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Robin Anderson
University of Portland

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LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

Welcome to the *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*, a publication dedicated to the study, research and dissemination of information pertinent to improvement of methodologies and effectiveness of entrepreneurship education, including those principles of the free enterprise system necessary for the moral practice of entrepreneurship. The editorial board of *JEE* is comprised of both academic scholars and CEOs of many of America's best businesses. This bridging of theoretical excellence and applied excellence will result in a compilation of meaningful knowledge which will lead to excellence in entrepreneurship education.

The editorial board considers three types of manuscripts. First is empirical research which examines the many facets of entrepreneurship and which expands the body of knowledge of entrepreneurship education. Second, case studies that have a demonstrated effectiveness and bring new perspectives to entrepreneurship education are considered. Third, manuscripts which document successful applied innovations in entrepreneurship education are solicited.

We are actively soliciting papers for the next volume of the *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*. Recently, the process for submission of papers has been centralized through Allied Academies. All submissions are now electronic and go directly to Allied Academies. You may learn more about this process at http://www.alliedacademies.org/journal-instructions.html We are working to streamline our processes and will strive to have all papers reviewed and authors notified within three months of submission.

We are also seeking to grow our Editorial Review Board. If you are interested in reviewing submissions for the Journal, please submit a request with a copy of your vitae to info@alliedacademies.org.

Thank you for your interest in The Journal of Entrepreneurship Education.

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Respectfully,
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THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL MANUSCRIPTS

Manuscripts which appear in this section of the *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education* represent literature extensions. The Editorial Board judges such manuscripts on their ability to advance the entrepreneurship education literature from a theoretical and/or empirical perspective.

Winner of a Distinguished Research Award in the Academy for Students in Free Enterprise at the 2003 Allied Academies Fall International Conference in Las Vegas, NV, *An Interdisciplinary Approach to Entrepreneurship Education: The Cross-course Project Model* written by Brooke R. Envick, Thomas Madison, and H. Richard Priesmeyer, all of St. Mary's University describes an interdisciplinary approach to entrepreneurship education. A cross-course project model was developed that employs the content of one course to help teach the learning objectives of the other course, and vice versa. In addition to enhancing each course's learning objectives, the cross-course project model creates a situation of increased uncertainty and ambiguity for the students involved, which models the ambiguous and uncertain environments in which entrepreneurs must operate.

Drs. Robin T. Peterson and Shaun McQuitty, both of New Mexico State University investigated entrepreneurship education from an historic perspective. In their article entitled, *Utilization of Life History Analysis in Small Business and Entrepreneurship Courses: An Appraisal,* they provide suggestions as to how the life history approach to teaching can be advantageously utilized in a small business or entrepreneurship course. The discussion outlines the method in detail and supplies a consideration of its major advantages. In turn, a study is described which assessed the effectiveness of this pedagogical method, relative to other widely-employed instruction techniques in small business and entrepreneurship.

Student Perception of Entrepreneurs: A Cultural Perspective, written by a group of scholars Benjamin Martz, Jr., University of Colorado at Colorado Springs, Thomas C. Neil, Clark Atlanta University, Alessandro Biscaccianti, Groupe ESC Dijon and Robert J. Williams, University of Plymouth compared the perception of entrepreneurs held by students across three cultures: America, France and United Kingdom. The 2002 Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring (GEM) Total Entrepreneurship Activity (TEA) report suggests that the three countries have different cultures concerning entrepreneurship. The basic conjecture is that if the entrepreneur activity is different across these countries, then the perception of entrepreneurs across these cultures will differ also. A questionnaire was created and distributed to students in the three countries under study as part of their curriculum. The resulting analysis of 258 questionnaires found support for the basic conjecture that the perception of entrepreneurship differs between countries and in the direction predicted by the TEA report; the US students perceived the entrepreneurship lifestyle better and aspired more to that lifestyle than did students from the France or the UK.

Winner of a Distinguished Research Award in the Academy for Students in Free Enterprise at the 2003 Allied Academies Spring International Conference in Tunica, MS, Drs. Inge Nickerson and Richard Burroughs from Barry University report the results of an international survey of success factors in an article entitled *International Survey of Success Factors of National Champions Competing at the Sife World Cup 2002*. They suggested that Students in Free Enterprise, (SIFE) is developing a growing international presence, hosting the SIFE World Cup, which in 2002 drew national entries from 23 countries. SIFE team members "make a difference in the world", to quote one participant, through free enterprise education projects. But what motivates a college student to become a SIFE team member? And why do they stay SIFE team members when 78% of them report it required more of a commitment than anticipated? This paper traces twenty years of research on college student volunteerism to develop a questionnaire to answer these very questions. In addition, they asked about winning characteristics of the team.

A few years ago, as a result of the passage of new legislation by the Illinois General Assembly, Illinois Institute for Entrepreneurial Education (IIEE) was established. IIEE subsequently forged a partnership with a large Illinois institution of higher education allowing the Institute to offer for academic credit courses in entrepreneurship education to Illinois teachers. Through the above courses, IIEE has been providing K-14 teachers with the knowledge, skill sets, and instructional pedagogies needed to help their own students learn about entrepreneurship as a viable career option. Drs. Masoud Hemmasi and Lee Graf, of Illinois State University, present the results of a survey-based assessment study of the participating teachers and examines the effectiveness of the IIEE program in accomplishing its objectives, in their article, *Effectiveness of Entrepreneurship for Educators Programs: an Assessment Study*. The study results indicate that the IIEE entrepreneurship education for the educator program has succeeded in making teachers aware that entrepreneurship can be used as an effective means to get students to apply their knowledge of academic subjects to a real-world context and to make schoolwork more meaningful and relevant to their lives.

AN INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH TO ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION: THE CROSS-COURSE PROJECT MODEL

Brooke R. Envick, St. Mary's University
Thomas Madison, St. Mary's University
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ABSTRACT

This paper describes an interdisciplinary approach to entrepreneurship education. A cross-course project model was developed that employs the content of one course to help teach the learning objectives of the other course, and vice versa. In addition to enhancing each course's learning objectives, the cross-course project model creates a situation of increased uncertainty and ambiguity for the students involved, which models the ambiguous and uncertain environments in which entrepreneurs must operate.

The two classes used in this study were a senior-level entrepreneurship class called, "Business Plan Development & New Venture Creation", and a senior-level marketing class called, "Distribution & Pricing". The supply chain components taught in the distribution and pricing class were used to improve the business plans being developed in the entrepreneurship class, while allowing the distribution and pricing students to see these components within an entire business model.

At the conclusion of the cross-course project, students completed an assessment survey regarding project management issues such as dealing with uncertainty and ambiguity as well as the learning objectives associated with each course. The results were extremely positive and provided the much-needed information to improve the model. This paper describes the model used and assessment results, as well as the improved cross-course project model.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years entrepreneurship educators have begun to question traditional teaching approaches utilized in entrepreneurship curricula. For example, Gresham and Franklin (1996) contend that a traditional business core that emphasizes corporate education is not completely adequate for students who intend to start their own businesses. Likewise, Kuehn (1995) argues that traditional approaches to preparing students for the workplace are inappropriate for entrepreneurship

degrees. Envick (1999) completed a study that compared the needs of students in entrepreneurship programs with those in traditional business programs. Important differences were found including the need for more critical and strategic thinking as well as skills in creativity and problem solving, which coincides with the fact that entrepreneurs must deal with ambiguity and feel comfortable with uncertainty.

Other researchers have begun to identify teaching approaches that are more relevant and beneficial for students majoring in entrepreneurship. For example, Borgia and Segal (1999) advocate collaborative learning as a pedagogical method for teaching entrepreneurship since entrepreneurs must be able to work with a variety of people (i.e. lenders, customers, suppliers, employees, business partners).

This study introduces a cross-course project model that utilizes an interdisciplinary approach to education. We believe an interdisciplinary approach is quite suitable for entrepreneurship majors because it encompasses the ambiguity and uncertainty entrepreneurs often experience when launching and growing their businesses.

LITERATURE REVIEW

An examination of current college and university business school curricula reveals a substantial incidence of entrepreneurial programs and courses (Osborne, 2000). This is driven, in part, by the recognition that small business is a major economic force, particularly in terms of new job creation (Nunn & Ehlen, 2001). Yet, undergraduate education has often come under criticism for being too compartmentalized, and therefore, inadequate to prepare students for workplace demands. Although much of this criticism has its origins in discussions concerning general education (Kimskey, 2002), business curricula have suffered the same criticism (Smith, Hornsby, & Kite 2000).

This criticism faults business curricula for being primarily organized by discipline (i.e., the accounting department, the marketing department, the finance department, and so on). Discipline centered education may help students develop strong analytical skills (Borg & Borg, 2001), but it has been criticized for failing to give students the tools to deal with contemporary diversity and rapid change (Kimskey, 2002). It fails to help students learn to think critically, to make connections across courses, and to deal with uncertainty (Barzoni & Thorn, 2003; Kulnych, 1998). This occurs because narrowly focused, subject-driven education fails to recognize that contemporary problems fail to dissemble into neat parts. The whole of a problem is almost never a simple amalgamation of neatly defined parts. It is often chaotic, complex, and rarely predictable in a linear sense (Waddock, 1998; Newell, 2001).

These criticisms raise an interesting question concerning the efficacy of university efforts to teach entrepreneurship - specifically, "How can a discipline centered curriculum effectively teach the skills associated with successful entrepreneurship?"

After all, the very nature of entrepreneurship is centered in dealing with uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity. The tolerance for uncertainty can be traced back to the work in the nineteen-twenties by Knight (Emmett, 1999) and to Glennon's (1966) work. This characteristic has continued to emerge in trait-approach research of entrepreneurs' characteristics. Begley and Boyd (1987) found that entrepreneurs have a high tolerance for ambiguity. Likewise, Shane and Venkataramann (2000) contend that those with a high tolerance for ambiguity are more likely to take the risk of starting an entrepreneurial venture. Other research has shown that entrepreneurs actually feel comfortable with uncertainty, lack of clarity and lack of structure (Lambing & Kuehl, 2000). This ability to handle uncertainty is critical because entrepreneurs constantly make decisions using new and sometime conflicting information from a variety of sources.

One pedagogical solution suggested for curing the deficiencies of functional or discipline centered university education is interdisciplinary courses. Bariszoni and Thorn (2003) and Borg and Borg (2001) are two examples from among many which suggest that interdisciplinary courses are better avenues for helping students learn to deal with complexity, uncertainty, and ambiguity. Interdisciplinary course are seen as a solution for at least two reasons. First, the very presence of two or more instructors from different disciplines for the same course disrupts the parochial view of a single discipline and adds elements of uncertainty and complexity with which students must contend (Kulynych, 1998). Second, interdisciplinary courses, by their nature, teach students that each discipline has different standards for evaluating things. It has the potential to illustrate for students the strengths and weaknesses of each disciplinary approach, and the potential to teach students to weigh the usefulness of various subjects in the context of the problem (Borg & Borg, 2001).

It only requires a cursory examination of the current education literature to realize that the advocacy of interdisciplinary courses is widespread. Yet, an examination of curricula also reveals that the adoption of interdisciplinary courses is modest, at best. The lack of widespread reliance on interdisciplinary courses relates to several factors, but primarily to the administrative scheduling and budgetary problems they cause (Bariszoni & Thorn, 2003). Quite simply, the budgetary and personnel constraints under which most universities operate make scheduling interdisciplinary courses a headache-laden affair.

This paper describes an approach designed to accomplish the perceived benefits of interdisciplinary courses without the administrative problems commonly associated with them.

CURRENT STUDY: THE CROSS-COURSE PROJECT MODEL

The researchers involved in the current study designed a model for a cross-course project that utilizes the interdisciplinary approach to entrepreneurship education. This model eliminates many of the common barriers, such as budgetary, time, and personnel dilemmas, and it can be utilized with almost any two courses across campus, not just entrepreneurship courses. The cross-course project

model has seven steps, which include: (1) course identification; (2) selecting out specific course material from the identified courses; (3) forming students teams and setting the scenario; (4) a project management report submitted by the student teams; (5) a progress report submitted by the teams; (6) a final project report submitted by the teams; and (7) a cross-course project assessment completed by the students. Each of these steps is described below.

The first step is to identify a course in which the content being taught can be useful and beneficial to students in another course. The chosen courses can range from being from the same discipline (e.g. both in entrepreneurship) to being in completely separate schools (e.g. one in business and one in engineering). In the current study, a senior-level entrepreneurship class called, "Business Plan Development & New Venture Creation" and a senior-level marketing class called, "Distribution & Pricing" were used to test the model. This makes sense because distribution and pricing issues are critical for entrepreneurs to assess when launching a new venture. Likewise, students in a distribution and pricing class have the opportunity to see how the material they are studying fits into an entire business model.

The second step is a meeting between the instructors of both courses. During the meeting, content from both classes is discussed so that the instructors can identify specific course material from which they can base a cross-course project. In our study, 10 supply chain management components taught in the distribution and pricing course were incorporated into business plans already being developed in the entrepreneurship class. Likewise, the students in the distribution and pricing class had the opportunity to see how the ten supply chain management components affected different aspects of an entire business model instead of analyzing them from a stand alone perspective.

Step three involves creating the teams and setting the scenario for the students in both classes. The scenario we used had student teams from the distribution and pricing class serve as supply chain consultants to the business plan teams from the entrepreneurship class. The teams from each class were assigned a number, and a point of contact was identified on each team. Instructors from both classes obtained contact information for the students. Then, the point of contact from each team in the distribution and pricing class initiated communication with the point of contact from the team in the entrepreneurship class with the same team number.

The fourth step is a project management report submitted by the student teams. This report describes how the corresponding teams in each class plan to communicate, organize the workload, and control the process. This is one report developed by both teams from the two classes and turned into their respective instructors. Instructors can compare reports to ensure congruence and uniformity. It is important that the instructors have these reports due on or very close to the same date.

Step five is a progress report developed independently by each team in each class. It should be submitted about half way through the project's time frame. This report communicates to the instructor how the original project management protocol is working, how much work has been

accomplished to date, and how the remaining work will be completed. In addition, individual students from each team discuss how the cross-course project is helping them understand the course material from their respective courses. For example, each student from the entrepreneurship class included a one-page report on how the supply chain components directly impacted the structure, goals, and activities of the portion of the business plan for which he/she was responsible. Individual students in the distribution and pricing class turned in a similar progress report that communicates his/her understanding of the supply chain in light of its impact on an entire business model.

The sixth step is a final report developed by the teams regarding the outcome of the project. The report turned in by a team in one class should be identical to the report turned in by the corresponding team in the other class. In our case, this report contained information on specific practices the business-plan teams adopted to ensure compliance with the 10 components of the supply chain and a statement of the overall impact on the business plan.

The final step for the cross-course project is an assessment by the students. Basically, each student assesses the benefits gained by being involved in and completing the project. Some of the questions can be the same for both classes, such as questions regarding project management issues. Other questions will differ between the classes. This divergence is necessary so that each instructor can assess course-specific objectives. For example, the instructor in the entrepreneurship class asked her students questions relating to a better understanding of business plan. The instructor in the distribution and pricing class asked his students questions relating to a better understanding of supply chain management as well as wholism and dialogue, which was also taught during the semester. Descriptive statistics on these assessments are presented in the next section of the paper.

ASSESSMENT RESULTS

Thirty-one students participating in the cross-course project each completed a survey to assess the two main areas: (1) the heightened level of uncertainty and ambiguity they experienced, and (2) a better understanding of the learning objectives in each course.

Uncertainty and Ambiguity

In terms of project management issues, the professors intended for this project to be more difficult than traditional team exercises in order to provide students with a solid project management exercise. The goal was also to put the students in a situation with considerably more uncertainty and ambiguity than they normally experience. When asked how difficult it was to manage the project in the three areas of communication, organizing the work, and controlling the process, students responded in the following manner:

13% = less difficult
21% = about the same
29% = slightly more difficult
21% = more difficult
16% = considerably more difficult

These figures illustrate that the project did create a more difficult situation for most students in terms of project management issues. However, it was not so difficult that it was impossible for them to handle. When asked if the project management report and progress report (steps four and five of the model) helped them stay on track to complete the project, 84% responded 'yes'. Therefore, these steps are critical tools in the cross-course project model as they clearly assist student teams in dealing with the increased uncertainty and ambiguity.

Other aspects of the project also created ambiguity for the student teams. One factor was that two different professors administered the project. For many students, this created some complexity. Sixty-eight percent reported that they found working under two different professors to be from 'somewhat' to 'extremely' difficult. Again, this difficulty was a planned and integral part of the cross-course project, but was at a level that the students were able to manage.

Ninety-three percent of students reported that they had to rely on subject matter not taught in either of the two classes to complete the project. Likewise, 90% of them said they had to come up with answers that they could not look up in a book. These statistics also illustrate the ambiguous nature of the cross-course project as students had to utilize knowledge acquired outside of either class.

Learning Objectives

In terms of the learning objectives of the project, it appears that a majority of the students did attain a better understanding of their course material by being involved in and completing the project. When asked if they had a better understanding of the business plan (entrepreneurship class)/supply chain components (distribution and pricing class) as a result of the cross-course project, 68% of the students responded 'yes'. When asked if issues emerged as a result of the cross-course project that they would not have otherwise considered, 65% responded 'yes'. When the entrepreneurship students were asked if the cross-course project helped them make improvements to their business plan, 80% replied 'yes'. The distribution and pricing students were asked if the concepts of wholism and dialogue were helpful in completing the project. Eighty-two percent responded 'yes'.

Therefore, it appears that the cross-course project did accomplish its second goal, as students evidently gained a better understanding of course-specific objectives as a result of completing the project. Thus, the cross-course project proved to be a valuable tool to both the students and professors as it helped accomplish the learning objectives originally developed for each course.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The overall results of the cross-course project appeared to enhance student learning. One student said, "I learned a great deal in a fun context." Another responded, "It showed us how you must use all your knowledge together to be successful." The students also had to rely on interpersonal skills. One student said, "This project showed us the importance of good communication and teamwork". Another replied, "It taught me how to work on a big team." They also seemed to enjoy learning from each other. One student said, "I liked getting constructive criticism and suggestions from peers, not just professors." Another stated, "The other team provided different views and solutions than we did." In addition to the overall benefits attained, course-specific benefits emerged.

Each professor asked students questions relating to a better understanding of course objectives as a result of the cross-course project. Both classes responded favorably. In the business plan class, one student said, "The supply chain information gave me a better idea of what we were actually planning." Another stated, "The other team provided good suggestions we neglected to put in our business plan." In the distribution and pricing class, one student responded, "Because of the cross-course project, we have a better understanding of the difficult and in-depth process of the supply chain." Another stated, "The cross-course project helped me understand the concepts of wholism and dialogue", while another student said, "Understanding the concepts of wholism and dialogue helped us put the information together for our cross-course project." Therefore, it seemed to work both ways, where the cross-course project helped students understand specific course material better, while at the same time, specific course material helped them succeed on the project. The reliance on other subject matter was quite evident. Students listed eight other courses they relied upon in order to complete the project. These courses included accounting, finance, production management, marketing research, promotions, human resources management, communications, and management consulting. In addition to courses, students indicated they relied on outside sources such as small business owners, Internet sources, and other books besides their texts.

The project management and progress reports were obviously essential components. One student commented, "It provided a good structure and guide." Another said, "It helped to do the work in steps, instead of all at once." One student responded, "It kept us on task and gave us a timeline."

While there were many positive assessment outcomes, there is certainly some room for improvement. Students were asked what the main challenges were and how to overcome those challenges. The major dilemmas were: (1) finding a time when all members from both teams could meet; (2) not all requirements being exactly the same for both classes; (3) not enough time allotted to complete the project; (4) the different expectations (differing grade weights) between the classes; and (5) not completely understanding what the goals were of the professor in the other class.

For all students to understand each professor's goals, differing expectations, and unique requirements for each course, students generated several good solutions. One student suggested, "We should have the other professor come into class and tell us what he wants to accomplish." Another said, "There should be a separate meeting with the students and professors from both classes." One student stated, "It would be helpful to have a copy of the other team's course syllabus and assignment." Another replied, "Some class sessions should have been spent discussing the project." In the future we intend to incorporate all of these suggestions. We will have a mandatory meeting where all students and both professors attend. At the meeting, all students will receive a copy of the opposite course's syllabus and assignment description. Both professors will present their expectations and goals. After the project begins, each professor will make at least one appearance in the other's class to talk to the teams about how they are progressing on their projects. Likewise, each professor will spend more time in his/her own class discussing the project.

The problem with identifying a good time for all team members to meet is a tricky one. Several groups accomplished this by utilizing alternative ways of communicating, such as e-mail and phone conversations. If the work is organized clearly and everyone maintains an open line of communication, it is not a necessity that everyone be present for every meeting. Students should rely on other forms of communication to handle this challenge.

The differing grade weights between classes also created a dilemma. The cross-course project was worth 20% of the course grade in the business plan class, while only 10% of the course grade in the distribution and pricing class. This made the business plan students feel like they were "under more pressure, and "having to take the project more seriously" than the other team. In the future we suggest that professors who do engage in a cross-course project agree upon the weight assigned to the project, and at a maximum, have no more than a 5% difference.

Overall, the cross-course project was very worthwhile to the students and professors alike, especially in a discipline such as entrepreneurship where majors need a broad knowledge base and the skills to handle uncertainty and ambiguity. Several students commented that it was a "good experience" and that they "learned a great deal". We highly suggest that other professors utilize this teaching approach with entrepreneurship courses as well as other curricula. As a guideline, we provided a 25-item checklist in Appendix A of this paper, which incorporates what we did right and corrects what we did wrong throughout the cross-course project experience. This guideline serves as the new cross-course project model.

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APPENDIX A: THE NEW CROSS-COURSE PROJECT MODEL: A 25-ITEM CHECKLIST	
1.	___ Start planning the semester beforehand.
2.	___ Make sure the content from each course adds value to the other course.
3.	___ Hold a meeting between the professors from both courses as soon as possible.
4.	___ At the meeting, identify specific material from each course on which to base the project.
5.	___ At the meeting, clearly identify the learning objectives of the project for both classes.
6.	___ At the meeting, set the project grade weight the same in each course (no more than 5% diff).
7.	___At the meeting, develop a timeline for the project including specific due dates for each report.
8.	___Attempt to set identical due dates between the courses, or as close as possible.
9.	___Inform the students, as early as possible, that a cross-course project is a part of the course.
10.	___Put student teams together that have a good balance of knowledge and skills.
11.	___ Ensure that the number of teams is the same in each class.
12.	___ Set a meeting date and time for all students and both professors to attend.
13.	___ At the meeting, match up the teams and allow time for them to get to know each other.
14.	___ At the meeting, one professor describes the scenario to all students.
15.	___ At the meeting, both professors explain their goals as they relate to their respective courses.
16.	___ At the meeting, provide all students with the timeline and due dates for the project reports.
17.	___ During the semester, allow a little time in each class session to talk about the project.
18.	___ Students turn in the project management report on the given due date.
19.	___ The professors meet to compare reports to ensure congruence and uniformity.
20.	___ Each professor makes a 5-minute appearance in the other class to address questions/concerns.
21.	___ Students turn in the progress report on the given due date.
22.	___ Each professor makes a 5-minute appearance in the other class to address questions/concerns.
23.	___ Students turn in the final project report.
24.	___ Students complete a cross-course project assessment.
25.	___ The professors meet to compare final project reports and assessment results.

UTILIZATION OF LIFE HISTORY ANALYSIS IN SMALL BUSINESS AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP COURSES: AN APPRAISAL

Robin T. Peterson, New Mexico State University
Shaun McQuitty, New Mexico State University

ABSTRACT

This article provides suggestions as to how the life history approach to teaching can be advantageously utilized in a small business or entrepreneurship course. The discussion outlines the method in detail and supplies a consideration of its major advantages. In turn, a study is described which assessed the effectiveness of this pedagogical method, relative to other widely-employed instruction techniques in small business and entrepreneurship.

INTRODUCTION

Those instructors who are responsible for small business and entrepreneurship classes are in a position to choose from a large variety of alternative pedagogical methods. The alternatives normally include lecture, class discussion, seminars, written and oral projects, case analysis, computer simulation, business consulting, role playing, and experiential exercises. Experience has indicated that each of these methods can be useful as means of conveying knowledge, attitudes, skills, and philosophies of business to undergraduate and graduate students. It can be expected that new methods and variations on older ones will emerge as the discipline and its associated technology matures with the passage of time. This paper investigates the potential value of one method which appears to deserve consideration–life history analysis.

Every pedagogical technique has its own unique set of benefits and disadvantages. One property that most share is that they are designed to achieve company objectives through strategies and tactics which have been demonstrated through experience to be successful. It is presumed that these actions will have a high probability of success in any given application. However, experience indicates that strategies and tactics which tend to be effective for small business managers and entrepreneurs in general may not be of value for all.

The small business literature sets forth numerous prescriptions which experience has indicated to be useful courses of action. One study has indicated, for example, that small business managers are in need of skills in such areas as setting price, analyzing company strengths and

weaknesses, and using cash flow information to make decisions (Romero & Gray, 2002). Another study suggests that many small business managers should devote more time and effort to managing the cost of capital than they are present (Coleman & Cohn, 2000). A third inquiry proposes that small business managers should devote more attention to follow-up to consultants' recommendations, in order to benefit adequately from these recommendations (Ames, 1998). An investigation of global marketing efforts suggests that entrepreneurs in the U.S. need not necessarily follow a slow sequenced pattern to enter international markets effectively but that they compete early in these markets, often at their onset (Bluegood, Sapienza, & Almeida, 1996). Finally, the results of an empirical survey indicate that small business firms should attempt to identify economical marketing strategies which lead to expanding new markets, extending credit and dealing with advertising costs (Weinrauch, Mann, Robinson, & Pharr, 1991).

The studies set forth above all prescribe generic courses of action for small business managers and entrepreneurs. However, the strategies, tactics, philosophies, and methods which the typical firm may find to be useful may not be of value for a particular enterprise. On the other hand, individual managers and entrepreneurs are likely to be quite different and might not prosper through avenues which assist others. These individuals often have very dissimilar characteristics, values, resources, experience, education, and other properties. Further, the environment within which they operate often varies. Thus, the strategies and tactics which they should pursue may be quite different from those which fit other firms and customary patterns.

