Entrepreneurship: Unique Solutions for Unique Environments. Is It Possible to Achieve This with the Existing Paradigm?

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Abstract. The paper explores the capacity of the entrepreneurship paradigm to produce unique solutions for unique environments. To achieve this goal the paper argues the need for a wider entrepreneurship paradigm than that which seems to be the convention as taught in business schools around the world. It argues that the existing paradigm has been shaped over the past quarter of century via its pursuit of legitimacy in business school academe and that its true legitimacy must lie in the needs of key stakeholders in society. The key needs in this respect seem to derive from the pressures of globalisation on societies with the creation of greater uncertainty and complexity for individuals in all walks of life and for all kinds of organisations. The paper explores these sources of uncertainty and complexity and then considers the response via a process of examination of two models of the entrepreneurial person. One, branded as the traditional model is derived from an analysis of what is taught in Europe and North American business schools. The other branded as a societal model is constructed to meet the needs as perceived to arrive from an analysis of societal pressures. A number of different contexts for entrepreneurship are then explored and the needs arising briefly summarised and set against the societal model. The paper concludes by arguing that via a process of institutional transfer the traditional paradigm has become dominant and as such may be standing in the way of the paradigm truly meeting the needs of societies at different stages of development and with different cultures.

Keywords: entrepreneurship paradigm, entrepreneurship education, globalisation, uncertainty, complexity.

1. Introduction

This paper will argue that entrepreneurship can play a significant role in a range of very different environments in societies across the world, within and between countries and cultures, but that for it to do so will demand a reappraisal of the conventional paradigm. It will go further than this in arguing that the present dominant paradigm and the pursuit of its legitimisation within a narrow dimension of academe, in particular in business schools, has hindered its ability to address major issues in society, particularly in developing countries. The paper necessarily cuts corners. It borrows substantially from a number of other papers

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1. This is the edited text of a background paper to the opening address to the 51st International Council for Small Business (ICSB) World Conference "Entrepreneurship: Unique Solutions for Unique Environments" Melbourne Australia. June 18-21 2006.

of the author (which will be referenced) and the reader wishing to explore in greater depth the assertions made in this paper and the relevant wider literature will need to consult these. The added value of the paper is in its exploration of the different environments to which the entrepreneurial metaphor may be applied.

In taking a stance as to how one should seek legitimisation of the entrepreneurial model the author calls upon the views of three philosophers. The first is that of Kuhn (1962), arguably along with Popper and perhaps Polanyi, the most influential writer on epistemology in the 20th century. He argues, somewhat one expects on the basis of personal experience, that progress in science is achieved fundamentally by a search for wide legitimisation:

> I would suggest that no successful Institutionalisation of science (successful that is from the point of view of scientific progress) ever relied at all heavily on the judgement's of man's university colleagues.

> I think that where science has flourished in the university setting, it has unfortunately been primarily by persuading the university, sometimes quite unwillingly, to relinquish its criteria of judgement in favour of those of the largely external professional community.

> Kuhn quoted in Fuller 2003 p.122

Mary Midgeley, the philosopher who writes extensively on the relationship of the arts and social science to natural science processes of discovery, warns of the dangers of ignoring the wider contextual aspects in exploring phenomena with the following example:

> If a botanist is asked to identify a leaf she does not simply mince it up, put it in the centrifuge and list the resulting molecules. Still less does she then list the constituent atoms, protons and electrons. Instead she first looks at its structure and considers the wider background, asking what tree it came from, in what ecosystem, growing on what soil and in what climate and what happened to the leaf since it left the tree. This 'holistic; approach is as central and necessary part of science as is the atomistic quest.

> "The Myths We Live By", 2003 p.29

Richard Feynman, arguably one of the outstanding physical scientists of the last century, in his book 'The Meaning of it All' (1998) underlines the way in which progress in science is measured by the degree to which it addresses problems and empowers action:

> The most obvious characteristic of science is its application, the fact that, as a consequence of science, one has the power to do things (p5).

Bearing in mind these key points of wide legitimisation; the importance of context and creating power to do things, the argument will be pursued in the

following manner. Two models of entrepreneurship will be introduced, one based upon a characterisation of the dominant model as taught in Europe and North America but which has been spread throughout business schools across the world with the support of international and bilateral aid agencies. While the model presented below is in the form of a caricature it has been reviewed critically in depth by the author elsewhere (Gibb 2002, 2005) and certain criticisms will only be briefly, but boldly, touched upon here. An alternative model will be introduced which has also been explored in the above-mentioned papers. This latter model has some use in practice in that it has formed the basis for design of a template of desirable outcomes from entrepreneurship education, is influencing the design of teacher development programmes in the Higher Education sector[2] and in part, is influencing the process of mapping of existing provision across the UK. Both models will be discussed only briefly in this text, although a fuller description is given in a paper on the UK National Council for Graduate Entrepreneurship (NCGE) website (www.ncge.org.uk). The Outcomes Template currently being explored by the UK NCGE is described in Annex 1.

It will be argued that the latter model is much more appropriate to meeting the 'unique' needs of very different environments. This will be demonstrated by a process of examining needs that arrive in different contexts including that of political ideology. It will be argued that tying entrepreneurship into a particular contextual ideological model, particularly associated with capitalism, may be dysfunctional and that processes of transfer of the dominant model across the world within a business school context could be argued to be damaging to sustainable development capacity.

Much of the argument in the paper is a result of the experience of the author in working with very different organisations, including universities, in different countries throughout the world in the design of training and education programmes for entrepreneurs, in assisting advisory and policy agencies in a wide range of NGOs and in processes of restructuring and transition in former communist countries (www.allangibb.com). He has become convinced that the existing dominant model, while very valuable in some contexts, stands in the way of meeting needs in a number of key policy context areas in particular:

- *In education* – where the dominant need seems to be to develop a model of entrepreneurship/enterprise education that has wide appeal from primary, through secondary and further to higher education, that fits with broad educational goals, and allows for embedding in the curricula, ownership by teachers and design of a process of progression.[3]

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2. International Entrepreneurship Educators Programme. See the ncge website <www.ncge.org.uk>
3. ICSB Melbourne Conference paper 2006 Gibb, A.A. 'Enterprise Education in Schools and Colleges. Are we really growing the onion?' Also part of the NCGE Working Papers series.

- *In non business contexts* – where the need is to address the relevance of entrepreneurial design to very different non-business organisations, for example health and social services, the police, local and national government, in non-government organisations, and even the church.

- *Of individuals in general* – where the need is for a concept that helps individuals to cope with uncertainties and complexities in life as family members, consumers and workers.

- *Of small business owner managers* – where the need is develop approaches to small business education and training that are truly demanded and sustainable. The world of the small business owner manager has long been regarded by much of the academic convention as not central to the entrepreneurial paradigm (mistakenly in the views of the author – Gibb 2002)

- *Of large companies* – where the need is for a paradigm that is central to the restructured and networked corporate business particularly in the transition countries.

- *Of a wide range of stakeholders* – (bankers, lawyers, accountants, media, regulators, advisers/consultants, politicians – where the need is for them to have the capacity to create an environment supporting entrepreneurial endeavour.

- *In different ideologies and cultures* – where the major need is to recognise that entrepreneurial practice is not the exclusive domain of capitalist societies

The paper is laid out as follows. First, the question is briefly addressed as to why and where the present, almost worldwide, political and policy pursuit of the entrepreneurial culture is emerging. This is a key question, as the capacity to respond to this need is the main challenge facing the entrepreneurship concept. It is also this need that, in the author's view, shapes the challenge of finding unique solutions, for, if not unique, often very different environments. Second, two models are briefly introduced, metamorphosised into portrayals of the human form. Their suitability in general to meet the broad needs identified earlier will be discussed. Third, there will be an exploration of the particular needs that arise in different contexts as described above. In each context the question will be begged as to the most appropriate model response. Fourth, the argument will be advanced as to why the dominant model has emerged from a process of seeking to legitimise it within a largely business school context and why this has led to a process of 'institutional legitimisation' (in the Northian sense – North 1990). It will be

argued that this has been damaging, particularly with regard to its transfer into developing and transition economy contexts, in leading to neglect of dealing with urgent issues demanding unique solutions for unique environments. Finally, the paper will summarise the argument for a wider and, arguably, more intellectual model of entrepreneurship.

The paper will not revisit traditional arguments as to definitions of entrepreneurship. It will therefore not dwell, for example, upon behavioural as opposed to trait as opposed to outcome definitions. Although these are often treated as distinctive 'schools of thought' they need to be interlinked if we are to make better sense of the world. Accordingly the paper takes the view, as indeed did Schumpeter (1934) that there are some people innately more entrepreneurial than others. But, as has been argued elsewhere (Gibb 1993), all individuals will have some entrepreneurial characteristics, each individual will have a different mix and each will respond to stimuli in the environment, perhaps in different ways. These stimuli might be positive or negative: but, it can be argued, it is possible to design organisations and environments that will stimulate or suppress/ divert entrepreneurial behaviours. It is people, individually and collectively through organisations, who bring about innovation. Finally, and importantly, business is only one of many contexts for such behaviour.

