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WAIKATO MANAGEMENT SCHOOL

SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP: DEVELOPING ROBUST HOPE IN THE NEXT GENERATION

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Abstract

The value of social capital that enhances others' lives and assists in their development of skills and knowledge can no be underestimated. Moving away from a focus of entrepreneurship being purely the development of financial literacy skill the University of Western Sydney has focused on the development of social entrepreneurship. With the introduction of a unit of study – Learning through Community Service – we have seen a variation in the role of students and how they interact with their community. So by focussing on the skills that need to be developed to enhance the social capital of our university community, students are being required to work either within the university community, the local community or the world community. Through the development of a particular unit of study available to all undergraduate students at the

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University of Western Sydney, students work with a mentor to develop and implement a community project utilising the skills they are learning within their degree but also meeting the needs of the local community.

In the past semester the students were involved in six different project strands:
- Maltese Cultural Exchange;
- International Buddies;
- Equity Buddies;
- Students in Free Enterprise;
- Creative arts in the community; and,
- Video production in the community.

Each one is lead by a university academic and occurs within the university or wider community.

This paper analyses the responses from the first cohort of students to undertake this unit, their reasons for participation, the experiences they were involved in and the outcomes of each of the different projects undertaken. At the beginning of the unit of study students completed a short survey giving details of their background and previous commitment to community service. The relevance and value of the development of the students' social entrepreneurship will be discussed in light of the longer term value of the skills and knowledge developed.

Introduction
The need for both community awareness and support is always required. With university students undertaking full time study, part time work there seems to be little time to undertake work with in the community in any form. By assisting the students to develop their theoretical knowledge gained in studies within a community setting has seen the development of a specific unit of study. Within this unit, students work in small teams with community groups in a wide range of areas. From this practical position students are encouraged to develop their skills and knowledge whilst helping other people.

Literature Discussion
With the acceptance of social entrepreneurship as part of the business and community welfare groups' collaboration there seems to be a logical introduction of the concepts to students within a university environment. Willans, Harreveld and Danaher (2003) see that 'these changes have been "driven" by broader economic, political, sociocultural and technological forces' (p. 1). However Boschee and McClurg (2003) clearly make a distinction between social entrepreneurship and social innovation. They purport that 'unless a non profit organisation is generating earned revenue

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from its activities; it is not acting in an entrepreneurial manner' (p. 1). The level of income earned will determine if the organisation will be able to sustain their work. Previously the traditional non profit organisations 'will continue offering products and services that have a significant social impact even if they lose money; commercial enterprises will not. Social entrepreneurs, on the other hand, are equally concerned with both bottom lines, and that means they must simultaneously analyse the social impact and financial viability, of each product and service' (Boschee, 2006, p. 2). Within a university culture that adopts a social entrepreneurship model, the social impact and financial viability are both measured to determine the viability of any program.

Boschee (2006) has developed a Strategic Marketing Matrix to evaluate different social entrepreneurships endeavours which contrasts the financial returns and the social impact. The simple method of the evaluation quickly assists the developers and implementers of a project to determine whether the community service would be worthwhile to be continued. However Dees (2001) suggests that the 'social mission is explicit and central' (p. 2) and it is 'much harder to determine whether a social entrepreneur is creating sufficient social value to justify the resources used in creating the value' (p. 3).

	Positive financial returns	Negative financial returns
Significant social impact	EXPAND	NURTURE
Minimal social impact	HARVEST	KILL

Figure 1: The Strategic Marketing Matrix for Social Entrepreneurs (Boschee, 2006, p. 2)

The Contextual Framework
The University of Western Sydney encompasses six campuses including Bankstown, Blacktown, Campbelltown, Hawkesbury, Parramatta, and Penrith. Greater Western Sydney is one of the world's largest urban areas. It covers almost 9,000 square kilometres, an area greater than the combined areas of Tokyo, London and Chicago. It is home to 1.5 million

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people, about 40% of Sydney's population. These campuses have the benefit of a multicultural population bringing to the learning experience of their students the opportunity to engage with a variety of global perspectives on issues that impact on our societies. The community 'engagement is the collaboration between the university and a community (regional, national or global) for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity'. The uniqueness of the approach of UWS is a 'commitment to two-way engagement' that is an 'outreach' which 'rests upon a rationale that recognises an intellectual, social and moral imperative' to ensure 'that we are in fact addressing the most pressing social, civic, and ethical problems faced by the communities we serve' (McKenna, 2006, p.65). In response to the overview of the university engagement and service in 2006 there was in the introduction of unit of study, Learning through Community Service, which focuses on students working either within the university community, the local or international community.

The Academic Framework
The unit of study Learning through Community Services was offered as an elective valued at 20 credit points (this is double the usual allocation of credit points) for students within the College of Arts. This unit is one 'in which students apply discipline based knowledge as they carry out projects of substantial benefit to community agencies' (UWS, School of Education unit outline 101117, p. 2). The unit is an open elective available to all undergraduate students within the college of arts and so is available to students enrolled in Humanities, Education and Languages.

The overall learning outcomes in the unit expect that the students will:
Apply academic knowledge to issues that concern community agencies;
Apply observation, reflection, and interpretation skills in identifying issues affecting community agencies;
Understand and be sensitive to issues of cultural and social diversity and their impact on the acquisition of social capital of individuals and groups;
Analyse problems and synthesize information useful to the ongoing concerns of the agency;
Communicate effectively in person and in writing to a wide variety of stakeholders;
Develop products of potential benefit to the communities and agencies in which they do their placements.
(School of Education, 2006, p. 2).
By undertaking a range of activities that included:
Develop an understanding of the nature and roles of public sector agencies and of non-profit community organizations;

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Explore issues that typically confront public sector and non-profit community agencies;

Examine strategies that agencies employ to address problems, including the role of voluntary service and advocacy;

Contribute to research and service provision in collaboration with public sector and non-profit community agencies;

Develop effective communication, advocacy and analytical and intervention and interpersonal skills.

(School of Education, 2006, p. 2).

The students are required to undertake a range of activities including participating in a range of lectures and tutorials in an intensive 3 day workshop which is then followed up by a range of meetings by each strand undertaken. The meetings may be in person or over the web using a discussion board.

To demonstrate their participation in the community based service the students complete the actual project and submit four reflections which focus on the particular strand:

Reflection 1: Selection of appropriate community group and project

Reflection 2: Setting up and commencing project

Reflection 3: Workings of the project

Reflection 4: Evaluation and achievements of the project

The final submission is a portfolio representing a consolidation of the four previous reflections and a synthesis of the work undertaken in the community project.

The determination that the assessment would be based upon reflection was supported in the research which find that 'Critical reflection as a concept means certain pedagogical actions in practice' (Willans, Harreveld and Danaher, 2003, p. 4) 'Using critical reflection, learners are engaged in critical analysis and active construction of experiences in context' (ibid).

Each strand undertaken concluded with a celebration of learning for the community and students. This varied for each strand and obviously reflected the needs of the community group and the age of the participants.

The Academic Learning Structure

The unit of study comprised a three day intensive workshop which included four lectures which focussed on working in a community as 'an important aspect of social entrepreneurship is understanding both the social positioning of people and the ways in which they can be assisted to

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move beyond those positions' (McConachie & Simpson, 2003, p 3). Therefore the lectures comprised information on:

      Lecture one: General overview of service learning

      Lecture two: Background to service learning and the theories related to service learning

      Lecture three: Social Justice and working in the community

      Lecture four: Helping other people, knowing what they need

Each lecture was presented by a specialist in the area and so the students were gaining knowledge and insights into the area of community engagement from researchers who are working in the area at present.

The formal lectures were punctuated by strand meetings with the academic leading the strand. These times included the developed of an understanding of the way in which the university students will work with their community group and undertake the development of social entrepreneurship. The final session, of the three day workshop, was a compulsory session for students who would be working in schools or where there would be children attending the activities. This session was on child protection and the mandatory reporting of offences against children. This session is taken by experts in the area.

The following give an overview of the strands available to students within the unit Learning through Community Service:

1. Sharing Ideas, Sharing Knowledge: Academic literacy through on-line service learning

Entering University can be daunting experience, with some students finding the content challenging but also the academic literacy tasks and assignments especially difficult. Some new students experiencing these feelings can end up dropping out of university. Students taking this elective will be involved in a close association with a student needing support. You will be involved in peer mentoring and support of at least one first year student during Spring semester who needs extra assistance in developing their academic literacy skills - reading and/or writing. It is anticipated that you will be in 3rd year and the students you mentor will be in 1st year. Your experiences at university and knowledge of academic reading and writing tasks will assist you in being a mentor to the 1st year students. Lecturers will provide support to you about the role of being a mentor, explicit teaching of literacy strategies, ways to provide support and be there for you to discuss ideas with. This unit will be of particular interest to students wanting to develop their interactive skills, while providing help to other students with academic literacy in supportive one-on-one situations.

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2. Serving Children, Families and Professionals as Children Start School

Starting school is a big deal for children, families, early childhood educators and school teachers. It provides an opportunity for a community to celebrate its children, families and educational settings. In this project strand, UWS students will assist communities in making their transition to school programs even more successful than they would otherwise have been. In a connected pair consisting of a school and a prior-to-school service, pairs of UWS students will learn about the settings, act as volunteer assistants in the settings and assist in the implementation of the transition program within the community. The roles of the students will depend on the educational settings in which they work but the aim of their work is the same in each of the contexts – to assist in ensuring that the children starting school have as successful a start as they possibly can. Students will need to undertake independent learning modules during the semester in order that their projects are successful.

3. MADD about the arts: Music, Arts, Dance and Drama in the Primary School

This college-based project builds students' social and intellectual capital in relation to the arts by engaging them in authentic learning experiences with primary school children. It will give students the opportunity to develop their own skills in teaching and communicating about their preferred art form(s) within diverse cultures as well as being a catalyst for making effective change in children's lives through their involvement in the arts. As part of this project strand, students may be involved in working with children to produce a children's art exhibition in the local community, interacting with teachers and children to develop and implement an integrated arts program using the UWS student's preferred artistic skills and experience and/or facilitating an after school arts program for primary aged children. Completing this project strand will provide students with a firm foundation for postgraduate teacher education courses as well as enhancing their own artistic skills and knowledge as they assist in the holistic development of children.

4. Students in Free Enterprise (SIFE)

Do you want to try your hand at being a UWS apprentice and support the local community? Be part of UWS SIFE where your imagination is your limitation. SIFE is a philanthropic initiative in which Australian companies provide money and training to support University students to carry out community projects in their local regions. Underpinning the SIFE principles are that the students will teach and learn through practical application of the knowledge and skills gained at university in the wider community by means of student-designed and implemented projects. In

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this project strand, students will draw together their own interests and abilities with specific skills along with the aims of SIFE to implement small group projects that meet the needs of local communities. Projects have included developing financial literacy, a community cookbook, assisting unemployed women and fundraising for Ethiopian orphans – you choose and develop your own project.

5. Video Production
Students in this project strand will undertake the production of a promotion video/documentary of the International Student Social Support Network strand. Students in this strand will work with the UWS and international students documenting the outcomes of the strand. Students will follow the integration of international students into the UWS and Australian community, as well as the cultural exchange between international and UWS students. Pre-production and production will take place in Autumn semester with post-production and the final product to be done throughout Spring semester.

6. International Student Social Support Networks: This project strand responds to widely expressed concerns in the UWS community for the academic and social well-being of International students. The aim of this project strand is to pilot a model for linking small groups of international students with small groups of third year undergraduates. There will be a range of activities from February to July designed to provide social, cultural, language and learning support for the international students. Undergraduates will gain skills in reflection, communication, organization and collaboration. The project facilitates cultural exchange to develop mutual understanding. Assessment for this strand is via on-line monitoring and reflective journals, evaluated as a research project and good practice recorded on video.