Another shortcoming of many pedagogical methods is that they do not always take synergy into account, when prescribing desirable decision making techniques–"Our orientation of management education is still based on a reductionist, isolationist, and linear paradigm"(Zhichang, 1999). Yet, small business managers and entrepreneurs are well-advised to search for synergy when they make decisions. This attribute is the condition where it is realized that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts and is an open and relatively permanent system. By applying some combination of strategies and tactics, small business managers and entrepreneurs can produce solutions to problems and novel innovations that fit the environment confronting the company at any given time (See: Osegowitsch, 2001; Genus & Kaplani, 2002). But the composition of the whole and the ways in which the components behave vary from one company to another. Individual small business managers and entrepreneurs often discover that superior decisions come about through a consideration of their unique strengths, characteristics, and environment. Hence, they may find that the decisions, as well as the theories and principles underlying these decisions, which are best for them are quite different from those which would benefit others. (Atuahena-Gima & Ko, 2001). In this sense, the application of synergistic principles can be a major forerunner to innovative and creative insights which have the potential for engendering innovation in the organization (Amabile, 1997; Simina, 2000).

A major portion of the research and theory development effort that takes place today stresses the problem-resolution, cognitive, and behavioral attributes of small business managers and

entrepreneurs (See, for example: Abbey, 2002; Vitell, Dickerson, & Festervand, 2000; Peterson 1998; Cavalluzzo & Cavalluzo, 1998; Blanchflower & Oswald, 1998; Watson, Ponthieu, & Critelli, 1995; Elango & Fried, 1997). Further, the literature contains a large number of studies indicating that small business managers and entrepreneurs are well advised to develop and refine their creative capabilities (See, for example: Lichtenstein, 1999; Vossen, 1998; Peters, 1996, Slater, 1995; Peterson, 1993). And yet, most of the traditional methods of instruction strive to impart conventional, rather than novel or inventive avenues for attaining goals and overcoming difficulties. These methods can have the effect of creating and solidifying the notion that specific solutions to problems, techniques, and processes are always superior to other alternatives. Hence, they neglect the notions of synergism and of differences between companies.

Experience indicates that new and improved pedagogical methods are needed, in order to advance the state of small business and entrepreneurship instruction (Festervand & Forrest, 1993). In turn, research suggests that the conventional lecture technique, while useful, should be supplemented with other methods of instruction, in order to produce effective learning on the part of students in these fields (Dalley & Hamilton, 2000). This perspective has led to the utilization of numerous methods of instruction (Hansen & Kahnweiler, 1997; Saunders, 1998; Reynolds, 1998; Cohen, 1998; Simpson, French, & Vince, 2000; Fogg, 2001; Pedelty, 2001). It appears that, in any given course, the utilization of a variety of pedagogical methods is often superior to reliance upon only one or a limited number of methods (Lengnick-Hall & Sanders, 1997). A major advantage of doing this is that the presentation of materials appeals to multiple intelligences and this can be a major contributor to successful learning (Willis & Johnson, 2001). Life history analysis is a technique which can be of assistance in imparting this output of students in small business and entrepreneurship.

LIFE HISTORY LITERATURE REVIEW

The process of employing the life history pedagogical method for small business and entrepreneurship courses consists of a number of steps. These are as follows:

1.	Selecting the person whose life history is to be depicted.
2.	Preparing the written life history.
3.	Require students to read the life history and prepare for classroom discussion.
4.	Require students to prepare a short paper focusing on key questions and submit this to the instructor.
5.	In the classroom, require small groups of students to seek consensus on their answers to the key questions.
6.	In the classroom, attempt to reach consensus on the part of the class at large.
7.	In the classroom, the instructor summarizes the student discussion

The first step is to select the person whose life history is to be depicted. This individual should be someone who has completed or is in the process of undertaking a very successful career in small business and/or entrepreneurship, such as the founder of an outstanding company or a manager who has been instrumental in turning around an unprofitable enterprise. The criteria for the choice of the individual are exceptional execution of responsibilities and/or acknowledgment by the business community and academia for outstanding achievement. In turn, other criteria which could be employed are related to measurable performance and include company revenues, market share, profitability, and fulfillment of social responsibilities,

Once the selection of a preeminent small business manager or entrepreneur has been completed, the writing of the life history can begin. In turn, this document should cover a wide scope and should furnish substantial particulars relating to the past events, background, status, and achievements surrounding this person. Further, it should cover his or her entire life span and should provide details on such matters as family status and relationships, friends and significant others, powerful experiences, individuality, philosophies, appointment held, everyday actions, and methods of achieving goals. The objective is to generate a comprehensive portrayal of the actions and background of the high achiever.

There are several good sources of information and data which can be of value in writing the life history. Some appear in professional magazines, such as Forbes, Business Week, Fortune, Industrial Marketing, Nation's Business, Inc., In Business, International Entrepreneur, Venture, and Franchising Today. Sometimes these volumes will produce what amounts to what amounts to a full-fledged life history and sometimes only a portion of that history which must be supplemented by other sources. Another possibility is to rely upon case studies which are available in academic small business and entrepreneurship case books, the proceedings of case-writers' professional associations, and the output of universities such as Harvard. Very often these accounts are very comprehensive in nature. Both professional magazine articles and cases can be supplemented with objective material from biographical series, such as the Who's Who volumes.

Another option is for the professors of small business and entrepreneurship courses themselves to collect information directly from the successful individuals who are chosen and from others who have detailed knowledge about these individuals. Interviews with these parties can be arranged and substantial amounts of detailed insights obtained, as a result. This can be an intellectually-rewarding experience for the professor, as he or she is in the position to secure a wealth of intimate knowledge about the person chosen for study.

Once the life history has been written and carefully edited, it can be reproduced and given to students for their perusal. They should be advised to subject the written account to careful perusal and to be prepared to discuss their impressions in class. (The appendix sets forth a set of suggested directions for students). All of the members of the class examine the written account of the same small business manager or entrepreneur. A useful practice is to require that they concentrate their efforts on responding to three key questions. These are as follows:

1.	What were the background/experience factors that appear to have contributed to the success of the small business manager or entrepreneur?
2.	What strategies, tactics, and philosophies appear to have been instrumental in making the small business manager or entrepreneur successful?
3.	What have you learned in this exercise that you might employ in your own future small business management or entrepreneurship activity?

Every member of the class is required to prepare and turn in a short paper which provides answers to the three questions. The students are informed that they should focus their analysis on the following areas of inquiry :

1.	The childhood experiences and training that appear to have contributed to the success of the small business manager or entrepreneur.
2.	Positions that this high-achiever has held that may have contributed to his (her) success.
3.	Ways in which the education of the small business manager or entrepreneur has contributed to his (her) success.
4.	Other factors, such as significant others, important events, and changes in status, that have contributed to his (her) success.
5.	Strategies, tactics, and principles that this individual has employed to achieve goals.
6.	Philosophies that this small business manager or entrepreneur has embraced that may have accounted for some of his (her) success.

The authors have discovered that when students direct their attention to the three key questions and six areas of inquiry, they are able to conduct a relevant assessment of small business and entrepreneurship activity. Numerous students have indicated that the questions and areas of inquiry are very useful in conducting their analysis. It should be noted that these guidelines are generic, to a considerable extent, and hence can be utilized for life histories of persons in other business endeavors, such as the management of large companies and nonprofit entities.

The next step in life history analysis takes place in the classroom. The students are formed into groups, ranging from three to ten members, to discuss the life history material and to attempt to reach consensus on their answers to the three key questions, based upon their focus on the six areas of inquiry. After approximately thirty minutes of discussion, a spokesperson for each group describes the conclusions reached in the group deliberations to the class at large.

Once all of the spokespersons have announced their conclusions, the entire class exchanges ideas on the life history. The instructor's objective is to aspire for consensus on the portions of the life history which rationalize the success of the small business manager or entrepreneur. Sometimes, however, it is difficult to arrive at consensus. When this occurs, class members present their

arguments and attempt to rectify opposing points of view, and discover the reasons for these differences. Frequently, members of the groups and of the class at large cannot achieve consensus. When this occurs, the instructor is presented with a favorable combination of circumstances to discuss the significance of variations in perceptions among individuals.

The final step in life history analysis involves a summary, made by the instructor, of the major elements of agreement and disagreement among class members and a statement of the instructor's opinions regarding the life history. This step is useful, as a means of conveying to the class the results of their efforts and the insights which they should have acquired.

The life history method, as outlined above, presents some major advantages as a pedagogical tool. One is that this method can establish in the minds of students an awareness of and appreciation for the significance of synergism in a small business or entrepreneurial setting. This is the case since numerous elements, such as the high achiever's past experiences, environment, behavior, and philosophies orchestrate in a pattern that produces success. Another advantages is that lifestyle analysis can produce considerable student involvement, participation, and sense of excitement, as they take on an active role in searching as to which elements advanced the status of the high-achiever under study. This frame of mind is conducive to learning (Bodi, 1988). Further, this method is pragmatic, in that it concentrates on an individual manager or entrepreneur and information related to his or her behavior and characteristics. In sum, lifestyle analysis can generate considerable student understanding and stimulation to learn.

HYPOTHESES

This paper addresses several hypotheses related to the discussion above. These are as follows

H1:	Students will report that the life history method produces greater learning than case analysis, discussion groups, and lecture material.
H2:	Students will report that the life history method has more practical value than case analysis, discussion groups, and lecture material.
H3:	Students will report that the life history method has greater ability to create interest in a career in small business or entrepreneurship than case analysis, discussion groups, and lecture material.
H4:	Students will report that the life history method better motivates them to achieve in small business and entrepreneurship than case analysis, discussion groups, and lecture material.

THE STUDY

A study was undertaken to appraise the potential of life history study for small business and entrepreneurship courses. The respondents were students enrolled in a small business and entrepreneurship class over a four year period at a Southwestern university. Seventy-eight percent

of the students were business majors, while the others were primarily engineering, hotel and restaurant management, and agriculture majors. The students were enrolled in six separate small business and entrepreneurship classes over the four year time period. The end-of-semester enrollments in each of the classes (making up the sample for the study) were 28, 21, 39, 47, 31, and 30, for a total sample size of 196.

Each class met for thirty-two, one hour instructional sessions during the semester. The instruction for each class consisted of four groups of sessions, each utilizing eight class meetings. The four groups were (a) lecture, (b) case analysis, (c) discussion groups, and (d) life history analysis. The lectures consisted of standard treatments of the major activities involved in small business and entrepreneurship–such as finance, marketing, and operations management. The case analysis involved assessing eight cases, one for each class meeting, both orally and in writing. In turn, the discussion groups were clusters of approximately five students who were given the task of discussing germane small business and entrepreneurship topics, such as the advantages of legal organization arrangements and how to raise venture capital. Finally, the life history sessions were undertaken in the manner described in previous pages.

The order of the four groups of pedagogical techniques was changed for each succeeding class after the first. Thus, each group was employed first for one class, second for another, third for another, and fourth for another. The goal was to eliminate order of presentation bias. A test for order of presentation revealed that it did not significantly affect the measures.

The researchers requested the students to employ self-assessments, as a means of evaluating the worth of the four groups of teaching methods. The evaluations were undertaken immediately after the presentation of each teaching method, as a means of minimizing possible contamination of the measurements by the other methods. Each student subject was asked to evaluate each of the four in terms of (a) How much did I learn from these sessions? (b) What is the practical value of these sessions for my future job success? (c) What was the value of these sessions in interesting me in a career in small business or entrepreneurship? and (d) What was the value of these sessions in motivating me to achieve in small business or entrepreneurship? These four questions have been employed in past examinations of the effectiveness of life style analysis as a learning tool (Peterson, 1994). Each of these four dimensions was assessed on a seven-point semantic differential scale anchored by "Very much" and "Very little".

Table one sets forth the mean scores for each of the four teaching methods on the dimension "How much did I learn?" The lecture method produced the highest mean score, in terms of how much the students perceived that they learned from this teaching technique. This was followed by life history, case analysis, and discussion groups. However, Tukey k tests revealed that there were not significant differences between the mean score values of lecture, life history, and case analysis. However, all three were significantly greater than discussion groups. It can be concluded that all three appear to have a key role in imparting knowledge. The life history method appears to have produced substantial perceived learning, although the first hypothesis must be rejected.

Table One	
The Four Methods Mean Scores on the Scale "How Much Did I Learn?"	
Instructional Method	Mean Score
Lecture	5.4
Life History	5.1
Case Analysis	4.7*
Discussion Groups	3.5
• Identifies a group mean that is significantly greater than the next smallest mean, according to a Tukey k test at the .05 level.	

Table Two sets forth the mean scores for the question: "What is the practical value to me of these sessions for future job success?" The mean scores, in descending order of magnitude, are lecture, case analysis, life history, and discussion groups. None of the mean scores are significantly different from the others, according to the Tukey k tests. The implication is that all four methods are perceived as being useful in imparting insights that are expected to contribute to on-the-job performance, However, the second hypothesis must be rejected.

Table Two	
Four Methods Mean Scores on the Scale for Practical Value in Future Job Success	
Instructional Method	Mean Score
Lecture	5.9
Case Analysis	5.9
Life History	5.6
Discussion Groups	5.4
• Identifies a group mean that is significantly greater than the next smallest mean, according to a Tukey k test at the .05 level.	

Table Three presents the mean score values for the dimension "What is the value of these sessions in interesting me in a career in small business or entrepreneurship?" Life history draws the highest score, and this is significantly greater than the values for the other three methods. Case analysis produces the second highest value and this exceeds that of discussion groups and lecture. Finally, the discussion group's mean is significantly larger than that for lecture. These results provide support for the third hypothesis. Students, then, rate the life history method on a high plateau when it comes to generating interest in a career in small business or entrepreneurship.

Table Three	
Four Methods Mean Scores on the Scale for Increasing Me in a Career	
Instructional Method	Mean Score
Life History	5.7*
Case Analysis	5.0*
Discussion Groups	4.1*
Lecture	3.3
* Identifies a group mean that is significantly greater than the next smallest mean, according to a Tukey k test at the .05 level.	

Table Four sets forth group means for the question "What was the value of these sessions in motivating me to achieve in entrepreneurship?" The purpose of this question was to assess the motivation power of each method under study. In this case the life history mean is larger than that of any other group, but is not significantly greater than case analysis. Life history and case analysis are significantly larger than discussion groups and lecture, and discussion groups are significantly greater than lecture. Generally, the data in the table provide support for the fourth hypothesis. The life history technique appears to have been a strong motivator to achieve in small business and entrepreneurship.

Table Four	
Four Methods Mean Scores on the Scale for Motivating Me to Achieve	
Instructional Method	Mean Score
Life History	6.0
Case Analysis	5.7*
Discussion Groups	4.5*
Lecture	3.2
• Identifies a group mean that is significantly greater than the next smallest mean, according to a Tukey k test at the .05 level.	

In sum, the life history technique offers potential value for usage in small business and entrepreneurship courses. The technique offers advantages in terms of promoting learning, being of practical value to students, instilling interest in small business and entrepreneurship as a career, and promoting achievement in entrepreneurship.

DISCUSSION

The life history approach is a potential contributor to improving instruction, as a supplement to other pedagogical methods brought into play in small business and entrepreneurship courses. The technique offers powerful elements of realism, accounts for synergism in combining disparate inputs into small business and entrepreneurship activity, and can be instrumental in motivating students to achieve. The method requires intensive study of the background of successful small business managers and entrepreneurs and subsequent analysis which attempts to identify factors that have contributed to the achievements.

This paper has described a study which indicated that the life history procedure may be of value in accomplishing certain pedagogical ends. This are imparting insights, furnishing practical value, interesting students in careers in small business and entrepreneurship, and supplying motivation to achieve in small business and entrepreneurship roles.

The authors have discovered that certain measures are essential for the practical implementation of this approach. One is that a good subject (the successful small business manager or entrepreneur) should be selected–one who has achieved significantly and who has an interesting history. Further, the narrative must be written in such a manner that it is of interest to students and is sufficiently comprehensive in coverage. Students are especially interested in subjects such as Bill Gates, who have been especially able to accomplish major feats and who have been recognized for their contributions.

Sometimes the professor can develop his or her own narratives about local (college town or region) small business managers and entrepreneurs who have been extraordinarily productive. If the small business manager or entrepreneur can be convinced to speak to the class about his or her background and activities, this can be particularly interesting and rewarding to the students in the class.

Most professors will find that the life history pedagogical method is best employed as a supplement to other techniques, such as lecture and case analysis, and not as a replacement for either or both of these. The method appears to have considerable usefulness, but it cannot be expected to accomplish all of the broad objectives of the other approaches to learning which are in wide usage.

When students are required to read and analyze a life history, professors are well advised to specifically instruct them to earnestly attempt an effort at uncovering possible synergies that may have been in operation. Otherwise, many students tend to search for single factors accounting for success and miss the point that a combination of elements may have been responsible for the favorable outcomes.

Finally, the students should be graded on their written and oral efforts directed to analyzing the life histories. Merely employing the technique in class without furnishing feedback to students and rewards to those who produce superior work is likely to engender apathy. In this regard, the

students can be evaluated on the comprehensiveness, realism, logic, and creativity of their life history analysis.

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STUDENT PERCEPTION OF ENTREPRENEURS: A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to compare the perception of entrepreneurs held by students across three cultures: America, France and United Kingdom. The 2002 Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring (GEM) Total Entrepreneurship Activity (TEA) report suggests that the three countries have different cultures concerning entrepreneurship. The basic conjecture is that if the entrepreneur activity is different across these countries, then the perception of entrepreneurs across these cultures will differ also. A questionnaire was created and distributed to students in the three countries under study as part of their curriculum. The resulting analysis of 258 questionnaires found support for the basic conjecture that the perception of entrepreneurship differs between countries and in the direction predicted by the TEA report; the US students perceived the entrepreneurship lifestyle better and aspired more to that lifestyle than did students from the France or the UK.

BACKGROUND

Overview

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) program is a truly ambitious project undertaken to "describe and analyze entrepreneurial processes within a wide range of nations." (Reynolds et al. 2002). The 2002 GEM report gives some hints to the vastness of the sphere considered entrepreneurship. Data for the report was collected from 37 countries representing about 62% of the world's population. Interviews, surveys and compilation of standardized information contributed to the database. The objective of the GEM study is to provide a summary report on differences in global entrepreneurship activity at a national aggregate level.

The GEM researchers have created a composite index, Total Entrepreneurship Activity (TEA), to help with the comparison of entrepreneurship activity. The TEA is made up of nascent

entrepreneurs (those workers involved with a start up) and of managers in companies that are less than 42 months old. This TEA index has been shown to correlate strongly with a whole battery of alternate measures for entrepreneurship including, but not limited to, actual number of start-up efforts, start up efforts creating new markets, opportunity-based entrepreneurship. In 2002, the US rated 11th, France rated 34th and United Kingdom rated 16th on the TEA.

The summary report includes a generic profile for an entrepreneur and a discussion of factors that seem to motivate entrepreneurs. In a ratio of 2:1, men are more likely to be involved with entrepreneurship than women. The most active age for entrepreneurs is 25-34 followed by the 18-24 when looking at those entrepreneurs that choose to enter entrepreneurship (opportunity entrepreneurs). The results of the expert focus groups used in the study show that three areas; government policies, cultural & social norms, and education & training dominated the discussions. The statistical results of the expert's data showed significant correlations (both negatively correlated) for only two areas; financial support and protection of intellectual property rights. Three socio-demographic characteristics that emerged, as indicators of likely entrepreneur activity were 1.) knowing someone that had started his or her own business in the past two years 2.) low fear of failure, and 3.) having the skills and ability to undertake a startup.

Defining Entrepreneur

Clearly, the GEM report defines entrepreneur activity with an extremely broad definition. However, there is no clear, consistent use of entrepreneur in the research. At least two scales, the Entrepreneurial Quotient (EQ) and the Entrepreneurial Attitude Orientation (EAO) (Huefner et al. 1996) have been developed to identify potential entrepreneurs. Some researchers simply equate new venture creation with entrepreneurship (Timmons et al. 1985). Others suggest that there exists a fundamental distinction between entrepreneurs and small business owners (Carland et al. 1984). While profitability is a key in both psyches, confounding personal goals also influence the business owners. Begley and Boyd (1987) draw a distinction between the small business owners that created the new business and those that did not create, but have been hired to run the new business.

Several researchers suggest that entrepreneurs and managers differ in areas of basic personality traits, business competence and risk taking. Reynaise (1997) reports that entrepreneurs were generally more flexible to change than their manager counterpart. For Chandler and Hanks (1994), entrepreneurs excelled in identifying and taking advantage of opportunities while a competent manager did better delegating and coordinating tasks than did the entrepreneur. With regard to risk taking, Hisrich (1990) found managers operating to minimize mistakes while entrepreneurs were more willing to accept the risks associated with aggressive business decisions. Envick and Langford (2000) used the Five-Factor Model personality model to compare entrepreneurs and managers. Ultimately, they found managers to be more cautious and more team-oriented than entrepreneurs.

In reality, it seems more likely that there are ways to categorize entrepreneurs into subsets. Vesper (1980) uses potential entry strategies as a categorization tool to develop eleven potential categories. These include categories for entrepreneurs such as independent innovators, economy of scale exploiters and value manipulators. Shuman et al. (1982) produced a ten-category classification scheme based around how the entrepreneur gained control of the business. Some of their categories included successor in family business; independent, started from scratch, and acquirer. Rogoff and Lee (1996) synthesized their topology down to three categories: creators, inheritors and operators. For the purposes of this study, the definition of entrepreneur was simplified to: "a person who starts and runs their own business."

Culture

While the GEM studied operates at the global level, there have been several studies that deal with entrepreneurship at more narrow level of analysis. Fleming (1996) looked at the impact of entrepreneurial education in Ireland over a four year span. Characteristics such as "attitudes toward entrepreneurship" and "personal and family background" were evaluated. The results found that the students surveyed moved slightly toward a more entrepreneurial attitude and the levels of self employment (and those in smaller firms of less than 50 employees) had increased. Abbey's (2002) cross-cultural study on motivation for entrepreneurship found significant differences between two cultures, one defined as individualist and the other collectivist, on desire for independence and need for economic security.

Box et al. (1995) evaluated Thai entrepreneurs by the performance of the companies they ran. This performance was significantly correlated with previous experience in entrepreneurial management; number of previous attempts, successful or not; and industry experience. Koiranen et al. (1997) analyzed the risk taking propensity between Finnish and American entrepreneurs and business managers. The results showed that Americans in the study were more willing to take risks than the Finns. Comparisons between American and Egyptian entrepreneurs (Parnell, et al. 1995) showed that American students had greater levels of perceived entrepreneurial education, entrepreneurial opportunities and confidence in taking advantage of the opportunities.

Cultures evolve as a consequence of other changes. Two such changes that impact entrepreneurship are technological change and business organizational change. Shane (1996) suggests the first and supports his contention with research that shows changes in the rate of entrepreneurship can be explained by corresponding rates of change in technology. Schrage (1990) suggests that managers need characteristics of the entrepreneur and the entrepreneur needs characteristics of the manager. He cites Robert Reich's (1987) proposition that challenges the myths about entrepreneurs being the "heroes" in today's business world. Reich suggests that there is no one best attitude or characteristic make-up for entrepreneurs. Furthermore, he argues the dichotomy is even more inappropriate as the business world moves to more of a team-based environment.

So, in total, entrepreneurship has been defined in broad and ambiguous ways. There have been many instruments with many more characteristics used to help categorize and compare entrepreneurs. The comparisons have been conducted at global levels and at country levels. The comparisons have been made looking for unique characteristics of entrepreneurs. Throughout the comparisons, several areas of interest have emerged. These include demographic characteristics such as gender, education level and age and cultural characteristics such as the perceived ability to succeed as an entrepreneur, the overall impression of entrepreneurs, the positive impression of the entrepreneurial lifestyle, and family experience.

RESEARCH STUDY

The purpose of this study is to look for cultural differences in the perception of entrepreneurs between American, French and United Kingdom cultures. The subjects are students and so, the primary area of interest centers on their perceptions of entrepreneurs. The perceptions of entrepreneurs will be influenced by the way a culture rewards or encourages entrepreneurship. The basic speculation then is that the more positive a culture supports entrepreneurship the more likely students will gravitate toward it as a career choice. This can be translated into more specific conjectures for further study.

- Conjecture: If the GEM, TEA index is an accurate reflection of social characteristics of culture, then students from countries with higher TEA should score higher the perception concerning entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurial lifestyle.
- Conjecture: Those students with higher ratings on entrepreneur lifestyle will aspire more to be an entrepreneur.

The research methodology used a questionnaire that was developed based upon several of the characteristics from the previous studies mentioned. Appendix A is a facsimile of the questionnaire with question numbers added for referencing purposes. The first section gathers information on gender, age and family experience with entrepreneurs. The second section contains twenty-nine statements requesting the subject to rate his or her level of agreement to the statement. These statements related to entrepreneurial lifestyle, education and ability, acceptance of risk, reputation of entrepreneurs and aspiration to become an entrepreneur. A 7-point Likert scale ranging from low, no agreement, to high, absolute agreement is used to record the rating. The statements were translated and checked for consistency.

The characteristics are more socially oriented than the GEM composite measure, TEA. The statements make claims about characteristics concerning the culture of entrepreneurship and were greatly influenced greatly by statements and questions used in the previous research cited. Culture includes norms based around beliefs and perceptions. Therefore, the questions were phrased in an attempt to extract the beliefs and perceptions students held about entrepreneurship.

All of the subjects responding to the questionnaire were in business school classes. These subjects were juniors, seniors and first year graduate students representing a wide variety of majors or areas of emphasis. The questionnaire was administered as part of general class discussions around the topic of entrepreneurship. However there are some differences.

The 66 US responses are from students at two different business schools in the United States. Both are four-year, AACSB accredited schools of business. One school is characterized, as a commuter-oriented while the other is more residential in nature. One is located in a major metropolitan center in the southeast United States and on its webpage claims to be, "a comprehensive, private, urban, coeducational institution of higher education with a predominantly African American heritage." The other is a member of a four-campus, statewide university system and has been ranked as one of the top Western-United States public universities.

There were 146 responses from French students. These students are all 1st year students; the US equivalent of junior year in an undergraduate program, enrolled in the course of entrepreneurship at ESC Dijon. The school is accredited by Conference des Grandes Ecoles, the French Council of the major Schools of Business and Management. The ESC Dijon curriculum is design to provide students with an international exposure to international business cultures, and two thirds of the courses are thought in one of the following three foreign languages: English, Spanish, or German. The survey respondents from the United Kingdom were 2nd year undergraduate students studying at the University of Plymouth's small rural campus that accommodates the Faculty of Land, Food and Leisure. The University is rated as one of the top "new" universities in the U.K. and the faculty has received excellent ratings in its independent Teaching Quality Assessments. The students studying here, major in a diverse range of mostly rurally based subjects ranging from agriculture through environmental studies to international tourism management. Thus, their management modules are generally a minor component of their main programs of study.