2. The Broad Environmental Dictat

The increased political rhetoric focused upon the need for the creation of an enterprise culture in Europe and North America but also in many other parts of the world (OECD 1998,1999, National Commission on Entrepreneurship, 2000, European Commission, 1998, 1999, 2005, UK DTI 1998) derives its force and urgency from the pressures of uncertainty and complexity associated with globalisation (Scase 2007). In Europe, reflecting this, the policy focus in respect of entrepreneurship over the past two decades has moved from it being seen to play a major role in job creation to one of being the key contributor to building national competitiveness (European Commission 2005). The European entrepreneurship policy thrust is now upon stimulating innovation and the knowledge economy with emphasis on enhancing capacity to transfer knowledge from the university sector, stimulate interest in start up and growth of SMEs and, importantly, contribute to the effective workings of a flexible labour market (http/ /:cordis.europa.eu/paxis,www.europa-innova.org, IPPR 1998). One major manifestation of this is the pressure from business on the education system to provide a workforce that is more flexible, creative, opportunity-seeking, achievement oriented and capable of taking initiatives. These pressures in turn derive from the restructuring of business organisations in the 1980s-90s and the pursuit of the lean is mean, outsourcing and networked models of flexible organisation design (Bergrenn, 1988, Ashkenas 1999, Gibb 2000). These changes

are associated with the growth of contract and portfolio employment, frequent job changes necessitating geographical, social, job and occupational mobility and periods of self-employment. From this follows the argument for the creation of a more entrepreneurial workforce capable of self-direction and imbued with the notion of life long learning (Peck and Rutherford, 1996, Rajan et al. 1997). In the UK, for example, with almost half of the eligible young population going to university, a degree itself is no longer seen as a ticket for life but barely an entry ticket into the labour market. Against this backcloth there has also been pressures for governments to place greater emphasis upon the ability of individuals to prepare their own response to the flexible labour market and associated needs for security, rather than look to public support, reflected in changes in pension provisions, social security systems, healthcare and education.

In summary, the policy interest in entrepreneurship therefore seems currently to be driven by the demands that global competitiveness is making upon governance, organisation and lifestyle structures across society as a whole as set out in Exhibit 1 below.

This translates into a policy rhetoric focusing upon the need to equip individuals with personal entrepreneurial capacities to deal with growing levels of uncertainty and complexity in their work and personal life worlds including the capacity to design organisations of all kinds, public, private and NGO, to support effective entrepreneurial behaviour. It has been argued elsewhere (Gibb 1999) that this challenge can be encapsulated in the need to address a number of personal, organisation development and societal survival capacities as below:

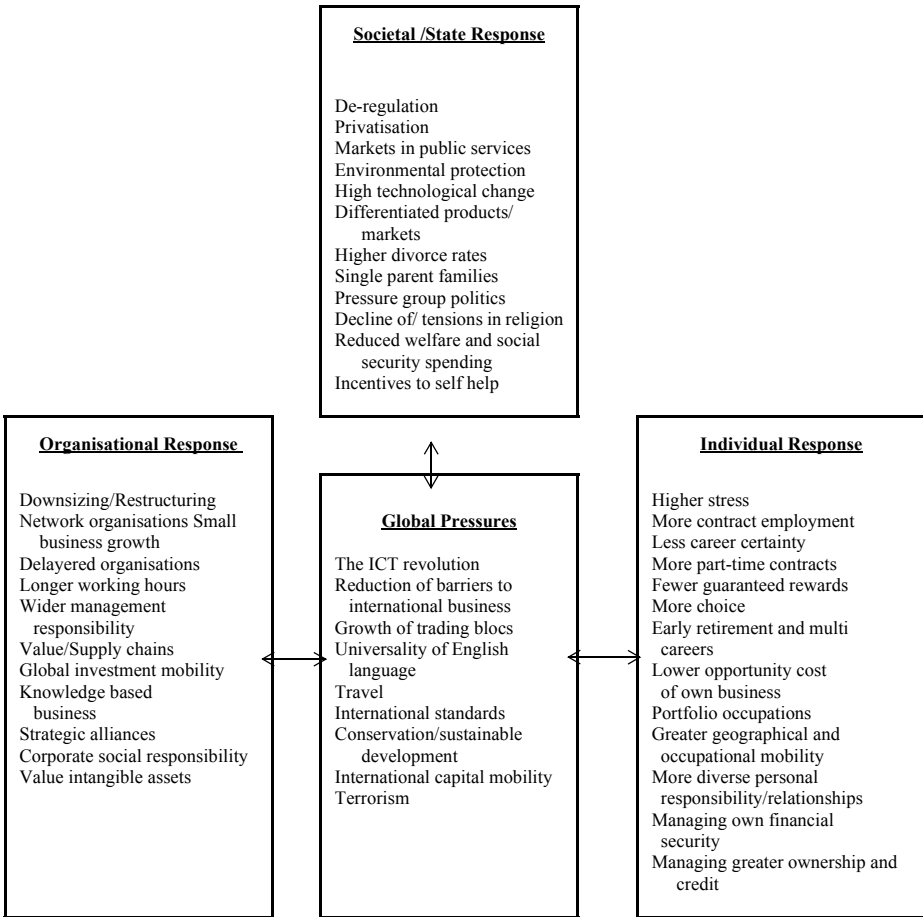*Individual entrepreneurial capacities*

- to demonstrate a wide range of personal entrepreneurial skills.

- to engage actively in processes of entrepreneurial learning.

- to demonstrate strong emotional intelligence.

- to have empathy with, and motivation towards, entrepreneurial values and the life world of the entrepreneur.

Intra-Organisational entrepreneurial capacities

- to work effectively within, and design and develop, entrepreneurial organisations of all kinds but particularly to start up an independent venture.

- to manage entrepreneurial organisational development through processes of start up, growth and internationalisation.

- to manage, effectively, stakeholder relationships under dynamic conditions.

Exhibit 1: Pressures Moulding the 'Entrepreneurial Society'

Societal /State Response

De-regulation
Privatisation
Markets in public services
Environmental protection
High technological change
Differentiated products/
   markets
Higher divorce rates
Single parent families
Pressure group politics
Decline of/ tensions in religion
Reduced welfare and social
   security spending
Incentives to self help

Organisational Response

Downsizing/Restructuring
Network organisations Small
   business growth
Delayered organisations
Longer working hours
Wider management
   responsibility
Value/Supply chains
Global investment mobility
Knowledge based
   business
Strategic alliances
Corporate social responsibility
Value intangible assets

Global Pressures

The ICT revolution
Reduction of barriers to
   international business
Growth of trading blocs
Universality of English
   language
Travel
International standards
Conservation/sustainable
   development
International capital mobility
Terrorism

Individual Response

Higher stress
More contract employment
Less career certainty
More part-time contracts
Fewer guaranteed rewards
More choice
Early retirement and multi
   careers
Lower opportunity cost
   of own business
Portfolio occupations
Greater geographical and
   occupational mobility
More diverse personal
   responsibility/relationships
Managing own financial
   security
Managing greater ownership and
   credit

Modified from Gibb 1999

Social entrepreneurial capacities

- to manage socially in an entrepreneurial life-world characterised by high levels of uncertainty and complexity in work, family and community contexts.

- to develop sensitivity to 'ways of doing things' in different cultures and across conventional boundaries.

It is against the above template that the 'models' of entrepreneurship below will be assessed.

3.   Two Models of the Entrepreneurial Person?

3.1.   Model 1 – The traditional Business Model

The author has reviewed elsewhere in some depth (Gibb 2002) the concept of entrepreneurship as it is taught in Europe and North America and, given in particular the 'institutional' dominance of the USA business school model (Brush at al (2003), probably also in many different parts of the world. What might be characterized as the 'conventional' model, derived from observation of what is being taught (Levie 1999, Mason 2000, Gartner and Vesper 1994, Kuratko, 2003, efmd 2004) seems considerably influenced by the historic economic literature combined with a largely corporate business school approach and is almost exclusively business management focused. It is shown below as a caricature (Exhibit 2).[4]

Exhibit 2: Model 1:The Dominant Model of Entrepreneurship being Taught?

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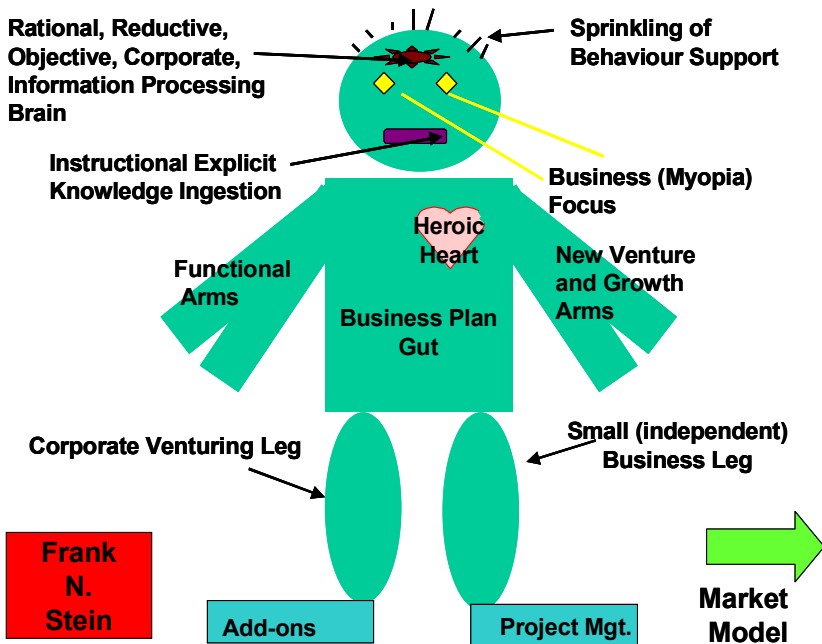
4.   A fuller analysis relating to the two models is given in Gibb, A.A. 'Creating the Entrepreneurial University. Do we need a different model of Entrepreneurship , in Fayole, A.

It will be argued that this is largely, but not wholly, an inappropriate model to meet the challenges set out earlier, for a number of reasons indicated below.

Its somewhat exclusive association with high levels of innovation, technology, scale and growth (the heroic Schumpeterian heart). This results in denial of the fact that many self-employed persons and independent small and medium business exhibit high levels of entrepreneurial behaviour but do not wish to grow. Moreover, it creates an image that entrepreneurship is difficult to attain and therefore is only for an exceptional few – the somewhat heroic view of the entrepreneur.

The centrality given to the business plan (the gut). This is arguably a wrong metaphor for entrepreneurship. There is little evidence to suggest that business plans were invented by entrepreneurs: they are more certainly the product of banks, accountants and other professional service providers and reflect the culture of their world in seeking transparency and order (see below). There is also no universal agreement as to a relationship between business planning of this kind and success (Hannon and Atherton 1998). A growing body of research (Sarasvathy 2001 and 2003) lends credence to the view that it is the capacity to get into the market place, adjust flexibly to what is learned there and in particular learn by interaction about the real customer needs, while thinking strategically, that is of paramount importance.

