His Excellency Lt. Gen. Seretse Khama Ian Khama President of Botswana to the Opening of the Fifth Session of the Ninth Parliament, . Gaborone: National Assembly.
- Republic of Botswana. (2015). Economic Diversification Drive (Edd) Revised Guidelines. Gaborone.

- Sathyamoorthi, C. R. (2002). Government policy and entrepreneurship performance: The case of small, medium, and micro enterprises in Botswana. *Pakistan Journal of Applied Sciences*, 2(5), 35-48.
- Schneidman, W. (2012). The African Growth and Opportunity Act: Looking Back, Looking Forward. Retrieved 02/08, 2016, from https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/agoa_full_report.pdf
- Sentsho, J., Maiketso, J. T., Sengwaketse, M., Ndzinge-Anderson, V., & Kayawe, T. (2007). Performance and competitiveness of small and medium sized manufacturing enterprises in Botswana. Gaborone: BIDPA and Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency (CEDA),.
- Sheriff, M., & Muffatto, M. (2015). The present state of entrepreneurship ecosystems in selected countries in Africa. *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*, 6(1), 17-54. doi: doi:10.1108/AJEMS-10-2012-0064
- Singh, J. V. (1990). [Organizational Ecology., Michael T. Hannan, John Freeman]. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35(2), 416-420. doi: 10.2307/2393405
- Singh, J. V., & Lumsden, C. J. (1990). Theory and research in organizational ecology. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 16, 161-195.
- Söderbaum, F. (2016). Old New and comparative regionalism. In T. A. Börzel & T. Risse (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of comparative regionalism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Southern African Customs Union (SACU). (2016). SACU. Retrieved 13 July 2016, 2016
- Southern African Development Community. (1996). Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol On Trade, August 1996.
- Southern African Development Community. (2002). 2002 Southern African Customs Union (SACU) Agreement. Retrieved 02/08, 2016, from <http://www.sacu.int/show.php?id=566>
- Southern African Development Community. (2012). Report Of The Executive Secretary Activity Report Of The Sadc Secretariat 2011 - 2012. Gaborone, Botswana: Southern African Development Community.
- Specht, P. H. (1993). Munificence and Carrying Capacity of the Environment and Organization Formation. *Entrepreneurship, theory and practice : ET & P*, 17(2), 77-86.
- Statistics Botswana. (2014a). Gross Domestic Product: No. 2014/1. Gaborone: Statistics Botswana.
- Statistics Botswana. (2014b). Population And Housing Census 2011 Analytical Report. Gaborone: Statistics Botswana,.
- Surroca, J., Tribó, J. A., & Waddock, S. (2010). Corporate responsibility and financial performance: the role of intangible resources. *Strategic Management Journal*, 31(5), 463-490. doi: 10.1002/smj.820
- Task Force Report. (1998). Small medium and micro enterprises. Gaborone: Government printer.
- Teece, D., & Pisano, G. (1994). The Dynamic Capabilities of Firms: an Introduction. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 3(3), 537-556. doi: 10.1093/icc/3.3.537-a
- Teece, D. J. (2007). Explicating dynamic capabilities: the nature and microfoundations of (sustainable) enterprise performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 28(13), 1319-1350. doi: 10.1002/smj.640
- Temtime, Z. T., & Pansiri, J. (2003). Identifying small business critical success factors for a procreative entrepreneurial development program in Botswana (pp. 100). Gaborone: University of Botswana.

- Temtime, Z. T., & Pansiri, J. (2004). Small business critical success/failure factors in developing economies: Some evidences from Botswana. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 1(1), 18-25.
- The EFTA States, & the SACU States. (2006). Free trade agreement between the EFTA states and the SACU states. Retrieved 02/08, 2016, from <http://www.sacu.int/docs/tradeneg/efta-fta2006.pdf>
- Themba, G., & Josiah, J. (2015). Entrepreneurship Development in Botswana Lessons for Other Developing Countries. *Botswana Journal of Business*, 8(1), 11-35.
- Thornton, P. H. (1999). The Sociology of Entrepreneurship. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 25, 19-46.
- Toma, S.-G., Grigore, A.-M., & Marinescu, P. (2014). Economic Development and Entrepreneurship. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 8(0), 436-443. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671\(14\)00111-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671(14)00111-7)
- Trakolis, D. (2003). Carrying capacity-an old concept: significance for the management of urban forest resources. *New Medit*, 3, 58-64.
- United Nations. (2012). Entrepreneurship policy framework and implementation guidance. *United Nations Conference on Trade and Development*. Retrieved 16/11, 2016, from http://unctad.org/en/PublicationsLibrary/diaeed2012d1_en.pdf
- Valentine, T. (1993). Botswana's financial assistance policy and the indigenization of industrial employment. Retrieved 01/08, 2016, from <https://msuweb.montclair.edu/~lebelp/CERAFRM051Valentine1993.pdf>
- Wennekers, S., & Thurik, R. (1999). Linking Entrepreneurship and Economic Growth *Small Business Economics*, 13(1), 27-56. doi: 10.1023/A:1008063200484
- Williams, B. R. (2015). African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA): Background and Reauthorization. Retrieved 02/08, 2016, from <https://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/row/R43173.pdf>
- Woolley, J. L., & Rottner, R. M. (2008). Innovation Policy and Nanotechnology Entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 32(5), 791-811. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2008.00256.x