The questionnaire was completed at the time of their final assignment for an autumn semester module entitled "Financial Management 2" which had combined a series of lectures, workshops and invited "expert" guest speakers related to developing a business plan for a new business venture. Thus, whilst the context was enterprise, the content related to business planning, budgeting, risk evaluation and raising finance.

RESULTS

After allowing for incomplete response sheets and removing those students from countries other that US, France, United Kingdom, the data set contains 258 usable questionnaires. There were 66 US, 146 French, and 46 UK responses. Overall, 58% of the responses were from males and 88% of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 23. This age breakdown is slightly different that the GEM-TEA but given the purpose of the study, perception of students, it is appropriate.

The data was subjected to a one-way ANOVA and the results are displayed in Table 1. When categorized by nation, the responses for 19 of the questions proved significantly different (p. < .05) and their significances have been bolded in the table. This measure of significance means that there is enough difference between at least two of the categories to indicate that the answers from these three groups are different.

However, it is also important to know whether the higher (or the lower) value is significantly different from the other two. With SPSS, a Bonferroni Post Hoc test was run to compare all pairs of categories (US to France; Us to UK; and UK to France) and to determine if the values of one category were significantly different from the other two. Twelve of the 19 had one category that was significantly different from each of the other two. In the future these responses will be referred to as double-significant responses. These are identified in the table with a two-caret suffix (<< or >>). The two right-pointing carets (>>) are used to show that the value is significantly higher than both of the other two values when evaluated through the Bonferroni test. Conversely, the two left-pointing carets (<<) are used to designate a value that is significantly lower than the both of the other values for that question. For example, the responses creating the 5.03 value in Q8 was compared against the responses creating the 4.09 and the 3.87 values and was found to be significantly different from both and therefore has the 5.03>> designation.

Finally, where one category did not show statistical difference to both of the other categories, the two categories that did show a significant difference are marked with asterisks. These responses will be labeled single-significant. So, Q6 shows a significant difference (.000) between categories and the asterisks signify that the difference is mainly between the US and France categories.

In summary, the results show that the responses from 20 questions differ significantly between the three nation categories. In 13 of the 20, the difference between one category is significant from each of the other two, implying a dominant (or recessive) double-significant response. In the other 7 questions showing significant differences, the difference can be attributed to a difference between two of the three categories. The responses to these 20 questions provide the information for discussion that follows.

Table 1: Three-way comparison of perception of entrepreneurs				
Variable	Nation			ANOVA (Signif.)
	US	France	UK	
(Q6) I believe being an entrepreneur would provide a good living	5.11*	4.24*	4.53	**.000**
(Q7) I believe becoming an entrepreneur would be easy	2.02	2.08	2.35	.392
(Q8) I aspire to be an entrepreneur	**5.03>>**	4.09	3.87	**.002**
(Q9) In general, I have heard good things about entrepreneurs	**4.88>>**	4.28	4.09	**.002**
(Q10) I would be comfortable running my own business	**5.30>>**	3.97	4.48	**.000**

Table 1: Three-way comparison of perception of entrepreneurs				
Variable	Nation			ANOVA (Signif.)
	US	France	UK	
(Q11) I believe that someone who runs their own business is successful	4.30	4.03	4.09	.542
(Q12) I believe there is a lot of risk in starting and running your own business	6.45	5.92	**5.20<<**	**.000**
(Q13) I believe an entrepreneur always has to be an inventor	3.42	**4.20>>**	3.37	**.004**
(Q14) I believe that entrepreneurs have to suffer a high number of failures before they are successful	3.67*	4.32*	3.65	**.009**
(Q15) I believe being a successful entrepreneur is just luck	2.24	2.20	2.61	.234
(Q16) I believe becoming a successful entrepreneur is simply having enough money to start	2.88	2.48	2.83	.125
(Q17) I believe it is too difficult for me to succeed as an entrepreneur	2.24*	2.86*	2.85	**.022**
(Q18) I believe there exists a standard entrepreneurial profile into which I have to fit	2.83	2.90	2.72	.775
(Q19) I believe the characteristics of entrepreneurs are innate traits and therefore cannot be taught or learned	3.33	3.64	3.52	.529
(Q20) I am willing to put the time in that it takes to be an entrepreneur	**5.03>>**	4.84	4.11	**.008**
(Q21) I would enjoy the lifestyle provided by being an entrepreneur	5.17*	4.30*	4.54	**.002**
(Q22) Being an entrepreneur would better my lifestyle when I retire	4.71*	3.82*	4.07	**.003**
(Q23) Being a successful entrepreneur would increase my wealth	**5.44>>**	4.36	4.43	**.000**
(Q24) Being an entrepreneur would positively impact my current lifestyle	**5.24>>**	4.63	4.13	**.001**
(Q25) I believe that being an entrepreneur would have a positive impact on the welfare of the region/country	4.85	4.64	**3.57<<**	**.000**
(Q26) I do not know anyone who could mentor/help me be an entrepreneur	2.52	2.75	2.74	.673
(Q27) I do not know any institutions within the university that could educate/qualify me be an entrepreneur	2.85	2.57	2.87	.442
(Q28) I do not know how I would get money to start a business	3.41*	2.89	2.28*	**.004**
(Q29) I believe that one needs a higher level of education than I have to be an entrepreneur.	2.17	2.64	2.43	.145
(Q30) I believe that one needs a specific education to be a successful entrepreneur	2.29	**3.23>>**	2.57	**.001**
(Q31) Someone who fails in starting a business is not an entrepreneur	1.70	1.55	**2.54>>**	**.000**

Table 1: Three-way comparison of perception of entrepreneurs				
Variable	Nation			ANOVA (Signif.)
	US	France	UK	
(Q32) I believe I should not rely too heavily on the government for my retirement	**6.06>>**	4.27	4.80	**.000**
(Q33) I expect to change jobs and occupation many times before I retire.	4.95	5.05	**3.93<<**	**.001**
(Q34) I prefer to work for well-established organizations rather than new firms	4.24*	3.54*	3.93	**.018**
>> (or <<) - This category is significantly higher (or lower) than BOTH of the other two * - These two categories are significantly different from each other but not from the third category				

DISCUSSION

First, items on the questionnaire hold together well. The reliability index, Cronbach's Alpha, shows a rating of .7045 for all 29 items, just over the minimum acceptable level of .7000. Second, the results track pretty well with the TEA ratings. The United States, which has the highest TEA rating of the three, 11th, does in general, have the highest ratings for perceived lifestyle and aspiration. Although it is interesting to note that the UK ratings appear closer the French ratings than to the US ratings as the TEA scores would predict. It also seems that the French and the UK subjects each have cultural factors on which they are the dominant player; education and risk-payback respectively.

Second, the responses to seven of the questions (Q8, Q10, Q13, Q14, Q22, Q33, Q34) straddle the scale's midpoint with at least one group on each side. Those averages less than 4.00 signify non-agreement and those averages over 4.00 suggest agreement. This dichotomy points a general disagreement on these topics and should be a source for future research.

Third, there are quite a few areas in which no differences were found. In general, the responses show that all three groups of students: see entrepreneurship as a challenging choice (Q7) but not too difficult to accomplish (Q17); see entrepreneurship more than just luck (Q15) or just having enough money (Q16); do know where to seek educational help (Q27); and, believe that they can find a mentor (Q26) but will have a tougher time finding the start up money (Q28).

The questions qualifying the three cultural perspectives are discussed next.

From the US Perspective

US responses represent 7 of the 13 double-significant responses and are part of all 7 single-single significant responses. Clearly, the US students are not relying too heavily on their

government for retirement. The US students also believe that they world be comfortable running their own business. This result coincides well with two other significant responses (Q17 and Q20). The single-significant response (Q17) shows US students responded with lower perception of "difficulty to succeed as an entrepreneur" and Q20 indicates that they are more "willing to put in the time to be an entrepreneur." The US students prefer to work in well-established companies more so than the French students but, not more than the UK students (Q34). Interestingly, when compared to UK students, the US students report that they do not know where to secure money to start a business (Q28).

Six questions; Q6, Q9, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q34, revolve around the perceptions of the entrepreneurial lifestyle. In general, these questions reflect that US students had a more positive impression of the entrepreneurship lifestyle than the other two sets of students. In three issues; having heard good things about entrepreneurs (Q9), being a entrepreneur increasing wealth (Q23), and being an entrepreneur would have a positive impact on lifestyle (Q24), the US responses dominate both of the other responses. Finally, US students "aspire" to become an entrepreneur (Q8) more so than the other students report. It seems that the lifestyle factors may help encourage the US students toward a career in entrepreneurship.

This impression is supported with additional analysis. Using SPSS, the questions Q6, Q9, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q34 were combined into a single construct - LifeStyle. The reliability of this construct measured .8207 well above the .7000 suggested threshold (Kline, xxx). A correlation of LifeStyle to the responses on the aspire question (Q8) proved both strong (.650) and significant (p. < .000). In addition, the ANOVA analysis confirmed that LifeStyle was a double-significant response in favor of the US (Table 3).

Table 2: Three-way Comparison of LifeStyle - Composite Construct				
Variable	Nation			ANOVA (Signif.)
	US	France	UK	
LifeStyle - Composite of Q6, Q9, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q24	30.50>>	25.63	25.80	.000
>> (or <<) - This category is significantly higher (or lower) than BOTH of the other two				

From the French Perspective

The responses for the French students produce two dominate responses: Q13 and Q30. These two questions seem to measure more objective issues than some of the other questions. The French student believes, more so than both the US and the UK students, that entrepreneurs should be inventors (Q13) and that entrepreneurs need a specific education or curriculum to become entrepreneurs (Q30). Neither question Q13 or Q30 correlated significantly with the responses to the

"aspire to be an entrepreneur" question (Q8) indicating that while significantly different they do not help a French student aspire to become an entrepreneur.

Other questions wherein the French responses were significant include Q14, Q17, and Q34. Interpreting these questions, French students believe that entrepreneurs are characterized by a high number of previous failures before they become successful (Q14); it would be difficult for them to succeed as entrepreneurs (Q17); and, they are less interested in working for well established companies (Q34). Finally, the lifestyle questions that showed the US students more positive (Q6, Q9, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q24), in turn, show the French students significantly less positive.

From the UK Perspective

The UK answers produced 4 double-significant responses; Q12, Q25, Q31, Q33 and 1 single-significant response. The double-significant responses imply that the UK students see less risk (Q12) and entrepreneurs producing less impact on region/country (Q25). The UK students seem less willing to accept failure for a successful entrepreneur (Q31) and from the results of Q33, UK students expect to change jobs during their careers less than the US and French students in this study. The single-significant response (Q28) implies that UK students are more aware of how to raise money for a new venture. Finally, none of the questions (Q12, Q25, Q28, Q31, Q33) proved significantly correlated to the "aspire to be an entrepreneur" question (Q8). Again, the analysis extracts responses that are unique to UK students, however, these items do not seem to influence a student's aspiration to become an entrepreneur.

The results support the two conjectures. US students report a more positive impression of entrepreneurship and aspire more to the life of an entrepreneur. While they acknowledge the risk of taking on starting a new business and do not seem sure of where to find venture capital, the US students still aspire to become entrepreneurs more and are more willing to put in the time than their UK and French counterparts. French students recorded less positive results on the lifestyle questions in both the double-significant and single-significant responses. French students also believe that entrepreneurs need specific education to be successful and that entrepreneurs will tend to be investors. This implies a more limiting view of entrepreneurs by the French students. The UK students saw less risk in running a business and see less potential impact on the region/country from successful entrepreneurs. Interestingly, they consider starting a business a key determinant of an entrepreneur more than the other two groups. Finally, UK students expect to change jobs less often during their career than do students from the US or France. In total, the results unique to the UK imply that the students see less risk in starting a business but do not consider someone failing in starting a business as an entrepreneur. Table 3 summarizes the previous discussion and the next section of the paper provides observations.

Table 3: Summary Descriptors		
US	UK	France
More aspiration to be entrepreneur	Less perceived risk	Less positive on entrepreneurial lifestyle
Better perception of entrepreneurial lifestyle	Less potential positive impact on region	Entrepreneurs need special education
Less reliance on government	Desire less job change	Entrepreneurs should be inventors
More willing to put in time	Less forgiving of business failure	Many failures have to be experienced before being successful

Observations on Summary Descriptions

US - More aspiration to be an entrepreneur and Better perception of entrepreneurial lifestyle: The media hypes the entrepreneur in the US culture. Magazines such as Forbes, Inc. and Fast Company promote the individualism found in entrepreneurs. The icons of successful business entrepreneurs are everywhere. Since the 1990's entrepreneurship has been incorporated into business school curricula throughout the country. Organizations such as Junior Achievement and Students in Free Enterprise help students organize and plan startup businesses. All of this activity certainly exposes the US student to more positive views of entrepreneurs. In turn, the aspiration level should increase.

US - Less reliance on government: US political parties have been discussing the Social Security program and its ongoing viability for decades. A 1998 national opinion poll (Bositis, 1998) found that 67% of the population thought the Social Security benefits would decrease by the time they retried and 72% believed that they would not see the money that they had paid into the system. This ongoing debate and perceptions of the availability of Social Security for retirement could help explain the responses found.

US - More willing to put in time: According to the US Bureau of Labor (2000), the average workweek in the US is now 42.1 hrs. Interestingly, over 30% of the "professionals and managers" worked more than 49 hours. It is easy to envision that US students would suspect an entrepreneur workweek to fall into this category. The fact that the responses show a willingness to put in this amount of time can only mean that the perceived value must outweigh any inconvenience this may cause.

France - Entrepreneurs should be inventors: This result could come from a way of thinking common to Latin people, that the condition to be successful (and to make money) is to do what has never been done before. In fact, when an individual fails in his/her business, the consequence is often social "marginalization." In addition, the legal system in Latin countries is designed to prohibit people from returning to business after bankruptcy. Another possible explanation is that starting a business based upon an invention may be seen as a sort of insurance.

France - Entrepreneurs need special education: This result may stem from the French elite educational system, organized around the Grandes Ecoles, which aim to train the top managers of the French private and public sector. Since Grandes Ecoles are usually specialized in a very specific field (civil engineering, business and management, agriculture, telecommunications etc…), students may believe that one condition to be successful in business it is to earn a diploma from a famous school specialized in the sector of interest. Therefore, to be an entrepreneur it would be necessary to be specifically trained in entrepreneurship.

France - Less positive on entrepreneurial lifestyle: This lifestyle issue may show differences based on the fact that an entrepreneur has to work a lot, and must devote his/her best energies to the new venture. This works against the French value of free time, as demonstrated by the 35 hours week working time. So, entrepreneurship may be seen as more stressful for the individual and her/his family and therefore less appealing.

France - Many failures have to be experienced before being successful as an entrepreneur: In France, entrepreneurs face many difficulties in starting his/her business: red tape, regulations, lobbies, access to financial resources, social climate etc… Moreover, the French educational system does not encourage individuals who take initiative and behave in deviant ways, which is a main feature of an entrepreneur! Combined, the French students may see the chance of failure more likely and therefore more failures would occur before an entrepreneur becomes successful.

UK - Less perceived risk: A large part of the module content that preceded the survey was about how to develop a successful venture with presentations by bank managers and business advisors about the reasons for business failure etc. Many of the discussions were about good planning and management skills, developing a comprehensive business plan to judge the proposed venture before making the decision to proceed, and risk appraisal techniques for managing and limiting risk. This may have made the UK subjects more sensitive to this question: They understood there is risk (5.20 out of 7.00), but also understood how to work with it thereby dampening their response. It would be interesting to compare this group both at the beginning and at the end of the module.

UK - Less potential impact on region/country: Perhaps this indicates a perception of a more selfish personal gain rationale for being enterprising born of the Thatcher generation wherein personal gain drove motivation more so than did the wider benefits to society. Just as likely, it may indicate a less developed understanding of economics and the circular flow of money. Regardless of the underlying root cause, any positive economic impact from entrepreneurship has not registered as well with the UK subjects as it has with US and French subjects.

UK - Less forgiving of failures: In general Q31 (a single failure) and Q14 (multiple failures) join together to produce this impression. One explanation may tie back to the low risk factor. It may well be that the UK students believe that rigorous planning and management of the new business venture is more likely to lead to success than having an innovative business idea. This would mean that they consider a "failed" business is, and certainly multiple failures are, more likely due to poor

management than because of a flawed business idea. As such, the unsuccessful person would not necessarily be perceived as an entrepreneur. The cultural difference in this case being that the subjects see running their own businesses as a means of pursuing an interest in their subject area rather than running any business simply because it looked like a good business opportunity.

UK - Desire less job change: Q33 and Q34 combine to create this impression. This outcome may indicate a difference in beliefs about well-structured career pathways in the industries the subjects are likely to enter. The UK subjects see less job change and are more willing to work for large, well-established companies. This would reinforce the notion that they see their environment with more stable careers.

SUMMARY

In summary, a research project was undertaken to look for differences in student perceptions of entrepreneurship based upon culture. The Entrepreneurship Monitoring (GEM) Total Entrepreneurship Activity (TEA) report and other previous cultural research on entrepreneurship provided for the development of a questionnaire. The basic conjecture was that students in different cultures would show differences in their perception of and aspiration for entrepreneurs. The premise of the conjecture is that the TEA ratings show the level of activity within a country and the higher this activity the more likely the positive perception of entrepreneurs.

Students from three countries: United States, France and United Kingdom responded to the questionnaire producing a 258-response data set. Through statistical analysis, significant differences were found between the responses by the three groups on 20 questions. Thirteen of the 20 had one of the three groups significantly different from the other two thereby producing a clear difference. The other seven questions showed a significant difference due to only one pair of comparisons being significant. These questions were the basis for a discussion around cultural differences.

More detailed analysis found support for the conjecture that US students viewed the entrepreneurial lifestyle in a more positive way than either the French or UK students. US students also rated higher on their aspiration to become, and their willingness to put in time to become an entrepreneur, than the students from the UK or France. The lifestyle construct was found to be strongly and significantly correlated to the aspiration response.

Future research will need to tease out the relationships between the lifestyle and the other cultural differences suggested by the results. In addition, the finding is simply that higher TEA level of activity implies a higher perceived value of entrepreneurship. There is no claim that one culture or one level of activity is better than another. Finally, it is left to speculation as to whether the country's culture drives the activity or the country's entrepreneurial activity drives the culture.

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APPENDIX A: Entrepreneur Questionnaire	
This questionnaire is designed to help determine your impression of being an entrepreneur. These are your perceptions and cannot be judged right or wrong. All information is compiled at the aggregate level with no way of determining the identity of respondent.	
Demographics:	
(Q1) Sex (Circle) M F	
(Q2) Age (Circle) <18 18-23 24-29 30-35 36-41 42-47 47+	
(Q3) I have relatives who run/ran their own business (circle) [Yes] [No] If yes, how many (Q3a) _____	
Relationship 1. _____ 2. _____ 3._____ 4. _____	
Were/Are they successful (circle) Y N Y N Y N Y N	
(Q4) Number of friends/acquaintances you know who run/ran their own business _____	
(Q5) Number of friends/acquaintances you know who would like to run their own business _____	
Questions: For our purposes, an entrepreneur is defined as a person who starts and runs their own business. On the scale below, please register your agreement with the statements about entrepreneurs. A one (1) means no agreement; a seven (7) means absolute agreement	
Statement	Agreement (circle)
(Q6) I believe being an entrepreneur would provide a good living	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q7) I believe becoming an entrepreneur would be easy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q8) I aspire to be an entrepreneur	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q9) In general, I have heard good things about entrepreneurs	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX A: Entrepreneur Questionnaire	
(Q10) I would be comfortable running my own business	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q11) I believe that someone who runs their own business is successful	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q12) I believe there is a lot of risk in starting and running your own business	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q13) I believe an entrepreneur always has to be an inventor	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q14) I believe that entrepreneurs have to suffer a high number of failures before they are successful	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q15) I believe being a successful entrepreneur is just luck	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q16) I believe becoming a successful entrepreneur is simply having enough money to start.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q17) I believe it is too difficult for me to succeed as an entrepreneur	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q18) I believe there exists a standard entrepreneurial profile into which I have to fit	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q19) I believe the characteristics of entrepreneurs are innate traits and therefore cannot be taught or learned (i.e. initiative, willingness to take risks, creativity, innovative attitude)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q20) I am willing to put the time in that it takes to be an entrepreneur	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q21) I would enjoy the lifestyle provided by being an entrepreneur	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q22) Being an entrepreneur would better my lifestyle when I retire	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q23) Being a successful entrepreneur would increase my wealth	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q24) Being an entrepreneur would positively impact my current lifestyle	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q25) I believe that being an entrepreneur would have a positive impact on the welfare of the region/country	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q26) I do not know anyone who could mentor/help me be an entrepreneur	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q27) I do not know any institutions within the university that could educate/qualify me be an entrepreneur	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q28) I do not know how I would get money to start a business	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q29) I believe that one needs a higher level of education than I have to be an entrepreneur.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q30) I believe that one needs a specific education to be a successful entrepreneur	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q31) Someone who fails in starting a business is not an entrepreneur	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q32) I believe I should not rely too heavily on the government for my retirement	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q33) I expect to change jobs and occupation many times before I retire.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(Q34) I prefer to work for well-established organizations rather than new firms	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

INTERNATIONAL SURVEY OF SUCCESS FACTORS OF NATIONAL CHAMPIONS COMPETING AT THE SIFE WORLD CUP 2002

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ABSTRACT

Students in Free Enterprise, (SIFE) is developing a growing international presence, hosting the SIFE World Cup, which in 2002 drew national entries from 23 countries. SIFE team members "make a difference in the world", to quote one participant, through free enterprise education projects. But what motivates a college student to become a SIFE team member? And why do they stay SIFE team members when 78% of them report it required more of a commitment than anticipated? This paper traces twenty years of research on college student volunteerism to develop a questionnaire to answer these very questions. In addition, we asked about winning characteristics of the team. This questionnaire was given to national champions, the best-of-the-best, at the 2002 SIFE World Cup. At the team level, team members reported a variety of project organization methods, all dependent on good organization, substantial faculty assistance, and availability of resources. At the individual level, results indicate substantial consistency with earlier research on student volunteerism. Students volunteer: 1. to develop job skills, 2. to help the community, 3. because of an interest in the project, and 4. to develop social relationships.

INTRODUCTION

Students in Free Enterprise (SIFE) is the world's preeminent collegiate free enterprise organization. It provides leadership training and career opportunities for thousands of college students throughout the world. Through a collaborative effort between business and education, SIFE Teams improve the quality of life and the standards of living around the world by teaching the principles of market economics, entrepreneurship, business ethics, and personal financial success. SIFE's vision is to help people achieve their dreams through free enterprise education. Its mission is to provide college and university students the best opportunity to make a difference and to develop leadership, teamwork and communication skills through learning, practicing and teaching the principles of free enterprise.

It was the purpose of this study to survey SIFE National Championship Teams participating in the SIFE World Cup 2002 to determine factors relating to their success. These Champion SIFE Teams worked hard, made a difference and represented their countries on the world stage. We wanted to find out how they did it so that others may benefit from their insight and experience. This study was an extension of an earlier (Burroughs & Nickerson, 2001) on-line survey of Walton Fellows in the U.S.A.

LITERATURE REVIEW

For over 25 years Students in Free Enterprise (SIFE) has provided an organizational structure for college students to change the world by espousing the tenets of free enterprise (Lesonsky, 2000). Students volunteer their time to develop, work on, and report their progress in bringing the benefits of free enterprise to disadvantaged groups in the community and around the world (Lesonsky, 2002). For example, DeBerg and Thornton (1999) report student SIFE team members at California State University at Chico worked with the Butte County Private Industry Council to mentor 32 at-risk high school students. What makes this project and SIFE unique is that the mentors helped the at-risk students develop business plans and deliver oral presentations to local business leaders. The at-risk students not only stayed in school but increased their knowledge of business and economic concepts. Clearly the SIFE college student volunteer model works.

The backbone of this model, however, is the SIFE college student volunteer. Without committed SIFE team members, nothing happens. How do Walton Fellows and SIFE Team Advisors attract, motivate, and keep volunteers enthusiastic?

A number of studies have been done in the area of volunteerism generally and more specifically on motivating college students to volunteer for a worthy cause. In this follow-up study to our original national survey (Burroughs & Nickerson, 2001), we probe a little deeper into the motivation of winning SIFE team members.

Volunteers represent a huge unpaid work force which year after year contributes millions of hours of free labor to a variety of worthwhile efforts. Research aimed at increasing the quantity and quality of volunteer efforts spans over 20 years (Francies, 1982). Volunteerism became an organized activity on college campuses during the 1960's (Sergent & Sedlacek, 1989). The Volunteer Needs Profile was created by Francies to enhance volunteer retention by matching placement with volunteers' needs. Motivational needs in seven areas were assessed:

1.	the need for experience
2.	feelings of social responsibility
3.	the need for social contact
4.	responding to the expectations of others

5.	the need for social approval
6.	expectation of future rewards, and
7.	the need to achieve.

Follow-up studies have supported a variety of factors affecting motivation to initially volunteer as well as the motivation to maintain a commitment to the activity over time.

Hodgkinson and Weitzman (1986) found that students volunteer based on a desire to help others, an interest in the activity, and enjoyment of the work. Fitch (1987) reported personal motivation for volunteering was linked to altruism, egoism, and social obligation.

Studying four different college student volunteer organizations, Sergent and Sedlacek (1989) found individuals seek environments in which they can express their strengths, values, and primary characteristics.

Serow (1991) surveyed 759 students and also found students motivated by personal concerns, such as acquiring experience and from a desire to help others. Looking at college students involved in service organizations, Winniford (1995) found altruism motivated students' initial and continued involvement as volunteers. Egoistic motivations also seemed important to students.

In a study of community service volunteers in Great Britain, Dickson (1999) found the data showed a significant trend towards personal motives over community-focused motives. Students volunteered for self improvement and in hopes of getting a job rather than volunteering to give back to the community.