The business management 'focus'. In most business schools, entrepreneurship is delivered within this context. This arguably considerably weakens the potential of the entrepreneurship model being valued in a non-business context, for example in public services such as health, education, social services, local government and police, or, where used, it distorts the focus of the activity (for example, the view of head teachers of schools as entrepreneurs and general practitioners in the health service as business entrepreneurs). This will be discussed further below.

The limited focus upon stimulating and practicing a wide range of entrepreneurial behaviours and inculcating entrepreneurial values (the hair). Only a very limited set of pedagogical tools seem currently to be applied in general (with some exceptions), mainly cases, lectures, projects and visits, with some skills training (for example in presentations). The Harvard view of teaching entrepreneurship, which has wide impact, is highly case focused (Harvard Business School 2005). Yet entrepreneurial behaviours, skills and attributes, nurtured by a wide range of well designed pedagogies and exposure to experience are arguably essential components of being able to '*feel*' what it is like to be entrepreneurial and are equally arguably key to the creation of entrepreneurial values through learning (Gibb 2002, Mantzavinos, North and Shariq 2003).

The analytical information loaded brain. The culture of the organisations, particularly business schools, in which entrepreneurship is mainly taught, is arguably essentially derived from an institutionalised academic and corporate model which values order, formality, transparency, control, accountability, information processing, planning, rational decision making, clear demarcation, responsibilities and definitions (Annex 2). This is underpinned by the notion of analytical rigour within a particular 'discipline', which has led to more than a touch of positivism in most entrepreneurship research. This contrasts substantially with the informal, personal relationship oriented, trust building, intuitive decision making, somewhat overlapping and chaotic 'feeling' world of the entrepreneur as suggested in the Annex, with associated values. An alien culture, if embedded in key stakeholders (see below) stands in the way of creating empathy with entrepreneurial values. There is, in any case, increasing evidence that there is a very questionable relationship between effective decision-making and the amount of information sought and degree of conscious deliberation (Dijketrhuis et al 2006).

The delivery and ingestion of explicit knowledge. The formal education system, in general, substantially concentrates upon the delivery of explicit knowledge defined as knowledge that has been codified and thus made widely available and accessible. This is commonly contrasted with the notion of tacit (experiential) knowledge (Polanyi 1983) defined as knowledge, which can be used by individuals in decision-making but is not formally codified. In reality there is no clear divide, as individuals acquire knowledge through experience and may create heuristic frameworks underpinning decision rules which may appear to be purely intuitive (Selden, Tinsley and Fletcher 2004).

A focus solely, or largely, upon explicit knowledge as a basis for learning stands in danger of divorcing learners from the meaning that is given to knowledge acquired in the community of practice (Wenger 1998). This is a reminder that knowledge, per se, is not learning and only becomes so when it is internalised by the individual through a process of application or thinking. It has been argued elsewhere by this author and others (Gibb 1997, Fuller and Lewis 2002)) that the major learning field for the entrepreneur is that of managing stakeholder relationships and interdependencies (see below) and that this learning is pursued experientially by processes of solving problems, grasping opportunities, experimenting and making things up, making mistakes, copying and overall by 'doing'.

Finally there remains the problem of practice. Much of entrepreneurial learning can be seen as a process of trial and error and subsequent incremental improvement. This matches with a neurological view of how the brain codifies and develops a long term memory (Kandel 2006). Yet there seems little room in much of the academic curriculum in the education system as a whole, but in particular in higher education, for learning to do (and about) by processes of

repeated practice and constant revision. Instead a piece of work is commonly assessed, commented upon and then the 'student' moves on.

The compartmentalization of management knowledge into functional management boxes (such as marketing, finance, operations, HRD) – the arm. A major problem, related to the argument in the previous paragraph, lies in the way that explicit knowledge is codified. Academic work is a major source of such codification. In the business management field, knowledge is organised into the accepted blocks and paradigms of economics and other social sciences and arguably most damagingly, for entrepreneurship, into the functional paradigms of corporate business education (for wider criticism see below and Ghoshal 2005, and Mintzberg 2004). It is not, by and large, codified in terms of how it arises from relationship learning or primarily around the development problems and processes of the organisation, which arguably is the context for entrepreneurial learning. Business schools, which currently dominate entrepreneurship teaching and research, are greatly responsible for this. The functional boxes dictate the organisation of the schools, their research and publication agenda, the focus of journals and consequently the delivery of knowledge and the value given to it.

The essence of entrepreneurial life-world is, in contrast, that of holistic management and the constant capacity to '*feel*' the organisation as an integrated whole. Entrepreneurial learning is acquired on a '*how to*' and '*need to know*' basis dominated by the learning processes described above (Gibb 2002 a). Most of the learning derives from developing the organisation and managing relationships on a day-to-day basis under contingent degrees of uncertainty and complexity. Few existing models, in contrast, seem to teach how to learn from stakeholders. They also skate over the management of relationships on the basis of trust, personal judgment and '*know who*' – all of which are major entrepreneurial ingredients. It has been argued that the truly entrepreneurial firm is a highly porous learning organisation capable of harvesting knowledge from all stakeholders external to, and within, the organisation (Gibb 2002a, Harrison and Leitch 2005).

The focus upon new venture creation as the key entrepreneurial experience – the other arm. This focus, often involving the use of projects, is of high value, when it attaches learning closely to the *processes* of venture development. If, however, it is taught within a set of functional disciplines around a business plan the entrepreneurial impact can be questioned. New venture creation, however, is not the only approach to entrepreneurship.

The corporate venture and small business legs. Most programmes make some attempt to address the issue of entrepreneurship in large firms. A common theme is that of intra-corporate venturing including also spinouts and spin- offs often using adaptations of new venture models. Under the broader heading of intrapreneurship, there can also be a focus upon leadership, innovation, changing

the culture of organisations and more recently customer relationship development. Less attention seems to be paid to the wider issue of designing the entrepreneurial organisation other than in respect of examination of the 'lean is mean' subcontracting out partnership and strategic alliance management model.

A small business or family business module appears in many cases but, as noted above, seems often to be differentiated from the broader conceptualisation of entrepreneurship. Small business management, for example, does not always appear in US classifications of entrepreneurship teaching programmes – a significant point because of the US influence internationally on what is taught in this area. From a scan of available programme offers it can be inferred that what is taught under the label of small business is often the management of conventional business functions, this time in a small business context. It is difficult to determine whether the broader holistic aspects of exploring the relationship between the life world of the small business owner manager and entrepreneurship are covered, nor, as noted above, the concept of relationship learning, arguably highly central to small business success (Gibb 1997).

Projects – as the 'Add-on' Foot. Projects are seen to be a key component of entrepreneurship teaching in that many business schools introduce them towards the end of a core, plus modular, programme. They may be undertaken on a group or individual basis and may take the form of a case study, a somewhat disguised consultancy (with academic references) or the exploration of a particular academic concept in a small (often growing) business context – for example the application of Porter's strategy model (Porter 1985). It is not clear, however, whether the project focus is there because it offers a simulation of the management of an entrepreneurial process. or whether it is merely an attempt to relate theory to practice. A key issue here therefore, difficult to explore purely from programme descriptions, is the degree to which the project is constructed as an *entrepreneurial experience* for the student – designed to stimulate entrepreneurial behaviours and create empathy with the life-world of the entrepreneur. The author's guess, from experience of acting as external examiner to a number of programmes and familiarisation with the work of a number of schools, is that much project activity falls short of this expectation. Just as an entrepreneurship course can be taught in a non- entrepreneurial manner, so may a project experience be non-entrepreneurial.

There may be many additional special modular 'feet' upon which programmes stand, from which inferences can be drawn as to the view of entrepreneurship, including: consultancy, exporting, entrepreneurial finance (or marketing, operations), human resource management, and, increasingly, social entrepreneurship.

The context is most often solely or substantially that of the 'market model'. There is therefore a danger that developing understanding of entrepreneurial behaviour

in a wide variety of very different contexts is excluded and that there is an assumption that it is only market conditions of the capitalist institutional kind that stimulate effective non-deviant entrepreneurship in different contexts. This view will be challenged below. Attempts to rapidly create a market environment in many transition economies have led to major problems of entrepreneurial and indeed criminal deviance.

3.2. Conclusion

It is for the reasons listed above that the author has labelled the above 'revealed preference' model as Frankensteinian. This nomenclature is not meant to denigrate the Shelley creation but only to indicate that the model, like her hero, has been assembled from a collection of parts which may not embrace the essence of the whole. These parts reflect the traditional approaches to entrepreneurship, the dominance of certain disciplines in theory development and importantly what the business schools already know and the culture within which they operate. As a result the assembled model, viewed holistically, can be represented as a distortion. There is arguably an excessive emphasis upon the business plan, and upon the 'heroic' aspects of the entrepreneurial tradition, the latter in particular encouraging a policy focus upon growth and so-called high tech start ups. The context is dominantly that of business, the culture is that of corporate business, the pedagogical range used is narrow and arguably over-focused upon cases. There is a functional rather than a relationship/development-stage organisation of the knowledge base. There is little evidence overall that project work is specifically designed to enhance the entrepreneurial capacity and disposition of students.

   An 'alternate' model which addresses most of the above issues is suggested below.

3.3. Model 2 – Towards a broader Societal Model of Entrepreneurship

Defining entrepreneurship in terms of the behaviours, skills and attributes needed to respond to problems and opportunities in the wider social environment, along with recognition that this will result in different contingent forms and strengths of entrepreneurial behaviour and organisation design, demands a wider conceptual perspective than that of the economics of the market. A more suitable conceptual frame might be that of institutional theory (North 1990) with its distinction between 'institutions' (formal and informal 'ways of doing things') and organisations within which these practices may be embodied. This approach adds a critically important dimension to the evaluation of the process of market development and indeed other ways of organising exchange by demanding

understanding of informal as well as formal ways of doing things and valuing things, as discussed in the next section. It will be argued that the strength of this conceptual perspective lies in its appropriateness for dealing with organisations of all kinds, not just businesses. It also serves as a reminder of the importance of culture, values and behaviours, their interplay with formal regulatory frameworks and of the way that power asymmetries in society can lead to dominant bureaucratic and corporate ways of doing things.