7. Community Language School Development: This project strand will have UWS students work with the Maltese Language School on a program of work that culminates in a one-day community event dealing with the Maltese language in the diaspora. This project strand will enable students to not only be enriching the MLS's community role on the one hand, but also provide the chance for language and linguistics students to use their knowledge and skills in authentic contexts.

8. Equity Buddies: The aim of this project strand is to increase first year retention of mature age students (over 25). Students will be educated and trained in the area of equity/diversity support as well as in the issues related to student attrition - particularly in relation to the access, participation and retention of mature age first year students. They will be

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trained to become first year equity mentors and will be paired up with a small group of first year students to be mentored throughout the Autumn semester.

The Teaching Framework
At the beginning of the first session in the workshops students were asked to complete a short questionnaire about their previous work in the community. Six open ended questions inquired about the students' work undertaken in the community, the skills and knowledge they bring to community service learning and which ones they would like to develop when involved in community service learning. One other question focussed on whether the students had gained any qualification while working within a community and one on the students' interests outside university study. One closed question asked the students the number of hours they work in paid employment.

Following the lectures and strand sessions students undertook the work for the semester. At the closure of some of the strand a celebration of learning was planned and organised. In some instances the celebration was planned by the students – such as in the Community Language School Development - Maltese Language School; others participate in a celebration organised by an outside provider – Students in Free Enterprise attend the annual national competition. What ever the activity it brings closure to the students and the community they have been working with together.

Analysis of the student cohort within Learning through Community Service
At the commencement of the semester the students completed a short questionnaire relating to their pattern of study, amount of part time work and the level of community service undertaken previously and at present. The students were also asked to comment on the skills and knowledge they bring to the community service as well as the skills and knowledge they would like to develop while engaged in community service.

The cohort of students in Learning through Community Service came from a range of degrees including: Arts, Business, Health Sciences, Music and Education. The unit was recommended for third year students to undertake and about 30.5% of the enrolled students were in the third year of their study, 36% from second year, 22% from fourth year and 5.5% from both first and fifth year students.

Of the cohort 25% stated they were not working part time however a number of these students are parents and therefore looking after 2-6

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children, other students cared for elderly parents. Of the 75% who work part time the average time was 18 hours work.

Of the students enrolled 47% were not undertaking any community service at present. It can easily be seen that with students working part time while they study fulltime they have limited time available to undertake community service. However of the students working in the community at present the range of activities were varied both in the type of service and the community groups they are involved in. They included working with scouts, with religious groups, coaching sport, and with service organisation such as The Salvation Army.

The interesting information given by the students was the skills and knowledge they would like to develop while engaged in community service. Students were particularly pleased to be working with children and others so that they would 'develop further my people skills, interacting with others' and develop 'leadership skills and time management skills while working independently'.

The reflections that are submitted by the students give a clear insight into their obvious development. For some students initially the opening up about their learning was difficult but as they were assured the reflections were for submission and not discussion they were freer with their comments and insights. Some students showed a meaningful development in their skills commenting that – 'having passion is fantastic and essential for us, but passion needs to have guidelines so that it is productive and our goals are met' and 'I have learnt that you can apply life's principles to business, such as you can try to achieve certain outcomes, but sometimes there is a different reason for you to be doing a project, etc. It is like a higher being or message, destiny or fate and it becomes more about the journey, than the goal.'

A deeper understanding of self is evident in many reflections with students commenting in the following fashion: 'I need to continue to push myself, it fulfils me, yet it sometimes also scares me, which to me means to take a deep breath and keep on pushing. Personally, I still have a long way to go, but I feel that I have made a lot of progress from the experiences and achievements of the project.' Overtime the students also could see the impact they would have on the community they were working with: 'I am excited to be part of a project that will have a profound affect on numerous children's lives, that will give them an opportunity to create better lives for themselves and the consequential flow on effect of this.' The ultimate comment was given 'This semester

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has given me more fulfilment than any material object our society idolises could give me.'

Evaluation of Learning through Community Service
Strand leaders have the opportunity to see the development of the students' understanding and knowledge through their work in the four reflection papers that they submitted thorugh out the semester. As each project developed within a community the students would reflect on a different component and therefore the strand leader would seen the development and be able to guide and mentor the students.

Still it needs to be examined as to whether universities do have a place to be providers and developers of social entrepreneurship. A with most discussions the 'advocates maintain that improved collaboration can bring benefits to all parties and particularly, improve circumstances at a local level. Whereas opponents believe that it condones the abrogation of government responsibility in the provision of welfare services and job creation' (University of Newcastle, 2001, p. 1). Whatever the standpoint the students involved in the process of developing community based projects, whether they are working in the creative arts, undertaking a SIFE project or assisting university buddies have seen a marked increase in their development and understanding of the skills they have learnt at the university whilst they work with the community. The success of the initial semester of Learning through Community Service has established as a recognised program for students at the University of Western Sydney within the College of Arts and also sees other colleges wanting to develop their own community service units of study.

The development of RobustHope within the students
The value of the development of social entrepreneurship within students and the wider university community also brings with it the development of the students' social conscience. With in the social conscience there is the development of RobustHope within the individual and the community.

RobustHope has two definitional aspects, that of a futures orientation and turning away from any sense of hope as something naïve, to a rooted-ness in evidence based experience. RobustHope has psychological and sociological dimensions. It affects society and the individual, thus it operates at both a societal and individual level. It is within this individual psychological level that the changes in the students are seen. The RobustHope enables us to explore and understand the students' development of social conscience as they work within a community project that develops the social enterprise of the community.

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Thus through the development of students' skills and knowledge of social entrepreneurship they are seeing the changes within themselves and the community which may be attributed to the development of RobustHope of all the participants and see the evolving of more opportunities for the future.

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'EDUCATING FOR ENTERPRISE - THE CHALLENGE FOR UNIVERSITIES'

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In her keynote address to the Knowledge Transfer and Engagement Forum on 16 June 2006, the Australian Commonwealth Minister for Education, Science and Training, the Hon Julie Bishop MP, posed the following questions: '(W)hat is the value of a university which does not work hand in hand with business to build economic growth in that university's region? What is the value of providing professional degree courses which do not reflect contemporary practice? What is the value of a university which does not strive to strengthen regional economic capacities?' This short paper seeks to respond to the Minister's rhetorical challenge at the broadest level and to suggest that, central to all these purposes, is the notion of 'educating for enterprise'.

What, first of all, is 'enterprise', for which we might wish to educate? The dictionary definition is quite helpful: 'undertaking, esp. bold or difficult one; courage, readiness to engage in ~s; French entreprendre (entre between + prendre take)'. It is instructive to consider this in its current context of business enterprise, while reflecting that Spain's Philip II spoke of the Armada as embarking on 'the enterprise of England'. The piety of his desire to return lapsed lambs to the Mother Church is not in question, but it would be somewhat surprising if he had not also had half

an eye on reducing competition for the spice trade and the depredations of privateering by Drake, Hawkins and Raleigh.

So let us accept that any modern definition of the term conveys the fundamental notion of economic motivation, i.e., that a more or less complex sequence of events, to which some degree of (financial) risk attaches, is to be undertaken with the intention of achieving material outcomes. And this, in its turn, sets the agenda for considering what 'learning' is necessarily impounded in such a concept of enterprise, if it is to be undertaken at all, let alone successfully and, consequently, how a particular process of teaching or educating might result in such learning being achieved.

But what is the institutional context in which educating for enterprise is, of itself, enterprised? How well- (or ill-) suited and equipped are they for this task? What are their motives and imperatives? And what may we usefully infer from the circumstances of the teacher and the learner, respectively?

There have been changes in Australian universities over the last 15 years which are not widely understood in the broad community, in part because mantra of 'unified national system' has obscured the very different kinds of institutions that now all bear the label 'university'. Despite both apparent and very real similarities in a number of respects, e.g., the generally comprehensive nature of program provision, there are marked differences in mission, particularly between those institutions with a history of intensive involvement in research and the more recently enfranchised.

The word 'university' is worth a brief philological digression at this point, to remind ourselves that, under the accepted understanding of it as an '(e)ducational institution designed for instruction or examination or both of students in all or many of the more important branches of learning', etc., lurks its Latin root word universitatem, meaning 'the whole world'. And this is something that a modern university would never lay claim to being, nor attempt to be. But a majority of Australian tertiary institutions would claim to conduct both global and local operations, while also serving the local community.

What has quite clearly emerged from the Dawkins reforms of the late 1980s, particularly in the conversion of the former State institutes of technology, is the applied university, in which all the programs are directed to assisting with entry to the professions or career mobility for those already in professional employment. Opting for this role has real

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institutional significance for <u>what</u> is taught, <u>how</u> it is taught, <u>whom</u> it is intended to attract as students and, crucially, the orientation that the students will have towards their studies.

The willingness of institutions to embrace the challenges concomitant on this choice is matched, in large part, by the changes that have occurred in the student clientele, particularly as a result of the shift to a mass higher education system, where ability and aspiration to participate are spread across nearly one-third of the undergraduate age cohort. This is in marked contrast to the era of one single, venerable institution of lofty academe and 'dreaming spires' per State, with the capacity to provide the opportunities of higher education to an elite of less than one-tenth of the eligible cohort.

In combination with other societal and demographic changes, the extension of access to academia beyond the purview of privilege has meant that many students will, of necessity, be obliged to work outside of and alongside their university commitment, simply in order to meet tuition and living expenses. And it is wrong to confuse this type of student with the 'part-time' student of the bygone era. That person was someone who <u>chose</u> to remain in full-time employment while studying for a degree at, traditionally, approximately half the intensity of their full-time contemporary and thus taking twice as long to complete their qualification.

The reality is that today's full-time student is just as, if not more, likely to be found behind the counter at a fast food outlet or the wheel of a taxi as on a sporting field or in the library when not attending lectures and tutorials. This, in turn, influences the way they think about university life. It is, for many, no longer an opportunity for 'enculturation' through reflection but one characterized by a much more instrumental view of what is wanted and expected from university attendance.

Typically, many students come directly from a place of work to attend a lecture or tutorial; they may spend some time on-line in a computer pool or a wireless hotspot using their own laptop; they may visit the library for access to hard copy resources; they may want convenience food from the cafeteria but rarely the social interaction of the Union bar, and, finally, they will most probably return to work or to a non-institutional place of residence where some limited time is devoted to the necessary out-of-class preparation, either late at night or between day time shifts.

There is a simple and understandable imperative in the lives of these students. If they are to find any utility in tertiary education, it will be

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through delivery that is accessible in every sense of the word: intellectually, culturally and functionally. They want education as a service that is, or can be, organized to suit their convenience, to cope with their work pressures and demands on their time and, not least, to be seen as professionally compelling, as giving them a 'competitive advantage'.

The University of South Australia is an institution that has structured itself to meet these needs. It was established to be a university that provided entry to the professions and served the educational needs of those who had previously suffered, or continued to carry the burden of, prior educational or social disadvantage. Its educational philosophy is rooted in the twin traditions of its antecedent institutions: an institute of technology with 100 years of practical technical education and a coalition of teachers' colleges, many established in the 1950s, that had coalesced as a statewide college of advanced education in 1982.

Out of this has sprung a university that teaches no general degrees: no all-purpose Bachelors of Arts or Science. To repeat what was said above: every course is intended to prepare people for entry to the professions or to assist in career mobility within them. And the combination of the students' backgrounds and the diverse set of course offerings dictates a need for a very high level of support and services to ensure that those students are given every chance of success, permeating all of its work and structural arrangements.

In addition to the impact on purely internal matters, accepting this mission and its challenges also, of necessity, entails the development of special relationships with both current and prospective employers of its students. The university must at least be aware of the skills that enterprises will be seeking in graduate employees and, preferably, engage in a continuing dialogue on 'work readiness'.