Clary and Snyder (1999) developed the Volunteer Functions Inventory to assess functions sought by volunteers to better match volunteers and volunteer opportunities. The functions: values, understanding, enhancement, career, social, and protective; map well to others' concepts of altruism, learning, egoism, getting a job, socializing, and a new construct - escape from their own troubles. Values, understanding, and enhancement (altruism, learning, and egoism) consistently are the most important functions reported.

Schondel and Boehm (2000) tested the Volunteer Needs Profile (Francies, 1982) in four different adolescent settings. The survey found that pro social behavior, need for affirmation, need for social contact, and the need for experience provided the best motivation to volunteer. The need for experience was negatively correlated with volunteer commitment for volunteers with a lot of experience (Ryan, Kaplan & Grese, 2000). These were long-term volunteers or older volunteers with no need for more experience. The study also found altruism was more important initially but was replaced with more self-interested motivations over time, such as social interactions, to be with friends, or to make new friends. Long-term volunteers also considered project organization (how well the project was run, the ability to impact project management) an important motivating factor. The authors conclude that by recommending that project sponsors provide volunteers learning opportunities, time to have fun, and show appreciation for the impact of their efforts.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To conduct this study one of the researchers traveled to Amsterdam, The Netherlands, to attend the SIFE World Cup 2002 competition held at the Hotel Okura on September 22 - 24, 2002.

National Champion SIFE Teams from 23 countries presented their outreach projects to top executives of some of the world's leading companies as the culmination of projects completed by SIFE teams on over 1,200 campuses around the globe that impacted millions of people.

Responses were elicited by inviting SIFE World Cup 2002 participants to complete questionnaires. Each SIFE Team had equal access to the survey instruments which were available during the competition in the Global Opportunities Room where all World Cup participants congregated to speak with representatives of sponsoring companies, make use of the Internet Café, and relax. A drop-off box for completed surveys was positioned next to the stack of questionnaires. Completed surveys were collected from this box at the end of the competition.

SIFE Teams from the following 23 countries competed in the SIFE World Cup 2002:

Table 1: Participating National SIFE Teams					
Australia	Canada	Kazakhstan	New Zealand	Russia	United Kingdom
Belarus	Chile	Kyrgyzstan	Nicaragua	South Africa	United States
Botswana	China	Malaysia	Philippines	Tajikistan	Uzbekistan
Brazil	Ghana	Mexico	Poland	Ukraine	

The survey yielded responses from 47.8% of the National Champion Teams competing in the 2002 SIFE World Cup. Survey data were entered by the researchers into SPSS for analysis. The statistical analysis consisted of descriptive statistics reporting percentages of respondents in one or another situation, and inferential statistics reporting the mean, standard deviation, and rank of respondent selections. One question reports the statistical significance of data reported on an ordinal scale. To be conservative, the non-parametric measure for assessing the goodness-of-fit of ordinal data, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, was used (Daniel, 1990). The results of these tests are reported below.

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

This survey differed from our previous research in that it was primarily targeted directly at student volunteers instead of their faculty advisors. While the results of any comparison must be analyzed with caution, the results are interesting.

First we asked SIFE Team members from around the world about their family background. It is possible that volunteers beget volunteers and non-volunteers beget non-volunteers. If this were

the case, certain students would be easy to identify as prospective team members. In this sample, only 18% of students responding at the SIFE World Cup were the children of volunteers. 78% of students, by contrast, were first generation volunteers. This bodes well for SIFE Team recruitment efforts. There is no significant relationship between a family history of volunteerism and participation on the SIFE Team.

We also asked whether their parents were in business. Here we got a much more favorable response. Of respondents, 53% reported their parents to be in business. The implication here is that parents in business might favor activities for their children which would point them in the same direction. Still, at roughly half of respondents responding one way to a binomially scored question, the result is not statistically significant.

In an earlier survey of Walton Fellows within the U.S. (Burroughs & Nickerson, 2001) we asked Fellows to rank potential benefits to SIFE Team members. The stated goal of SIFE is to develop leadership skills in participants. Walton Fellows ranked these Leadership skills as the chief benefit of participating in SIFE.

In this survey of international SIFE Team members, we asked students to rank 14 benefits. Table 2, below, compares only those benefits common between the USA and World surveys. Of the benefits common to both surveys, students reported a somewhat different set of priorities than Fellows in the USA.

Table 2: Rankings of Team Benefits from SIFE Participation		
	USA Survey	World Survey
Leadership Skills	1	3
Communication Skills	2	1
Project Management Skills	3	5
Teamwork Skills	4	4
Networking Skills	5	2

International SIFE Team members ranked Communication Skills as the most important benefit of SIFE Team participation. Leadership was ranked first among U.S. Walton Fellows speaking for their SIFE Team members. International SIFE Team members then listed Networking Skills, Leadership Skills, Teamwork Skills, and Project Management Skills in order of importance to their participation in SIFE. Perhaps the most surprising result was the high importance placed on Networking Skills by the International SIFE Team members (2nd out of 5) when U.S. Walton Fellows ranked these same skills dead last (5th out of 5).

In addition to the reasons for participating in SIFE, which were common to the earlier survey, we expanded the research to include additional reasons based on a review of the literature on student volunteerism. Benefits rankings reported in Table 3, below, include only those benefits

unique to the International SIFE Team member survey. Here, students were asked to rank the importance of each reason for their participation in SIFE.

Table 3: International SIFE Team Member Ranking of SIFE Participation Benefits								
	Educational Experience	Job Skills	Practical Experience	Made an Impact	Desire to help others	Interest in the Project	Made decisions about the project	To make or be with friends	Enjoyment of the work
Mean	1.25	1.33	1.88	2.10	2.27	2.63	2.64	2.88	2.90
S.D.	.71	.71	1.13	1.29	1.35	1.60	1.41	0.99	1.37
Sig.	.030*	.045*	.551	.660	.681	.571	.973	.487	.589
Rank	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

In Table 3, above, the entry with the lowest mean was ranked as the most important reason for participating in SIFE. International SIFE Team members ranked Educational Experience and Job Skills as the most important reasons for participating in SIFE. This is consistent with the literature on student volunteerism. The measure of significance reported also shows these two reasons were statistically significant. The measure of significance was calculated using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test which is appropriate for measuring the goodness of fit of ordinal data (Daniel, 1990).

The next most significant reason for participating in SIFE, though not statistically significant, was a related reason, Practical Experience. The next two reasons were altruistic in nature, to Make an Impact and the Desire to Help Others. The third grouping of reasons were project related, an Interest in the Project and to Make decisions about the Project. The least important reasons for participating as an International SIFE Team member were the social reasons of To Make or be with Friends and Enjoyment of the Work. One might therefore be able to summarize these rankings from most to least importance as Personal Benefits, Altruism, the Project itself, and Social activities.

Figure 2, below, combines the rankings from the benefit items in Tables 2 (those common between surveys) and 3 (those unique to the international survey). Combining the original reasons for participation with those included here for the first time shows the original reasons have some moderate support. Consolidated rankings are provided below:

QUALITATIVE RESULTS

Since teams competing in the SIFE World Cup represent the best efforts of their respective countries, we attempted to glean perspectives and advice from these National Champions so that others may benefit from their experience. Our survey sought open-ended responses to questions in

two broad categories relating to Team Organization and Member Participation. The main themes of the responses were as follows:

I. SIFE Team Organization	
I. a.	How were the SIFE projects organized?

	There was no uniformity of approach to project organization reported by respondents to this survey. The projects were generally organized based on:
	     students' interests and abilities
	     judging criteria
	     diversity-race, majors, interests
	     issues to be solved
	     classroom activities
	     resource availability

I. b.	Would you consider your SIFE Team to be well organized?
	All teams considered themselves to be well organized. These answers reinforce the notion that it is absolutely essential to be well organized in order to succeed with SIFE projects and in SIFE competitions.
I. c.	How did your Faculty Advisor help your SIFE Team succeed?
	The responses centered around: "Analyzed projects, gave practical advice, helped to find sponsors and resources, organized the team's work, held us accountable, always ready to help and support." In essence, the SIFE Faculty Advisor is the kingpin holding the entire organization together. This is consistent with findings in our 2001 survey of U.S. of Walton Fellows.
I. d.	How did the SIFE Team acquire the resources needed to complete the projects?
	The teams reported various ways of securing resources. Generally, the teams were most successful by securing sponsors for specific projects as opposed to asking for undesignated sums of money. Some teams received funds from their universities and/or governments. One team reported the creation of a community resource data base as a means to secure funding.
II. Participation as A SIFE Team Member	
II. a.	Was SIFE more of a commitment than you anticipated? Y/N
	A very large percentage, 78.57%, of the respondents answered Yes to this question. It would be interesting to know if this large commitment would prevent students from continuing their involvement in SIFE in the future, but that question was not asked in this survey.
II. b.	What did you do to have fun when participating in SIFE Team projects?
	Responses here ranged from "parties, trips, going to cafes, hiking, picnics, discos, clubs" to "enjoyment came from executing the projects, especially working with the children." One student responded that the SIFE experience "ignited my passion to teach people to fish" (for themselves.)
II. c.	In what ways did you contribute to the success of your SIFE Team?
	The students mentioned "leadership" and "teamwork" most often as their contribution. This was followed by "hard work," "commitment," "dedication," and "communication." Also mentioned was "IT and multimedia skills."
II. d.	How were you able to use your personal strengths during SIFE projects?

	The following strengths were mentioned:
	    Leadership and organization
	    Being goal oriented, inspiring confidence
	    Being a good communicator, motivator
	    Being flexible, working where needed
	    Creating the annual report and visual presentations

II. e.	How were you able to include your personal values during SIFE projects?

	The students responded with the following comments:
	    By selecting projects with a social direction
	    By encouraging an educational direction for our projects
	    By helping community organizations
	    By helping to keep my team honest in their dealings and reporting
	    Functioning as an example by the way that I work

II. f.	What major problems have you encountered as a SIFE Team member?

	The following problems were reported:
	    Shortage of funds
	    Shortage of time to get everything done
	    Lack of effective team work
	    Equipment problems
	    Communication problems
	    One respondent reported "no problems," and one respondent summarized their troubles with "no time, no money, no coordination."

II. g.	What have been your proudest accomplishments as a SIFE Team member?
	"Winning the National Championship" was the single most frequent response given to this question. The students rightly felt very proud of this difficult achievement. "Being a leader," "providing excellent ideas," "implementing good projects that have touched people's lives," as well as "helping to teach women about starting a business so that they can become self-sufficient" also generated proud feelings.
II. h.	What advice would you offer other SIFE students?

	The students offered much thoughtful and valuable advice to others, generally of the following tenor.
	    Work hard and be patient
	    SIFE is valuable, give it everything you can
	    Keep believing, hoping, and having fun all at the same time
	    Keep in contact with other teams, try to enlarge and attract more team members
	    Exercising communication skills, group work and commitment will make you better
	    Remember why we do this-to make a difference in the world!

II. i.	What advice would you offer the SIFE organization?
	The single largest number of responses was a variation on the theme "Spread out the SIFE movement into every corner of the world-it's a great experience." The students also wanted more attention to be paid to the results of the projects, to see not only the material benefits but how many people benefited from these projects. They encouraged SIFE to be objective and "treat all teams and countries fairly and equally, not favoring the U.S." They also urged SIFE to " be aware of lack of finances in African countries." Two teams felt that all is wonderful and no advice is necessary.

We also offered opportunities for SIFE Faculty Advisors to participate in our survey. The response rate was a low 10%, however. Therefore, only limited analysis and inference is warranted. Accordingly, we compared responses by Faculty Advisors with Student Responses at their respective universities on two important issues only-problems encountered and proudest accomplishments.

To the question "What major problems have you encountered with your SIFE Team?" Faculty Advisors talked about difficulty in keeping the "teamwork" going well, overcoming personality clashes and team members not being ready for the competition as their major difficulties. Their students mentioned time, financial, and equipment challenges. It was clear that the Faculty Advisors' perspective was strategic whereas the Students' perspective was tactical in nature.

To the question "What have been your proudest achievements with SIFE?" Faculty Advisors talked about the joy of seeing their team come together to accomplish a challenging project and of appreciating the sense of self-esteem, self-confidence, and enthusiasm exhibited by their students. Students, on the other hand, talked about the pride they felt in becoming National Champions as well as the satisfaction derived from being a SIFE Team member.

Faculty Advisor responses offered in the 2002 World Cup survey correspond generally with those expressed by Walton Fellows in the (2001) U.S. survey. Faculty Advisors everywhere thrive on the achievement of their students. It is evident that their reward is found in the development of their students.

CONCLUSION

Surveying SIFE's "best-of-the-best" at the World Cup 2002 provided an opportunity to see what drove these student volunteers, both individually and as teams, to be National Champions. While much literature exists on student volunteerism generally, SIFE's free enterprise mission and the intercollegiate competitions make it unique. We found, for example, the same four types of motivations to participate in SIFE as have been reported for a variety of other student volunteer organizations. What separates SIFE from these groups is that the only statistically significant motivators were the bottom line benefits for students of gaining experience and gaining job skills. Altruism, the type of project done, and social activities were mentioned but not at statistically significant levels.

As we are Walton Fellows ourselves, it was interesting for us to also note that these National Champions complain about the same things our team complains about - not enough money, not enough time, and not enough help. What makes a champion a champion may be as simple as motivation, dedication, and not giving up. It was important to these students to choose projects they felt good about. As one student wrote, "Remember why we do this - to make a difference in the world!"

In nearly every case the Faculty Advisor, or Walton Fellow, was crucial to the success of the team. The Faculty Advisor can organize the team, recruit team members, help obtain resources, make sure team members balance work and play, help the team develop as a team, and work with SIFE headquarters. In those cases where Faculty Advisors and team members both filled out surveys, students' comments were of a personal nature whereas the Advisor took the team perspective. Students were excited to be National Champions whereas Advisors were most satisfied with how their teams came together.

The secret of success, therefore, from the "best-of-the-best", is really no secret after all. Every team has and complains about the same problems. Champions don't let these problems defeat them. Some teams may have more resources than others. Those other teams, though, may have difficulty building good team dynamics. The SIFE organization and the Faculty Advisor can only provide the most conducive environment possible for team success. It is the students themselves, however, who must overcome the inevitable obstacles to achieving their goals. Their goal, interestingly enough, is not to win SIFE, just to change the world--a laudable goal indeed!

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EFFECTIVENESS OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP FOR EDUCATORS PROGRAMS: AN ASSESSMENT STUDY[1]

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ABSTRACT

A few years ago, as a result of the passage of new legislation by the Illinois General Assembly, Illinois Institute for Entrepreneurial Education (IIEE) was established. IIEE subsequently forged a partnership with a large Illinois institution of higher education allowing the Institute to offer for academic credit courses in entrepreneurship education to Illinois teachers. Through the above courses, IIEE has been providing K-14 teachers with the knowledge, skill sets, and instructional pedagogies needed to help their own students learn about entrepreneurship as a viable career option. This paper presents the results of a survey-based assessment study of the participating teachers and examines the effectiveness of the IIEE program in accomplishing its objectives.

The study results indicate that the IIEE entrepreneurship education for the educator program has succeeded in making teachers aware that entrepreneurship can be used as an effective means to get students to apply their knowledge of academic subjects to a real-world context and to make schoolwork more meaningful and relevant to their lives. In addition, it appears to have been successful in equipping teachers with both the knowledge and the pedagogical means needed to actually build on entrepreneurship as a framework to better prepare students for their education-to-career transition. Finally, the program seems to have provided teachers with a context and a framework for reinforcing among students the type of personal qualities, behaviors and work habits that will be critical to their success in the workplace. The findings provide strong evidence in support of the potential efficacy of such E-education for the educator programs.

INTRODUCTION

In the past couple of decades, and in the face of corporate downsizings, the inherent value of being able to "make a job" of your own has become increasingly obvious. Entrepreneurial growth has become a critical part of the nation's economy. According to the US SBA, of the 25.5 million businesses in the U.S. today, approximately 25.1 million, or 98.5%, can be characterized as small businesses, i.e., with fewer than 100 employees (US Small Business Administration, 2000). These

small businesses account for approximately 76% of the country's new jobs and provide 67% of workers with their first jobs and basic job training (McLaurin, 2000).

Potential entrepreneurs appear to be critical to the notion of a resilient "self-renewing" economic environment (Shapiro, 1982). As a result, we have witnessed an unprecedented and growing interest in entrepreneurship education virtually throughout the world, including the U.S. (Vesper, 1986), EU countries (Garavan & O Cinneide, 1994b), Canada (Bechard & Toulouse, 1991), and Asia (Gibb, 1993). In the U.S. alone, for example, the number of students enrolled in entrepreneurship courses nationwide grew eightfold between 1980 and 1990 (Benson, 1993). Many of the entrepreneurship educational programs around the world have been designed to simulate entrepreneurship among young people, particularly children and adolescents (e.g., Banszak, 1990; Bianchi, 1993; Garavan & O Cinneide, 1994b; Harris, 1994). Today, approximately 15,000 students in the United States are taking courses in entrepreneurship and small business management from more than 1,500 colleges and universities nationwide (Scarborough & Zimmerer, 2003). Also, according to a recent poll of students by Junior Achievement, about 80 percent of the teenagers want to become entrepreneurs one day (Junior Achievement Interprise poll, 2000; Junior Achievement, 2003)

Despite this growing interest in E-education, however, research on its effectiveness has been sparse, anecdotal and, for the most part, limited to descriptions of ideal/model curriculums and/or subjective evaluations of individual programs (e.g., Benson, 1993; Bianchi, 1993; Garavan & O Cinneide, 1994a; Garavan & O Cinneide, 1994b; Rabbior, 1990; Rushing, 1990). The study presented here is an attempt to systematically and empirically address the above void. This study was initiated with the recognition that K-14 teachers are the primary gatekeepers of entrepreneurship education for the youth, and that their attitudes toward the subject and their commitment to its implementation can make or break the process. After all, introduction of E-education programs is predicated upon the increasingly popular view that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial qualities can be learned (Garavan & O Cinneide, 1994a) and, therefore, the skills and commitment of educators can play a seminal role in the success of the process. If so, it would seem imperative that we learn (a) whether teachers can be convinced of the importance of entrepreneurship, not just as a career option, but even more importantly, as a legitimate context for teaching the more conventional academic subjects, and (b) if, given the above awareness, teachers can be convinced to actually endorse and adopt the implementation of such a curricular and pedagogical model in their teaching practices.

Based on the above overview, the current study placed K-14 teachers in the center of the investigation by focusing on the effectiveness of E-education for the educator. To be more specific, it examined whether a particular state-sponsored E-education program has been successful in (a) persuading K-14 teachers to accept entrepreneurship as an appropriate platform for application of basic academic subjects, (b) providing them with the knowledge, skills set, and instructional pedagogies needed to help their own students learn about entrepreneurship as a viable career option,

and (c) getting them to venture into implementation of such an innovative curricular model by actually integrating entrepreneurship concepts into their academic instructions and incorporating e-related pedagogical tools and strategies into their own teaching practices.

STUDY BACKGROUND AND OBJECTIVES

The Illinois Institute for Entrepreneurship Education (IIEE) was created by an act of the Illinois General Assembly in 1988 "to foster the growth and development of entrepreneurship education and to educate the citizens of Illinois about the viability of entrepreneurship as a career option, and the role and contributions of entrepreneurs in economic development and job creation." A few years ago, as a result of the passage of new legislation by the Illinois General Assembly, IIEE forged a partnership with a large Illinois institution of higher education allowing the Institute to offer for academic credit courses in entrepreneurship education to Illinois teachers. Through the above courses, IIEE has been providing K-14 teachers with the knowledge, skill sets, and instructional pedagogies needed to help their own students learn about entrepreneurship as a viable career option. To that end, teachers have been taught a variety of innovative methods for integrating entrepreneurship concepts into their academic instructions. This new "teach the teacher" program clearly provided an excellent opportunity for examining the success of such entrepreneurship education programs for educators. This paper presents the results of a survey-based assessment study of the participating teachers and examines the effectiveness of the IIEE program in accomplishing the program's objectives.

METHODOLOGY

The subject pool for this study was the approximately 525 teachers who had taken one or more of the IIEE "teach the teacher" courses since 1997. Data for the study were collected through an anonymous questionnaire survey mailed to the study subjects. The survey instrument had undergone two reviews and revisions before the final approval by IIEE officials (the specific contents of the survey instrument are presented later in the Results and Discussion section). A cover letter signed by IIEE officials accompanied the survey. Respondents were instructed to return the completed surveys directly to the principal investigator in postage-paid return envelopes. This first questionnaire mail-out generated approximately 65 completed and useful surveys. This first mail-out was then followed by a reminder letter and a second copy of the survey instrument (approximately 4 weeks later). The second mail-out produced an additional 64 completed surveys, for a total of 129. Also noteworthy is that 15 surveys were returned to the sender as undeliverable,

reducing the effective size of the sampling pool to 510, and resulting in a total response rate of approximately 25%.

The resulting study sample represented a diverse group of teachers with an average of 18.4 years of teaching experience. Teachers from all K-14 levels (i.e., kindergarten, elementary school, junior high, high school, and community college) teaching a diverse array of academic subjects were represented in the sample. Approximately three-fourths of the study participants were female. Also, roughly 44% of the respondents were teachers who had taken the "Introduction to Entrepreneurship for Educators" course only, 10% had taken "Strategies for Teaching Entrepreneurship Education" only, and 46% had completed both courses.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 present the perceived benefits of the IIEE courses as reported by the respondents. It is clear from this data that IIEE has been very successful, not only in educating the participating teachers about entrepreneurship and related issues, but also in providing them with the "ammunition" they needed to actually integrate entrepreneurship concepts into the teaching of their own classes.

The survey results clearly show that the participating teachers have gained a strong appreciation for the important role that entrepreneurial activities play in the viability of the state and national economies. More importantly, the teachers seem to have gained a new perspective about the importance of teaching their own students about entrepreneurship and self-employment as a viable career option. Furthermore, the survey results show that the two IIEE courses have gone well beyond simply imparting content knowledge about entrepreneurship and fundamentals of business management. Rather, they seem to also have done an impressive job of providing teachers with the pedagogical tools and skill sets they need to teach students what entrepreneurship is all about, as well as getting them interested and actively involved/experienced in the notions of entrepreneurship and self-employment. The IIEE courses appear to have succeeded in making the teachers aware that entrepreneurship can be used as an effective means to get students to apply their knowledge of academic subjects to a real-world context and to make schoolwork more meaningful and relevant to their lives. In addition, these courses seem to have provided teachers with a context and a framework for reinforcing among students the type of personal qualities, behaviors and work habits that are critical to success in the workplace. In short, the survey data appears to suggest that IIEE courses have equipped the participating teachers with both the knowledge and the means to more effectively teach the relevance of academics to the real world of work and, thus, better prepare students for their education-to-career transition and, hopefully, increase the probability of their subsequent career success.

Table 1: Perceived Benefits of the IIEE Program (N = 129)		
Scale: Strongly Disagree = 1 2 3 4 5 = Strongly Agree	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**
Improvements in Respondents' Own Knowledge:		
• Learned what entrepreneurship is all about	**4.50**	0.81
• Developed an appreciation for role of entrepreneurship in a free-enterprise economy	**4.45**	0.76
• Learned what it takes to start a business	**4.34**	0.88
• Was given opportunity to gain experience in creating/developing a small business plan	**4.29**	0.96
• Learned to develop a workable business plan	**4.26**	1.00
• Developed awareness of entrepreneurial activities' importance to state's economy	**4.07**	0.87
• Learned various sources of financing a business venture	3.78	1.06
• Learned about support services available to business start ups (e.g, SBA, SCORE, etc.)	3.73	1.06
Improvements in Respondents' Skills for Teaching Entrepreneurship:		
• Developed appreciation for teaching about entrepreneurship as a viable career option	**4.29**	0.88
• Was exposed to knowledge/skills needed to teach students how to launch a business	**4.20**	0.96
• Was exposed to methods/materials/resources needed to teach entr. in a k-14 setting	**4.18**	1.03
• Learned to teach basic entrepreneurial skills	**4.18**	0.94
• Gained needed background to teach how to convert business ideas into business plans	**4.17**	0.92
• Was provided with the means to reinforce (among students) the personal qualities, behaviors, and work habits that are critical to success in the workplace	**4.13**	0.93
• Learned how entr. could be used as a framework for teaching vocational subjects	**4.13**	0.85
• Learned how to better teach the relationship between academics and real world of work	**4.09**	0.94
• Became better equipped to prepare students for their education-to-career transition	**4.07**	0.90
• Course(s) gave the ammunition to make school work more relevant to students' lives	**4.06**	0.91
• Course(s) gave me the ammunition to better prepare students for success in business	**4.05**	0.94
• Learned new ways of helping students apply academic skills in a real-world context	**4.05**	0.87
• Course(s) exposed me to a new way of helping students develop leadership skills	**4.05**	0.94
• Learned methods of integrating entr. and business mgt into classroom instructions	**4.02**	0.97
• Became more comfortable to teach the fundamentals of operating/managing business	**4.00**	0.92
• Learned how entr. could be used as a framework for teaching academic subjects	3.96	0.97
• Learned how entr. could be used as a framework for discussion of "ethics and values"	3.95	0.97
• Learned how entr. could be used as a framework for teaching basics of applied econ.	3.91	0.89
• Learned how to provide students the opportunity to practice team skills	3.86	1.07
• Course(s) helped me teach academic concepts in a more relevant & interesting manner	3.83	1.09
• Was exposed to new ways of enhancing student's analytical/problem-solving skills	3.76	1.05
• Was exposed to new ways of enhancing students' communication/public speaking skills	3.70	1.07
Mean values > 4.0 have been bold-faced.		

When the teachers were asked overall how beneficial they found the two courses in terms of impact on teaching their own classes, the average ratings were 4.08 and 4.12 (on a 1=not at all beneficial to 5=very beneficial scale). Based on the above results, it is not at all surprising that the study participants reported a high degree of satisfaction with both IIEE courses; the mean overall satisfaction ratings for the two course were 4.37 and 4.24 (on a 1 = very dissatisfied to 5 = very satisfied scale).   These favorable evaluations are further supported by the fact that 95% of the participating teachers have indicated they would recommend these courses to other teachers. The respondents also judged many aspects/components of the courses favorably.

An important component of the IIEE assessment study was to examine if, and how, the participating teachers actually changed the way they taught their own classes as a result of completing the IIEE course(s). That is, did the teachers actually implement some of the ideas and strategies to which they had been exposed in IIEE courses, or did they simply continue to do what they had always been doing prior to taking these courses? Table 2 outlines the results.