   The alternative 'model' suggested in Exhibit 3 below seeks to remedy some of the deficiencies that have been identified above. Specific aspects of the model are discussed below.

Exhibit 3: Model 2 – Towards a wider societal concept of Entrepreneurship
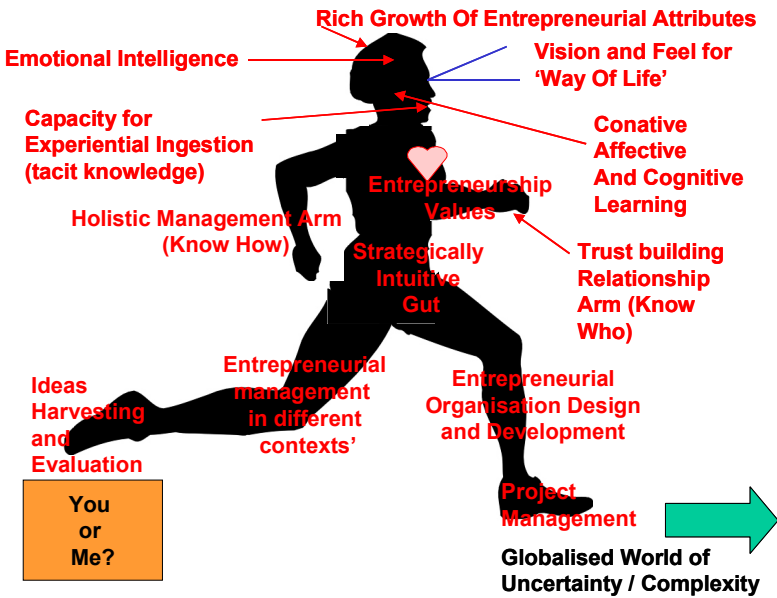
The 'Values' heart. It has been argued elsewhere (Gibb 2002) that the true essence of an entrepreneurial society, in the institutional sense, relates to sharing and having sympathy/empathy with certain ways of doing things, organising things, feeling things, communicating things, understanding and thinking things, and learning things (Gibb 2002a), as set out speculatively in Annex 3. It is arguably, out of this milieu, that an innovative, opportunity-seeking society will emerge. This is the basis of the 'Entrepreneurial Mindset, now a major part of the rhetoric of policy makers.

The strategically intuitive gut. There is a growing body of evidence supporting the view that strategic thinking and strategic orientation are key entrepreneurial attributes (Gibb and Scott, 1985, Haahti 1989, Atherton 1997, Courtney, Kirkland and Viguerie 1999). Strategic thinking involves a dynamic mix of: assessing the future for any kind of organisation and how it might be brought about; constant 'what if' analysis of events and their potential impact on the organisation and its strategy; seeing it always through the eyes of key stakeholders; seeking to bring forward the future for client and stakeholder groups; constant scanning of the relevant environment; and clear knowledge at any one time of the state of the organisation and its strengths and weaknesses. It is increasingly recognised in mainstream management thinking that, with much higher levels of uncertainty facing most organisations, the concept of strategic planning is undergoing major transformation into a more flexible and indeed entrepreneurial instrument (Courtney, Kirkland and Viguerie 1999).

This is not to deny that there is not a role for formal planning in organisations: but this can embrace a wide range of different meanings (not always recognised in the research). For example, it can mean a process of annual budgeting; the planning of a particular new development project or event; a process of strategic scenario setting; or more formal generic multi-year business planning. Most business entrepreneurs, formally or informally, will engage in the first two categories. Many will also 'plan' events and think strategically (Gibb and Scott 1985) without committing it to paper. Relatively few will engage in the fourth category unless they are preparing a plan for a major investment, merger, resource acquisition, or sale of the company.

A rich growth of entrepreneurial behaviours, attributes and skills. There is now considerable agreement as to the key behaviours, attributes and skills associated with the entrepreneurial person (Annex 4).[5] The psychological literature gives support to the link between the ways in which people learn and the values and beliefs noted above (Mantzavinos et al. 2003). The key to targeting these in an education/learning context lies in the use of a wide range of carefully tailored pedagogies. (Gibb 2002a). There is a long history of simulations and game playing designed to stimulate entrepreneurial attributes, much of it based upon the early work of McClelland and Winter (1969) and Spencer (1983). These arguably could still be at the core of a truly entrepreneurial teaching programme. It will be argued below that creating the space, capacity and incentive-for-practice of these is at the heart of effective entrepreneurial organisation design.

Emotionally intelligent mindset. The importance of emotions in terms of way they influence thinking, ways of seeing things and ways of communicating and indeed organising things is attracting considerable academic interest, some of it

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5. These are not synonymous with those characteristics identified in the 'trait' literature following Mclleland (1969)

controversial (Goleman, 1996, Dulewitz 2000, George 2000, Kristjansson 2006) and seems central to understanding the dichotomy set out Annex 2 and referred to earlier. Management of emotions with its emphasis upon emotional self awareness, managing and harnessing emotions productively, being able to read the emotions of others and their impact on communications and actions, and having the ability to productively utilise this knowledge in the process of management is arguably at the core of successful management of network relationships. It seems critically important for the academic researcher and teacher to understand how communications with, and responses from, the entrepreneur are affected by the feelings that lie behind the values identified earlier. It can be speculated that most of the problems that bureaucracies have with business entrepreneurs stem from their lack of empathy and weaknesses in their emotional intelligence.

Vision of the 'way of life'. It follows from the earlier discussion of the global/ societal and business pressures, impacting upon a wide range of persons in very different organisational and personal circumstances, that the need to cope with uncertainties and complexities is central to the view taken here of entrepreneurship. What has been labelled above as the traditional model of entrepreneurship teaching has been criticised above for its overly business-oriented focus. Yet there is a clear link between the 'life world of the independent business person and the pursuit of entrepreneurial behaviours (Gibb 2000): and this link can be taken as a starting point to demonstrate that many aspects of the entrepreneurial life-world are shared by a wide range of persons outside of the business context. Key aspects of this 'world' such as ownership, responsibility, necessary commitment to see things through, exposure to day to day uncertainty, need to take initiatives, psychological egotistical exposure, job flexibility and long hours, pressure to respond directly to clients (otherwise no rewards) are now experienced by a wide range of persons. Examples are given later below.

Capacity for experiential digestion (the mouth). The acquisition of, and ability to use, experiential knowledge is arguably a key component of entrepreneurial endeavour. The writings of Lave and Wenger (1991) on the importance of situated learning underline this. In pedagogical terms, in an entrepreneurial programme, the challenge is to maximize the opportunity for the 'practice in use' of acquired knowledge, simulating the learning world of the entrepreneur by the learning processes of doing, copying etc. as identified above. Equally, the use of heuristic frames of reference, referred to above, are at the heart of the entrepreneurial capacity to make sound intuitive decisions.

Conative, affective and cognitive learning. The central focus of university approaches to learning (and indeed arguably in education as a whole) is upon cognition with the emphasis upon reception of knowledge, recognition, judgment

and remembering. Yet it can be argued (Ruohotie and Karanen 2000) that the key to entrepreneurial learning lies in a focus upon affective and conative aspects of the learning process. Affective development relates to the response to a subject, the likes and dislikes and the feelings, emotions and moods. Conative development embraces the active drive to make sense of something (notions of motivation, commitment, impulse and striving). The author's experience of working with independent entrepreneurs underpins the importance of the 'what is the use?' notion and the strong role that feelings play in the learning process ('Who are you to be telling us this?' and 'What has this got to do with my business?).

The holistic management arm. The challenge for independent business entrepreneurs to manage the business as an integrated whole was noted above and it was proposed also that the 'need to know' stems from the development problems and opportunities of the business. It can be argued that this proposition is indeed common to the development of all kinds of organisations. The challenge is therefore that of seeing and organising knowledge around organisation development processes, somewhat different from organising inputs around the conventional functional paradigms. In relation to the survival of an organisation in the early years, the target might, for example, be to anticipate the problems that might lead to failure and 'bring forward' the knowledge in such a way as to enable those involved to anticipate development problems before they occur and take remedial action (Gibb 2002a).[6] The key academic challenge in pursuing such a problem-centred approach is to that of building concepts into the practice.

Acceptance of this point does, however, mean that entrepreneurship researchers seek new ways of codifying knowledge around the development processes of business or organisations, rather than seek to codify it through the conventional functional boxes[7].

The trust building relationship arm. It is a tautology to state that business of any kind, in any context, is done through people. It has been argued by the author elsewhere (Gibb 1997) that the entrepreneur's capacity to learn from relationships with key stakeholders, and educate them – bringing forward their future – is the key to successful business and to cementing the trust-based relationships upon which entrepreneurs thrive. Seeing organisations as sets of personal relationships and development capacity as a function of trust is arguably also the key to an entrepreneurial society (Fukuyama 1995). It is also central, in a business context, to the issue of creating a level playing field for enterprise

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6. The author when acting as a national trainer to the UK Small Firms Advisory Service, for many years, would argue that any counsellor/consultant who could not provide at least 15 reasons why small firms get into difficulty in the first few years should not be in the Service!
7. It is the author's view that if business schools had been set up to teach independent businesses they would never have sought to organise knowledge in the way they have.

development, the limiting of formal regulation and the reduction of transactions costs. The key to this approach is to identify what the individual needs to know from each stakeholder at each stage of the organisation's development (Durham and Leicester.1999, Gibb 1997).

For example, from the entrepreneur's perspective – re. dealing with a key customer – the key questions would be:

- what does the entrepreneur need to know about the customer organisation and its needs at each stage of the relationship over time in order to build a full and trusting relationship?

- who will this knowledge be acquired from and delivered to and how will their needs differ?

- how best might this knowledge be acquired?

From the customer's perspective the same questions need to be asked namely:

- what does the customer need to know about the entrepreneur's organisation and who will they learn it from?

- how will it best be delivered, and to whom?