Attunement to the needs of external stakeholders does not end with private enterprise. Government, at both State and Federal levels, is commonly a major employer of many graduates, whether allied to a specific profession such as nursing or teaching, or in more general fields of administration and the formation and implementation of public policy across a spectrum of disciplines. Consideration must also be given to the responsibility of Government to oversee both the public and private workplaces and, in particular, its requirements in relation to skills and technology transfers.

So what do we see as a consequence of responding to the needs of and sometimes pressure applied by these varied and disparate constituencies?

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We see the institution itself as an enterprise that acts in the mainstream of the life of the community, keeping up its part of the 'social compact' by which all enterprises operate: 'at the pleasure of society'. This type of engaged and responsive university seeks to impose on itself the same discipline as that of any private sector corporation: it must 'add value' through the delivery of its educational services if it is also to deliver on its corporate promise.

The university that is bent on educating for enterprise will do so in the most fundamental way: it will model itself on enterprise, submit itself to the same disciplines, in addition to those of academic rigour and generally conduct itself in a businesslike manner. Importantly, one of the most difficult challenges for an institution that is seen and sees itself as a repository of knowledge, is to admit its need to learn: to consult widely among all its stakeholders, but especially those with 'client' status, particularly the students and their employers.

But is not only the culture of the university that needs to change. The governance structures, indeed the whole infrastructure of decision-taking, can act as a considerable force for stasis when it comes to responding to the perspectives that reside beyond those of the academic community. The former Minister, Dr Brendan Nelson, recognized this and pushed for reform of the Councils of Australian Universities, seeking a reduction in numbers and more outside representation. Interestingly, this presented few problems for the three South Australian universities. UniSA had already moved to a significant reliance on external Council members, chosen for either their involvement in large State Government service departments that typically employed numbers of our students, or from the world of business. The Finance Committee of UniSA's Council is almost entirely comprised of external business people, who focus on institutional application of business models that meet the standards and expectations of the wider professional community. Combined with a longstanding commitment to use of environmental scans, a highly-endorsed (by the Australian Universities Quality Agency) planning and review process, and high levels of managerial competence, UniSA has made a name for itself, in its own State and more broadly, as a 'can-do' university, an institution easy to do business with and one committed to teaching programs which exemplify the marketing slogan: Experience. The Difference.

There is, of course, a limit on the pedagogical devices at the university's disposal for teaching about the 'enterprise' conditions under which graduates will work: the practical elements of teaching and nursing courses are unarguably 'experiential', but are, of necessity, conducted

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under such close supervision as to leave little room for risk-taking and risk familiarization. For business disciplines, the use of computer-generated or role-playing simulations can provide a surrogate of sorts: at least hypothetical 'risks' can be taken and the consequential success or failure analysed, but the students are still insulated from the reality of what it is and what it feels like, to 'enterprise'.

All of the characteristics of the so-called 'real world' can be captured in one word: uncertainty. It goes without saying that 'uncertainty', in its everyday, working sense, is one of the key dimensions that schools of all types, from elementary to tertiary, seek to remove or control in its impact on their students: not to do so would jeopardize their primary mission of implanting the building blocks of formal knowledge and the mechanisms for its further individual development. And yet, in regard to enterprise, as is widely acknowledged, coping with uncertainty is an essential ingredient that cannot be replicated realistically in the classroom.

This is well-illustrated by an anecdote sent recently to a management education discussion group. The writer complained that experience of undergraduate study comprised a great deal of theoretical, 'content' knowledge, together with skills in analysis and reasoning. The 'informal' and, in his view misleading, learning was the implicit message that all problems are clearly defined and have correct solutions. He went on to describe his disabuse of this notion as soon as he entered the workforce and its replacement by the effort to find workable, rather than 'correct' solutions to ill-defined and possibly intractable problems. He then grappled with the consequences for better teaching thus:

Most of the theory that we teach students is wrong, in the important sense that in making theory sufficiently abstract to generalise to many situations we throw away many of the contingencies which apply in the real world of application. There is abundant research evidence that what is leaned in the classroom often gets poorly transferred into working practice. We need ways of teaching students the important skills of translating between theory and practice. An ideal route is to study alongside work or real world projects and to continually move between study and practice. However, this is often not possible. Hence we look for routes to provide students with the opportunity to grapple with applying theory in complex and messy settings which mimic some of the difficulties of real world applications. Hence the value in such approaches as role plays, case studies and simulations. (M.P. Fenton-O'Creevy, 2006, Management Education and Development Discussion group)

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We have, however, already suggested that, desirable – necessary, in the case of many professions – as such forms of teaching are, they do not necessarily get to the heart of educating for enterprise in a 'risky' or uncertain environment since, of necessity, the degree of supervision of the practice learner is so close as to militate against realism.

So, together with itself modeling the behaviour of an enterprise – 'walking the talk' – and including as many opportunities as possible for learning through simulation or immersion, what options are available to a university to educate for enterprise? Unsurprisingly, we believe that the Students in Free Enterprise (SIFE) program and other activities that may be broadly termed 'community engagement service learning', offer some of the best possibilities in this regard. Practice of the soft skills widely sought by employers, including project management, communication, teamwork and small group leadership, is an almost unavoidable consequence of participation in such activities. More importantly, however, an opportunity is presented to challenge student to accept and work with many of the risks that are commonly found in the enterprise environment: scarce resources vs limitless opportunity; causal ambiguity; incomplete information; constrained decision-making, conflict of goals, organizational politics and impediments to the implementation of plans.

Thus we would conclude that the measures to be taken in 'educating for enterprise' fall into three distinct categories: those of an environmental or contextual nature, to convey enterprise experience through (favourable) interaction with the institution's own processes and procedures; those of what may be considered a 'conventional' pedagogical nature, comprising extensive use of (relevant, well-run) simulations, supervised practice and industry placement; and, finally, the rich potential of an 'unconventional' pedagogy from which a truly student-centred and self-paced learning results. We believe that the possibilities offered to a wide circle of stakeholders through the development of a robust model of service learning through community engagement is an opportunity to be seized.

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ENTREPRENEURIAL LEADERSHIP IN INDIGENOUS ENTERPRISE DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

This paper argues that in order for Indigenous peoples to achieve economic development and social advancement the establishment of a robust business sector is critical. In the quest to establish such a sector the focus has to be the development of viable and successful small to medium size business enterprises. It further argues that entrepreneurial leadership will be the main determinant of such enterprises. The challenge for Indigenous peoples then is to identify and nurture entrepreneurial leadership in the hope that such leadership will embark on to the establishment of, in the initial stages, viable small business enterprises. Once these businesses are successful they will not only provide employment to Indigenous peoples but can act as role models for other prospective Indigenous entrepreneurs.

In the quest to identify entrepreneurial leadership, some form of training and mentoring may be necessary. This is premised on he notion that

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entrepreneurship is not natural, which means people learn to be entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship. In other words, there is no such thing as 'born' entrepreneurs.

This article explores the role of entrepreneurial leadership in the development of Indigenous business enterprises in Tanzania and South Australia. The study focuses on ten Indigenous business enterprises in South Australia and in Tanzania that are small in orientation and are considered successful businesses, promoting individual and family holistic development in the process. The research explores the processes, issues and challenges Indigenous entrepreneurs face in developing business enterprises. In addition to entrepreneurial leadership, it also examines other factors that influence practice and success in Indigenous entrepreneurship and enterprise development.

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OWNERSHIP MOTIVATION AND STRATEGIC PLANNING IN SMALL BUSINESS

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INTRODUCTION

This study investigates whether strategic planning in small businesses is related to the business ownership motivations of operators. In particular, the study compares the propensity of operators motivated by financial versus personal/non-financial goals to engage in strategic planning for their businesses.

METHOD

A self-administered questionnaire was used to survey small business operators in Western Australia. The questionnaire collected general information on the characteristics of operators and their businesses, the initial motivations of operators for going into business and the extent of planning activities.

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ANALYSIS

Quantitative analysis was used in this study to investigate relationships between operators' business ownership motivations and strategic planning. Specifically, factor analysis identified and grouped operators based on their motivations for going into business, and means comparisons (ANOVA) assessed between-group differences in strategic planning.

RESULTS

Four groups of small business operators were identified in the study based on business ownership motivations. Operators in business to achieve financial goals were more likely to engage in strategic planning than operators motivated by lifestyle change and those 'pushed' into small business ownership. Operators driven by personal achievement goals (e.g., self-development, personal challenge and recognition) were similar to 'financial' operators and showed a greater likelihood to strategically plan.

CONCLUSION

Motivations for small business ownership are diverse and significantly influence how operators manage their businesses. In most cases, the operator is the business and accordingly, research into small business strategic planning needs to focus on the operator and his/her personal motivations and ambitions.

INTRODUCTION

Small businesses make up the largest business sector in every world economy (Culkin & Smith 2000) and, since the 1970s, have replaced 'big business' as key drivers of employment and economic growth in most OECD countries (Peacock 2004). In spite of their dominance (both in terms of absolute numbers and contributions to economic activity), small businesses are generally "plagued by high failure rates and poor performance levels" (Jocumsen 2004, p.659). To ensure sustained development of the small business sector, considerable research has examined why some enterprises are more successful than others. Findings generally show that strategic planning is a vital ingredient in small business development, competitiveness and success (Vicere, 1995). Unfortunately, the majority of small businesses do not strategically plan.

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The reticence of small business operators to engage in strategic planning has been broadly attributed to various 'barriers to planning'. Recently however, it has been argued that overall levels of planning (strategic or otherwise) may be more fundamentally related to the ownership motivations of small business operators (Wang, Walker and Redmond, in press). Accordingly, a study was conducted which explored this proposition. Findings from the study are presented in three sections: first, a review of the relevant literature is provided as background; second, study methodology is presented together with analyses and results; and finally, a discussion of key findings and their implications is offered.

BACKGROUND
Strategic Planning in Small Business

Strategic planning refers to the setting of long-term business goals, and the developing and implementing of formal plans to achieve these goals (O'Regan & Ghobadian, 2004; Stonehouse & Pemberton, 2002). Comprehensive reviews of the small business literature suggest that, ceteris paribus, strategic planning is generally more common in better performing enterprises (Hormozi, Sutton, McMinn, & Lucio, 2002; Lurie, 1987; Miller & Cardinal, 1994; Schwenk & Shrader, 1993). For example, small businesses that strategically plan (compared to those that do not) are more likely to be those that achieve higher sales growth, higher returns on assets, higher profit margins and higher employee growth (Berman, Gordon, & Sussman, 1997; Bracker, Keats, & Pearson, 1988; Carland & Carland, 2003; Gibson & Casser, 2005). Small businesses that strategically plan are also more likely to be those that are innovative, those that achieve international growth (Beaver & Prince, 2002; Gibbons & O'Connor, 2005; Stewart, 2002; Upton, Teal, & Felan, 2001) and those less likely to fail (Gaskill, van Auken & Manning 1993; Perry 2001). Overall, the relationship between strategic planning and business performance is best summarised by the following statement:

"Of all the contrasts between the successful and the unsuccessful business, or between the leader and follower,

the single most important differentiating factor is strategy" (J. Thomas Canon cited in Olson & Currie, 1992, p.50).

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Given all the evidence on the benefits of strategy and planning however, most small businesses do not strategically plan. In practice, the primary focus of small business operators is on short-term operational rather than long-term strategic issues, and their decision-making is generally reactive and intuitive rather than proactive and deliberate (Brouthers, Andriessen, & Nicolaes, 1998; Gaskill, van Auken, & Manning, 1993; Jones, 1982; Mazzarol, 2004; Stonehouse & Pemberton, 2002). For those operators that do plan, planning is frequently ad hoc rather than formal and subsequently provides little basis upon which business performance can be measured or analysed (Kelmar & Noy, 1990).