It is clear from the table that a large percentage of these teachers did in fact put ideas gleaned from the program to use and integrated the materials into their own teaching in a wide variety of ways. The most common strategies adopted by more than 60 percent of the participating teachers seem to have involved incorporating entrepreneurship and related concepts into lecture notes and using such materials as examples for illustrating academic concepts. Also, anywhere from 40 percent to approximately one-half of the respondents used entrepreneurs and/or business practitioners as guest speakers in their classes, took students on field trips to business organizations, showed business and entrepreneurship videos in their classes and/or used assignments requiring students to identify potential business ventures. A little less than one-third of the respondents helped establish an in-school business operated by students and/or required students to develop a business plan for a personal or school-based business. More than one out of five of the participating teachers used business simulation games in their classes and/or assigned research projects related to business and economics. Finally, many teachers initiated a variety of miscellaneous business-related projects or activities ranging from establishing an entrepreneurship club or a young entrepreneurs camp, to business-related after school programs or participation in business plan competitions.

As indicated above, roughly 30 percent of the participating teachers helped establish student-operated businesses in their schools. These school-based businesses ranged from concession stands and school supply stores to different types of bazaars, recycling services, vending machines, and cheerleading bake sales. The variety among these school-based businesses is indeed impressive (see Table 2 for details).

The survey also probed about the participating teachers' perception regarding the level of support they had received from their school administration for implementation of their entrepreneurship ideas and projects. The results showed that while more than one-half (53%) of the respondents felt they had received adequate to enthusiastic support, approximately 17% reported that they had received little or no support from their school administration.

Table 2: The Ways Respondents Changed Their Own Teaching as a Result of Completing the IIEE Program		
	Number of Respondents	% of Respondents
Used examples related to business/entr. to illustrate academic concepts	85	65.9%
Integrated entrepreneurship materials into lecture notes	78	60.5%
Used entr/bus people as guest speakers in class(es)	62	48.1%
Took students on field trips to business organizations	59	45.7%
Used bus/entrepreneurship-related videos in class(es)	55	42.6%
Used assignments requiring students to identify potential business ventures	53	41.1%
Required develop business plan for a personal/school-based operation	39	30.2%
Helped establish an in-school business operated by students*	38	29.5%
Used business simulation game(s) in class(es)	32	24.8%
Assigned research projects related to the world of business and economics	27	20.9%
Helped my school establish business related after-school program	18	14.0%
Assigned case studies that relate to business management and operations	16	12.4%
Encouraged students to participate in a business plan competition	16	12.4%
Used business plan software in class(es)	14	10.9%
Helped my school establish an entrepreneurship club	10	7.8%
Encouraged students to organize a business plan competition	4	3.1%
Helped my school establish a "young entrepreneurs learning camp"	1	0.8%
* Type of School-Based Business Established:		
School store	20	15.5%
Concession stand (doughnuts, popcorn, and other snacks)	12	9.3%
School insignia products (e.g., caps, sweatshirts) or school supplies	12	9.3%
School/community/Christmas bazaar	10	7.8%
Recycling business	4	3.1%
Maintenance/construction/carpentry service	3	3.3%
Embroidery business	2	1.6%
Vending machines	1	0.8%
Cheerleading bake sale	1	0.8%
Buddy beads jewelry	1	0.8%
Flowers and plants	1	0.8%
Holiday gift shop	1	0.8%
Button business	1	0.8%
Pottery	1	0.8%
Photography	1	0.8%

So, while not all participating teachers may have found categorical support for introducing the types of pedagogical initiatives that were cultivated and promoted by IIEE, it is at least safe to say that these teachers' efforts to implement innovative instructional ideas were in a large majority of cases not thwarted/obstructed by their school administration.

Despite the wide range of entrepreneurship/business related activities and projects through which respondents introduced their students to business and entrepreneurship, approximately two-thirds of these teachers felt that they had not done all that they could in that regard. When asked to identify the greatest obstacles discouraging them from doing so, more than one-half specified the major problem to be lack of time needed to rethink and redesign their courses (see Table 3). Other significant culprits included lack of needed resources, lack of direct relevance of the materials to the courses they taught, and lack of support from school administration. Interestingly, while 22.5% of respondents did identify lack of student interest in entrepreneurship/business-related subjects as an obstacle, more than three-fourth of the respondents did not.

Table 3: What Have Been the Greatest Obstacles Discouraging You From Integrating Entrepreneurship Concepts into Your Teaching?		
	Number of Respondents	% of Respondents
Lack of time needed to rethink and redesign my courses	42	52.5%
Lack of needed resources	33	41.3%
Lack of direct relevance of the material to courses I teach	25	31.3%
Lack of support from the school administration	22	27.5%
Lack of student interest in such ideas/activities	18	22.5%
Lack of support from local board of education	6	7.5%

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the study results seem to provide strong support for the effectiveness of the IIEE E-education program for educators. But even more importantly are the broader implications of the findings. For instance, it appears that, designed properly, E-education programs do have the potential to succeed in making teachers aware of the significance of entrepreneurship in the free enterprise system, and of the fact that it can be used as an effective means to get students to apply their knowledge of academic subjects to a real-world context. Also, the K-14 educational establishment in general would not be resistant to, and may even welcome, the idea of integrating entrepreneurship concepts, as an application context, into the teaching of conventional academic subjects to make schoolwork more meaningful and relevant to students' lives. In addition, such

programs do have the potential capacity to equip participating teachers with both the requisite knowledge and the needed pedagogical means to actually build on entrepreneurship as a framework to better prepare students for their education-to-career transition and, hopefully, increase the probability of their subsequent career success. Furthermore, properly equipped with e-related pedagogical ammunition, most teachers will not hesitate, but instead will be enthusiastically inclined, to actually incorporate such pedagogical tools and instructional strategies into their teaching practice. Finally, and even more importantly, the study results point, albeit indirectly, to the trickle-down benefits and potentially profound impacts that such programs may have both in spawning new student entrepreneurs, and in provide a context and a framework for reinforcing among students the type of personal qualities, behaviors and work habits that will be critical to their success in the workplace.

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ENDNOTES

APPLIED MANUSCRIPTS

Manuscripts which appear in this section of the *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education* represent educational applications. The Editorial Board judges such manuscripts on their ability to provide information of practical value to entrepreneurship educators.

From Bored Room to Boardroom: Using Live Ventures in Entrepreneurship Education written by Samuel R. Gray of New Mexico State University explores the pedagogical tools that provide actual entrepreneurial experience and add value to entrepreneurship education. While many such tools exist, the purpose of this paper is to describe and discuss the "entrepreneurship laboratory"-an experiential learning course in which students meaningfully participate in the launch and/or management of a live venture. This paper introduces and describes the entrepreneurship laboratory concept, provides examples of the different ways university entrepreneurship programs are using the concept, and describes in detail the experiences at New Mexico State University with their student-owned company, Grayzon, Inc. The discussion includes the benefits of the program, the potential problems, feedback from students, some unanticipated consequences, and the potential for enhancing the educational experience of business school students from all academic disciplines.

Drs. Margo Sorgman and Kathy Parkison both of Indiana University Kokomo consider *Economics in Action: A Sife, University, and Classroom Partnership* in their article. They explain that Indiana requires K-8 instruction in economics. The Education literature makes it clear and their preliminary research data corroborates that classroom teachers find this to be a challenge given their limited economic knowledge and their inability to link standards to instruction. To provide a classroom teacher with the mentoring needed to gain these skills, IU Kokomo Students who are involved in the Students in Free Enterprise Students (SIFE) class will help the classroom teacher present the economic materials, administer the pre and post tests, and generally assess the effectiveness of published economics education materials.

Starving Students Productions - Creating and Operating a New Business Venture: Lessons Learned written by Felicia G. Lassk of Northeastern University and Linda E. Parry and Douglas Fugate both of Western Kentucky University is a descriptive account by the instructors of an entrepreneurship course. During a two-semester sequence, students formed a company, Starving Student Productions, which produced and marketed a musical CD. Planning, implementation, and results are presented and discussed. Authors discuss the implications of their experiences for entrepreneurs, students, and instructors and offer recommendations for future courses.

Dr. James Clark of Southern Arkansas University in his article entitled, *Marketing Students in Free Enterprise to College Students: The Five C's of SIFE* discusses the factors that have led to the growth of Students in Free Enterprise (SIFE) into a worldwide service organization for college students. The author identifies the benefits that students might obtain from membership and suggests recruiting team members based on a basic marketing principle, benefit segmentation. The discussion centers on five benefit groups and outlines strategies for team development to ensure that each benefit area is considered. Finally, the manuscript suggests strategies for marketing SIFE to prospective team members.

A Multi-Tier Strategy for Educating West African Youth to Business and Entrepreneurship by James R. Maxwell, Buffalo State College, State University of New York, begins with an overview. He states that at the beginning of the new Millennium the problem of economic poverty which engulfed the continent of Africa through the entire 19th Century still exists. Traditional and modern scientific management theories still coexist with the belief that in a booming or normal economy, there should be high employment, economic wealth, growth, self-reliance, and very minimal poverty. The current employment rate of youth in West Africa is at a very high proportion compared to many other economic regions of the world. African governments have attempted to address this problem, but are always coming up short. Finding solutions to poverty problems will rid global society of its major problem. One of the enduring barriers to prosperity in an open-market economy is the failure to master the skills of Entrepreneurship. Therefore, prosperity for disadvantaged youths depends on, at the most basic level, an adequate supply of youth entrepreneurs.

In her *Variations on a Theme: Teaching Entrepreneurial Finance,* Dr. Susan Coleman, of the University of Hartford, responds to the increasing number and economic prominence of small and entrepreneurial firms. She notes that a growing number of colleges and universities are developing programs and courses in the various aspects of entrepreneurship including entrepreneurial finance. Many of the principles and techniques taught in corporate finance can also be applied in a course on entrepreneurial finance. In some instances, however, these corporate finance principles and techniques need to be modified to "fit" entrepreneurial firms. Dr. Coleman discusses some of the topics that should be addressed in a course on entrepreneurial finance and ways in which entrepreneurial finance differs from corporate finance.

FROM BORED ROOM TO BOARDROOM: USING LIVE VENTURES IN ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Pedagogical tools that provide actual entrepreneurial experience add value to entrepreneurship education. While many such tools exist, the purpose of this paper is to describe and discuss the "entrepreneurship laboratory"-an experiential learning course in which students meaningfully participate in the launch and/or management of a live venture.

There are many viable approaches to the Entrepreneurship Laboratory concept. This paper introduces and describes the concept, provides examples of the different ways university entrepreneurship programs are using the concept, and describes in detail the experiences at New Mexico State University with their student-owned company, Grayzon, Inc. The discussion includes the benefits of the program, the potential problems, feedback from students, some unanticipated consequences, and the potential for enhancing the educational experience of business school students from all academic disciplines.

INTRODUCTION

How should entrepreneurship be taught in colleges and universities? Many professors involved in entrepreneurship education have grappled with that perplexing question for years. A general consensus seems to be emerging that the standard lecture style format has a limited role to play in entrepreneurship education (c.f., Fiet, 2001; Johannisson, Landstrom & Rosenberg, 1998). There is even some evidence that traditional teaching styles in University entrepreneurship programs actually discourage the potential entrepreneur (Johannisson, 1991).

Guy Kawasaki, CEO of the venture capital firm garage.com, recently spoke of what he called "Death Magnets"-things that attract and then attack smart people who should know better. Lecture style teaching is a death magnet for entrepreneurship programs. It attracts with its twin temptations of tradition and control and then attacks with bored students, low instructor ratings, and generally unhappy outcomes for all involved.

Fortunately, for both educators and students, there is a different approach that is especially well suited to teaching entrepreneurship. Grounded in experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984), there is an expansive set of pedagogical tools that increase student interest and participation in the learning process. Some of the methods in use in entrepreneurship courses include simulations, Small

Business Institute programs, internships with entrepreneurial firms, and business plan development. While these methods have their place and certainly add value to our programs, they also all fall short of allowing the students the more realistic experience of actually founding and running an entrepreneurial venture.

The purpose of this paper is to introduce and describe the use of "entrepreneurship laboratories" in giving students just such an experience. While many variations are possible, these laboratories include some sort of live venture in which the students provide the entrepreneurial talent. After a brief introduction to the concept, the remainder of the paper focuses on the experiences of New Mexico State University with their student-owned company, Grayzon, Inc.

THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP LABORATORY CONCEPT

The basic concept is to use the launch of a for-profit enterprise as a living laboratory that allows students hands-on, real time experience in starting and running an entrepreneurial venture. Similar to a laboratory in a science course, the entrepreneurship laboratory is a supplement to, rather than a replacement of theory based education. Evidence from a wide variety of academic disciplines suggests that this combination of theory and practice leads to the best outcomes for students (Johnson & Johnson, 1993; Salemi, 2002).

Bucknell University was an early adopter of the basic concept (Miller, 1991). They organized their introductory management course to include the requirement that large teams of students designed and ran their own business venture. These were short-term, semester long ventures with products such as T-shirts, calendars, coffee, and school logo items. While entrepreneurial skills are required, the primary focus of the program is the operation and management of these businesses.

Another variation of the laboratory concept is in use at Cal State-Fresno. Their course, New Venture Labs, requires the entire class to participate in the launch of a local entrepreneur's venture. Although the students do not own the venture, they benefit by applying their knowledge of new venture formation.

Some "Entrepreneurship Laboratory" courses do not involve the launch of new ventures. The "New Venture Laboratory Course" at The University of Chicago, for example, is an SBI-type program that offers consulting to existing small firm in the Chicago area (http://www-gsb.uchicago.edu/research/entrep/NVL.htm). The focus of these SBI-type courses is the management of small businesses that are not owned by the students.

The "Entrepreneurship Laboratory" course at New Mexico State University (NMSU) represents the fourth type of experience in which students both own and launch the ventures. Figure 1 summarizes these four generic types. The matrix is organized by Emphasis (launch vs. manage) and Ownership (external vs. students). The remainder of this paper will describe in detail the program at New Mexico State University (NMSU), which is built on around the launch of a venture that is owned by the students in the Entrepreneurship Laboratory class.

Figure 1
Variations in Entrepreneurship Laboratory Courses by Ownership and Emphasis

OWNERSHIP

External   *Internal*

		External	Internal
EMPHASIS	*Launch*	Cal State-Fresno "New Venture Labs"	NMSU "Entrepreneurship Laboratory"
	Manage	Chicago "New Venture Laboratory"	Bucknell "Management 101"

THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP LABORATORY
AT NEW MEXICO STATE UNIVERSITY

Strategic planning at NMSU identified entrepreneurship as being of central importance to the curriculum. New Mexico is dominated by small businesses (Small Business Administration Office of Advocacy, 2002) and many students are from family business backgrounds. The regional private sector job market is predominantly small businesses, and many students either find employment in an existing small business or start their own upon graduation.

NMSU developed an Entrepreneurship major to provide two experiences - starting a business and running a business. The first experience, starting a business, is the central idea behind the Entrepreneurship Laboratory. The course is part of a four-course sequence that entrepreneurship majors must complete.

As the course was first envisioned, each class would start and run a semester long venture, similar to the Bucknell model. Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle was used as the theoretical basis for the design of the course.

Kolb's theory identifies four stages in the learning cycle: concrete experience, reflection, conceptualization, and active experimentation. The course design allowed students to progress through each of these stages. For example, students would brainstorm to develop alternative venture concepts, perform feasibility studies to narrow the choices down to a handful of promising alternatives, debate the merits of these alternatives, and finally decide on a venture for the semester. A debriefing session organized around small group discussions allows students to reflect on their work and draw generalizations to be used in future entrepreneurial ventures. The experiential learning environment is ideal for entrepreneurship students as it allows them to develop the same skills they will encounter in their own start-ups (Ulrich & Cole, 1987).

The instructor ran a pilot program in the Fall semester of the 2000-2001 academic year. The model outlined above was used exclusively. The students chose to sell Southwestern and Indian arts

and craft items on the Internet, using eBay auctions. The business venture was moderately successful. The course, however, fell far short of the expectations of students and faculty.

Several problems and issues were identified as a result of observations of that pioneering effort as well as feedback from the students in the class. The most pressing problem was raised by one of the university vice presidents who informed the program director that he had exposed the university to potential lawsuits due to the added liability of carrying on a live business venture. There are also other legal issues regarding workers compensation requirements when using students in for-profit activities.

In addition, the program director was informed that the State of New Mexico prohibits using any state resources for private business ventures. He was further informed that the project must be legally separated from the University if the course was to continue. The only University resource that could be used in the future is the classroom and then only for the times the class is scheduled. The students and faculty involved in the process were not allowed to use University computers, servers, or e-mail to run the business, in order to comply with state law.

A second major set of problems arose as a result of the short-term nature of the venture. The concept required that the venture be designed, planned, implemented, and cashed out in the course of a single semester. Although this design worked very well at Bucknell, our students felt that this type of venture was unrealistic and venture profits were due primarily to the absence of employee costs rather than their entrepreneurial abilities. They suggested an on-going, long-term venture as an alternative or supplement to the semester only ventures. In addition, planning and dealing with the necessary legal requirements took a great deal of time at the beginning of the semester which severely constrained the actual operation window.

A third problem arose from the use of small teams for specific tasks in running the venture. Students reported an alarming level of free-riding by some team members. The students did not receive any monetary benefit from the venture and thus did not feel any "ownership" of the business. Venture leaders were for the most part ineffective and many students complained of boredom and lack of interest. As one can imagine, the instructor evaluations were very poor for this pilot course.

Entrepreneurship Laboratory Implementation, Phase One

In response to these problems, the instructor and program director redesigned the concept to include a permanent legal structure for the ventures, an on-going business in addition to the short-term ventures, compensation for students, and student ownership and participation in the profits of the enterprise. A decision was made not to use university computers nor other public resources that were prohibited under state law and university policy.

Phase One occurred in the Spring, 2001, semester. Twenty-eight students registered for the course. The primary purpose of Phase One was to build the legal and organizational structure that would address the University's legal issues and provide a vehicle for future ventures. This class did

not participate in any business venture that semester, but instead acted as founders and initial owners of the company. A secondary goal was to develop a business plan for the on-going venture to be implemented in the next semester.

Students were told on the first class day that each of them would be required to invest at least $40 in the company and the class as a whole must also attract at least 10 other investors, preferably from the business school faculty. The initial investment of $40 was chosen because the course had no required textbook and the savings there could be used to pay the $40 without placing an undue burden on the students. This strategy allowed the company to raise $1,520, which was more than sufficient to cover the basic organization costs. A secondary goal for the semester was to develop and research a number of ideas for the on-going venture, which were then to be passed on to the next class.

The class was organized into "committees" which roughly matched the different business functions in a typical business. The Kolb Experiential Learning Cycle model was introduced to the class to serve as a theoretical guide for committee activities. Each committee was given a specific task to accomplish each week. The Executive Committee, for example, was asked to research and make recommendations on the legal form the organization should take. This committee, as well as all other committees, was required to present the results of their research to the class so that all the students would benefit from their experiences. Once a presentation of an issue was completed, the entire class made the decisions with each student allowed to vote in accordance to their equity (some students invested more than $40). After a decision was made, a debriefing session was conducted including reflections on the lessons we had learned, following the Kolb model.

The class decided to form a C-Corporation and incorporate the business in the state of Delaware. The next step was to choose a name for the business. This proved to be much more difficult and time consuming than anticipated. The class was instructed to come up with a name that was 1) general enough to be used with a wide variety of ventures, 2) had no trademark infringement problems, 3) had an available domain name, 4) was available in Delaware and New Mexico, and 5) was satisfactory to at least 75% of the students in the class.

It took the class about four weeks of class time to reach a consensus on the name Grayzon, Inc. The class went through over one hundred potential names. Each name was researched and most were found to have trademark or domain name problems that eliminated them from consideration. Many others were disagreeable to much of the class and were likewise eliminated. Grayzon, Inc. was the unanimous choice out of the three names that survived the screening process.

Once the class decided on a name and organizational form, the class elected a CEO, Executive Vice President, Secretary, Treasurer, Vice President of Finance, and Vice President of Marketing. The instructor served as Chairman and made an additional investment in the corporation. These officers then became the permanent Executive Committee. The Executive Committee delegated work to the other committees. The membership in the other committees changed frequently so each student would experience maximum exposure to as many business functions as

possible. Each time committee membership changed, one student continued on each committee to insure a certain level of continuity.

Table 1 shows the tasks that the various committees researched, recommended, presented to the class, and implemented over the next few weeks.

Table 1: Initial Organizational Activities	
Step	Activity
1	Obtained a stock subscription agreement from each stockholder
2	Researched and authored the corporation's charter and by-laws
3	Filed incorporation papers with the State of Delaware
4	Registered domain name
5	Registered with the New Mexico Department of Labor
6	Obtained a Federal EIN number and a state gross receipts tax certificate
7	Registered as a foreign corporation with the state of New Mexico
8	Secured a web hosting service
9	Opened a corporate bank account
10	Rented a post office box in the corporation's name
11	Completed and filed local business registration forms
12	Applied for a federal trademark and a state tradename registration
13	Designed a company logo
14	Filed a "First Report" with the corporation commission
15	Set up an accounting system
16	Designed a stockholder database
17	Obtained stock certificates and a corporate seal
18	Designed web site
19	Researched several ideas for the on-going venture
20	Wrote most of the business plan for the next semester's class

When Grayzon, Inc. received its certificate of incorporation a formal organization meeting was held to ratify the bylaws, formally elect officers, and issue stock certificates. For most of the

twenty-eight students, their share of Grayzon, Inc., stock represented their first experience with stock ownership.

Entrepreneurship Laboratory Implementation, Phase Two

Phase Two commenced with the Fall, 2001 semester. Phase Two entailed the actual start-up of the venture, the management of the venture, and insuring that all filings necessary for statutory compliance of the corporation were done. An investment was once again required by each student, lessening the need for borrowed funds.

The long-term venture that was launched was the publication of a campus magazine, the Green Frog. The magazine focused on the students of the university and was distributed free of charge. Advertising was sold to local businesses to finance the venture. The venture was a modest success financially but the course was extremely successful, as will be discussed later.

The student/owners of Grayzon have plans to franchise the business to other universities as a fund raiser for their local entrepreneurship clubs. They have already contacted a number of universities and the interest level has been very high. In order to keep the entrepreneurial focus of the course, future classes will plan and launch additional ventures as units of the holding company, Grayzon, Inc.

The student stockholders decided that 25% of all corporate profits should be donated to the University to be used exclusively for scholarships for entrepreneurship students. The remaining 75% of profits will be reinvested in future operations until the company is profitable enough to pay dividends. The students also decided to hold annual meetings to coincide with homecoming to allow our alumni to attend.

There are plans to involve more business school faculty in the Entrepreneurship Laboratory in the future. Some of them are already stockholders. The company could then be used as a living laboratory by classes outside the entrepreneurship program. An accounting class, for example, could practice their auditing skills on the company. A finance class might follow Grayzon's attempts to raise capital and even participate in the process. Marketing classes could help develop advertising campaigns. Many other possibilities that have not yet been considered no doubt exist.

BENEFITS OF THE CORPORATE FORM
IN THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP LABORATORY

Forming a C-Corporation provided a legal and organizational vehicle for engaging in future for-profit ventures. The university was quite happy to be shielded from liability and future classes would not have to spend much class time on organizational and legal issues. A new business would only have to file an assumed name certificate to comply with state law.

The corporate form seemed to be very effective in fostering active participation in teamwork. Students took great pride in being a stockholder, a first for most of them. This gave them a level of commitment and participation that the faculty have not observed in other classes they have taught. There was simply not a single problem with free-riding team members. As one student commented, "I like that the students owned the business-it meant we had deadlines and we were accountable to each other." In addition to the stock ownership feature of this course, the high level of commitment and involvement may also be due to the experiential learning approach itself (Becker, 1997).

The corporate organizational form also allowed the leadership void noted in the pilot project to be filled rather effectively. Officers of the company had a great deal of responsibility and put in more time that the rest of the class. Their principal reward was a very nice line on their resumes.

There was one additional benefit-a totally unanticipated one that could prove to be very valuable in the future. As mentioned above, each of the entrepreneurship students is required to be a stockholder in the company. They will continue being stockholders after they graduate, allowing a convenient way to maintain an accurate and current address database of former entrepreneurship students. This database can then be used for fund raising for endowment funds and scholarships as well as an additional source of investments in the company. The stockholder database will also be instrumental in future longitudinal research projects.

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP LABORATORY

Exit interviews revealed that most students considered this class format to be an ideal learning vehicle. Some typical student remarks follow.

"This class was very much what I consider the perfect environment for learning. As a graduating senior looking back, this was one of the best courses I have taken."
"I've learned more in this class than in my other classes because the course definitely reflected the real world."
"I felt that this is one of the most useful classes I have taken in my college career because I will be able to apply this information to a future business that I hope to open."
"This class has given me the best hands-on experience. The professor has organized the class in such a manner that allows maximum involvement with maximum exposure."
"This class gives much more hands-on experience than a traditional lecture style class. The class gave us experience that we can take with us when we begin our careers."
"Very productive because we constantly were applying what we were learning. I learned more in this class than I have in many others because of its format."

One reason for the success of this course is that the format was "student-approved" as recommended by Fiet (2001). The primary mechanisms for student approval were the ownership of stock in the company and their responsibilities on the various committees. The exit interviews revealed that the students perceived that ownership of the company by the students was very conducive to class participation and motivation. Absolutely no free-riding of committee members was reported during the exit interviews. Some typical comments follow.

"There was a lot more involvement by the students in this class which is better than only one or two people speaking up in a lecture class."
"I think that this type of class makes you want to come to class and participate. This class is much better than a standard lecture class because you learn more and it shows you 'the real world' experience."
"I like how each person gets some experience in each department - everyone gets a well rounded experience and gets to see all aspects of what is involved."
"The class involvement was great! There seems to be a lot more participation than in my other classes."
"I liked the way we worked in teams. We rotated through all the committees and thus had the chance to experience all the different duties in running a business."
"The best part about this class was that we called the shots. We are the founders and owners of Grayzon and that means we wanted it to work."

Students were also asked to complete an exit questionnaire that measured their perceptions on course structure and outcomes compared to a lecture style course. The students were instructed to rate each of the nine items on the questionnaire relative to a traditional format course. The ratings were based on a 5 point Likert scale: 1 = much less than a traditional format course, 2 = somewhat less than a traditional format course, 3 = about the same as a traditional format course, 4 = somewhat more than a traditional format course, 5 = much more than a traditional format course. The results are displayed in Table 2.