Finally, it will be of importance to consider:

- what will be the role of third parties (other stakeholders) in this learning process and how might they be influenced.

The same approach might be applied in any organisational context.

The 'entrepreneurial management in different contexts' leg. It has already been argued that the business context for entrepreneurial management is only one context of many. Some of these contexts are explored in more detail below. It is clear, however, that the need for an entrepreneurial organisational response varies. The need, and scope, for 'effective' entrepreneurial behaviour is contingent on the task environment facing the organisation and individual. The seminal work of Lawrence and Lorsch (1986) and later Covin and Slevin (1991) importantly underlines the need for any organisation to examine and characterise the nature of complexities and uncertainties arising presently, and speculatively in the future, in its task environment in order to design its response appropriately. It should be noted that, in the contexts described below, this contingency approach is equally valid for application to individuals and families as well as organisations. It is not at all the same as behaving in a business-like manner.

The entrepreneurial organisation design and development leg. The above discussion of task environment and context underlines the importance of creating the capacity to design entrepreneurial organisations of all kinds to meet different environments and needs. Such an entrepreneurial organisation can be defined as (after Gibb 1999)

> an organisation that maximises the potential for individuals within it to pursue effective entrepreneurial behaviour and initiatives leading to greater personal fulfilment and enhanced organisational performance.

Key components of this design are described elsewhere (Gibb 2000 – see also Annex 5). Organisational design can constrain entrepreneurial behaviour and/or force it to be deviant. It has been shown elsewhere (Gibb and Lyapunov 1995) that the classic state controlled business model in the former communist countries was such an organisation (see below). That did not mean that there was an absence of entrepreneurial behaviour in such organisations, (indeed the author's experience was that this was substantial) but that much of this was designed either to circumvent bureaucratic restrictions in order to maintain organisation performance or was deviant, with individuals, for example, running their own business activity within the organisation.

The 'ideas harvesting and project management' feet. Opportunity identification and implementation remains at the core of entrepreneurial activity and is one of the main issues to be salvaged from the conventional business paradigm, with the footnote that it can be applied to any context. The process by which needs are identified and combined into product/service concepts is central to entrepreneurial behaviour and can often be addressed within a project management format. The management of projects is an excellent vehicle for the stimulation and practice of entrepreneurial behaviour[8]. The key to success in this respect is, however, that the process is not heavily bureaucratised or formalised but is one of discovery, experimentation, tracking back when mistakes are made and entrepreneurial learning (somewhat linked with what has been described as a process of 'effectuation' (Sarasvathy 2001).

A globalisation context. A key imperative in the design of this societal model of entrepreneurship is, in each context, to identify the sources of uncertainty and complexity that create the need for an entrepreneurial response. This is not necessarily market driven although market conditions can be a major force. It will be shown in more detail below that uncertainties and complexities arise in the 'life world' of all kinds of organisations but not necessarily as a result of market pressures.

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8. The entrepreneurial project management cycle has long been been used at Durham as the basis for the design of schools enterprise education programmes. See note 1.

3.4. Conclusions

The aim in this section has been to demonstrate that it is possible to conceive of a model of entrepreneurship that is more widely based than the apparent convention. The model has major implications, in particular, for both the content and process of entrepreneurship education. Its central focus is upon the development of entrepreneurial behaviours, attributes and skills and upon the design of organisations that might utilise and stimulate these. The model recognises that the pursuit of entrepreneurial behaviours may be of value in a wide range of contexts, not purely business. It is relevant both to the organisation and to the individual as worker, consumer and family/community member. Indeed it can be argued that by focusing entrepreneurship teaching purely in a business context the importance of creating a wider stakeholder enterprise culture and therefore a generally supportive institutional environment may go unrecognised.

   A central tenet of the model is that entrepreneurship is key to helping organisations and individuals cope with, enjoy and indeed create, uncertainty and complexity. Its value is therefore contingent on the nature of the task environment and, it is important to note, that an entrepreneurial response is not always desirable. It has been argued that the current policy imperative for the creation of an 'enterprise culture' stems from the perceived pressures of globalisation. Identifying the precise nature of these pressures, both for individuals and organisations, is a useful starting point for the development of appropriate interventions.

4. Unique Solutions for Unique Environments?

The aim in this section is to relate, briefly, the above models to a number of different contexts a set out in the beginning of this paper.

4.1. Education[9]

The role of entrepreneurship or enterprise[10] at all levels of education has become a major policy focus in Europe over the past decade   (European Training

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9.   This context is covered in greater length in another paper to this Conference (see note 3).
10. A clear, and useful, distinction can be made in the English language between the words 'Entrepreneur' and 'Enterprising person'. The former is often seen as the person behaving 'entrepreneurially' in the context of business (as owner or manager). The latter is someone who exhibits entrepreneurial behaviours and characteristics as an individual in any context – work and play. It is the author's experience that when teachers in education are asked to describe the 'enterprising person' they provide a list of behaviours, attributes and skills that largely duplicate those that are associated in the literature with the entrepreneur.

Foundation 1996, European Commission 2002) and remains of high importance in North America (National Commission on Entrepreneurship 2000, Menzies and Gasse 1999). There are a number of major concerns of which perhaps the most important is to find a model that goes beyond that portrayed in Exhibit 2, to one which embraces wider aspects of developing entrepreneurial capacity in society as whole, described in Exhibit 3. In the UK, for example in the field of Higher Education, the focus is upon developing a model that will be accepted right across the university and with the central hub being outside of the business school – hence the template described in Annex 1 (National Council for Graduate Entrepreneurship, 2006). A similar desire for wider application of the entrepreneurship concept is being expressed in the USA (Kauffman 2005) leading to such interesting new concepts as Intellectual Entrepreneurship (Cherwitz 2002).

Across the spectrum from primary to further and higher education a major emphasis is upon developing the enterprising/entrepreneurial person[11]. Key issues being addressed include:

- how to embed entrepreneurship/enterprise in the education system as a whole rather than treat it as a subject in a business school or in vocational education.

- how to give teachers of all kinds, ownership of its development and dissemination rather than having it delivered as an external 'add-on'.

- how therefore to create a progression through the education system in this area, from primary, to secondary, to vocational through to higher education.

- how to define clear outcomes against which inputs can be assessed.

- how best to develop, pedagogies, materials and programmes to meet the above needs and find time in the curriculum.

- how best to motivate and train teachers.

- whether there is a need to segment approaches to meet different ability/ aptitude levels.

It can be argued that the conventional model does not easily meet these broad needs. There needs to be a wider context than business, an holistic approach to knowledge organisation, a strong emphasis upon pedagogical variety and

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11. See for example the results of a London workshop (2006) organised by Enterprise Insight in the UK. Enterprise Insight is a lead UK body focused upon entrepreneurship education at the schools and college level in the UK (www.enterpriseinsight.co.uk)

experiential learning, understanding of how to design entrepreneurial organisations of all kinds and, in terms of outcomes, a stronger focus upon creating empathy with the entrepreneurial mindset (Annex 1). The central driver to this focus is that of preparing young people for the flexible labour market and self-help society described above as well as business start-up.

4.2. Other Organisational Contexts

In line with the above concerns it is clear that the 'life world' of the entrepreneur is arguably increasingly shared by those in all kinds of occupations and indeed in family and social circumstance. This can be (and has been by the author) demonstrated in a teaching programme[12] Students are asked to conduct interviews with a wide range of individuals in the local society (pensioners, unemployed, policemen, doctors, social workers, teachers, nurses, local politicians, students and so on). The purpose is to explore with them the uncertainties and complexities which confront them in modern life as workers, family members, community members and consumers and to identify any entrepreneurial responses they are using to meet these challenges. From this exercise it becomes clear that there is a very wide context to entrepreneurial endeavour. The head of a former state clinic in Porec in Croatia, for example, is faced with a wide range of opportunities and threats. Among the opportunities and complexities introduced into her life are: the influx of Austrians and Germans seeking treatment and willing to pay handsomely and armed with prior diagnostic knowledge: the world-wide access though IT to global clinical practice: and a new freedom to recruit and manage in a much more flexible manner. There are also numerous uncertainties relating to: difficulties in retaining staff in the 'new labour market'; meeting public authority obligations to traditional local patients; responding to the increasingly demanding nature of patient care as 'foreigners' expect the best of international practice and often bring with them already sophisticated diagnosis from elsewhere; competition from the growth of private practice; pressure from drugs companies; the need to make new contract arrangements with the state with in-built performance criteria etc. Add to these pressures, changes in her domestic circumstance and there are major needs for an entrepreneurial response. These personal and organisational are much more easily conceptually analysed within model 2 above than model 1. Running the clinic as a business is a too simple and distorting a paradigm. It does not take a great deal of imagination to envisage how others, mentioned above, might equally be affected.

   The wider contextual demands, however, go beyond this. Certainly in the UK, it can be argued that the increasing government commitment to the creation of

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12. In the Masters in Entrepreneurship Programme at the Strossmayer University in Osijek, Croatia.

markets in public services and the growth of a new managerialism which has extended into health, education, social services and even the police has led to the adoption of essentially corporate models of management with emphasis upon, target setting, sophisticated IT control systems, collection of more information and paradoxically more paper work (Power1997, Boyle 2000, Pollock 2004). It can be argued that little of this re-organisation has been along truly entrepreneurial lines with the result that the corporate organisation cultures developed are being increasingly attacked from within these services (The Times 2007, The Guardian 2007). It is the author's view, as someone who has been quite heavily engaged with the wider education sector, that the traditional model of a school as a rather enterprising institution with great degrees of freedom for teachers and networks of collaboration based upon trust has been replaced in England by a model dominated by targets, budgets, detailed lesson plans, management systems, tight job descriptions and with educational outcomes and schools benchmarked by examination performance tables – a result of the managerialist revolution (Gibb 2000b)[13]. Without entrepreneurial design in these organisations (as in Model 2) then it is difficult to stimulate effective innovative entrepreneurial behaviour except in the deviant sense.