Research into why small businesses generally do not engage in strategic planning has suggested that operators may be hindered or discouraged by 'planning barriers' such as a lack of time, a lack of specialised expertise, inadequate knowledge of the planning processes, or a reluctance to share strategic plans with employees and external consultants (Robinson and Pearce 1984). Recently however, Wang, Walker and Redmond (in press) argued that business ownership motivations are a major reason for why many small businesses do not strategically plan. Most small business operators have "capped" or "limited" desires in relation to optimising operational performance and business expansion (LeCornu, McMahon, Forsaith, & Stanger, 1996, p.11). The reason is that many are in business primarily to pursue personal, non-financial goals (e.g. lifestyle change, the need to be independent, etc.) and consequently do not perceive a need to engage extensively in business planning activities.

Business Ownership Motivation

Motivations for being in business are complex and often, small business ownership is inextricably tied up with the personal lives of business operators and their families (Culkin & Smith, 2000; LeCornu, McMahon, Forsaith, & Stanger, 1996). With respect to small business ownership, the literature suggests that individuals are either 'pulled' or 'pushed' into business (Brockhaus, 1987; Buttner & Moore, 1997; Hamilton, 1987; Brodie & Stanworth 1998; Cooper & Dunkleberg 1987; Gray, 1994, Hughes 2003; Singh & DeNoble, 2003).

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A 'pull' motivation is an individual's positive inner desire to start a business venture and is centred on the potential new business owner's need to take control and change his/her work status as an 'employee'. Common 'pull' factors include independence or autonomy, being one's own boss, wealth creation, lifestyle change and the desire to use or apply personal experiences and knowledge (Burke, FitzRoy, & Nolan, 2002; Birley & Westhead 1994; deBruin & Firkin 2001; Mason & Pinch 1991; Singh & DeNoble 2003). In contrast, 'push' motivations are external negative drivers and typically encompass aspects such as job frustration, perceived lack of advancement opportunities, avoidance of low-paid occupations, escape from supervision and constraint of subservient roles, unemployment and retrenchment (Moore & Buttner, 1997; Roffey et al., 1996; Curran & Blackburn 2001). Typically, small business ownership occurs from the combination of both 'pull' and 'push' forces and may be viewed as a continuum along which exists many combinations of 'push' and 'pull' factor variations (Hughes 2003; Granger, Stanworth and Stanworth 1995).

The specific combination of 'pull' and 'push' motivations that drive small business ownership is determined largely by operator expectations of a positive change in personal circumstance. Particularly important are affective 'windfalls' such as the independence gained from being one's own boss, personal freedom, personal satisfaction, a less rigid, more flexible lifestyle, and more job satisfaction. In counterpoint to notions of economic rationality which assumes that behaviour is primarily profit-driven, such affective windfalls (also referred to as 'psychic rewards' (Owen, Carsky & Dolan 1992) or 'psychic income' (Wheelock & Baines 1998) are often more important than financial gains. This is substantiated by numerous studies into the business aspirations of small business operators (e.g., Rosa, Carter and Hamilton 1996; Gray 1998; Holmes and Zimmer 1994; Sexton 1989; Fielden, Davidson & Makin 2000; Brush 1992; LeCornu at al. 1996; Wiklund, Davidsson & Delmar 2003; Mason, Pinch & Storey 1991; Shane, Kolvereid & Westhead 1991; Rosa, Hamilton, Carter & Burns 1994).

Linking Small Business Strategic Planning and Ownership Motivations

Although generally treated as independent areas of study in the small business literature, ownership motivations and strategic planning are intricately linked. This is because most small businesses operate as "extensions" of their operators (LeCornu, McMahon, Forsaith & Stanger

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1996, p.2) and the strategic (or other) visions of the business are closely aligned with the private motivations and ambitions of operators (Cliff 1998; Galloway & Mochrie 2005). In essence, the operator is the business.

While a focus on 'business financials' is necessary in all enterprises to ensure viability and continuation of operations, small business operators whose objectives are primarily affective or non-financial will, beyond a certain point, ignore profit and growth opportunities (Storey, 1994; Beaver & Jennings 2000; Shepherd & Wiklund 2005). As such, Wang, Walker and Redmond (in press) proposed that where ownership motivations are related to achieving financial gains, then the impetus for small business operators to engage in strategic planning is likely to be high. On the other hand, where ownership motivations are related to pursuing non-financial objectives, then the likelihood of operators engaging in strategic planning would conversely be low. The present paper reports an investigation of this proposition.

METHODOLOGY
Overview

The purpose of the study was to explore the strategic planning activities of small business operators in relation to their motivations for business ownership. In line with the literature discussed above, the following research proposition was developed for the study:

That small business operators motivated by 'financial' goals are more likely to engage in strategic planning than operators motivated by 'personal' or

'non-financial' goals.

Strategic planning involves the systematic setting of comprehensive business goals. In the present study, business ownership motivations were compared against four planning criteria: (1) the use of business plans (yes vs. no), (2) the formality of business plans (written vs. unwritten/'in my head'), (3) the timeframe of business plans (short-term only vs. long-term only vs. both short- and long- term), and (4) the timely review of business

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plans (at least half yearly/yearly vs. less than once every two years). Broadly, small business operators engaged in strategic planning could be expected to:

(1) Have a business plan,

(2) Have a business plan that was formal (written),

(3)   Have a business plan that covered both the short- and long- term periods; and,

(4) Have a plan that was reviewed regularly.

Design and Sample

The study design was a cross-sectional survey of small businesses operating in the state of Western Australia. A purposive list of 1600 small businesses – defined in the study as businesses with less than 20 employees (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2005) – was compiled from various local proprietary directories. Letters of introduction and self-administered questionnaires were posted to all businesses on the list. Participation was voluntary and anonymous.

Questionnaires were designed to collect general information on the characteristics of operators and their businesses (gender, family involvement, type of business, years in operation, number of employees and customers, exit strategy), the initial motivations of operators for going into business and the extent of planning activities. A 6-point Likert-scale (1 = 'not at all important' to 6 = 'very important') was used for motivation questions and a simple multiple-choice answer format was used for all other questions.

Data Analysis

The relationship between operators' business ownership motivations and strategic planning was of primary interest in all analyses. First, data reduction via principal component analysis was used to identify underlying patterns in ownership motivations and group operators

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according to their business ownership goals. Next, between-group differences in the use and extent of strategic planning were explored by means comparisons of factor group scores in relation to each of the four strategic planning criteria proposed. Gender of small business operators was included in analyses and is reported in this paper where significant.

RESULTS

A total of 486 usable questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of approximately 30%. Non-response bias was investigated by comparing 'early' and 'late' return respondents on relevant demographic variables. This approach assumes that 'late' return respondents are characteristically similar to non-respondents (French, Kelly & Harrison 2004). No significant differences were found between the two groups in the present study.

Overview of Planning and Business Ownership Motivations

Of the total returned questionnaires, 58% (281) were from men and 42% (204) were from women small business operators. Two-thirds of all business operators reported that they had a business plan while one-third had none (67% yes vs. 33% no). Of those with plans, about half were formal (i.e., written) and half were informal (i.e., unwritten/'in my head'). Additionally, 31% had plans that were short-term only, 16% had plans that were long-term only while 53% had plans that were both short- and long- term. Of those with plans, 83% reviewed their plans on a timely basis (half yearly or yearly) while 17% did not (longer than every two years).

Table 1

Ownership motivations were assessed using a 17-item list developed, tested and refined over several studies of Australian small business operators (Walker, 2002a, 2002b; Walker, 2004a, 2004b). The items comprised common 'pull' and 'push' drivers of small business ownership. Table 1 presents individual mean scores for the 17 items. From the table, the motivation item with the highest and lowest mean scores were 'to do work that I really enjoy' (mean = 4.91) and 'I was

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made redundant' (mean = 1.47). In relation to 'pull' and 'push' motivations, Table 1 shows that 'pull' motivations were generally more important drivers of operators' business ownership decisions. This is observed in the higher mean scores for the majority of 'pull' items compared to 'push' motivations.

Data reduction via principal component analysis was next applied to the above results to explore underlying commonalities in operators' business ownership motivations. Generally, loadings > 0.5 are considered practically significant (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998) and in the present study, lesser loadings were omitted from the analyses.

Table 2 shows that four factors representing underlying groupings of the motivation items could be reasonably extracted from the data. Two items (i.e., 'to be my own boss' and 'to do work that I really enjoy') initially loaded onto Factor F1. However, neither attained the critical loading value and both were omitted from further analyses. The four factors may be reasonably interpreted as groupings of items along the following unifying dimensions:

·   Factor F1:   Personal development motivations

·   Factor F2:   Financial motivations

·   Factor F3:   'Push' motivations

·   Factor F4:   Flexible lifestyle motivations

Eigenvalues indicate the size of each of the four factors measured in terms of the amount of variation in the inter-correlation matrixes each factor explains (Myers & Mullet, 2003). The order in which factors are extracted is based on the amount of common variation explained by the factor and those with the highest Eigenvalues are extracted first (Myers & Mullet, 2003). Effectively, Eigenvalues and the percentages of variance explained specify the relative importance or significance of each underlying factor extracted. From Table 2 therefore, the main motivations

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for operators to go into business were (in order of significance): personal goals relating to self-development, self-challenge and recognition; financial imperatives relating to wealth or asset creation; 'push' or negative reasons relating to previous jobs or careers; and finally, lifestyle objectives.

Table 2

In relation to the above discussion on ownership motivation, drivers of business ownership can be distinctly financial or non-financial. Of the four factor groupings identified above, factor F2 is clearly defined by financial items while factors F1, F3 and F4 are defined by non-financial items. In line with the literature, F1 (non-financial) is relatively more important as a driver of business ownership than F2 (financial).
Business Planning and Ownership Motivations

Business planning refers to whether operators had a business plan (yes vs. no). Factor scores for each of the four factor groupings identified above were entered as test variables to compare differences in business planning for the groups. Results are presented in Figure 1 (bars show sample means and distribution (range, high and low values) for each factor group).

Figure 1 – Business Planning x Ownership Motivation

Figure 1 shows divergence in the planning practices of operators driven by different business ownership motivations. Specifically, operators driven by personal development motivations (F1 group) and financial motivations (F2 group) were more likely overall to have a business plan while operators motivated by 'push' (F3 group) and flexible lifestyle (F4 group) goals were more likely not to have a plan. Analysis of variance showed that F2 operators ($F = 5.273$, $df = 434$, $p < .05$) were significantly different from F3 and F4 operators in their planning practices while differences between F1 and F3-F4 operators approached significance ($F = 3.238$, $df = 434$, $p < .075$).

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These results support in part the research proposition (criterion 1 – to have a business plan). In particular, operators motivated by financial goals (F2) are more likely to have a business plan than operators motivated by 'push' (F3) and 'flexible lifestyle' (F4) goals. The similarity between the F1 and F2 groups suggest that operators motivated by personal development goals may be as likely as financially motivated operators to also have a business plan for their businesses.

Formality of Business Plans and Ownership Motivations

Formality of business plans refers to whether business plans were formal (i.e., written) or informal (i.e., unwritten, 'in my head' only). As in the analysis above, group factor scores were used to compare differences in the formality of business planning by ownership motivation. These results are presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2 shows little between-group differences in the formality of operators' business planning. With the exception of those in the personal development group (F1), small business operators were considerably more likely overall to have informal or 'in my head' than formal-written business plans. ANOVA confirmed that there were no statistically significant differences in the formality of planning between the four groups. This finding was contrary to the research proposition. Further analyses were performed to explore gender effects and are presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3 clarifies the results obtained above in relation to the research proposition (criterion 2 – to have a formal or written business plan). For male operators, Figure 3 shows that those motivated by financial goals (F2) were more likely to have formal/written business plans compared to those motivated by 'push' (F3) and 'flexible lifestyle' (F4) goals (who were more likely to have informal/'in my head' plans). Additionally, male operators motivated by personal development (F1) goals were also more likely than those in the F3-F4 groups to have formal/written plans. Analysis of variance confirmed that F1 and F2 operators were significantly different to F3 operators in their planning formality (F = 6.122, df = 216, p < .05). Differences between F1-F2 and F4 operators

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approached statistical significance (F = 3.607, df = 216, p < .06). These results provide qualified support for the research proposition (criterion 2) as well as the previous section's finding that F1 and F2 operators may be similar with respect to strategic planning.