The data from Table 2 demonstrate that eight of the nine items received a rating between "somewhat more" and "much more." Only one item, difficulty of the material was rated very low. This low rating is understandable for two reasons. First, the "material" of the course pertained to an extremely limited knowledge set-the launch of a live business venture. In this regard, less material was covered than in a standard, lecture type course. Second, research on active learning suggests that learning is more effective and easier when using the active learning approach (Lunsford & Herzog, 1997; Peterson, 2001; Warren, 1997). Following this reasoning, the low perception for difficulty of material can be interpreted as a positive.

Table 2: Students' Perceptions of the Entrepreneurship Laboratory Relative to Lecture-Style Courses		
Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
My interest in the class	4.46	0.59
My retention of the material	4.29	0.86
Practical experience I gained	4.88	0.34
Amount I actually learned	4.25	0.74
Usefulness to me personally	4.42	0.78
Difficulty of the material	2.00	0.88
My involvement in the class	4.38	0.88
Depth of my understanding of material	4.04	0.75
Effectiveness of teamwork	4.13	0.61

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The Entrepreneurship Laboratory course at NMSU is part of an entrepreneurship program that emphasizes experiential learning. In order for such a course to be effective, it should be a supplement to, rather than a replacement of, theory based courses. Salemi (2002) argued that since learning styles vary from student to student, the combination of experiential learning and traditional courses allows the instructor to reach the maximum number of students. Laboratory courses should be based on sound pedagogical theory such as the Kolb model.

The entrepreneurship laboratory experience at NMSU provides valuable experience and insights to others wishing to implement a live-venture course. A major mistake was the failure to plan with university administration in advance. Many universities have a risk management professional who should be involved from the beginning of the project.

While other organizational forms can be used, there are many benefits that favor the C-Corporation. In addition to ensuring "buy in" and "student approval" for the experience, the corporation minimizes liability exposure, saves considerable time each semester, and provides an efficient way to keep up with the program's graduates for fund-raising and research purposes.

The entrepreneurship laboratory can be used as the basis for a common experience for classes throughout the business school. Faculty should be encouraged to become stockholders and use the on-going business venture as a laboratory for the courses they teach. An accounting class, for example, can practice their skills by conducting audits of the company. A management class might participate in the management of the ventures.

A down side also exists. There are things that need to be done during summers and holidays when students are not around. Holidays, travel, and unexpected absences have to be dealt with. Despite these problems, the NMSU experience demonstrates that the benefits of the program far outweigh the disadvantages.

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ECONOMICS IN ACTION: A SIFE, UNIVERSITY, AND CLASSROOM PARTNERSHIP

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ABSTRACT

Indiana requires K-8 instruction in economics. The Education literature makes it clear and our preliminary research data corroborates that clear that classroom teachers find this to be a challenge given their limited economic knowledge and their inability to link standards to instruction. The Indiana University Kokomo School of Business, the Center for Economic Education, the Division of Education, and a local school corporation are in a partnership to study the impact of economics education instruction. The Indiana and National economics standards have guided the selection of instructional materials, pre and post tests, and content coverage that were developmentally appropriate for the fifth grade classroom involved in this project.

From our previously published studies, it is clear that teachers need a deepened knowledge of economics, knowledge of curriculum materials available, and they need to see Economics In Action before they are comfortable with utilizing these materials on their own. To provide a classroom teacher with the mentoring needed, IU Kokomo Students who are involved in the Students in Free Enterprise Students (SIFE) class will help the classroom teacher present the economic materials, administer the pre and post tests, and generally assess the effectiveness of published economics education materials.

INDIANA ECONOMIC STANDARDS AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT

Indiana teachers are now required to develop standards-based curriculum in economics education. Under the Indiana General Assembly's direction, standards were designed that "are world-class, clear, concise, jargon-free, and by grade level" (Indiana Department of Education, 2001). The standards are benchmarked to content in the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) and the National Council for Economic Education Voluntary Standards (NCEE). Recommended by the Indiana Education Roundtable, the standards were developed by the State Board of Education in summer 2001. The goal of the social studies standards, as stated in the teacher edition of the Indiana Academic Standards for Social Studies is "the development of informed, responsible citizens who participate effectively in our democracy." (Indiana Department of Education, 2001) To achieve this goal, the standards integrate knowledge with skills for inquiry, thinking and participation. The Indiana standards are organized around five content areas outlined

by the National Council for the Social Studies. Those content areas are History, Civics and Government, Geography, Economics, and Individuals, Society, and Culture.

The Center for Educational Policy Research/Standards for Success in their document, Knowledge and Skills for University Success, described the economic understandings of successful students. Those students understand basic economic concepts of scarcity, opportunity cost, trade offs, markets, and supply and demand; understand the difference between a market economy and a central planned or command economy; understand the role government plays in the U.S. economy; understand the concepts of exchange and trade and the impacts of a global economy, including implications for individuals, the U.S. and other nations; understands the conflict among social goals of an economic system (e.g. security, freedom, equity, efficiency, stability, and growth); and understand and know how to use economic analysis tools, including functions and basic statistics. (Center for Educational Policy Research, 2002). Throughout their school years, all students should be gaining the economic knowledge listed above and the skills to help them become well informed about the world around them and to prepare them to be responsible and effective citizens of Indiana and the United States. To achieve this, a scope and sequence has been written from kindergarten to twelfth grade, with key topics, concepts, and skills which are introduced early, reinforced, and expanded. The scope and sequence for economics education in Indiana is as follows:

Kindergarten	students explain how people do different jobs and work to meet basic wants
First Grade	students will explain how people in the school and community use goods and services and make choices as both producers and consumers
Second Grade	students will describe how people in a community use productive resources, specialize in different types of jobs, and depend on each other to supply goods and services.
Third Grade	students will explain how people in the local community make choices about using goods, services, and productive resources, how they engage in trade to satisfy their economic wants, how they use a variety of sources to gather and apply information bout economic changes in the community, and how they compare costs and benefits in economic decision making.
Grade Four	students will study and compare the characteristics of Indiana's changing economy in the past and present.
Grade Five	students will describe the productive resources and market relationships that influence the way people produce goods and services and earn a living in the United States in different historical periods.
Grade Six	students will examine the influence of physical and cultural factors upon the economic systems of countries in Europe and the Americas.
Grade Seven	students will examine the influence of physical and cultural factors upon the economic systems found in countries of Africa, Asia, and the Southwest Pacific.

Grade Eight	students will identify, describe, and evaluate the influence of economic factors on national development from the founding of the nation to the end of Reconstruction.
High School Level	students will understand that productive resources are limited; students will understand the role that supply and demand, prices, and profits play in determining production and distribution in a market economy; students will understand the organization and role of business firms and analyze various types of market structure in the United States economy; students will understand the roles of government in market economy are the provision of public goods and services, redistribution of income, protection of property rights, and resolution of market failures; students will understand the means by which economic performance is measured; and students will understand the role of money and financial institutions in a market economy.

WHAT INDIANA TEACHERS NEED TO TEACH ECONOMICS

Many of Indiana's teachers have not had any formal training in economics, especially in the teaching of economics. To correct that problem, the Parkison and Sorgman have been engaged in team-teaching a pedagogy-based survey course in economics education. This unique partnership between a Division of Education and a School of Business has resulted in teaching awards, recognition by the Indiana Council for the Social Studies, selection for international travel by the National Council for Economic Education, and 25 presentations at the state, national, and international levels. Their published research demonstrates that teachers' economic literacy is enhanced, their comfort with economics is heightened, and confidence in their ability to develop and implement curriculum is increased as a result of this basic course in economics education. (Parkison & Sorgman,1998; Parkison & Sorgman, 1999; Parkison & Sorgman, 2000; Sorgman & Parkison, 2002). "Linking economic content with curriculum gives teachers the tools they need to make economics a vital part of their daily lesson plans." (2000). The active learning approach in the instructors' course for teachers makes a powerful impact on teachers' efficacy with economics content and curriculum. While teachers who participated in the economics education course bolstered their economic knowledge enough to successfully teach the subject, many still expressed reservations about actual implementation of economic lessons.

In his text on standards and mastery learning, Gentile describes seven key elements needed for the increase in knowledge, skills, and attitudes of teachers (Gentile & Lalley, 2003) One of the elements is the opportunity for active learning. That means teachers need to actually implement curriculum in the classroom. The second element is developing coherence with other learning activities. That means teachers need a classroom context within which they can place economics curriculum and make linkages across the content areas. In other words, this is not just a social studies curriculum done during the social studies instructional period. The third element is the opportunity to work with other teachers. That means teachers need colleagues who can participate in the discourse on curriculum development and potentially partner with them in the classroom. The fourth element is sustaining interaction over a period of time. That means teachers need continued

mentoring by faculty and potentially other economic resource personnel. Finally, teachers need authentic contexts for practice and problem-solving. That means they need to be in their classroom in real time with real students.

To implement those seven elements a project was developed to partner a classroom teacher with Students in Free Enterprise (SIFE) students in the development and implementation of economics education curriculum. SIFE students have the economics knowledge to supplement a teacher's economic literacy. The goals of SIFE are to teach how free markets work in a global economy; how entrepreneurs succeed by identifying market need, and teaching the practice of business in an ethical and socially responsible manner that supports the principles of the market economy.

The teacher would thus receive "expert assistance as they develop and implement curriculum." (Sorgman & Parkison, 2002). SIFE students would be co-instructors in classroom, thereby giving teachers the opportunity see economics in action with their students. They would identify National Council for Economics Education lessons and assessment measures appropriate for the developmental needs of students and compatible with Indiana economic standards and SIFE goals.

This research project was most timely. At the 2002 annual meeting of the National Council for Economic Education a call for classroom research on the effectiveness of NCEE developed lessons in enhancing economic literacy of students was made. Three SIFE students and a classroom teacher studied the Indiana economic content standards for fifth grade economics education as well as reviewed NCEE lessons and assessment tools. Developmentally appropriate lessons were selected, which were a blend of NCEE and other published materials. Materials were selected which fit the Indiana Economic Standards, as well as the NCEE Voluntary Economic Standards. The pre and posttest assessment chosen was the National Council for Economic Education Basic Economics Test, Part A, Grade 5.

THE PROJECT IN LOGANSPORT INDIANA

Three SIFE students majoring in business management and finance taught fourteen economics based lessons over an eleven week period. They were supervised by both the classroom teacher, who was finishing her MBA as well as the two faculty members in education and business. They all met to review materials and select developmentally appropriate economics lessons.

The fourteen lessons are detailed in Appendix A and focused on key economic concepts appropriate for 5th grade students. Those concepts were: goods, service, wants, needs, productive resources, specialization, trade, production, market price, competition, profit, demand, market price, buying, selling, careers, salary, taxes, the role of government, budgeting, opportunity cost, savings, benefits, money, wages, expenses, and externalities.

Activities were designed and selected that were hands-on, enabling students to actively engage with materials to learn economic concepts. Simulations, children's trade books, and the use of Play Dough were opportunities to experience standards-based learning. The 5th grade classroom had 20 students, 8 females and 12 males. The ages ranged from 10-13, with an average of 11 years. The school itself had an enrolment of 402 students and sits in a diverse community. Over the past few years there has been a 1000% increase in Hispanic residents in the school. Seventy percent of the students in this classroom were Caucasian, 25% Hispanic, and 5% African American. Sixty-five percent of the students were raised in two parent families, with 40% raised by their biological mother and father. Ten percent of the students were being raised by their grandparents. Five students took part in the English as a Second Language (ESL) Program.

IMPACT ON STUDENT LEARNING

The Basic Economics Test, Form A from NCEE was administered as a pre and posttest assessment measure. It is a twenty-nine item test that asks students about money in the United States, scarcity, choices, opportunity cost, group influence on production in a market economy, interest, production factors, payment and skills, profits, barter, use of money, specialization, wants, market demand, price increase, monopoly, competition, cost, role of government, income, taxes, supply and demand, market price, employment, inflation, tariffs, and trade. Pre and posttest data as reported by the SIFE students and the classroom teacher, Kristen Gertz, are included in Appendix B. The class average raw score increased by 7.56 points, a 51.2% improvement. The class scores increased from 14.75 points to 22.31 points, putting the class in the 48.6 percentile. Almost every student achieved a significant increase in scores. Seven students ranked in the 90th percentile, with 2 students ranked in the 99th percentile. Four students experienced a decrease in their percentile rank (Gertz, 2003).

Analysis of the data reveals that students began the project with a strong understanding of economics already. This enabled the teacher and SIFE students to work from a J Curve perspective. That perspective has the vast majority of students at the high end, rather than the traditional Bell Curve. The goal became one of heightening mastery due to interventions in the classroom. This enabled students to reach a level of mastery, something Tileston's J Curve encourages (Tileston, 2000). Despite the small sample, the classroom teacher, Kristen Gertz, said, "Activities conducted with SIFE are far more effective in expressing economic principles than the average or normal methods." (Gertz, 2003)

Exit surveys of the students in the classroom revealed interesting outcomes of the project. Goods and services and the assembly line activity stood out for students. Supply, capital, and money management were memorable. The easiest topics to learn were goods and services. Income and expenses were the hardest, as were money management and to some degree opportunity cost. The favorite activity dealt with food. So, the Ice Cream Around The World activity and the S'mores

activity were popular. The least favorite activities were a discussion based on the Crawfish Simulation and the book on careers. It is interesting to note that students discussed the ice cream activity and taxes with their parents. Overall, students wanted to know more about demand, goods, services. They had some interest in learning more about production.

These results echo what the research shows: when applications are rooted in real-life events something exciting happens. Gagnon and Colley report that learners think individually to make personal meaning of the events, learners think collaboratively to make shared meaning of the events, learners connect prior knowledge and experience to events, learners pose and ask more questions about events, learners present their thinking to others about events, and learners reflect on collective and individual thinking about events (Gagnon & Collay, 2001). Tileston concurs that real-life events in the classroom generates evidence that lessons have been connected to authentic situations that occur outside and inside the classroom (Tileston, 2000).

IMPACT ON THE CLASSROOM TEACHER'S VIEW OF ECONOMICS EDUCATION

According to Benson (2003), standards-based learning leads to six major curricula and instructional transformations:

> Standards connect content areas because the boundaries between disciplines become blurred. The lessons chosen crossed mathematics, reading, history, geography, and political science standards.
> Standards require less memorization and more critical thinking. The lessons chosen required critical thinking and enabled students to operate at the upper ends of Bloom's taxonomy where they evaluated economic applications.
> Standards change the classroom setting by requiring students to work together and talk about what they are learning. The lessons chosen were collaborative in nature. Students worked with students, and SIFE students modeled team teaching.
> Standards lead to more active learning. The lessons chosen sequenced to ensure applications of economic concepts.
> Standards result in more applications of learning. Standards require more student responsibility for their learning. The lessons chosen required students to manage hands-on activities and participate in higher order thinking activities.

Ms. Gertz confirmed that this Logansport Project with SIFE students and appropriate standards-based economics lessons provided collaborative opportunities for her "to learn new methods and that her new understanding and knowledge will be used regularly" (Gertz, 2003). The collaborative nature of the project, with its hands-on activities and direct applications led to transformations for the teacher. This was evidenced in her assessment of the impact of the project on her teaching of economics. On a scale from 1 (High) to 5 (Low), she rated the impact on implementation of standards, experiencing new strategies, learning about here students, and increased comfort in teaching economics. Those ratings are detailed below with her commentaries:

Implementing Standards	Rated 1 (High)
"The SIFE students were instrumental in helping to address my 5th grade economics standards. Time was set aside to teach those standards and they were taught in a fun and meaningful way. The team accomplished instruction in all of my state standards regarding economics." (Gertz, 2003)	
Seeing New Instructional Strategies	Rated 3
"I am a huge believer in doing rather than watching when it comes to teaching. The SIFE students had the same philosophy. They taught me many concepts in a hands-on way. There are many lessons I plan on using in the future to address the Indiana State Standards for Economics." (Gertz, 2003)	
Learning about my Students	Rated 2
"I work much of my day in small group settings, which allow me some time to get to know my students. However, while the SIFE team was in my classroom there were many adults. This facilitated small group learning simultaneously. I was able to focus my attention during this time of 4 or 5 students, while other members focused on their groups. This allowed time to address every student and give my students the opportunity to be directly involved in their learning." (Gertz, 2003)	
Increased Comfort in Teaching Economics	Rated 2
"I feel very fortunate to be part of this SIFE team in teaching economics. I was part of many wonderful and meaningful experiences. I feel much more confident in the teaching of economics. I have learned many new ways to teach some difficult economics" (Gertz, 2003).	

IMPACT ON SIFE STUDENTS AND THE SIFE COMPETITION

All three SIFE students found the experience deepened their understanding of economics. As one student noted: "You have to really understand a topic very well backwards and forwards before you can teach it to someone else because not all students learn the same way or at the same speed."

The most satisfying experience for the SIFE students was the interaction they had with the 5th graders and seeing them learn. One student stated: "Seeing the kids get something out of what we were teaching them. They could relate some of the topics to their own life experiences. They also looked up to see and some really wanted to learn. As I go around town and see some of the students in public, they wave and the smile on their face is worth a million dollars."

Another student said: "The main reason why I liked this aspect of the project is because before this project I was terrified of children. At some times I felt that I should have been a teacher because I that that it was so much fun. I think that talking to children is totally different than giving a presentation to a class of college students. I am glad I was able to get this knowledge."

What surprised the SIFE students was the overall economic knowledge the students has the pre-test level. The fact that students beat the national average was impressive. The range of student abilities was surprising. One student noted: "We were teaching students form one end of the

spectrum to the other." Another student commented on the enthusiasm of the 5th grades. "It surprised me how genuinely enthused the kids were to have us speaking to them each week. That made it really easy for us to devote our time to the lessons."

Even though they were not Education majors, the SIFE students made astute observations about what curriculum they would avoid, adopt, and adopt. They did not view the simulation teaching market price as appropriate because supply and demand are challenging concepts. Production activities were viewed as good for student learning, especially seeing he impact of quality on products. Assembly line activities, particularly those dealing with food, made the concept of production real. Play Dough Economics gave students hands-on experiences with productive resources. Financial Fitness for Life Activities were a big hit, especially those which demonstrated the relationship between jobs and salaries, impact of deductions on gross pay, and the role of education in earning power. The overall recommendation was: "I would try and do things that are hands-on as much as possible and review a lot."

This project (the pre and post data as well as the student commentaries) was part of the IU Kokomo's SIFE team's presentation at both the Regional Competition in Saint Louis in April 2003 and the National Competition in Kansas City in May 2003. Judges commented that the emphasis on nationally normed and tested economics curriculum gave the SIFE team a firm basis in basic economics education.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The impact of partnering SIFE students and a classroom teacher was positive for all constituencies. The elementary students increased their economic literacy, the classroom teacher enhanced her instructional repertoire and achieved full implementation of standards-based curriculum in economics, and the SIFE students deepened their knowledge of economics and student learning. Given the economic background of the teacher, one would expect that the typical "fear of economics" would be diminished. That would enable the teacher to concentrate on curricula and instructional elements. This teacher found her economic knowledge deepened by the experience and her instructional repertoire widened. However, future teachers, with limited economic knowledge, might require different levels of assistance from SIFE students and university faculty.

The authors are anticipating future partnerships in the 2003-2004 academic year. The pilot project curriculum data, teacher report, and SIFE student analyses will be used to guide the projects. Additional classrooms are being sought to establish a more statistically reliable data base for partnerships.

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STARVING STUDENTS PRODUCTIONS - CREATING AND OPERATING A NEW BUSINESS VENTURE: LESSONS LEARNED

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ABSTRACT

This paper is a descriptive account by the instructors of an entrepreneurship course. During a two-semester sequence, students formed a company, Starving Student Productions, which produced and marketed a musical CD. Planning, implementation, and results are presented and discussed. Authors discuss the implications of their experiences for entrepreneurs, students, and instructors and offer recommendations for future courses.

INTRODUCTION

Data from a variety of sources strongly suggest that the U.S. economy is increasingly dependent upon the jobs and wealth created by small businesses. Birch (1987) and Kirchoff and Greene (1995) report that small businesses have created more new jobs than large corporations for some time. Dyer (1997) reports that less than one-half of a percent of the businesses in the U.S. employ more than 100 people. The IRS reported only 7,000 of 18.1 million businesses in 1987 would not quality as a small business (State of Small Business, 1988).

In other words, small businesses, usually defined as having fewer than 100 employees, particularly sole proprietorships and/or service sector firms, are the main driver of employment and economic growth in this country (Acs, Tarpley & Phillips, 1998). Since most small business as started by a group collectively known as entrepreneurs, the creating and nurturing of an entrepreneurial sprit is essential to the long term wealth of our nation.

However, most university business schools are designed to produce specialists rather than generalists. At the baccalaureate level, the typical graduate is more like to have a degree in finance, accounting, marketing, economics or management. These majors were intended to provide "employees" for large corporations that are organized along functional lines (Lamperes, 2001). Business school leaders are now recognizing that that this line of academic preparation is no longer appropriate in today's rapidly changing business environment. It has become their responsibility to prepare entrepreneurs-people who can start and run their own businesses or businesses owned by

others (Nunn & Ehlen, 2001).   Spurring on interest in entrepreneurship education, new business incorporations have doubled over the last 20 years (Dickerson, 1998) and large corporations are encouraging internal intrapreneurship which mimics the benefits of a small business. Globally, entrepreneurial programs are rapidly expanding, providing yet another venue of competitive pressure on the U.S. economy (Katz, 2003; Ballantyne, 2000; Kerr, 1988). We were convinced that our business school students would benefit from access to an educational opportunity in entrepreneurship.

Attempting to teach entrepreneurship in an academic setting is not a new endeavor. Many universities now offer at least one or more courses in entrepreneurship (O'Reilly, 2003; Enbar, 1999; Ivancevich, 1991; Solomon, 1986; Vesper, 1985). In addition, many business schools are in the process of setting up "entrepreneurship centers" with the broad purpose of furthering entrepreneurship learning (Carson & Gilmore, 2000).

Our primary objective in developing an entrepreneurship course was to teach students business techniques in the classroom and to give students the opportunity to develop their skills by starting and operating an actual business. We were implementing a "learning by doing" approach; a technique recommended by Schoenberger (1998).   We had several other program goals. We wanted the student's company to be profitable. We wanted students to work with community business leaders who could give practical management insight and financial resources. Finally, we wanted our course to provide a highly visible impetus to the College's campaign to fund an endowed entrepreneurship chair.

By the end of the course, we accomplished most of our goals. Students did start and operate a business; the business was profitable; there was some community interaction; and an endowed chair has since been funded.   On paper it sounds simple.   The complexity came in the implementation of the process. What we learned and what our students learned went well beyond our initial objectives. The process became a venture in stamina, flexibility, and group dynamics. The purpose of this paper is to discuss our business venture and to present the lessons learned from our experience so that others may learn from our successes and failures.

PREPARATION AND SELECTION

In fall 1999 we developed a new entrepreneurship course. This course would begin in Spring 2000 and be comprised of a two-semester course sequence. We chose the spring-fall sequence to ensure that we would have a full twelve months to complete the planned instruction and activities. We designed the course around two parallel and concurrent tracks: starting/running the business marketing plan and classroom instruction. As envisioned, planning and fund raising would be completed in the spring semester; summer interns would keep the project moving through the production stage and in the fall, students would market their product. The accounting year and academic year would end on December 31.

The entrepreneurship instruction sequence incorporated two required courses, Introduction to Marketing and Strategic Management. Students enrolled in a restricted section of Marketing in Spring and a restricted section of Strategic Management in Fall (in most cases some pre-requisites were waived). In our proposal, students were to cover many of the same topics as other students. We assigned traditional textbook materials and used written examinations as part of the evaluation process. Clearly, there was an expectation that knowledge gained from hands-on participation in the project would compensate for reductions in the usual classroom curriculum.

To begin the project with a clear focus, we a priori established our timeline and our product, a musical CD, based on a similar project that had been successful at Elon College. Two years prior to our project, Elon students had produced and sold a jazz CD. Since we were located near Nashville, TN, "Music City USA", we had a number of musicians, recording studios, and technical advice within a fifty-mile radius. We liked the idea of selling a CD since it was a product that we believed our students already knew and could get excited about. Dr. Barth Stempel, lead instructor for the project at Elon, advised us that the spring-fall sequence was the best way to run the course. In the summer, the recording artist could record in the studio.

Enthusiastically we dove into the project. Unfortunately, in our enthusiasm, we overlooked some features that made our project uniquely different from the Elon experience. First, Elon College matched funding from an entrepreneurship grant so that all the money needed for CD production was present prior to the project's start. Second, Elon College purchased most of the CDs in advance to be used in the college's recruitment efforts. Third, Dr. Stempel already knew a world-class jazz musician who agreed to record the CD. Therefore, in the Elon College course, the funding, sales and musician were available prior to the first class. None of these factors were present in our plan. We had little more than enthusiasm and an idea for a product. In retrospect, it is not surprising that we learned many lessons.

Sixty-five students expressed interest in participating in this business experiment. We limited the class to twenty students. To make a final selection, we asked students to fill out a questionnaire that included major, course expectations, and the amount of time they were willing to put into the project. We selected students without regard to grade point average since the literature indicates that academic standing is not a good predictor of entrepreneurial success (Olson, 1985). This decision rule was consistent with the majority opinion in the "born or made" controversy (Garavan & O'Cinneide, 1994). See Ronstadt (1987) for a good discussion of when entrepreneurial education should take place. Because we anticipated that much out-of-class work would be required, time availability became a major selection criterion. We also were interested in students that had some skill to bring to the business such as experience with recording studios. Our final selection contained junior and senior business administration majors. There were an equal number of males and females. The age range was 20 to 45, the average age was 21.

To reinforce the concept that students would have the personal responsibility of running a business, all students were required to purchase two shares of company common stock at $10 a

share. Popp and Hicks (1974) found that students preferred to invest their own money, saying it was far more meaningful to "play" with their own funds. This turned out to be more symbolic than practical as the total cost of the project far exceeded original estimates based on the Elon project. At the end of the venture, any profits would be split equally among the twenty students after an undetermined percentage was placed into a fund to support future entrepreneurship projects.