4.3. The Individual Context

The kind of exercise described above – that of looking for sources of uncertainty and complexity in life with associated pressure for enterprising or entrepreneurial behaviour – leads strong support to the view that it is not only in the organisational or work context that entrepreneurial responses are needed. The factors listed in Exhibit 1 above under the heading 'Individual Response' point to the range of domestic pressures experienced by individuals as consumers, workers, family and community members. In transition economies, for example, the new uncertain labour markets, the adoption of international standards and practices, the abandonment of subsidised and often job related housing, the new consumerism, the growth of credit and debt, the break-up of the close extended local family unity, geographical mobility and house ownership have created `a new world of uncertainty and complexity where entrepreneurial responses are needed.

Evidence that students can see the high relevance of entrepreneurial behaviours and attributes to their future life world in UK can be adduced from experiments carried out by the author as part of a series of master classes in entrepreneurship delivered to students from UK universities. Students were asked to rank the importance of a number of entrepreneurial attributes to their future work, leisure and social life when they left university. The responses (Annex 6)

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13. For a radical argument in this respect (the conclusions from which the author does not altogether agree with) see Tooley 2000, particularly chapter 7).

underpin the notion of the wider relevance of the entrepreneurial paradigm as in Model 2. It is interesting to note that when students were asked to indicate the degree to which these attributes had been developed by their university experience the response rating was not as overwhelming (particularly with respect to the impact of the formal component of university life).

4.4. The Independent Owner Managed (SME) Context

The independent small firm holds an ambiguous position in the academic literature. Because of the wide acceptance of the Schumpeterian notion of the exceptional and somewhat heroic nature of the entrepreneur (1934) many authors argue for a distinction to be made between the owner manager and the entrepreneur. Indeed oft quoted definitions (see for example that of Stevenson 2004) seek to divorce ownership from entrepreneurial behaviour in the way that Schumpeter divorced entrepreneurs from capitalists. The author takes issue with this view and has argued that the very life-world of the independent business person, of which ownership is a key part, as described earlier, provides the metaphor for the kind of environment needed to stimulate entrepreneurial behaviour (Gibb 2202b) The Schumpeterian metaphor falls down in several ways. Firstly, it seems to assume that the essence of successful innovation lies in dramatic shifts – whereas much of the literature now indicates that pursuit of incremental innovation on an ongoing basis is the key to the nature of the dynamic entrepreneurial firm (Courtney et al 1999). Second, as noted earlier, it seems to deny that one can have a highly entrepreneurial (in behavioural terms) career as an individual self-employed person but without the wish to grow. Third, it seems to focus solely upon ownership of physical assets where arguably the really key components of capacity for entrepreneurial innovation lie with psychological ownership of events and even more importantly, ownership of networks (know who) and knowledge (know how).

Throughout the world the owner manager seems reluctant to buy formal offers of training and education. The whole history of Business Development Services (BDS) in both developed and so-called developing countries can be characterised as a process of bribing SMEs to take up offers of training and consultancy by means of subsidy, direct and indirect. Even the 'new' paradigm of the market-led BDS model often has strong elements of subsidy (Gibson 1999), through voucher systems for example. It may be, however, that the decision of small firm owner-managers not to buy training/education at full cost is a sound business decision in that the product offer is not worth the investment (Gibb 1994). It can be argued that this the reasons for this lie substantially in the criticisms of the traditional entrepreneurship model. In the owner manager's world the development of the business equates to organisation development which in turn equates to management development. The model in Exhibit 3 offers

the possibility for a 'developmental' organisation of knowledge with emphasis upon holistic management, relationship management, experiential learning, and emotional intelligence.

4.5. The Corporate Context

It has been noted above that much of the pressure for entrepreneurship/enterprise education in its wider sense has come from large firms looking for innovative, enterprising, initiative taking and opportunity-seeking employees within the 'new' networked, value chain and strategic alliance structures. There is much evidence to demonstrate that the downsizing, re-engineering, delayering and broad restructuring experiences of the 1980s and 90's while creating many new challenges in organisation design have often had a substantial negative effect upon the motivation and performance of many of those retained, resulting in stress and anxiety (Worrel et al 2000, Sahdev and Vinnicombe1997). This has been discussed at length elsewhere (Gibb 2000b) where it has been argued that much of this is due to the failure to fundamentally redesign the business along entrepreneurial lines with a consequent failure to empower managers and workforce to cope with greater uncertainty and complexity. The 'intrapreneurial' band wagon of the 1980s (Pinchot 1985) seemed to peter out with much of conventional business school attention in this respect being given to intra corporate venturing, spin offs and buy outs. Components of the entrepreneurial model 2 allow for a much broader approach which has been practiced by the author in the context of transition economy restructuring of large, former state-owned, firms (see below).

4.6. The Stakeholder Context

Much policy attention has been paid over the past two decades to the issue of creating environments within which the entrepreneurial culture will grow. Within the market paradigm much of this has focused upon reducing the regulatory burden of business. Governments in the developing world have been pressured by the neo-liberalism institutional design approaches of the World Bank and IMF in particular through their Structural Adjustment Programme activities to open up markets (Stiglitz 2002), and create the openings for entrepreneurship. Business Development Services throughout the developing world equally have been urged by bilateral and international agencies to take a 'market oriented approach'.[14] The pervasive influence of these organisations in delivering a certain ideology and institutional culture is discussed later in this paper.

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14. See the debate over the past 5 years in the journal Small Enterprise Development.

Notwithstanding criticisms that might be made of the above approaches, they are taken in recognition of the view that the stakeholder environment (the banks, legal profession, accountants, government – local and national, representative associations, regulatory agencies, the media, education and above all the customer /supplier networks) is key to establishing a supportive playing field for entrepreneurship development. A major problem, discussed elsewhere by this author (Gibb 2002c), is that the institutional culture of many of the above mentioned organisations is alien to that of entrepreneurial ways of doing things – an issue raised earlier. For example, in the transition economies it can be argued that the real challenge in creating effective, as opposed to deviant, entrepreneurship lies not in educating entrepreneurs, but in creating the capacity of the stakeholder environment to have real empathy with, and support for, an entrepreneurial culture. Much emphasis has been placed by international aid agencies on rewriting the legal framework for the regulatory environment. The key issue in developing a supportive regulatory environment is arguably not, however, the passing of legislation or indeed its amendment but the creation of capacity of organisations operating with the legislation on the ground to interact entrepreneurially and flexibly with local firms and communities. The experience of the author in serving as advisor to national small firm government departments in the 1990s in Russia and Ukraine is that much of the focus of technical assistance was upon developing new legislation in circumstances where there was little or no capacity to manage it at the local level. Creating a public sector capacity to deal with entrepreneurship is, however, by no means a transition or developing country problem. In a recent UK conference on Entrepreneurship the former head of a major civil service department argued that it was impossible to create an enterprise culture in the UK with the present mindset of the civil service.[15]

The importance of this issue is underlined by the earlier argument as to the central importance of relationship learning to the small firm – although the argument applies to any context. The notion of learning circles and partnerships in this respect has been discussed elsewhere with an emphasis upon creating the capacity of stakeholders to work in partnership and learn from each other rather than operate independently (Gibb 1997). Within the stakeholder network for entrepreneurship development, institutional power asymmetry plays a major role. Large customers dictate the way that small firms get into their supply chain. Banks and venture capital companies dictate the way the loans and investment capital are negotiated. Large firms have the major influence on the way in which local and national legal and other frameworks, influencing governance, are developed. It is in this (important) context that the source of the business plan as a key relationship management document, can be traced.

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15. Enterprise Insight Conference. Queen Elizabeth Conference Centre 2004.

Model 2 lends itself to meet the needs described above with its greater focus upon empathy, entrepreneurial design, relationship management, and action learning and upon the importance of understanding of the stages of organisation development.

4.7. Different Ideological and Cultural Contexts

Any internationally effective model of entrepreneurship and enterprise development has to be sensitive to, and find resonance in, different cultural and ideological contexts. Ways of doing things, ways of thinking things, ways of communicating things, ways of organising things and ways of learning things reflect different cultural and environmental conditions as well as different stages of economic and social development. Yet they can arguably have similar entrepreneurial outcomes. A classical case is that of China which since 1979 has grown GDP at rates of 8-10% a year. Up to the late 1990s virtually all of this growth was the result the efforts of Township and Village Enterprises (TVEs). It certainly was not a result of the kind of Structural Adjustment Programme reforms advocated by the World Bank and IMF. It can be argued (Gibb and Li 2003 and Gibb, 2006) that during this period there were: no clear concepts of ownership (a wide variety of ownership structures – collective, contract, state, semi independent, co-operative-type and often mixed up together); no clear regulatory environment; no really open markets (but high degrees of local protectionism), no truly transparent banking system on western lines and no clear way of transferring ownership and indeed few of the hallmarks of the Western recipe for development including of course 'democracy'. The increasingly propounded notion that China's growth is simply a result of their discovery of the capitalist market economy is somewhat mythical. It has been argued in the articles mentioned above that the key to its success lay, institutionally, in very high degrees of local financial autonomy, strong inter-relationships and interdependencies at the local level under conditions of ambiguity, degrees of local protection allowing the development of appropriate technologies for doing things without benchmarking against superior western products and, perhaps and, most importantly, the operation of Guanxi (a sophisticated relationship exchange system based upon personal favours – Luo 1997).

The restructuring processes in transition economies have provided another context for testing the influence of entrepreneurial paradigms on redesign of organisations. It can be argued that the simplistic notion that opening up markets and privatising organisations would lead to effective entrepreneurship have been largely responsible for the creation of the current dominant oligarchic capitalism, gross inequalities and a corrupt regulatory environment, perhaps most evident in Russia. It has been argued (Gibb and Lyapunov 1995) that the central failure was to recognise the importance of changing the culture of organisations over time to

embed key concepts of entrepreneurial organisation. Russian business organisations were never purely inefficient mirrors of western companies but were a very different kind of community organisation fulfilling social functions of full employment, housing and welfare provision, health services, child care, vacation facilities and so on. Moreover such organisations had internalised large numbers of activities that in different structures would be organised as independent small firms but under communism were not allowed to operate as such. Managing the change process was therefore one of changing the culture of the organisation, finding innovative ways of transferring social responsibilities, gradually releasing the internal entrepreneurial potential and creating stakeholder support institutions and activities often on a 'need-to-do' basis. Opening up markets via a process of allowing western firms entry to pick and choose the best part of a business was arguably an error as were the privatisation processes based upon western experience. Privatising state monopolies by corruptible practices leads to corrupted private monopolies and a deviant entrepreneurial environment.. Much the same results have occurred in several other transition economies and indeed in developing country contexts under privatisation processes.