Figure 2 – Formality of Business Planning x Ownership Motivation

For female operators on the other hand, Figure 3 shows an opposite result to research expectations. In particular, female operators motivated by financial ownership goals (F2 group) were considerably less likely to have formal/written plans compared to operators motivated by personal/non-financial objectives (F1, F3, F4 groups). Analysis of variance confirmed that F2 operators were significantly different to the other groups in this respect (F = 8.690, df = 155, p < .01). This result may explain the lack of between-group differences observed in Figure 2 and why the research proposition was not supported for this planning criterion.

Figure 3 – Formality of Business Planning x Ownership Motivation x Gender

Timeframe of Business Plans and Ownership Motivations

Timeframe refers to the planning period covered by business plans. In the study, factor groups were compared against three planning periods: short-term only (for plans that covered periods 12 months or less), long-term only (for plans that covered periods more than 12 months), and both short- and long- term. Figure 4 presents this result.

Between-group comparisons show that operators in the personal development (F1) and financial (F2) motivation groups were more likely overall to have business plans that covered both the short- and long-terms (than plans that were only short-term or only long-term). In contrast, small business operators in the 'push' and 'flexible lifestyle' groups were more likely to have business plans that were short-term only.

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Analysis of variance showed again that the planning practices of F1 operators were significantly different (F = 3.884, df = 387, p < .05) to those of operators in the F3-F4 groups. No statistically significant difference was found between F2 and F3-F4 operators in respect of planning horizons and the research proposition (criterion 3 – have a business plan that is both short- and long- term) is not supported in this instance. Even so, the observed differences between F2 and F3-F4 may be considered empirically significant.

Figure 4 – Timeframe of Business Planning x Ownership Motivation

Review of Business Plans and Ownership Motivations

The final investigation of strategic planning activity explored the frequency of operators' review of business plans. Factor groups were compared against two periods of review: at least half-yearly or yearly and less than once every two years. From Figure 6, between-group comparisons show that F2 small business operators were more likely to review their business plans than operators in each of the other factor groups. This difference approached statistical significance (F = 2.835, df = 388, p < .095) and provides qualified support for the research proposition. No other between-group differences were found. In this instance, operators motivated by personal development goals did not differ significantly from 'push' and lifestyle operators.

Figure 6 – Review of Business Planning x Ownership Motivation

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Strategic planning in small business is related to the ownership motivations of operators. Four groups of small business operators were identified in the present study – those driven by personal development, financial, 'push' and flexible lifestyle factors. On balance, operators motivated by financial goals were more likely than other operators to engage in strategic planning for their businesses. In relation to the strategic planning criteria used in this study, financially motivated operators were more likely to have a business plan. They were also more likely to have a plan that was formal (written), more likely to have a plan

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that considered both the short and long term, and more likely to have timely reviews of these plans. Given that strategic planning is a vital part of business success, it is reasonable that operators motivated by financial goals would engage in such planning to improve the performance of their businesses.

On the other hand, small business operators in the 'push' and flexible lifestyle groups were more likely not to engage in strategic planning. 'Push' operators have been variously labelled as 'reluctant', 'distressed', 'unwilling' or 'forced' entrepreneurs (Brooksbank 2000; Keeble, Bryson & Wood 1992; Stanworth & Stanworth 1997; Singh & DeNoble 2003; Webster & Walker 2006). Accordingly, it could be expected that such operators would have low levels of business 'enthusiasm' particularly in respect of engaging in, and committing to, long-term planning for the business. Similarly, planning enthusiasm may be low in lifestyle operators who see small business ownership as a vehicle to avoid the onerous workloads typically associated with 'mainstream' employment and who expect to be in business for a short time only (e.g., retirees/semi-retirees and women balancing home and work responsibilities).

Interestingly, small business operators motivated by personal development goals showed considerable propensity to strategically plan and exhibited greater similarity in their planning to operators in the financial than non-financial (i.e., 'push' and flexible lifestyle) groups. Personal development goals relate to the need for self-development, personal challenge, recognition and the desire to use and further enhance personal skills and knowledge. While non-financial in nature, the extent to which these personal goals are achieved may be measured by operators against the level of the business's success. Given that the success of any business is traditionally measured in terms of financial performance (e.g., profit, turnover, return on investment, etc.) (Barkham, et al.,1996; Brüderl & Preisendörfer, 1998; Forsaith & Hall, 2000; Ibrahim & Goodwin, 1986; Kalleberg & Leicht, 1991), and that strategic planning contributes significantly to this performance, it could be expected therefore that operators driven by personal development goals would strategically plan in their businesses.

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Overall, our study's findings represent an important contribution to understanding the antecedents of small business planning activities. Although researchers have argued that engagement in strategic planning by small business operators should be understood in relation to ownership motivations (e.g., Beaver, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c), this association has not previously been shown or tested empirically. Perhaps for this reason, extant research to understand the general lack of strategic planning in small business typically ignores or disregards motivation as a possible factor. This has been exacerbated by research in the last decade shifting away from the operator to focus on more macro-type explanations. For example, environmental uncertainty or turbulence (Shrader, Mulford & Blackburn 1989; Matthews & Scott 1995; Yusuf & Saffu 2005), size of business (Stonehouse & Pemberton 2002), type of industry (Shrader, Mulford & Blackburn 1989), internal organisational implementation barriers (O'Regan & Ghobadian 2002) and business life-cycle/stage of development (Berry 1998) have in recent times been investigated as possible explanations of why small businesses do not plan. Our study reverts the focus of analysis back to the small business operator and presents a more fundamental raison d`etre for strategic planning in small businesses – i.e., the operator's business ownership motivations.

In relation to ownership motivations, the four distinct underlying factor groupings identified in this study show that the goals of small business ownership are complex and extend beyond the simple axiom of 'making lots of money'. While financial imperatives represented one of the four factor groups, they were less important to the small business operator than personal development goals. Beyond simply re-confirming results from previous studies of motivation in small business, the present findings have implications for those interested or involved in the overall growth and development of the small business sector. In recent decades, considerable assistance has been afforded by various governments and interested parties (including business and industry groups, academic and other researchers, etc.) in support of small business. Based on our results, a more targeted approach is necessary that differentiates between those operators with strong growth imperatives who wish to develop their businesses and others with less ambitious drives who may be more interested in maintaining a status quo.

With respect to differentiating between groups of small business operators, our study showed a considerable gender effect in the formality

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of planning. Women in the financial motivation group were more likely to have informal ('in my head') plans than formal written plans. In contrast, financially driven male operators were more likely to have formal written than informal plans. Generally, women's strategic planning is still very much an under-researched area and there exists little empirical findings on gender differences in this area. Given that male-female differences have been found in respect of entrepreneurial ability (Cowling & Taylor 2001), decision-making (Chaganti 1986), risk preference (Powell & Ansic 1997), competitive strategy (Carter, Williams & Reynolds 1997), and the pursuit of growth (Zinger, LeBrasseur, Riverin & Robichaud 2005), a better understanding of gender differences in strategic planning may be needed.

SUMMARY

The motivations for small business ownership are diverse and significantly influence how operators manage their businesses. In most cases, the operator is the business and accordingly, research into small business strategic planning needs to focus on the operator and his/her personal motivations and ambitions.

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DEFINING A TRAINING PROGRAM FOR SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN INDONESIA.

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Abstract

What the term social entrepreneurship percisely denotes has recently spurred discussions in the management literature. Alter's (2004) study proposed a model that viewed social entrepreneurship as a civic innovation creating alternative and direct service ventures as well as activities taking place in the intersection between commercial and state based entreprises. However, this model was basically based on theoretical analyses, and is still open for further refinement.

A recent study undertaken by the author to clarify how the term 'social entrepreneurship' is conceptualized in Indonesia utilizing grounded theory approach, and based on interiews with 300 respondents, indicated that the terms covered not only civic innovations but included also various traditional to modern means in combining social and business interests. Given the range and multitude dimensions the term is conceptualized in Indonesia, the newly established center for enterpreneurship activities, referred to as 'Business Incubator and

Development Center' at the Department of Management of Faculty of Economics faced a dilemma in defining its future training program in social entrepreneurship. The program will most likely be targeted towards non-profits organizations that at present time have to adjust to the fact that competition to obtain donations has hightened given the facts not only are fundings limited but also after the 1998 reformation movement the numbers of non-profits organizations in Indonesia has risen exponentially in numbers.

To solve this dilemma small scale study was conducted to seek a better understanding what types of social entrepreneurial activities were presently desired by non-profit organizations. In-depth open ended interviews were conducted with twenty non-profit organizations' leaders whose organizations already engaged in profit making activities to investigate how they designed anda managed their organizations. At the same time, another twenty non-profit organizations's leaders who have not yet established for-profit activities were also interviewed to find out what were their training expectations and what managerial skills were needed to enable them to become self-reliant. The study employed qualitative approach and analyzed the data using comparative analysis method through the application of hyper-research program. Initial analysis of the data indicates that most non-profit organizations engaged in profit making activities with more modern management system clearly separated their social from business engagements, whereas the more traditionally oriented ones integrated the two activities such as traditional savings-and-loans system ('arisan'), and different modes of cooperatives. However, the later seemed to fall within what the present conceptualization of social entrepreneurship from Western perspective. Therefore, should the training be more directed towards the promotion of the traditional models of social enterpreneurship management?

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EDUCATING GENERATIONE IN AUSTRALASIA: US LESSONS, NEW ZEALAND EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT
Australasian countries have huge numbers of young entrepreneurs. Yet the state of entrepreneurship education in this region has yet to come to grips with their needs. Elsewhere in the world, the growth and development in the curricula and programs devoted to raising the level of enterprise and new venture creation has been remarkable. The researcher undertook field study in North America and Europe to examine inter-disciplinary initiatives that take the study of entrepreneurship and personal enterprise out of the Business School, integrate it across the campus and make it available to the widest range of students. The paper first describes GenerationE in Australasian countries and in New Zealand. It then classifies and categorises best-practice models of enterprise education, focussing especially on non-business entrepreneurship and university-wide enterprise requirements. The paper summarises these data and formulates "models of enterprise education" outside the business school environment. It offers generalisations that may prove helpful to

educationalists and government policy planners about how to accelerate the development of personal enterprise within individuals and thereby to increase the supply of young people who launch their own businesses and social enterprises. The goal of this paper is to help universities in our region and elsewhere move toward infusing entrepreneurship throughout the curriculum.

Entrepreneurship needs no justification to study it on the grounds of its importance to humanity. It is a wellspring of economic growth, social renewal and personal development. Such an important subject is worthy of deep research, significant reflection and sustained dialogue. When a subject – any subject – has the depth of importance which entrepreneurship possesses, I believe it is capable of being the foundation for great education. (Hindle 2004)

ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION IN ANCIENT TIMES

Imagine being a young person and trying to become an entrepreneur in ancient times. Where would you go to learn the skills? In Roman times, business enterprise by a noble man led to loss of prestige. Wealth creation was highly valued as long as it did not involve industry or commerce. Landholding and usury were the usual routes. What was a young Roman to do? Fortunately, this situation left the way open for entrepreneurial freedmen, former slaves who were "set up" by their masters to run the businesses.