THE CURIOUS STAGE

When the students arrived the first day, they were unsure exactly what would be expected of them. They looked to us to provide the goals, and sometimes, answers. They were accustomed to taking notes, reading text, and answering test questions. However, these skills are not very helpful in running a business. For some students, this was the first time that they had to discover what questions to ask before finding the answers. As a result, the majority of students exhibited a low tolerance for ambiguity. We tried to counteract these feelings through constant articulation of the task requirements, group exercises, and breaking down the project into small parts.

We did not arbitrarily structure the company, Student Productions (SSP). We hoped that a structure would evolve from the class and a leader would emerge. This proved to be problematic since no structure or leader emerged. Students used a one person, one vote model. We also did not assign students any particular task according to major. Students volunteered for projects. For the most part, students did select assignments they felt the most comfortable in completing. Consequently, our accounting students did much of the company's books and the computer information majors created the Web page.

The goal of the first class, Introduction to Marketing, was to teach marketing concepts that students could use to develop a marketing plan for a music CD. The first series of tasks focused on marketing research and market segmentation. Students researched area residents, students, music retailers and secondary sources (i.e., Billboard magazine, Entertainment Weekly, Variety, Census data). Some of the data were collected via surveys administered in classes, some by personal interviews, and some by observations. The marketing plan that emerged involved producing a rock music CD featuring a compilation of independent rock artists from the region, selling it for $12.99, to a target market of 16-30 year olds, and distributing it at area music and electronic stores as well as via the Internet.

THE OPTIMISTIC STAGE

Students slowly began to realize that they were making decisions for their own company. They became more excited as we approached the "fun" part of the business. Students had to select a recording studio. Three recording studio managers spoke to the students. After the last person met with the students, students voted on a recording studio. Much conversation took place among

students and even with specific information on price and product quality, the students gave considerable weight to their "gut" feel. They simply liked one producer more than the others because he shared their optimism and vision.

During this time, students also solicited regional bands to record on the CD. Students had already decided that they wanted a "compilation" CD that featured at least five bands. Overall, more than 60 bands showed interest in the project. After weekend auditions and listening to tapes, the students voted on the bands and the songs that would be included on the CD.

SSP students now felt some power. They were business people. Record producers courted on them to use their studios. They could help local bands become known. They were convinced that this CD would sell to their friends. With just a few exceptions, excitement was in the air. Interestingly, at this point, students had little tolerance for anyone in the class that was not sharing in the excitement or the work. They began to make comments about students who did not pull their weight. Although peer pressure caused some students to become more motivated, a few students remained spectators.

THE PESSIMISTIC STAGE

As the project unfolded, the problem of finding funds for this venture became apparent. The recording studio wanted their fee, in this case, $400 per song track for 12 songs, in advance. A few students volunteered to oversee the fundraising efforts of the company. Most students were content to just sit back and hear about the fund raising efforts. By the end of the semester, the students had obtained no new funding beyond the initial stock capitalization. Whenever we pointed out the need for money students would try to change the subject to a more enjoyable topic such as planning for a release party. Consequently, by the end of April, SSP had already fallen behind in its timeline. Although the studio and artists were ready, SSP had not generated any new funds. Nevertheless, few students expressed anxiety as they returned home, leaving the business details to four students who stayed on campus and worked as interns on the project.

During the summer we required students to keep in contact via e-mail. Nonetheless, only half of the students kept in contact. Those that did keep in touch were shocked that the university and the community did not embrace their business idea. Students felt that they were entitled to funding. When they realized no financial underwriting was coming, they voted to borrow money to pay their bills.

Fall marked several new changes. First, the SSP course had always been team-taught with both instructors going to most of the classes. In the spring the marketing instructor took primary responsibility for the marketing segment of the course. In the fall the management professor took responsibility for the strategic management segment. At the same time, the original marketing instructor was replaced with another marketing professor. Second, since SSP had acquired debt, we imposed several new conditions for the fall semester. We formed the Measuring Earthlings

Everyday Performance (MEEP) Committee. The function of the MEEP Committee was to oversee student business performance and to provide a means to discipline freeloading behavior. SSP voted on three members of the class to staff the committee. We required students to keep journals and record daily their activities in SSP as a way to gauge individual participation. Furthermore, to encourage everyone's participation and to raise the needed break-even funds, each student was responsible for selling 100 CDS. Since some students did not like the individual sales goal, perhaps abetted by the fact that most had no formal sales training, we gave everyone the opportunity to switch their enrollment into a regular, non-restricted section of Strategic Management. Two company members took this option citing time constraints. The withdrawal of these two students did not appear to impact class dynamics. Finally, we took more control of the class by setting deadlines for specific activities to take place. During the first semester, it became apparent that students liked to postpone decisions. By fall we had lost the luxury of time. There were only sixteen weeks left to sell enough CDS to repay thousands of dollars in loans. Therefore, the management professor took a very proactive role in facilitating decision making and calling for the vote in a more timely fashion. The company was still democratic and everyone was encouraged to float proposals for discussion but decisions were made in an expeditious fashion.

Even with the changes, things do not always go according to plan. The original timeline called for CD production to be completed over the summer with the product delivered in August. Unfortunately, production difficulties occurred and another company had to be quickly found to manufacture 100 CDS (at a premium price) to sell at a scheduled Release Party. This was a major hurdle. Even worse, although approximately 125 people attended, only 4 CDS were sold. Therefore, the relatively expensive Release Party (venue rental, sound system rental, security, promotion costs, etc.) was financially unsuccessful. The loss of innocence was also significant. Many students had thought they would sell their entire allotment of CDs at the release party. Upon reflection, students quickly separated themselves into "externals" and "internals". Externals blamed the manufacturing company, the lack of a "real" CD, lack of the planned eight-page pamphlet insert, the prohibition of alcoholic beverages, and a poor location. Externals concentrated on everything that went wrong as opposed to looking toward a solution. Internals, although equally disappointed, trusted themselves, took the blame, and looked for another way to sell the CD.

DESPERATION LEADS TO SATISFACTION

During the fall CD sales continued to be slow. Now the class was split in three factions. Approximately thirty percent of the students were developing new strategies to sell the CD. They planned another party on campus featuring some of the bands. This would be more successful than the first party in terms of CD sales. Some students started to go to various classes to promote and sell the CD. Fifty percent of the students just watched the others work. The remaining twenty percent of SSP members became the vocal critics of other students, the entire project and us. A wall

of tension built up in the class. This tension escalated when we made it clear that we still expected everyone to sell 100 CDs. By constantly reinforcing this goal, most students understood that they were in considerable danger of failing the course. At this point, some students did not care about the business. They only thought in terms of salvaging a course grade. To justify their inaction, some students pointed to external reasons why they personally had not sold their CDS - the price of the CD was too high; they needed more time; no one liked the bands, and so forth.

To say things were bleak by November would be a serious understatement. However, just when some students had lost all hope, an alternative presented itself. The university bookstore management offered SSP the opportunity to staff a sales cart in the regional mall. In some measure, this was because the bookstore management did not have enough employees to staff both the cart and their store during the very busy end-of-the-semester part of their business year. The bookstore would pay the students 20% commission on all sales of licensed University merchandise and allow them to keep all proceeds from the sales of the CD. This sounded like a good deal to students so they voted to work the mall cart from November 20 to January 1.

Students worked over 890 hours at the cart. An analysis of participation at the cart showed that the most proactive students in the class put in 244 hours even though many of these students had already sold their 100 CD quota. Students who were most critical of the business worked 159 hours even though they had not reached their individual target. A third group, who had remained relatively inactive throughout the class but also were relatively non-complaining, contributed the remainder of the hours. It is this third group that became interesting. One of these students commented after working eight stay hours at the mall, that "being in business is hard work." As these students became successful at selling their CD to mall customers, their confidence and satisfaction grew. Fortunately, the mall cart revenues generated sufficient revenues to more than cover all CD production and marketing expenses. This was not the ideal culmination of the SSP CD business plan but it did point out the importance of being flexible and responding to environmental threats and opportunities. Consequently, this project did make a profit. All unsecured creditors (including the professors) were repaid; student-held stock was repurchased; and a portion of the earnings was reserved to fund future entrepreneurship projects.

LESSONS LEARNED

Overall, the business venture was a success on many levels. The project was profitable and a percentage of these earnings were set aside for future student operated business ventures. The hands-on learning experience provided the real world experience of running a business with both its positive and negative aspects. Those students who were highly involved with SSP received multiple job offers during their graduation year. One student even decided to open his own business. The SSP business received positive publicity including newspaper articles and a regional business award for the student business owners, the College of Business and the University.

Nevertheless, success came at a high price for both students and faculty. This project required far more effort than the traditional class experience. Fortunately, we learned many lessons that could provide valuable information for entrepreneurs, students, and faculty (See Table One for our "Top Ten" List). For entrepreneurs, nothing takes the place of a business plan, financing, and hard work. Many people have a "good" idea but ideas are worthless unless research and planning makes those ideas a reality. SSP researched their environment and found that there was a need for a rock CD featuring local musicians. The compilation album, Code Red: Destination Unknown, was a quality product. Nevertheless, planning, setting timelines, and managing resources proved difficult. Entrepreneurs often underestimate how much money and time it takes to bring a product to market. We estimated it would cost less than $15,000 to produce and market a CD. It cost $20,000. We thought we would have the CD by Labor Day, we finally got it in October - giving us three months to sell our product and close out the firm. Everyone, from students to faculty, was astounded at the amount of work it took to make this project a success. For example, four students put in over 100 hours each working at the mall cart.

For those students who put in the effort, running a business was a wonderful opportunity to integrate business concepts that were learned in the business classroom into a realistic situation. The student owners made all of the business decisions. During the course of one year, SSP entrepreneurs formulated a business plan and then followed through by developing a business. This experience highlighted the importance of planning and overcoming obstacles. SSP provided an exciting and sometimes difficult "hands-on" business experience. Additionally, students learned valuable lessons from the local business resources such as the Small Business Development Administration and the area Chamber of Commerce.

As with most new business, not all of the lessons were enjoyable. Many students learned that a business does not run itself, a product does not sell itself, and many decisions have to be coordinated in a timely fashion. Students also learned that the business world is not always a kind place. During the project, they were deliberately misled; orders were mishandled; production delays occurred; costs were raised; printing mistakes were made; and interpersonal conflict was experienced---all from established businesses in the recording and related industries. The rose-colored glasses were not only removed; they were demolished. Lastly, students learned about each other and not always in a flattering way. There have always been people who will work harder, avoid excuses, and try to find a way to succeed. And then there are the others. This was a lesson in Human Relations 101. As a result, some students left convinced they wanted to be entrepreneurs; others left convinced that they would better suited to be an employee rather than an owner. This kind of introspective assessment is a painful lesson not often learned from the regular classroom.

For faculty, this project was also a lesson about human relations. By the second semester, it became quite apparent which students were working and which students were just talking. Motivating some students proved difficult and in some cases, impossible. Because of this was a real business with real debts, it was not sufficient to let students just slide by. We needed everyone to

work. We tried every technique from positive group team building to threatening. The purpose of the MEEP Committee was to turn the student problems over to students. This committee never worked as planned. Students were unwilling to face the unpleasant task of confronting their peers. On an optimistic note, the vast majority of students did their share. Nevertheless, a few students never did do their share. They clung to the hope that just because they came to class, they would pass the course.

What are some solutions for interpersonal challenges? First, we found that weekly journals did help identify the real workers in SSP. Student entries reflecting effort, participation in company decisions, and work in the field provided realistic assessment points that simply were not always available in the classroom. It is important to review these journals in a timely manner and work with any student who is not engaged in the project.

Second, we set up a requirement of 100 CDs to be sold by each individual in the class. The idea of having a quota is a good one and is used commonly in businesses. However, students tend to have a short time horizon and do not allocate their time well. Students have become accustomed to waiting until the end of the semester to write the term paper or read the text. This is not a realistic strategy when selling large quantities of a product. A smaller goal of 10 CDs every two weeks would have prevented some students from waiting until the last minute to sell CDs.

Third, we did not have a good selection process for choosing students for the class. Originally, we just asked students how much work they were willing to put into the project and what they could contribute as far as expertise. We needed more than just a written statement. As opposed to what some of the literature indicates, we found that students who had a marginal GPA did not do well in the class. For class projects, GPA may be an indication of a student's willingness to put effort into a class. Interviewing students could provide an opportunity for a realistic job preview. Additionally, assigning a task prior to acceptance into the course would give additional information as to student willingness and ability to return a quality product on time.

Business owners face timelines on a daily basis. SSP students had a very difficult time making decisions. For someone considering this project, this points out the importance of setting specific timelines to make sure that critical tasks are accomplished on schedule.

As indicated previously, financial issues were a major concern. SSP started out with stock money from the 20 participants, but there was no money committed by either the College of Business or the University. We would suggest not undertaking this type of project unless there is some funding. In our case, we had to loan students a considerable amount of money to keep the project afloat. Most professors cannot afford to take such risks. Additionally, the ability to keep track of revenues was also difficult for many of the students. Even though basic accounting skills were a prerequisite, more focus on financial issues was needed. To ensure that record keeping is accurate, we recommend working weekly with an accountant from the very beginning of the project.

It was difficult sometimes for us to sit back and let the students make decisions that we felt were inappropriate. Two examples were the rental of an expensive sound system and the purchase

of 5000 bumper stickers to promote the CD. Decisions such as these sharply increased the number of CDs that had to be sold in order to break even or make a profit. However, SSP was a student-run business and all spending decisions were based on the student owners' votes. Even though faculty interference would seriously dilute the independence of the firm and control of the owners, we recommend pointing out the financial and marketing implications of every decision.

Finally, there is the issue of time and effort. This project was much more demanding than the traditional classroom based course. The physical and emotional demands on faculty were extraordinary. In this instance, no additional compensation or resources were provided despite much favorable publicity and regional recognition. One solution is to let project administrators serve more a resource persons or consultants and to have others teach the actual course.

Table 1: Key Elements of an Entrepreneurship Project	
1.	Develop a sound business plan even though entrepreneurs often success using unorthodox methods.
2.	Secure a solid source of funding to supplement student investments.
3.	Use a conservative timeline to compensate for unforeseen events.
4.	Set up a program that results in an acceptable organizational structure run by the students.
5.	Have a management system that forces critical decision making to happen in a timely fashion.
6.	Require student journals to chronicle individual participation and to provide documentation if differences arise after the project is concluded.
7.	Set short term, achievable goals in addition to long term goals.
8.	Consider separating project administration from teaching the curriculum
9.	Consider team building projects before the actual entrepreneurship project begins.
10.	Qualify students using some instrument like Entrepreneurial Quotient (EQ).

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MARKETING STUDENTS IN FREE ENTERPRISE TO COLLEGE STUDENTS: THE FIVE C'S OF SIFE

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ABSTRACT

This manuscript begins with a brief discussion of the factors that have led to the growth of Students in Free Enterprise (SIFE) into a worldwide service organization for college students. The author identifies the benefits that students might obtain from membership and suggests recruiting team members based on a basic marketing principle, benefit segmentation. The discussion centers on five benefit groups and outlines strategies for team development to ensure that each benefit area is considered. Finally, the manuscript suggests strategies for marketing SIFE to prospective team membes. The strategies are founded on communicating, to the students, the value and availability of the various benefit groups discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Students in Free Enterprise (SIFE) is one of fastest growing collegiate pre-professional organizations in the world today. SIFE's innovative approach to involving college students in community service activities and the organization's focus on providing career development assistance have fueled this expansion. The organization is currently active on more than thirteen hundred campuses in more than thirty countries. It seems apparent that students around the world are coming to understand the benefits of team membership. Through their involvement in SIFE, thousands of young people of many nationalities are teaching their fellow citizens about the free enterprise system. And, these youthful teachers are learning valuable lessons and skills in the process.

The driving concepts behind SIFE make the organization one of the most valuable tools available to today's college and university students in their quest to become more viable candidates in the job market. The experiences that students acquire through SIFE membership, and participation in team projects, allow them the opportunity to develop distinctive competencies that are both recognized and sought after by corporate recruiters.

Yet, there are many reasons for a young person to involve themselves with a SIFE team. Many are drawn to the opportunities for personal growth and a meaningful career. Others join for different reasons. This paper addresses major motivations that encourage students to join SIFE. These motivations were identified through a combination of research and the author's personal experience with SIFE.

SIFE TEAMS

One major key to successful SIFE team development, as in developing a successful business, is recruiting talented people, informing them of organizational goals and objectives, and then motivating them to work to accomplish those aims. However, as anecdotal research among Walton Fellows has suggested, recruiting student team members is often challenging. The mutable nature of the organization, which is one of its greatest strengths, creates, at the same time, a recruiting challenge. Each is structured in its own way to address both the international organization's goals and objectives and those of the individual team. Each team becomes a unique expression of the multiplicity of opportunities that SIFE provides.

This paper suggests that teams should develop a structure that addresses the differing benefits that students seek from team membership. The paper considers the various benefits sought by a SIFE team's different publics. These publics include the college or university administration, faculty, and surrounding community.

What is SIFE? Why should a young person invest precious time and energy in the concept? The answers to these basic questions, while seemingly obvious to those who are involved with SIFE, are often difficult to verbalize. Yet, each question must be adequately answered for every student who considers joining a SIFE team. Each, of the more than one thousand teams operating worldwide, answers these questions differently. Such is the nature and strength of the organization. Each Walton Fellow, in his or her recruiting, attempts to communicate, to students, the benefits of SIFE membership. However, a full understanding of the myriad opportunities that SIFE envelops is not easily communicated. Often, the interested student must join and actively participate in the team in order to become aware of the various opportunities. But, without a full understanding of the benefits to be gained, how are students to be persuaded to invest their valuable time and energy?

This paper suggests approaching the recruitment of team members as marketing SIFE to students. It suggests identifying the benefits students seek from participation in SIFE. Then, through benefit segmentation, team structure may be developed to appeal to each segment of the target population. The author identifies five benefits that students seek from SIFE membership and then discusses them as motivators of student involvement. Lastly, the discussion outlines a paradigm for team development that illustrates how teams may be structured to provide the opportunity for students to obtain the benefits they seek.

MARKETING 101 AND SIFE TEAM DEVELOPMENT

To preface the central topic of discussion in this paper, it seems valuable to briefly review three concepts taught in Marketing 101; exchange, benefit segmentation and target marketing. These principles are applicable to all marketing, including, as proposed in this paper, marketing SIFE to prospective student team members.

THE CONCEPT OF EXCHANGE

Central to marketing is the concept of exchange. Exchange expresses the idea that people give up something they value in order to obtain something that they value more. In the marketplace, consumers exchange money, time, etc., in order to obtain products, services, and other assets that are seen as more valuable. In SIFE, students are asked to exchange their time, energy, and commitment for the benefits of team membership. Given the basic concept of exchange, it follows that in order to entice students to get involved in SIFE, the benefits we offer must be seen as more valuable than the resources we ask them to invest.

While value is individually defined, one formal definition of value is; benefits received for burdens endured. Using these terms, the burdens of participation in SIFE must be outweighed by the perceived value of the benefits to be gained. It then follows that the SIFE team should be structured to provide the appropriate, desired benefits to the student population. Once this structure is in place, appropriate promotional strategies can be developed to persuade students to enter the exchange relationship.

BENEFIT SEGMENTATION

An old marketing adage suggests that customers don't buy products; they buy benefits. In essence, customers seek the utility that products provide, not the products themselves. (Lamb, Hair & McDaniel, 2004) Consequently, it is possible to group target customers (in this case, students) into segments according to the benefits they seek from the product (in this case, SIFE team membership). Benefits are the "desirable consequences consumers seek when buying and using products" (Peter & Olson, 2002). Benefit segmentation is a market-oriented approach that seeks to identify consumer needs and wants and to satisfy them by providing products and services with the desired benefits (Peter & Donnelly, 2001).

Haley provided the classic example of benefit segmentation in his work with the toothpaste market (Haley, 1968). He identified four basic segments, which covered such issues as product flavor, brightness of teeth, decay prevention, and price. Haley argued that the segments were useful for developing persuasion attempts and other marketing tactics. Research by Canaltone and Sawyer (1978) found that benefit segments were stable, although the attribute importance might vary

overtime. In essence, the benefits sought by consumers were consistent, but the importance weight of any particular benefit may vary to the individual consumer as situations change.

To define these benefit segments, one must identify the importance that the target audience attaches to the various attributes of the product (in our case, a SIFE team). While these importance weights may change over time, as discussed above, the benefits sought are stable and can be used as segmentation variables. The benefit segments are formed by grouping students with similar attribute importance ratings. Benefit segmentation is different in that customers are grouped based on their need or wants, rather than other characteristics. Then, persuasion attempts, or recruiting messages, are built around the unique needs and wants of each market segment (Hawkins, Best & Coney, 2001).

Often, consumers are motivated to seek more than one benefit from a product. In fact, consumers often view products as bundles of benefits. In light of the present discussion, it can be assumed that, often, students join a SIFE team seeking more than a single benefit. However, this does not alter the basic benefits being sought.

Following this logic, the question of how best to recruit team members is answered through identifying the benefits various groups of students are seeking, designing and implementing a team structure that provides those benefits, and then communicating the opportunity to the target audience. In essence, determine what it is that students want from SIFE membership, construct a team that provides those benefits, and then inform the students.

STUDENTS AS A TARGET AUDIENCE

As mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, SIFE teams have a variety of publics. To be successful over the long term, the team should be structured to address the goals and objectives of these various groups. Interested groups include administrators, faculty, the local community, students and, of course, judges at the competitions. In short, SIFE teams should be most successful when they address the benefits sought by their differing publics.

When consumers buy products, they usually do so to fulfill a need of some type. The needs become motives when sufficiently aroused. Consumers seek motive satisfaction or problem solution. Motives, whether manifest or latent, are the "why's" behind consumer decision making. Whether or not the consumer is aware of his or her motivation is, for purposes of this discussion, not relevant. Wants and/or needs motivate behavior. The benefit sought by the student is the driving force behind the creation of recruiting messages. In order to successfully entice students to join, the SIFE team should be designed and developed to address the various needs that motivate student involvement in extracurricular activities.

It should be noted here that into which of the various benefit segments a student is grouped is also not really relevant to the present discussion. Motivated students are the target of SIFE recruitment. The object is to attract students who will contribute to the success of the team. The

particular foundation for the motivation is unimportant as long as members are motivated to accomplish the team's goals and objectives.

While this discussion centers on providing benefits to student members, these other groups of interested parties should not be overlooked. Administrators are often interested in public relations and fund raising. Stronger SIFE teams are adept at both. Support from colleagues can be secured through developing or assisting with projects that are consistent with research interests or personal goals. SIFE teams can be structured to address the various needs of each audience. While securing support from each of these publics could easily be the central theme of separate essays, this paper focuses on students.

Effective persuasion attempts (recruiting messages) targeted at students will differentiate SIFE from other student organizations through explaining the benefits of membership. Therefore, identifying and understanding these benefits is the first step in successful recruiting. Secondly, the SIFE team should be structured so that it provides the benefits sought by the students. Finally, these opportunities must be communicated to students.

The next section identifies five benefits that the author has found to be of value to students. These five are actually bundles of benefits that have been grouped into categories that can be addressed in team structure and recruiting.

METHOD

Two methods were used to identify the various benefits that students might seek for SIFE team membership. The author's anecdotal experience was supplemented through discussions with other Walton Fellows. Initial groups were identified from these discussions. Additionally, questionnaires were distributed to more than 100 SIFE team members from three regional universities. The three teams varied in experience from several years of active SIFE participation and strong performance at competition to relatively new teams with little competitive activity. Team members were asked two questions: 1. Why did you join SIFE? and 2. What do you expect to gain from your SIFE experience?

Student responses were evaluated for fit within the groups established through the anecdotal experience. In the opinion of several evaluators, approximately 95% of the student responses were easily classified into one or another of the five benefit segments that had been identified. While there was individual variation in how the benefits sought were described by the respondents, the segmentation was easily determined.

For instance, student responses to the second question included such answers as: to meet new people, to make new friends, or to meet girls. These were evaluated to fall within the socially motivated segment that is outlined below. Other responses included, the opportunity to grow as a person, the ability to network with sponsors and speak in public, and to gain leadership and teamwork traits. These were grouped into the personal growth segment.

GENERATION Y

Today's traditional college student is typically a member of Generation Y. Born between 1978 and 1994, Generation Y is noticeably different from their predecessors on our campus, Generation X. In order to develop appropriate team structure, it is important to understand the primary target audience.

With approximately 72 million members, these children of the original baby boomers are the first generation to grow up with virtually equal employment opportunities for women and minorities. They respect ethnic and cultural diversities and are more serious and socially conscious than were the members of Generation X. These general traits are very much in line with the goals and objectives of SIFE.

More than half of the members of Generation Y work, at least part time. While they have significant discretionary purchasing power, they are also surprisingly thrifty. A large percentage report saving half of their income. They are knowledgeable about financial instruments, investing, and the stock market. Again, these traits are very much consistent with the teaching goals pursued by SIFE teams.

Obviously, they are the most connected generation in history. Generation Y has grown up with television, computers, the Internet, and cell phones. They are experts at zipping, zapping, and channel surfing. They are market savvy and suspicious of persuasion attempts. This underscores the importance of recruiting messages that are appropriate for the target audience.

Marketing texts suggest that communications targeted at Generation Y be concept rich and authentic. Attempts to recruit them for SIFE membership should reflect the basic nature of SIFE and directly address the opportunities that participation can offer.

THE FIVE C'S OF SIFE

Certainly students get involved in SIFE for a variety of reasons. Using the method outlined, the author has identified five benefit segments into which students may be grouped. As a mnemonic device, this paper provides a single word to identify each benefit segment. Each of the words begins with the letter C. While the terms selected may not completely describe the benefit sought, they are descriptive of the content of the group and provide simple terms for ease of presentation.

The five C's of SIFE are compassion, competition, conviviality, change, and career. It is suggested that by developing a SIFE team which addresses each of these issues and effectively communicating this fact to students, recruiting will be facilitated.

These individual benefit groups are not mutually exclusive. Often students are motivated to seek more than one benefit from team membership. Examination of student responses to the questionnaire makes this clear. Frequently, students supplied answers that addressed two or more of the benefit groups identified. For instance, one respondent described motivations that included

the desire to work with elementary students, meet new people, and learn about the world of business. Another offered reasons that included being a part of the family that team membership offers, obtaining job opportunities, and developing tools needed to excel at a career.

The multifaceted nature of student motivation indicated in these responses underscores the importance of developing a well-balanced team. While the importance weights assigned to each of the benefit categories may vary from student to student, it is likely that most students are, to some extent, motivated by all of the benefit groups outlined below. Addressing all of the benefit segments in team development is an important key to successfully recruiting and retaining team members.