It is the experience of the author that the alternative entrepreneurial model (2), proposed earlier, has much to offer in these contexts. In the first place, it removes the entrepreneurship paradigm from the simplistic notion of it being purely market led. Empathy with cultures, finding innovative ways of releasing entrepreneurial behaviours within existing ways of doing things (the community of practice), exploring different ways of relationship management and holistic organisation design while identifying bottom up opportunities for development are all built into the model. Sensitivity to the roots of entrepreneurial energy whether in organisations and/or societies seems to be of key importance. In Cuba, for example, where there have been many social entrepreneurial innovations, the root energy seems to derive from a 'backs to the wall' sense of national identity (see for example Richard Gott in the Guardian 2006). Response to adversity is well recognised in the literature as a driver to entrepreneurship .

4.8. The Dangers of 'Institutional' Legitimisation of the Dominant Model (1)

Within the confines of limited space, the case has been argued for a broader entrepreneurial paradigm which will better meet the current imperatives in society. This does not at all mean dismissing the value of academic work in this area, now heavily embedded in business and applied economic academic journals and therefore 'legitimate'. But it does beg a question about the degree to which the paradigm has been 'institutionalised' and moulded to shape academic needs as opposed to the needs of societies and organisations. Bourdieu, the French philosopher, in his theory of practice has demonstrated the ways in which academic agents build up a body of support around their own ways of seeing

things by the use of coalitions and the 'stealing' of support from established other concepts and writers (1999). There is an eminent body of support for the view, that business schools as a whole, largely by this process, have lost their way by seeking narrow academic legitimacy as opposed to legitimacy in the wider world of management. (Porter 1997, Mintzberg 2004, Ghoshal 2005, Pfeffer and Fong 2002, Bennis and O'Toole 2005). The author would humbly place his argument about entrepreneurship alongside this.

There are two key aspects of the danger of legitimisation of the traditional view of entrepreneurship. One, covered in the above argument, is that of the translation of the entrepreneurial paradigm into the language, culture and functional organisation of business and the business school. Much of the academic entrepreneurship doctoral work seems to underpin this with attempts to bring entrepreneurship into the established fields of business publication such as marketing, finance, operations and strategy. If the arguments of the author are accepted then this process can be seen to stand in the way of creating 'unique solutions for unique environments'.

The second danger follows from the first but is far more potent. There is a field of literature relating to the institutional effects of the transfer of western colonial practice into developing economies – a process that is arguably still being underpinned by the ideology of major international transfer agencies as noted above. It has been argued by some eminent authorities (see for example Chang 2002 and 2003) that the result of this process is that institutional arrangements, in the Northian sense, are transferred via organisation structures into societies that do not match the stage of development of the transferring country from whence they come. It can, for example be seen that the banking system in South Africa and indeed many countries of Africa is a clone of the western system and designed primarily to suit the needs of the large, mainly foreign, companies. It has not 'grown up' to meet the needs of the underdeveloped majority sector of the economy. The author speculates that if the UK banking system as it is now was transposed into the 19th century there may well have been no industrial revolution.[16] The same argument might be used to appraise education, business regulatory, legal and other structures including the concept of democracy. It has been argued (Ferrand 1999) that the pervasive externally induced institutional culture can create a discontinuity in development. In the case of Kenyan Africans, for example, it can be shown that it has created prohibitive transactions costs barriers to entry into the formal sector of the economy (Ferrand op.cit.).

It has been argued by the author elsewhere that implicit in the transfer process of organisations and ways of doing things between countries there aret institutional transfers of ideologies, culturally contextual concepts,[17] processes, organisations and benchmarks (Gibb 2000c). Norms formed in one society, for

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16. It can be argued that the financial system supporting the industrial revolution was nearer in its philosophy to that of a microfinance model.

example those relating to the use of child labour, are transferred to another. Concepts and ideologies, for example, embedded in the Structural Adjustment Programmes referred to above are transferred by an asymmetric power process. Developing countries are benchmarked against western practices of transparency and provided with assistance to reach these standards. Organisations are transplanted from western environments or introduced by a process of privatisation. As an example, virtually all of the banks in Croatia, a transition economy, are now externally owned. Yet there is considerable historical evidence that locally owned small banks played a major part in small enterprise development in the west (see the German example in Sauer 1984).

In some cases systems that have been tried less than successfully in the west are inflicted upon the developing world. The SETA model of industrial training (levy- grant system of stimulating firm training) in South Africa is based upon western practice. Yet in the case of the UK in the 1980s, it was not successful and abandoned. Such 'transfer' mechanisms can stand in the way of entrepreneurial processes of solving problems by experiment, making mistakes, learning from them, making things up on a 'need to know' and 'know how' basis and therefore owning the subsequent ways of doing thing.

This 'transfer' scenario has quite clearly had its effect on the development of the entrepreneurship education concept internationally. This has been arguably mainly through the adoption of the western business school model in the developing and transition economy world. The MBA process, practice and content has been somewhat carbon copied with the help of international assistance and the traditional entrepreneurship paradigm is part of the baggage. This has been subsequently further reinforced by the transfer of developed country business service models and organisation typologies in the field of small enterprise even though many of these forms of assistance are not sustainable in their own countries without considerable public subvention (Gibb and Haas 1996). Those managing these 'new' organisations and programmes are then encouraged to benchmark their 'success' against developed country practice. As in the case of the European Forum for Management Development EQUIS scheme for business schools this may become part of an international accreditation process. Staff of schools, trained in the 'assisting' countries, consequently look, through their research, publications and teaching, for legitimacy in the same way and on the same ground as their mentors. Yet a real issue - explored in another paper (Gibb, Singer and Korynski 2005) – is whether their efforts are being benchmarked against the needs of the country and locality.

Arguably Model 2, with its emphasis upon culture, empathy, organisation design, context and development processes and embeddedness in relationships

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17. It has, for example, been questioned as to whether basic social science and economic concepts largely developed in western culture are appropriate for developing country societies – see Mukherji , P.N. and Sengupta, C. (Edts) ' Indigeneity and Universality in Social Science. A South Asia Response' Sage Publications, Dehli.

with local stakeholders has greater potential in its application to avoid some of these dangers. Yet more needs to be done. Without understanding of the various cultural aspects of the concept it is clear that any process of simple re-labelling and transfer may be dysfunctional with this as with any other model. Bourdieu argues that in transferring concepts within cultures one must take into account the process of transformation, of selection, of labelling, and classification and there must be full understanding of how the concept fits into the field of origin (Bourdieu, 1999).

5. Conclusion

This paper has sought directly to address the important and highly relevant theme of 'Entrepreneurship: Unique Solutions for Unique Environments?' It hopefully has underlined the importance of this question. It has argued that the entrepreneurship concept should seek its legitimacy by the degree to which it meets the needs of societies and that the narrow pursuit of its legitimisation in an academic, largely business school context, through research and publication is inadequate. Set against the demands from the open and civil society concepts that derive from globalisation (Kaldor 2003)) it has argued that the dominant need is for a paradigm that extends itself to individuals and organisations in a wide range of contexts. The central demand is that it should help them to cope with and enjoy a 'life world of greater uncertainty and complexity which, it has argued, is the dominant thrust behind the need for entrepreneurial individual and organisational behaviour.

It has somewhat caricatured the existing model of entrepreneurship as it is taught in European and North American business schools and colleges although this simplification is based upon more in-depth academic review elsewhere. It has argued that this model is less than appropriate to deal with a broader concept of entrepreneurship and it has suggested another model which in practice is being experimented with in the UK as a basis for creating an outcomes framework for the development of entrepreneurship in Higher Education and perhaps beyond. This framework attempts to get closer to the notions of entrepreneurial ways of doing, thinking, feeling, communicating, organising and learning. Much of it remains speculative although it has tried to build upon what is known. Importantly, in the author's view, it has also tried to build upon experience. It has briefly, and therefore somewhat inadequately, tried to test this model against needs that arrive in different contexts in order to follow the imperative of the title of this address. It has hopefully been shown that the 'alternative' model provides a better paradigm base for response to the needs for entrepreneurship in different contexts and indeed cultures. Finally it has pointed to some of the 'institutional' dangers of carrying the norms of the traditional model from one society to another without great sensitivity and has speculated that the 'alternative' model might be

better able to do justice to this. While many corners have been cut, hopefully the main purpose has been achieved – to provoke discussion as to the challenge of creating unique responses to unique environments.

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ANNEX 1

A Template for Entrepreneurship Programme Development in Higher Education in the UK

The Need for a Template

In the light of the growth of a range of entrepreneurship programmes in the HE sector and indeed elsewhere there is a clear need for a Template for Entrepreneurship. . Such a template needs to incorporate a definition of *what constitutes entrepreneurship in education* and, in particular address the key issue of *what might be the range of desired outcomes from entrepreneurship programmes.* With such a base it will be possible to explore:

- What are the targeted outcomes of existing programmes benchmarked against the template?

- Are they really being delivered?

- How well are they being delivered and where is there scope for improvement?

- How (well) are the outcomes being assessed?

Such an benchmarking exercise is currently being undertaken by NCGE. This process will facilitate the effective harnessing of existing offers and will provide the base for adding value to them. It will also be possible to prevent the spread of irrelevant or less effective practice. Research into the various offers of entrepreneurship teaching in HE demonstrates for example that much of what is taught is 'about' rather than 'through' or 'for'.

A template also provides the basis for:

- A focused debate upon the concept of entrepreneurship in an educational context.

- A dialogue with all key stakeholders, particularly policy makers and funders.