In Medieval China, the educational system did nothing to help entrepreneurs. Scholarship and officialdom were the routes to success and value was tied up in land, not enterprise. In Europe during the Early Middle Ages around King Arthur's Court, boys learned warfare and that was the sole accepted means for accumulating wealth. Mark Twain's A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court hilariously skewers the Roundtable when a Yankee entrepreneur is transported back to the past and sets up an enterprise academy! (Twain 1889). But by the Late Middle Ages, the revival of towns saw tax-free zones and freed serfs leading to the growth of an entrepreneurial spirit (Baumol 1990).

YOUNG ENTREPRENEURS IN AUSTRALASIA

In the new millennium, the entrepreneurial spirit has more alive than ever. Today's current younger generation is sometimes referred to as Generation X because they feel "X-ed' out of traditional opportunities. Yet throughout the world, young entrepreneurs have become known as GenerationE because they are creating new and growing business in unprecedented numbers with stunning impact on national economies. GenerationE has created entirely new industries, achieved self-made wealth, seen the dawn in equity creation and stock market growth. This

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has not been limited to the upper classes but has been diffused throughout the entire economy.

There are millions of young people around the world who are currently starting businesses. Table 1 shows the statistics for selected countries. New Zealand has the developed world's highest rate of youth entrepreneurship, 43% of its entrepreneurs being between 18-34 years old compared to 38% in the United States. In Singapore, Australia and New Zealand combined, there are more than 1.2 million young people starting businesses.

Table 1 Youth entrepreneurs in selected countries

COUNTRY	PERCENT OF ENTREPRENEURS WHO ARE 18-34 YEARS OLD	TOTAL NUMBER OF ENTREPRENEURS	ENTREPRENEURS BETWEEN 18-34 YEARS OLD
NZ	43%	585,897	252,588
AU	38%	2,665,297	1,009,676
SG	38%	247,835	93,582
US	38%	33,188,909	12,450,928
JP	36%	1,881,869	679,487
UK	36%	3,765,711	1,346,781
CA	35%	2,876,620	1,018,730
HK	34%	203,805	69,956
FI	33%	229,083	75,954

Entrepreneurship not just a first-world phenomenon. The poor in the developing countries can and do get richer through enterprise. UN Secretary General Kofi Annan has said "entrepreneurs have the power to create the greatest change for their own countries" (Annan, 2003). With their peers around the world, these young people are now one of the most entrepreneurial generations since the Industrial Revolution (Tulgan 1999).

NEW ZEALAND'S YOUTH ENTREPRENEURS

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor shows that New Zealand ranks highest in entrepreneurial activity amongst developed countries (Acs et al., 2005; Reynolds et al., 2004). New Zealand beats Australia, the USA, Canada, and Iceland in both the 2004 and the aggregate 2001-2004 Total Entrepreneurial Activity index for the top five developed countries (Table 2). Using this proportion, we can calculate that in 2004 there are 366,000 New Zealanders currently trying to start a business (entrepreneurs).

Table 2 Total entrepreneurial activity by country, % adult population

TOTAL ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITY BY COUNTRY

2004		2001-2004	
New Zealand	14.67	New Zealand	15.1
Iceland	13.57	Australia	12.9
Australia	13.38	United States	12.4
United States	11.33	Iceland	12.0
Canada	8.85	Canada	9.8

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Of special interest is the growing cohort of young entrepreneurs, people in their twenties and early thirties, who contribute to the national goal of returning New Zealand to the top half of the OECD in terms of growth and standard of living. GEM divides young male and female New Zealanders into two age groups 18-24 and 25-34 years of age. Their percentage amongst all entrepreneurs and their calculated count is shown in Table 3. There are 13,176 young New Zealand entrepreneurs between the ages of 18 and 24 and 46,116 between the ages of 25 and 34.

Table 3 Young entrepreneurs in New Zealand, % of adult population and count

YOUNG ENTREPRENEURS IN NEW ZEALAND

	AGE GROUP	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
PERCENT	18-24 YRS	2.50%	1.10%	3.60%
COUNT		9150	4026	13176
PERCENT	25-34 YRS	7.40%	5.20%	12.60%
COUNT		27084	19032	46116

In addition to these "current entrepreneurs," many more have the intention to become self-employed. In a recent survey, 79% of young New Zealanders aged 15-21 years claimed they would like to start up or own their own business (compared to 38% in the general population). This was spread across all demographic groups. The only exception was that young Mäori expressed an even greater degree of interest (92%) than other groups (BRC 2004).

ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION IN NEW ZEALAND

Those are large numbers for New Zealand, yet it is surprising how little the educational system focuses on the needs of young entrepreneurs. The word "entrepreneurship" does not appear on the entire Ministry of Education website:

Google: "Your search - entrepreneur or entrepreneurship site:.moe.govt.nz - did not match any documents."

Were it not for the Enterprise New Zealand Trust, pre-university students would simply have no exposure to enterprise themes. New Zealand may have a higher rate of entrepreneurship than the USA, but it is falling behind in entrepreneurship education.

Meanwhile, the growth and development in American curricula and programs devoted to raising the level of enterprise and new venture creation has been remarkable. At the high school level, the National Foundation for Teaching Entrepreneurship (NFTE) has reached over 100,000 young people and trained more than 3,200 Certified Entrepreneurship Teachers (NFTE 2004a). At the university level in the USA there are more than 1,600 such programs teaching 2,200 courses. Research (Rasheed 2001; NFTE 2004b; University of Arizona 2004) shows that students--be they in art or architecture, sport or health--who have had just one course in entrepreneurship or personal enterprise are more likely be self employed, to start successful businesses and to launch social enterprises. Evidence suggests that many of the best ideas in

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business plan competitions come from non-business majors. Many of the strongest contributors are non-business students, and some of the most innovative entrepreneurial initiatives do not involve business schools.

The trend to proprietorship and self-employment is impressive. While we do not have comparable figures for the Australasian countries, in the United States, accurate figures of self-employment amongst the various job categories have been kept (Bureau of Labour Statistics 2004-2005). Table 3 shows the percentage of self-employment of many favoured new-millennium professions.

Table 4 USA Professions, percentage of self-employed

Artists	50%
Photographers	50%
Construction managers	50%
Property, real estate, and community association managers	46%
Writers and authors	33%
Musicians, singers, and related workers	33%
Designers	33%
Carpenters	30%
Management analysts	30%

Veterinarians	28%
Athletes, coaches, umpires,	27%
Actors, producers, and directors	25%
Architects	20%
Dancers and choreographers	20%
Television, video, and motion picture camera operators and editors	20%
Automotive service technicians	16%
Economists	11%
Accountants	10%
Travel agents	10%
Electricians	10%

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Graduates from the performing arts are remarkably high in self-employment rates. As many as half of all artists and photographers, a third of writers and authors, musicians and singers, and a quarter of actors and directors become self-employed. From management analysts to architects, many of today's professions are increasing self-employed.

WHAT DO WE MEAN BY ENTERPRISE AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP?

As the Star Trek TV series etched in our minds: "The mission of the Starship Enterprise is to boldly go where no [one] has gone before".

The word "enterprise" has had an interesting evolution. It often appears in the business context as a synonym for corporation or venture. But it also has a broader sense embodied in the Star Trek series as an "attitude to life, an attitude of exploring, of developing, of leading and of taking initiatives" (Bridge et al. 1998: 21).

Enterprise—as in an enterprising individual--is the process of identifying, developing and bringing a vision to life, be it an innovative idea or simply a better way of doing something. Enterprise applies not only to business ventures, but also to political decisions and social decisions.

The English language is fortunate in having two contrasting words. Enterprising means "marked by imagination, initiative, and readiness to undertake new projects." Entrepreneurial means "willing to take risks in order to create value."

Rheingold (2000) helps us to understand that certain concepts may not be translatable into other languages. While I don't speak all of the following languages, I translated them in various online dictionaries (see Table 5). I can verify that neither French nor Spanish can distinguish between the two concepts. The German word "unternehmungslustig" means someone who loves to undertake new projects while the word "unternehmerisch" has the connotation of the business world, as it undertaking new businesses. Perhaps colleagues can help with other translations.
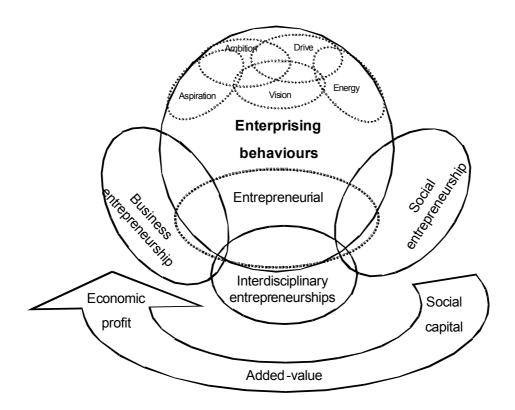
This paper uses the word "enterprise" in its broadest sense of "enterprising human beings" and not only in the business sense. Whether in art or architecture, sport or health, we can educate students to be enterprising or to have an enterprising attitude. Our goal should be to instil that sense of personal enterprise best embodied by the motto: "I am the sole proprietor of the rest of my life."

Let's see if we can model these divergent yet complimentary perspectives. There are many types of enterprising behaviour of which entrepreneurship is but one. (See Figure 1). For the present we leave aside other enterprising traits such as ambition, aspiration and drive, which are also part of the enterprising individual. We only look at entrepreneur behaviour in this model.

Table 5 "Enterprising" and "entrepreneurial" in 13 languages

English	"enterprising"	"entrepreneurial"
Czech	podnikavý	podnikatelský
Dutch	ondernemend	bedrijfsgericht
French	entreprenant	entreprenant
German	unternehmungslustig	unternehmerisch
Greek	τολμηρός	επιχειρηματικός
Italian	na	imprenditoriale
Japanese	企業的	企業家
Polish	przedsiębiorczy	przedsiębiorca
Portuguese	empreendedor	na
Russian	предприимчиво	na
Spanish	emprendedor	emprendedor
Swedish	företagsam	egen företagare
Source: Interglot.com, babelfish.altavista.com, smx.cz, portalwiedzy.onet.pl		

Figure 1 Enterprising behaviour as superset

In general, an enterprising individual is an opportunity spotter, niche filler,

idea initiator, responsibility taker, influencer, planner and organiser. An enterprising individual is active, confident, purposeful--not passive, uncertain and dependent. Enterprising people have ideas and do something

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about them even when life is difficult and uncertain. In the business world, we may call this business entrepreneurship, but there are also social entrepreneurs as well as cross-disciplinary entrepreneurs such as arts entrepreneurs, sports entrepreneurs, design entrepreneurs and so forth. That is why we place enterprise as the superset. Enterprising behaviour has many aspects, including ambition, aspiration, drive and so forth.

As a broad concept, Ball (1996) defines enterprise this way:

Enterprise is the capacity and willingness to initiate and manage creative action in response to opportunities or changes, wherever they appear, in an attempt to achieve outcomes of value. These outcomes can be personal, social, cultural and of course economic. Typically, enterprise involves facing degrees of difficulty or uncertainty.

This means bringing a vision to life. Enterprising behaviour is thus the superset under which narrower concepts dwell. These include business entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship, and interdisciplinary entrepreneurships.

Business entrepreneurship

Perhaps the best known form of enterprising behaviour is business entrepreneurship. Perhaps its most common definition is the process of creating or seizing an opportunity and pursuing it regardless of the resources currently controlled. The American Heritage Dictionary defines an entrepreneur to be "a person who organizes, operates, and assumes the risk for business ventures." Entrepreneurship also refers to the set of skills a person needs in order to successfully start and run a small business. These skills include the ability to identify a need in the marketplace and to take risks.

There is an important distinction to make here. Not everyone who runs a business is an entrepreneur. Small business owners are not necessarily entrepreneurs. Small businesses never achieve anything new nor do they create any wealth; they merely optimise supply and demand in established markets and add nothing of value. They manage the business by expecting stable sales, profits, and growth. Entrepreneurial ventures, on the other hand, are those for which the entrepreneur's principal objectives are profitability and sustained growth. The business is characterized by innovative strategic practices and continued growth. Small business owners would rather exploit existing equilibrium opportunities and optimise supply and demand in established markets rather than exploit innovative venture opportunities and create new markets at home and abroad. Entrepreneurs do start up small businesses that grow into large and profitable ventures. Small business owners may have started as entrepreneurs but they have lost their

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zeal to grow, have become lifestyles, are not growth-focused, have low horizons and are not export oriented. An entrepreneur is not just a baby business manager.

Social entrepreneurship

Another category of enterprise is social entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurs have many of the same personality traits as business entrepreneurs. Social entrepreneurs tackle a wide range of social and environmental issues and operate in all parts of the economy. Where they differ is in the motive of individual self-maximisation. A social enterprise "is a business with primarily social objectives whose surpluses are principally reinvested for that purpose in the business or in the community, rather than being driven by the need to maximise profit for shareholders and owners (UK Department of Trade and Industry, 2002: 8). Alter (2002) considers the value "continuum" created by both profit-making and non-profit organisations (see Figure 2). This ranges from the predominantly social value of the traditional non-profit to the predominantly economic value of the traditional corporation. There are also interesting gradations in the middle, such as the socially responsible business. Social enterprises can be found at any place along this continuum except the extremes. Where the value generated by an enterprise can be seen as a blend of social and economic values, then it can be called a social enterprise.

Figure 2 Alter's value continuum

Traditional Non-profit	Non-profit with some earned income	Non-profit Enterprise	Socially Responsible Business	Corporate Social Responsibility	Traditional Corporation

Social Value   Economic Value

We can summarise this by saying that like a business entrepreneur, the social entrepreneur identifies opportunities and designs business models. But the social entrepreneur emphasizes social improvement all the while balancing that with profitability and growth. The success of their activities is measured first and foremost by their social impact (Nicholls 2004).

Interdisciplinary "entrepreneurships"

Beyond this there are crossovers that connect entrepreneurship and enterprise to the most diverse of disciplines that go beyond business. Evidence suggests that:

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- Many of the best venture ideas in business plan competitions come from non-business majors
- Many of the strongest contributors to entrepreneurship courses are non-business students
- Some of the most innovative entrepreneurial initiatives do not involve business schools
- Many of the most successful alumni entrepreneurs did not graduate from the business school.

This category includes arts entrepreneurship, music entrepreneurship, biomedical entrepreneurship, personal enterprise, sports entrepreneurship, nursing entrepreneurship, and so forth.

THE GROWTH OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

Numerous studies (Finkle and Deeds 2001; Kolvereid and Moen 1997; Lüthje and Franke 2002; Vesper and Gartner 1997) have examined the rise of entrepreneurship education. The phenomenon has reached many countries. For example, Germany is particularly active in new forms of entrepreneurship education with the creation of more than 30 chairs in entrepreneurship between 1997-2004 (Volkmann 2004; Klandt 2004; Koch 2003). Solomon et al. (2002) noted the acceleration in the field in two decades. These developments are not limited to the developed world: Latin American universities are seeing a growing commitment to developing entrepreneurial abilities among students and graduates (Kantis et al., nd). Streeter et al. (2002) found that the trend toward university-wide entrepreneurship education was already strong and gaining momentum.

Kuratko (2003) believes that entrepreneurship is the future of business schools and that it is beginning to move into a leadership role. There's an interesting dialectic in the business education field between control and creativity. Meyer (2001) characterises these conflicting approaches as divergent thought-systems. There is an "ideological chasm" between the control-oriented management disciplines such as finance and accounting and the entrepreneurship teachers who value the creation process.

Hindle (2004) believes that entrepreneurship education is fundamentally at odds with the orientation of the typical university-based business school both in terms of the way material is taught and evaluated. He recalls McMullan and Long (1987: 262) saying that the new field would need to extend beyond the boundaries of schools of management or engineering, perhaps even beyond universities. Legendary entrepreneurship educator David Birch believes that "business schools teach you exactly the opposite of entrepreneurship. . . .Basically, business schools teach you to work for somebody." (Aronsson 2004: 290). Hindle (2004) questions whether

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entrepreneurship should even be taught in the business school. He says that entrepreneurship belongs "wherever you want to put it so long as the key condition of imaginative transcendence of the immediately vocational is met. You teach it wherever the right mindset prevails."

However we look at it has entrepreneurship education "truly arrived"? We can measure this by looking at the usual milestones of a discipline.

According to Kuratko (2004), entrepreneurship education is one of the fastest growing academic disciplines of all time. Vesper & Gartner's (2001) inventory of entrepreneurship education programs has ballooned. It is now estimated that number of schools teaching a new venture creation or similar courses has grown from about 20 only two decades ago to more than 1,600. Katz (2003) reports that there are more than 150 Entrepreneurship Centres. Hisrich (2004) estimates that there are some 564 professorships in the field of entrepreneurship, 72% of them in the USA (Table 4). Every week another endowed position comes online. Furthermore, he estimates that in the USA alone as many as 100 entry-level positions and 50 endowed professorships remain unfilled as the supply of qualified faculty is falling behind the demand.

Table 6 Number of entrepreneurship professorships, USA and rest of the world

Year	USA	Rest of the world	Total
1991	97	4	101
1999	237	34	371
2003	406	158	564
Source: Robert Hisrich, Case Western University, Ohio USA			

The academic literature in the fields of enterprise and entrepreneurship is vast and deep with at least 45 dedicated refereed academic journals (Hisrich 2004). Assuming 4 issues per year of eight articles, that means that there are about 1,400 new articles coming out annually. This does not include the mainstream management journals that are devoting more issues (some special issues) to entrepreneurship. Nor does it count the thousands of conference papers presented each year. The literature has long reached the point where it would be impossible for any individual to read all refereed journal articles.

There are now respected conferences on how to teach entrepreneurship (Syracuse University 2004). We even now have our own historian of entrepreneurship education (Katz 2003). In 1970 there was one textbook, now there are dozens.

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The movement is growing so fast that it is now expanding outside the Business School. Hundreds of campuses are launching new kinds of "e'ships": engineering entrepreneurship, nursing entrepreneurship, music entrepreneurship, nutrition entrepreneurship, even statistics entrepreneurship.

There are several drivers. Evidence from around the world shows that there is huge student demand. Indeed, entrepreneurship faculties are a bit of cash cows. But there are other drivers. One is philanthropy. The Kauffman Foundation of Kansas City aims is to transform campus life so that entrepreneurship is as integral and natural a part of the college experience as dorms, cramming for exams and parties. In 2003, Kauffman awarded $25 Million (2:1 matching grants) to transform culture of eight renowned universities that pledged to make entrepreneurship education available across campus, transform the way entrepreneurship is viewed, taught and experienced, indeed to inject entrepreneurship training and experiences into the fabric of the university. Another is wealthy alums. Throughout the USA successful entrepreneurs are giving back to their almae mater. Hundreds of millions of dollars has been donated for building, professorship, scholarships, dormitories, speakers series, venture funds and the like.

MY RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

With these thoughts in mind, the author undertook field research to examine the increasing number of initiatives that aim to satisfy GenerationE's needs. The particular aim was to examine inter-disciplinary initiatives that aim to break the study of entrepreneurship and personal enterprise out of the business school and to integrate it across the campus. The researcher visited sixteen campuses in Europe and North America to conduct in-depth interviews, attended important meetings where the leaders of this "movement" congregate, spoke to hundreds of people, and carried out Web research. The aim was to classify and categorise best-practice models of enterprise education, focussing especially on cross-disciplinary non-business entrepreneurship and university-wide enterprise general education requirements.

The paper summarises and reviews the literature and practice in the field and then categorises the observed cases into "models of enterprise education." It looks at the state of entrepreneurship education today in the leading universities around the world. It examines evidence about the impact of entrepreneurship education and attempts to classify entrepreneurship within a superset of values known as enterprise. The paper's ultimate aim is to accelerate the development of personal enterprise within individuals and to

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increase the supply of young New Zealand entrepreneurs who launch their own businesses and social enterprises.

Results

The main purpose of this field research was to examine models that take entrepreneurship education beyond the business school. Through visits to 16 campuses and in-depth interviews with 24 others, the aim is to classify and categorise best-practice models of enterprise education, focussing especially on cross-disciplinary non-business entrepreneurship and university-wide enterprise general education requirements.[1] Illustrative entrepreneurship education models that go beyond the business school would include university-wide initiatives, interdisciplinary "entrepreneurships", technical or science entrepreneurship, social and community entrepreneurship, faculty/staff education, and centres, incubators and other initiatives.

University-wide initiatives

These are large interdisciplinary programs that infuse entrepreneurship across the school or even university-wide.

• For <u>Babson College</u>, entrepreneurship is at the core of the entire undergraduate, graduate and executive programs. The undergraduate curriculum incorporates a cross-disciplinary integration of management and the liberal arts. The Olin College of Engineering uses technology entrepreneurship is a unifying principle of the backbone.

• At <u>Cornell University,</u> the Entrepreneurship and Personal Enterprise (EPE) Program is centred in the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences but comprises twenty-five staff from nine Colleges and Schools, whose Deans serve as the EPE Governing Board. More than fifty courses are listed at EPE affiliated schools and colleges. The Entrepreneurship program at Cornell is so enormous that there are even three Entrepreneurship centres.

• At <u>Florida International University</u> The Global Entrepreneurship Center facilitates all entrepreneurial activities at FIU. The Center provides campus-wide awareness of entrepreneurship as an approach to life that enhances and transcends traditional academic experiences of one of the nation's largest ethnically diverse academic institutions. In addition to its

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[1] Campus visited: Babson College, London Business School, Monterrey Institute of Technology, Syracuse University, Cornell University, Université Paris-Dauphine, Temple University, University of Portland, University of Applied Sciences in Jena, Wuppertal University, University of Hohenheim, Florida International University, Florida Gulf Coast University, Pennsylvania State University, University of Southern California, and University of Hawaii. Other meetings and consultations were held at "The Experiential Classroom" (training seminar for entrepreneurship professors; the National Consortium of Entrepreneurs Centres; Get-Up Forum on University-Based Start-ups, Jena; the Forum Gründungsforschung Interdisziplinäre Jahreskonferenz zur deutschsprachingen Entrepreneurshipforschung 4-5 November 2004, Stuttgart; and (with the kind assistance of Associate Professor Peter Mellalieu) the Stanford Roundtable on Entrepreneurship Education. Field notes on all 40 programs are available from the researcher.

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academic course offerings, the Center utilizes five operational units, operating in synergy to implement its program. They are the Entrepreneurial Academy, Institute for Family Business, Institute for Technology Innovation, Entrepreneurship Research Institute, and Institute for Community Innovation.

• One of the largest and oldest Entrepreneurship programs in the world, Monterrey Institute of Technology (ITESM) has been teaching "Development of Entrepreneurs" as university-wide course for more than 20 years. It currently has 120 tutors teaching this course on 35 campuses to all undergraduates. More than 40 other universities around Latin America have adopted (franchised) this course. This is likely the largest entrepreneurship course in the world and arose originally in the Centre for the Development of Entrepreneurs within the School of Management. It has now been elevated to the Rector's office to serve the entire university community.

• Syracuse University's Program in Entrepreneurship and Emerging Enterprises (EEE) approaches entrepreneurship as a philosophy of life. The program infuses entrepreneurship into the schools, divisions and units throughout the campus through an integrated, campus-wide curriculum. The University is in the midst of launching the Syracuse Comprehensive Entrepreneurship Initiative (SCEI) to get all students on campus to start businesses.