- The development of a programme of education and training for policy makers, organisers and delivers of entrepreneurship education.

Key Areas for Outcome Setting and Measurement

These are set out below (Exhibit 1). They are not meant to represent the definitive article. Nor are they a template against which to assess the worthiness of programmes (many worthwhile programmes would fail to match these criteria).

Exhibit 1: A Benchmarking Template of Potential Key Outcomes

A. Key entrepreneurial behaviors, skills and attitudes have been developed (these will need to be agreed and clearly set out.

B. Student s clearly empathise with, understand and 'feel' the life-world of the entrepreneur.

C. Key entrepreneurial values have been inculcated.

D. Motivation towards a career in entrepreneurship has been built and students clearly understand the comparative benefits.

E. Students understand the process (stages) of setting up an organisation, the associated tasks and learning needs.

F. Students have the key generic competencies associated with entrepreneurship (generic 'how to's').

G. Students have a grasp of key business how to's associated with the start up process.

H. Students understand the nature of the relationships they need to develop with key stakeholders and are familiarised with them.

A. Entrepreneurial behaviour, attitude and skill development

To what degree does a programme have activities that seek clearly to develop:

- opportunity seeking

- initiative taking

- ownership of a development

- commitment to see things through

- personal locus of control (autonomy)

- intuitive decision making with limited information

- networking capacity

- strategic thinking

- negotiation capacity

- selling/persuasive capacity

- achievement orientation

- incremental risk taking

B. Creating empathy with the entrepreneurial life world

To what degree does the programme help students to 'feel' the world of:

- living with uncertainty and complexity

- having to do everything under pressure

- coping with loneliness

- holistic management

- no sell, no income

- no cash in hand – no income

- building know who and trust relationships

- learning by doing, copying, making things up, problem solving

- managing interdependencies

- working flexibly and long hours

C. Key entrepreneurial values

To what degree does the programme seek to inculcate and create empathy with key entrepreneurial values:

- strong sense of independence

- distrust of bureaucracy and its values

- self made/self belief

- strong sense of ownership

- belief that rewards come with own effort

- 'hard work brings its rewards

- believe can make things happen

- strong action orientation

- belief in informal arrangements

- strong belief in the value of know-who and trust

- strong belief in freedom to take action

- belief in the individual and community not the state

D. Motivation to Entrepreneurship career

To what degree does the programme help students to:

- understand the benefits from en entrepreneurship career?

- compare with employee career

- have some entrepreneurial 'hero's' as friends acquaintances

- have images of entrepreneurial people 'just like them'

E. Understanding of processes of business entry and tasks

To what degree does the programme take students through:

- the total process of setting up an organisation from idea to survival and provide understanding of what challenges will arise at each stage

- helping students how to handle them

F. Generic Entrepreneurship competencies

To what degree does the programme build the capacity to:

- find an idea

- appraise an idea

- see problems as opportunities

- identify the key people to be influenced in any development

- build the know who

- learn from relationships

- assess business development needs

- know where to look for answers

- improve emotional self awareness, manage and read emotions and handle relationships

- constantly see yourself and the business through the eyes of stakeholders and particularly customers

G. Key minimum business how to's

To what degree does the programme help students to:

- see products and services as combinations of benefits

- develop a total service package

- price a product service

- identify and approach good customers

- appraise and learn from competition

- monitor the environment with limited resource

- choose appropriate sales strategy and manage it

- identify the appropriate scale of a business to make a living

- set standards for operations performance and manage them

- finance the business appropriately from different sources

- develop a business plan as a relationship communication instrument

- acquire an appropriate systems to manage cash, payments, collections, profits and costs

- select a good accountant

- manage, with minimum fuss, statutory requirements

H. Managing relationships

How does the programme help students to:

- identify all key stakeholders impacting upon any venture

- understand the needs of all key stakeholders at the start –up and survival stage

- know how to educate stakeholders

- know how to learn from them

- know how best to build and manage the relationship.

ANNEX 2

Values in Organisation Design

The Bureaucratic/Corporate - Entrepreneurial Dilemma

Government/corporate *(looking for)*	*Entrepreneurial small organisations* *(as being)*
Order	untidy
Formality	informal
Accountability	trusting
Information	observing
clear demarcation	overlapping
Planning	intuitive
Corporate strategy	'tactically strategic'
control measures	'I do it my way'
formal standards	personally observed
Transparency	ambiguous
Functional expertise	holistic
Systems	'feely'
Positional authority	owner managed
formal performance appraisal	customer/network exposed

Associated Entrepreneurial Values and Beliefs?

- strong sense of independence
- distrust of bureaucracy and its values
- self made/self belief
- strong sense of ownership
- belief that rewards come with own effort
- 'hard work brings its rewards'
- believe can make things happen
- strong action orientation
- belief in informal arrangements
- strong belief in the value of know-who and trust
- strong belief in freedom to take action
- belief in the individual and community not the state

ANNEX 3

Entrepreneurial 'Ways of'

Ways of Doing
• Intuitively
•'What if' strategy
•Jumping in
•Making it up
•Opportunity seeking
•Responding to stakeholder pressure
•Through contacts
•Judgements on basis of limited data

Ways of Communicating
•Verbally v written word
•Based on trust
•Word count appropriate
•Acting different parts
•Person to person – not organisation
•With feeling

Ways of Thinking
•Heuristic/ experiential rules
•Frames of reference
•Within thresholds of potential
•Unreasonable
•Intuitively
•Within thresholds of experience
•Pragmatic

Ways of Organising
•To provide organisation members with ownership, control, degrees of
freedom, ability to network, responsibility to see things through, rewards linked
to effort and success with clients, ability to learn from mistakes and stakeholders
•Informal and overlapping
•Held together by culture not control
•Sharing strategies
•Project based organisation

Ways of Seeing Things
Aggressively
•Not through checklists and plans
•Defensively v 'Way of life'
•Through culture
•Own resource caution
•Resisting unnecessary formalisation
•Looking for value in practice

Ways of Feeling
•Through the ego
•Through ownership values
•Through family perspective
•Through high locus of control
•Through judgement of people
• Through values filter (anti bureaucracy, formality, affinity, self made aspiration)
•Valuing experience

Ways of Learning
By doing
•Copying
•From stakeholders
•Under pressure
•By experiment and mistake making
•Problem solving creatively
•Opportunity grasping
•Opportunity for repeated practice
•Need to know basis
•Know how focus
•Know who linkage

ANNEX 4

Entrepreneurial Behaviours, Attitudes and Skills

Entrepreneurial Behaviours

- opportunity seeking and grasping
- taking initiatives to make things happen]
- solving problems creatively
- managing autonomously
- taking responsibility for, and ownership of, things
- seeing things through
- networking effectively to manage interdependence
- putting things together creatively
- using judgement to take calculated risks.

Entrepreneurial Attributes

- achievement orientation and ambition
- self confidence and self belief
- perseverance
- high internal locus of control (autonomy)
- action orientation
- preference for learning by doing
- hardworking
- determination
- creativity.

Entrepreneurial Skills

- creative problem solving
- persuading
- negotiating
- selling
- proposing
- holistically managing business/projects/situations
- strategic thinking
- intuitive decision making under uncertainty
- networking.

ANNEX 5

Designing the Entrepreneurial Organisation?

Creating and reinforcing a strong sense of ownership
Reinforcing feelings of freedom and autonomy
Maximising opportunities for holistic management
Tolerating ambiguity
Developing responsibility to see things through
Seeking to build commitment over time
Encouraging building of relevant personal stakeholder networks
Tying rewards to customer and stakeholder credibility
Allowing mistakes with support for learning
Supporting learning from stakeholders
Facilitating enterprising learning methods
Avoiding strict demarcation and hierarchical control systems
Allowing management overlap as a basis for learning and trust
Encouraging strategic thinking
Encouraging personal contact as basis for building trust

Modified from Gibb 2000

ANNEX 6: Entrepreneurship Questionnaire Part 1

An assessment of the importance of entrepreneurial capacity to your future

The questions focus upon a number of key entrepreneurial or enterprising capacities/attributes. Can you provide an estimate of the importance of these in relation to what you want to do when you leave university (work, leisure, social life).

Please complete quickly, circling the appropriate number
7 = Highly important
1= Unimportant

Ability to see opportunities in problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ability to take initiatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ability to analyse data	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ability to think creatively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Forward looking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Being optimism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sense of ownership (of events)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Determination to be independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Capacity to make judgments on the basis of limited information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ability to persuade others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ability to use social networks for career advantage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Feeling can control own destiny	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Capacity to work independently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Imaginative use of knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Desire to see things through	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ability to persuade others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Having lots of ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strong orientation to achieve	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

RESULTS

From sample of 50 University students(2005) attending a master class in Entrepreneurship at the Sussex University Campus, Brighton, organized by SEEDA UK

								formal	informal
								(out of 10)	
Ability to see opportunities in problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**4.5**	5.7
Ability to take initiatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**4.3**	6.3
Ability to analyse data	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**6.3**	5.4
Ability to think creatively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**5.0**	5.7
Forward looking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**5.1**	5.8
Being optimism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**4.4**	5.6
Sense of ownership (of events)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**4.6**	5.0
Determination to be independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**4.4**	6.0
Capacity to make judgments on the basis of limited information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**4.9**	5.5
Ability to persuade others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**4.8**	5.3
Ability to use social networks for career advantage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**4.8**	6.4
Feeling can control own destiny	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**4.8**	5.6
Capacity to work independently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**5.8**	6.0
Imaginative use of knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**5.7**	6.6
Desire to see things through	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**5.8**	6.2
Ability to persuade others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**4.8**	5.4
Having lots of ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**5.2**	6.6
Strong orientation to achieve	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**6.0**	6.3

*Formal= the formal study relationship with the university

Informal = other aspects of university life (social, leisure, living)

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= RESULTS OF PART 1 OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE (AVERAGE SCORE)

= RESULTS OF PART TWO SHOWING ESTIMATED UNIVERSITY
   INFLUENCE – FORMAL AND INFORMAL (SCORED OUT OF 10)