Interdisciplinary "entrepreneurships"

• At Belmont University, the Center for Entrepreneurship collaborates with the Mike Curb College of Entertainment & Music Business. Students can take extended coursework in entrepreneurship within the music business program or they can integrate music business courses into a major in entrepreneurship.

• California State University, Chico is uniquely moving into the humanities entrepreneurship space. It is developing courses in Performing Arts and Commerce; History of Entrepreneurship; Literature and Entrepreneurship; Philosophy and Business; and Culture and commerce.

• At Pennsylvania State University entrepreneurship extends the Business school to Agriculture, Communications, Engineering, Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management, and Science. One example is the Communications Department's COMM 493 Entrepreneurship in the Information Age, which covers trends and opportunities in the media and information sectors, high tech start-up and employment issues, financing options and market research, and starting and managing a small media firm.

• Temple University has the Innovation and Entrepreneurship Institute (IEI) providing students with extra-curricular opportunities to foster entrepreneurship and innovation. The goal of the program is to facilitate

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entrepreneurship in the arts, entertainment, leisure and other disciplines by offering an integrated curriculum supplemented by extra-curricular activities. Across campus at the Annenberg School of Communication is another project entitled "C.R.E.A.T.E. Commerce, Recreation, Entertainment, Arts and Technology Entrepreneurship", a collaborative cross-disciplinary approach to entrepreneurship education highlighting arts, entertaining, and leisure. The School of Communications offers courses in entrepreneurship including an online course entitled "Creating a New Media Business." The School of Tourism and Hospitality Management also offers a course in entrepreneurship as it relates to leisure.

- University of Colorado Leeds School of Business allows graduate students to combine Entrepreneurship with Law, Computer Science, Environmental Studies, Engineering, Fine Arts, Anthropology, and even Germanic Languages. For example, Entrepreneurship in Computing examines opportunity identification, feasibility study, fundraising, organization, team creation, and exit strategies through case studies, oral and written presentations, and outside speakers. The Entrepreneurship Center for Music has a unique program of academic courses in music entrepreneurship.

Technical or science entrepreneurship

After the convention business major, the second most frequent entrepreneurship programs are for engineers and technologists. Numerous examples abound.

- At Case Western Reserve the Entrepreneurship Division works at all levels of education (undergraduate, graduate and Ph.D.) as well as through unique programs such as the Master of Science in Entrepreneurship (with departments in the College of Arts and Science), Master of Technology and Master of Bioscience Entrepreneurship (with the School of Engineering) and its own Bioscience concentration in the MBA program.

- University of Arizona's Associates in Technology Transfer Program allows students from local technical colleges to select a one-year entrepreneurship program. It pairs technology students with business students for the development of a technology-based business plan. New ideas and inventions developed in the colleges of Science, Engineering, Agriculture, and Medicine become the basis of business plans to profitably transfer UA developed technology.

- Pennsylvania State University's Business school offers undergraduate Engineering Entrepreneurship Minor together with College of Engineering. Business and engineering students recruited into courses, with teams composed of students with diverse backgrounds and problem-solving approaches.

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Social and community entrepreneurship

- Brigham Young University offers the typical range of entrepreneurship classes are taught in management, engineering and computer science. BYU also focuses as well on developing entrepreneurs in developing countries and sponsors summer entrepreneurship internships in less-developed countries such as Honduras.
- At Case Western, Entrepreneurs for Sustainability is a unique, diverse group of entrepreneurs, inventors, business leaders, bankers, architects, developers, restaurant owners, manufacturers, educators, high school and college students, designers, engineers, researchers, writers, farmers, consumers, government planners, environmentalists and capitalists. They assist new businesses in emerging sustainable industries (energy, local/organic food systems, transportation, materials, green building) and opportunities to improve the sustainability of new and existing business by implementing sustainability principles in product and process design.
- Fordham University's Center for Entrepreneurship (FCE) looks at family businesses and social entrepreneurship. Unique amongst the American universities, Fordham University host a Conference for Promotion of Entrepreneurship and Human Rights to analyse factors that promote entrepreneurship and respect for human rights.
- The University of Arizona's Rodel Social Entrepreneurship Initiative to create and enhance socially responsibility business planning initiatives in Southern Arizona. It holds a competition for socially relevant business plans.
- University of Hawaii's Pacific Asian Center for Entrepreneurship & E-Business (PACE) is the home for an integrated set of leading edge entrepreneurship programs at the University of Hawaii. Based in the College of Business Administration, PACE is dedicated to fostering the entrepreneurial spirit among all members of our community. Programs are organized into three areas: an innovative graduate and undergraduate curriculum reflecting an Asian Pacific theme; research projects that facilitate entrepreneurial practice and the advancement of our understanding of entrepreneurship in the Pacific Rim; and an active agenda of community outreach and involvement with Pacific Asian entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial ventures.
- University of Portland's Center for Entrepreneurship offers a variety of resources for the community, from business consulting to a "Mini-M.B.A." program for high school students. Among the centre's programs are the Entrepreneur Scholars (E-Scholars) program, which helps undergraduates manage their own business ventures; the $16K Challenge, which provides start-up funds for new businesses; Executive Pastoral Management Training,

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a program that helps clergy members develop business skills; and corporate entrepreneurship ventures. As a Jesuit institution, it has a special focus on environmental, sustainable and social entrepreneurship.

Faculty/staff education

• Cornell University each year offers the J. Thomas Clark Professorship. Clark Professors have created new courses integrating entrepreneurship basics into the areas of science, engineering and design. The professorships provide funding for faculty members from throughout the university to develop new courses or engage in research in the areas of new business creation, innovation and development. Courses that have been developed include: Entrepreneurship within Economically Depressed Areas, Entrepreneurship in Chemical Enterprise, Entrepreneurship for Designers, Engineering Entrepreneurship, Management and Ethics in Social Entrepreneurship, Hotel Sales for Entrepreneurs, Entrepreneurship in Hospitality, Entrepreneurship and Enterprise.

• One of Syracuse's most important initiatives is the "Experiential Classroom," clinics that address the growing need for high quality teachers within the field. These clinics are primarily intended for: staff from any discipline who are re-tooling so that they can teach entrepreneurship; entrepreneurs planning to return to the classroom to teach entrepreneurship courses; adjunct staff teaching entrepreneurship on a part-time basis; new staff teaching entrepreneurship for the first time. These workshops offered best classroom practices from around the world.

• The Kauffman Entrepreneurial Faculty Scholars Program provides funds to faculty members from Missouri colleges and universities for specialized training and professional development in entrepreneurship. These scholars study approaches to enterprise thinking and craft an individually-tailored learning plan.

Centres, incubators, and other initiatives

Connected with the academic programs are initiatives that include entrepreneurship centres, business incubators and many other activities.

• The National Consortium of Entrepreneurship Centers comprises more than half of the estimated 250 centres in the US. It is the vehicle by which the top and the emerging centres can work together to share information; develop special projects, and assist each other in advancing and improving their impact.

• The centrepiece of Oregon State University's Austin Entrepreneurship Program is the residential college at Weatherford Hall, where business, engineering, and other OSU students with entrepreneurial interests, live, dine, learn, work, and dream together in an incubator community.

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•   At Syracuse University, the CIE Learning community entrepreneurship residence hall has 72 students, 60% of whom are non-business. The residence hall director is a clinical professor of entrepreneurship. Students must take a 1-unit required course. The weekly schedule is: Monday mentoring; Tuesday the class; Thursday speaker or a movie; Saturday is entrepreneur "jam session."

•   Simmons College School of Management is focused on women who want to strike out and build innovative and successful organizations for themselves and their communities. For example, MGMT 237 The Woman Entrepreneur: Starting, Marketing, and Managing a Small Business addresses the opportunities and risks involved in starting and operating a new business and teaches effective managerial and marketing skills necessary for success. It focuses on developing, planning, managing, and growing an entrepreneurial firm.

•   Temple University's League for Entrepreneurial Women hosts an annual Women's Entrepreneurship Conference, which brings together businesswomen from around the country to network and advise students. The school also sponsors an annual Ideas Competition, which awards cash prizes to students and helps them receive assistance in developing their ideas for the market.

•   Florida International's Institute for Family Business fosters the survival, growth, and economic sustainability of family-owned and managed companies. The Institute's specialized programs deal with issues such as financing privately-held companies, firm and family governance, succession planning, and crisis and conflict management. The Institute offers a Certificate Program for Family Business Professionals for those who either manage or service family-owned businesses and a Directors' Training Program for those serving on boards of privately held firms.

•   The Institute offers regular outreach activities and lectures for local family-owned firms, including a Hispanic Family Business Forum that will help Hispanic-owned companies network and learn from each other. It also sponsors the FIU Family Business Awards.

Discussion and conclusions

This field research uncovered the widest range of educational interventions. More and more universities are offering entrepreneurship available to any undergraduate student. To address the paucity of qualified staff, training courses are now offered to faculty who want to reorient their teaching toward enterprise. Jesuit Universities and others are specialising in social enterprise and sustainable entrepreneurship. Brigham Young and others are now sending entrepreneurship educators into the Third World. One can now

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double-major in music business and entrepreneurship in Nashville at Belmont University. Nursing schools help nurses understand that their careers need not be within corporate hospital environments. Nutrition entrepreneurship, sport entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship and human rights:

The list is limited only to the imagination. There are Humanities courses in "Literature of Entrepreneurship," "History of Entrepreneurship," and "Arts and Enterprise Culture." There are now entire dormitories for student entrepreneurs, and alumni-driven fund-raising for entrepreneurship education. Business plan competitions and access to capital, student and staff incubators, commercialisation initiatives, "clinical professorships" of real-life entrepreneurs: Evangelical colleges are even offering religious entrepreneurship. All of these modalities are attempting to keep in step with the needs of enterprising students.

Politically within the Business Academy, an interesting development is taking place. Entrepreneurship faculty are taking over leadership roles from their management and accounting colleagues, indeed they are moving up into the ranks of senior leadership. Notable entrepreneurship educators are moving up to more prestigious universities. Small rural campuses such as Ball State University in Indiana can distinguish themselves in the ranking as leading programs. The field is so hot that Cornell University has three competing Entrepreneurship Centres. Monterrey Institute of Technology since 1982 has required "Development of Entrepreneurs" of all undergraduates. One of the largest universities in the USA, Pennsylvania State University with 82,000 students, is working on a plan to offer a General Education Elective in entrepreneurship to all students.

Here we examined entrepreneurship programs attempting to ingrain themselves within the broadest range of academic programs. These universities and colleges may well have enterprising cultures but the trick is infusing their academic programs with an enterprising structure. They use a variety of models to spark a university-wide focus on creating enterprising human beings within academic programs. All aim develop sustainable programs that transcend the traditional boundaries of entrepreneurship education within the business school by being truly interdisciplinary and involving other academic elements of the University. They all operate within the general definition of "enterprise":

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An enterprising individual has a positive, flexible and adaptable disposition toward change, seeing it as normal and as an opportunity rather than a problem. To see change in this way, an enterprising individual has a security born of self-confidence, and is at ease when dealing with insecurity, risks and the unknown. (Ball 1989)

Whether in art or architecture, sport or health, they encourage people who have the capacity to initiate creative ideas and formulate them into actionable visions. A person who steps forward and is anxious to take responsibility, is an effective communicator, negotiator, influencer, planner and organiser, is the kind of person who can teach entrepreneurship, whether in the business or social setting.

I can only conclude by citing my good colleague Kevin Hindle (2004), who says:

The aim in any entrepreneurship faculty should be for a well-balanced, well-mixed program team of committed, good teachers —not a search for universal perfection in every single teacher. This may mean a higher proportion of team-teaching and multiple presenters within the one subject. Students could greatly benefit from a sprinkling of well-chosen adjunct and sessional teachers whose presentations were based on commitment to balanced education not mortgaged to an ego-centric perspective of unanalysed personal experience.

Bottom line is that the teacher should be an enterprising individual.

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