COMPASSION

As used here, the term compassion conveys the motivation created from a sincere desire to provide assistance to one's neighbors. Generation Y has been described as the most socially conscious generation since the Great Generation of World War II. These young people are motivated by the opportunity to give back to their community. Approximately twenty-five percent of the young people responding to the questionnaire expressed the desire to give back to the community through their membership in SIFE.

By its very nature, SIFE provides an excellent opportunity for these young people to fulfill this desire to be of service. SIFE's mission is, "To provide college students the best opportunity to make a difference and to develop leadership, teamwork and communication skills through learning, practicing and teaching the principles of free enterprise." SIFE presents an excellent opportunity for the current generation of college students to be of service in a clearly defined venue, projects that teach others about the opportunities of our free market economy. The research suggests that young people are seeking the opportunity to get involved in meaningful community service projects; projects that have real impact on the lives of the learner groups they target.

To address this motivation, care should be given to project selection and development. It is important that the team members feel that their work is creating valuable and measurable results in the lives of others. Teams should have clear goals and objectives for project development. These goals should, in general, guide the team's efforts toward creating a long-term, quantifiable improvement in the lives of their target audiences. In short, quality projects are necessary to the long-term success of recruiting efforts as well as to success at competition. Students want to participate in projects that have meaning. Consequently, meaningful projects are a great recruiting tool. Projects with real world impact increase involvement and generate motivated team members.

COMPETITION

The competitive nature of SIFE provides a wonderful outlet for students who enjoy winning. Perusal of the responses given by the students questioned indicates that about ten percent express

this motivation in some form. It is likely that competitiveness is a more latent motivation. Some students may not be aware of the importance of their competitive urges and some may simply not wish to publicly state such a desire. Regardless of whether the motivation is manifest or hidden, SIFE provides a well- designed outlet for competitiveness. Some measure of success at SIFE competitions is important to the long-term sustainability of the team.

The nature of SIFE competition is such that building a competitive team is synonymous with building a team that is of tremendous service to its community. In order to win at SIFE competitions, teams must have more impact in the lives of their target audience than other teams. Competitiveness is not, therefore, in any way in opposition to the service nature of the organization. The intention of the competitive aspect of SIFE is to ensure that the team that creates the most quantifiable, real world impact in people's lives wins the competition. It can be seen that success at competition and success at serving the community are, in the world of SIFE, two sides of the same coin.

Young people are attracted to teams who are successful at competition. As the old adage provides, "Nothing succeeds like success." Further, competitive success is important to team cohesion and self-image. It is important to recruiting that the team be prepared for and entered into competition. While success at competition is clearly desirable, merely participating in the process offers another reason for students to consider SIFE team membership. Students want to be part of a competing team. Eventually, they want to be part of a winning team. Competing successfully, by whatever definition, supports recruitment.

CONVIVIALITY

The single word conviviality is intended to convey the social benefits of SIFE team membership that students may seek. Approximately fifty percent of student respondents expressed this motivation in varying words. It is clear from these numbers, that the desire to create relationships with other students strongly motivates a significant number of young people to consider SIFE team membership.

Clearly, SIFE team membership provides an opportunity for young people to develop social relationships. Further, the opportunity is to network with other similarly motivated students. The challenges of first developing and then implementing meaningful projects require that the team members work closely together. In addition, the young people find that they are, sometimes for the first time in their lives, teamed with other equally capable young people. The opportunity to get to know and work with a group of talented students is a true awakening for many. Working together, they discover the benefits of teamwork and experience joint personal growth. In sharing these experiences, the young people often bond and create strong personal relationships.

It has been the author's experience that team members develop friendships that sometimes last well beyond their years in college. The motivational power of the social benefits of SIFE team

membership should not be underestimated. As the responses suggested, many students get involved in SIFE for social reasons. Once a part of the team, however, many then become contributing team members. The initial motivation for joining the team is less important than the contribution to the team that the student eventually makes.

SIFE team development should also include regular social events. Since it is often the case that friends work well together, teams should promote opportunities that allow team members to interact and develop personal relationships. And, working together, and providing support for one another, is a major part of the success of any team.

Activities can be built around special occasions, such as birthdays, holidays, or graduation. Group dinners following meetings or after projects provide additional opportunities. Walton Fellows should encourage collegiality among members and participate in the social functions. Road trips or field trips provide also provide excellent opportunities building team spirit. Students enjoy the time away from campus and strengthen interpersonal relationships during travel. Travel to competition is especially useful for creating team pride and confidence.

All in all, the desire to be a part of a group was one of the most often mentioned motivations for joining SIFE. Some teams may not find this particular motivation to join to be in line with the goals and objectives of the organization. However, it could also be argued that any motivation to join the team is acceptable. It is whether or not the student becomes a productive contributing member that is the real issue. Perhaps, in this case, the ends justify the means.

CHANGE

Change, as used in this context, is intended to imply personal change for the better, or personal growth. Clearly, the SIFE experience offers this opportunity to participants. Approximately seven of every ten responses to the questionnaire reflected a desire to improve personal skills or to gain new ones. One of the strongest motivators of membership, opportunities to experience personal growth are key facets to the SIFE team. Providing such opportunities is vital to successful team development.

SIFE provides a variety of opportunities for personal development among team members. One such opportunity is project development. It is important that student team members develop their own project ideas. First, students should be educated as to the appropriate guidelines for project development. The SIFE judging criteria provide these guidelines. It should be pointed out to the students that the judges reward innovativeness and creativity. While the Walton Fellow can provide initial input and guidance throughout the process, experiencing the process of creating a new project is one valuable opportunity for personal growth. Further, an understanding of the creative process will be a valuable skill in the students' career once they graduate.

Another opportunity for personal growth that SIFE provides is through team management. Student members should be charged with the responsibility of managing both individual projects

and team activities. Once a project is created, a completely different set of skills is required to implement it. Teamwork and interpersonal skills must be developed to successfully bring a project to completion. It has been the author's experience that the experience of bringing a project from the drawing board into the real world is a true awakening for many students. Especially when the project is complicated, has a sizeable budget, or involves a number of people, both team members and learners. Developing project management skills will make SIFE team members more valuable in the job market.

Additionally, team members should be charged with the responsibility of managing the affairs of their team including every aspect of team management. SIFE teams are created and managed following a variety of formats. This is a major strength of the organization. In order to truly offer a full range of opportunities for personal growth, the ideal team would be completely managed by the team members themselves. This is not to suggest that the Walton Fellow is uninvolved. His is the role of mentor, rather than manager. Controlling team finances, dealing with disputes or personal problems between team members, developing long and short term goals and objectives, overseeing the day to day operations of an involved, active team and all the other challenges of team management mirror the daily activities students will face in the world of business. Further, students should handle the team's public relations activities. Working with local media, networking with other faculty and administrators, and developing relationships with local community service organizations are also great learning opportunities. Walton Fellows should resist the temptation to be overly controlling of the team's activities. Experience, even when unpleasant, is a wonderful teacher.

Lastly, there are a variety of other ways a team can create opportunities for personal growth and experience. The SIFE judging criteria encourage teams to sponsor projects that are focused on developing the skills necessary for career success. These could include seminars on resume writing, interviewing, networking skills, etiquette and other social skills. Teams should encourage members to attend SIFE sponsored training events, university sponsored networking opportunities, local business and community service activities, and other educational opportunities. Again, the team must provide opportunities for student members to gain the benefits they are seeking in order to be successful in the long term.

CAREER

The single most sought-after benefit of SIFE team membership is assistance with career development. In perusing the responses to the questionnaire discussed earlier, it is easy to see that career opportunities are the most frequently sought benefit from team membership. Nearly eight of every ten responses referred to the importance of this benefit to the student team members.

SIFE already provides these opportunities at regional and national competitions through job fairs. This is yet another important motivation for ensuring that teams attend the competitions.

Prospective team members should be made aware of these opportunities and schooled on proper technique for meeting and developing relationships with corporate recruiters. However, good relationships with sponsors at the local level are vital too.

Successful SIFE teams embrace the importance of creating career opportunities and seek to develop projects and relationships that offer the opportunity for student team members to network with real-world business people. Additionally, social interaction with business advisory board members and sponsors' recruiters allows students to practice their networking and interpersonal skills in a relatively low-pressure environment.

With these goals in mind, the team should sponsor seminars, or other learning opportunities, which address the various job search skills, should be provided regularly to team members. Resume writing, interviewing skills, appropriate dress, and business etiquette are all potential topics for these learning opportunities.

SOMETHING FOR EVERYONE: THE WELL ROUNDED SIFE TEAM

The benefit segments that the 5 C's represent certainly do not cover every type of benefit that students may seek from team membership. There are, of course, other possibilities. The author had one non-traditional student team member who created a project that was designed to improve the cash flow in the business he owned. Individual motives are as varied as the individuals themselves. However, these five segments do represent a sizeable portion of the relevant possibilities. Understanding their motivational influence upon students provides a solid foundation for team development. Ideally, the well-rounded SIFE team will develop attributes that address each of the identified segments in order to provide the appropriate benefits to its members, regardless of into which segment they fall.

The benefits sought by students may be situation specific and their importance weights may change over time. For instance, students who joined the team for social or personal growth benefits, early in their college careers, may, as they approach graduation, come to embrace career opportunities as the most important benefit offered by SIFE. While the importance of the benefits to the individual may vary, the benefit segments are enduring.

At this point in the discussion, one can see how these benefit segments are linked. The link between the competition benefit segment and the compassion segment has already been pointed out. Success at competition hinges on developing projects that not only address the judging criteria, but also have lasting impact on the learners involved. Obviously the change and career segments are similar in objective. Personal growth facilitates career development. Addressing the conviviality segment has personal growth benefits (which tie to career development) as well as strengthening teamwork and facilitating project management. The well-rounded SIFE team will function more successfully if it provides something for everyone.

CONCLUSION

This paper discussion has focused, primarily, on the functional benefits, the tangible outcomes of SIFE team membership. Direct experiences that can be drawn from actively participating in a SIFE team. There are also psychosocial consequences to consider. These benefits are internal, personal outcomes, such as increased self-confidence and self-esteem. While certainly not of lesser importance to individuals, the psychosocial outcomes of team membership seem likely to be derived from experiencing the functional benefits described herein. Consequently, this paper leaves discussion of them to a future essay.

Each team should develop its own "personality". Much as for-profit corporations work so hard to create an image for each product, a SIFE team should work to develop its own identity. Recruiting is facilitated when students can relate to a team personality. Making one or more of he five benefit groups a primary team focus can help with developing such an image.

Individual motivations are varied and dynamic. This would seem especially true of young adults such as those who make up the membership of the stereotypical SIFE team. It could be argued that there are no bad motivations for joining SIFE. Any want or need that encourages a student to get involved could be described as desirable. The well-rounded SIFE team provides opportunities for every student to fulfill at least some of his or her wants through membership. And, let's not forget that there is more to SIFE than just teaching and helping others. . . . students need benefits too.

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A MULTI-TIER STRATEGY FOR EDUCATING WEST AFRICAN YOUTH TO BUSINESS AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

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ABSTRACT

At the beginning of the new Millennium the problem of economic poverty which engulfed the continent of Africa through the entire 19th Century still exists. Traditional and modern scientific management theories still coexist with the belief that in a booming or normal economy, there should be high employment, economic wealth, growth, self-reliance, and very minimal poverty. However, the truth remains that significant global poverty still exists. The current employment rate of youth in West Africa is at a very high proportion compared to many other economic regions of the world. African governments have attempted to address this problem, but are always coming up short. Finding solutions to poverty problems will rid global society of its major problem. One of the enduring barriers to prosperity in an open-market economy is the failure to master the skills of Entrepreneurship. Therefore, prosperity for disadvantaged youths depends on, at the most basic level, an adequate supply of youth entrepreneurs. The purpose of this paper is to look at various options for creating youth entrepreneurial employment and to recommend viable strategies for implementation, micro-entrepreneurism, micro-credit/finance, non-governmental organizations (NGO's), and cooperative education.

INTRODUCTION

At the threshold of a new millennium, humankind remains confronted with unacceptable disparities in levels of economic and social development. Disparities and inequalities constitute a primary source of conflict and threaten peaceful relations between and within countries. These conditions must lead to a fundamental rethinking of current approaches to development. The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs recently collected data (United Nations Development Programme [hereafter, UNDP] 1997) which reveals the horrific extent of human poverty within the global community:

* Approximately 1.3 billion people are income poor, surviving on less than $1 a day;
* Almost 1 billion people are illiterate;
* More than 1 billion people do not have access to safe drinking water;
* Some 840 million people lack food security and must go hungry;
* Nearly 100 million people are homeless; and
* Approximately 800 million people are unable to receive health services.

The UNDP has posited that certain factors facilitate or inhibit human development or poverty. The women and youth issue suggests that nations that fail to provide opportunities for the advancement of its women and young generation doom them (as well as a significant portion of the nation's population) to relative poverty (Anand & Sen, 1995). For example in the case of women, the Report (UNDP, 1997) notes that fewer women than men worldwide have access to the institutions necessary to provide them with the land and capital required to establish a livelihood that supports them or their families (also see UN Chronicle, 1996). Research within the public policy and marketing field supports the contention that the poor often are deprived of resources (Hill, Hirschman & Bauman, 1996) and that poor women are subjected to negative stereotypes that exacerbate this deprivation (Hill & Macan, 1996). This discussion intimates that lower gender equity is associated with decreases in human development and increases in poverty.

West African youths are of no exception to the statistics. They are unemployed at alarming rates. African governments' have tried to address or solve this problem by promoting small business and entrepreneurial development enterprises (UNESCO, 1994). The problem with this tactic is that for small businesses and entrepreneurial firms to be successful they need one of the most precious resources available to businesses today, human resources. West African governments should be applauded for their efforts so far with the discovery and implementation of programs to initiate and develop entrepreneurial firms and small businesses. These efforts however, are not enough. It is imperative that these governments provide the appropriate skills and training to the youth which favor entrepreneurship and small businesses.

Even though many West African countries have gained political independence, there continues to be widespread unemployment. Of the West African countries, Nigeria has the largest population in Africa (Rao, 1991). Approximately 11 million people work in the entrepreneurial and small business community. Nigeria established approximately sixteen Industrial Development Centers whose purpose is to develop and initiate entrepreneurs and small businesses (Tunde, 1991). Many other efforts have been made by African governments to provide vocational training and technical skills (Mbanda, 1991). The scorecard so far has been continued unemployment in these countries even with the vocational and technical training made available by their individual governments (Kao, 1991).

In 1997 there were over a billion people around the world living in poverty (UNDP, 1998). The poor economic deprivation among the "hyper poor" and hundreds of millions who try to survive on less than a dollar a day - are related complications. These include one or more of the following correlates: disease, political conflicts, little or no formal education, and environmental problems such as polluted water, toxic air, and so on (Brown, 1998; Byram, 1997; PAHO, 1998). While Americans in the 1990s have enjoyed a remarkable rise in income levels, lower unemployment rates, and cleaner air and water, many nations around the globe are worse off now than a decade ago.

To understand the relationship between poverty and living conditions, a multifaceted understanding of what it means to be poor is required. In one sense, the answer to the question "What does it mean to be poor?" is straightforward-having cash income below the official poverty line for a given family size. In a broader sense, the living conditions of the poor are difficult to measure both because annual cash income is only one factor related to living conditions, and because the poor are quite heterogeneous. For example, poor children have higher rates of various health problems and living and educational deficiencies, such as, inferior housing, inferior schools, less access to computers and educational materials at home. Inferior child care, higher rates of child abuse, higher rates of parental substance abuse, more frequent moves, more exposure to toxic chemicals and pollution, higher rates of lead poisoning, and other disadvantages define poverty.

In the United States, the poor are individuals and families whose incomes are below the poverty line, an amount defined as the annual proceeds required for meeting minimal material needs and creating opportunities for social participation (Alwitt & Donley, 1996). As Blank (1997, 10) describes: The calculations of poverty lines [are based on the minimal amount of money that the U.S. Department of Agriculture estimate[s] a family of a given size need[s] to spend in order to maintain adequate nutrition, multiplied by a factor of three. Within the UN, the UNDP is charged by the Economic and Social Council to investigate poverty worldwide (Patterson, 1995). The UNDP (1997, p. 5) has championed a multidimensional approach to defining poverty and recognizes that it can mean more than a lack of what is necessary for material well being. It can also mean the denial of opportunities and choices most basic to human development which may lead to a long, healthy, creative life. Developing a multi-tier strategy for educating West African youth to business and entrepreneurship opportunities will help them to enjoy a decent standard of living, freedom, dignity, self-esteem and the respect of others. Poverty is tied to the concept of human development or advances within nations by the quality of life of their citizens.

FAILED STRATEGIES TO ALLEVIATE POVERTY

Traditional strategies for assisting the poor in West Africa have produced only fair results. The modernization programs of the 1960s in which industrialized nations attempted to economically ignite the Third World often failed because they contradicted indigenous cultures and values or they were too capital intensive to even succeed. For example, the Green Revolution of the 1970s

attempted by the Nigerian government to superimpose Western agriculture methods by using large tractors and chemical fertilizers on less-developed countries, resulted in unintended outcomes such as rising cancer rates and depleted soil. In the 1980s, the World Bank, United Nations, and others emphasized a Bare Needs approach - health care, access to clean water, housing, and education. However, these efforts were enormously expensive and hard to sustain.

Rather than assume that the traditional Third World culture is a barrier to development, more recent thinking suggests that the old culture and the modern are not mutually exclusive. Not only might they co-exist, but they may interface and interact to the benefit of one another. Tradition may be a useful component in the process of change, modifying the methods of the change agent to achieve greater congruence and success in the end.

NEW MODELS OF ERADICATING YOUTH POVERTY IN WEST AFRICA

Instead of the large-scale development strategies of the last 40 years, a new model has been to emphasize small, focused attempts. Huge, macro solutions are seen as inefficient, costly, and often wasteful when failure eventually occurs, exemplified by the problematic results of major donors such as the World Bank or the United Nations. Experts from such institutions often describe their projects in high-level abstractions, which seem ethereal to indigenous groups in the Third World. The new strategy carries out small, concrete projects, which the community can manage, grow, and improve, thereby impacting the members.

Over time, traditional development models have tended to be administered in top-down, extremely paternalistic, fashion in which experts act as custodians of the projects, treating participants as second class citizens, or mere charity cases. The result tended to be dependence, whether economic, industrial, or technical. Elites and their relatives generally perceived the community as a whole enjoying any improvements in quality of life.

CRITERIA FOR SUCCESS

Thus far, the traditional and current scientific management techniques have failed or yielded minimum results. Existing poverty alleviation strategies need to be reviewed in order to propose new models that will help the West African youths. For the purpose of this paper, a combination of strategies will be proposed. The micro-entrepreneurism, micro-credit/financing, non-government organizations (NGO's), and Cooperative Education need to be examined.

Micro-entrepreneurism

The first recommended strategy is to encourage micro-entrepreneurism, which differs from the everyday run of the mill factory, government worker, or non-governmental worker in an office

to street survivors or street vendors providing goods and services. The micro-entrepreneurism should include the development of technical assistance centers that can provide training and consulting to potential micro-entrepreneurs, people in the informal economy who cannot obtain regular employment in large companies, and particularly youths who demonstrate entrepreneurial spirits. It is a bottom-up method for generating an income, self-reliance and a new innovative path to earning a living and caring for oneself.

Even though many economists believe that this lead to underground or informal economy that is insignificant to a country's economy, it is in fact a growing phenomenon in certain emerging markets (DeSoto, 1989).

Social scientists have conceptually divided societies' economic activities into formal and informal sectors. The formal sectors are such activities as labor in a factory or government employment. On the other hand, the informal sectors are survival activities on the street as vendors or service providers. Historically, the informal or underground economy was essentially considered clandestine, operated by individuals or as family-based economic activities that provide little or no direct taxes to the state. These street vendors or so-called entrepreneurs make up for the lack of formal jobs in small businesses, Entrepreneurship, private industry or government.

The traditional economists view this type of economic activities as a phenomenon or a temporary reaction to natural or financial disasters (De Soto, 1989). Much research over the past decade points to the increasing significance of the informal economy as the vital means through which masses of the poor attempt to cope with life's unfairness by feeding their hungers and surviving one day at a time. The primary tool for self-reliance in the informal economy is training, consulting, and providing small amounts of credit. Even a small loan can make a significant difference.

Micro-credit/finance

The second recommendation of this multi-tiered strategy is micro-credit/finance. Micro credit/finance may be classified as small-scale loans of $30 to $100 that are accessible to the very poor, primarily in the less developed economy. With even a small amount of such capital, micro-entrepreneurship may be started, or perhaps expanded. According to a major World Bank study of global micro credit schemes there are in excess of nine hundred institutions in 101 nations today that offer micro credit to the poor. The organizations studied had been in existence at least three years and each had over a thousand clients. They include banks, credit unions, and numerous non-governmental organizations. Clearly, there are thousands more of newer, smaller such programs not included in the bank's analysis. But a sample of 206 of these 900 institutions indicated an aggregate loan portfolio of almost $7 billion, totaling over 14 million small loans to people and their organizations, 53 percent of whom reside in rural regions around the globe. Within the sample group studied, 48 percent had been established in the 1980s and 21 percent since. Sixty

organizations offered only individual loans, 42 offered loans only to solidarity groups of two to ten people, and 59 provided loans to village lending groups (10-50 people). The remaining institutions used a mix of target groups. On average, 65 percent of borrowers were females and 35 percent males. With respect to loan size, the average micro credit loan in Asia is $94, while those in Africa are just below $200, and just under $900 in Latin America. These findings thus reflect the GNP levels of various regions. By extending micro-credit capital to the poorest of the poor, millions of new jobs have been created among those languishing in extreme circumstances, thereby empowering individuals and families to gain a greater degree of control over their respective destinies (Paxton, 1995).

The method for obtaining credit is often referred to as Grameen or "village banking," as pioneered by a creative economist, Muhammad Yunus, in Bangladesh. In this strategy a non-governmental organization essentially offers small or "micro" loans for $25 to $50 to groups of villagers at market interest rates. They need no collateral, nor are they required to have a strong credit history. Instead, the borrowers as a group are jointly liable for paying off the interest and principal. Social pressure and trust function as powerful incentives for assuming one's own financial responsibility and personal accountability. In order for the directors to accomplish their goal of expansion, they decided to explore the possibility of creating a bank. The bank's primary purpose would be to serve the poor. The bank would also legally allow them to capture the funds required for rapid expansion. Funds could be generated from client savings accounts that would act as capital for expansion and at the same time offer a wider range of services to the customers (Glosser, 1994). Savings, as well as credit, is an essential part of development. Individuals, who cannot gain access to traditional financial institutions, because they lack the literacy to fill out the lengthy application forms or the minimum deposits for savings accounts, need a place to put their money. They too would like to have savings for a time of financial crisis. In a country where the inflation rate is between 10 and 20 percent, the poor need a secure place where their money can draw a reasonable rate of interest. This second strategy will provide the benefits.

Non-governmental organizations (NGO's)

The third strategic recommendation is the use of non-governmental organizations, to raise funds from private industry through donations and funnel them through various countries. For example, Enterprise Mentors International in Saint Louis, Missouri, run by American volunteers, who raised funds from private donations in the U.S. and channel them to Manila, Philippines. A U.S. board was established, largely consisting of Americans who had spent time in the Philippines and were concerned about the nation's future. At another level are small NGO's like Philippine Enterprise Development Foundation (PEDF), a non-profit technical assistance organization that this author helped establish in 1990 in Metro Manila. A PEDF board was simultaneously created in

Manila made up of native executives, bankers, academics, and economists. It oversees a technical assistance center, hires indigenous staff members, and sets policy and strategy for the organization.

Based on a series of interviews in the U.S. and several in-depth trips to observe and provide training in the Philippines, the following picture emerges of how this NGO operates - a small-scale alternative to Grameen and Banco Sol. PEDF's focus is to enhance sound business practices among the urban poor so that participants will be able to create jobs and provide for their families. PEDF services include small business training, start-up assistance, referral services, field consulting, business environment analysis, walk-in services, the creation of business plans, and micro credit. Whether helping a potential client launch a new business or strengthening the capabilities of micro-entrepreneurs already opening, the primary issues addressed are growth, productivity, and profitability. The ultimate goal is to develop self-reliance of the poor, who previously had neither business training nor access to credit.

Likewise, similar structures were established in Guatemala City, a fresh change after decades of internal struggle, political oppression, and civil war. This NGO structure is known as Mentores Empresariales and it currently has a staff of six, including director, secretary, trainers, and consultants. While both NGOs in Latin America face the daunting task of combating ever-increasing poverty by millions of poor families, the gradual change is occurring for the better. These interventions in Latin America are attempting to discover new methods for developing the poor in the informal economy.

The third part of the strategy is co-operative education for a school-to-work transition program. The nature of this co-operative education program is to combine academic study with paid monitored and credit bearing work. It is based upon experienced-based education (Bailey & Merritt, 1993). This co-operative education would be concentrated in the vocational areas of business, marketing, management, and industry. The program could be arranged to accommodate the individual, employer, and school staff. These co-operative programs would alternate days of the week of school with work. Students could work in the morning or afternoon being paid for their time and work. The co-operative youth or students would take traditional academic and vocational classes with non-co-operative education students, although particular courses may be recommended to the students by the co-operative coordinator. In addition, a good co-op program must include special related classes, in which students are able to reflect on and integrate their job experiences.

The funding for this would be specifically designed for the co-operative education program which could be minimally supported by NGO's, International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. In the most effective and common co-operative education model, a teacher/coordinator handles all the work placements, and teaches a course related to the students' work assignment. If apprenticeships or other school-to-work programs are to be a serious option, existing teachers must be trained for the coordinator role. This means creating in-service courses in African schools, which incorporate the content of the pre-service vocational education courses that were once delivered in teacher training institutions. These courses would give teacher/coordinators the skills to connect

schools to the workplace, and would teach them how to develop objectives for curriculum, materials, student behavior, and institutional links, as well as their own effectiveness in all these areas (Armstrong, 1988).

Another viable option is creating in-service courses' which incorporate the content of the pre-service vocational education courses. These courses would give the productivity, and profitability. The ultimate goal is to develop self-reliance of the poor, those who previously had no business training or access credit.

CONCLUSION

The concept of three-tier strategy towards alleviating poverty and creating employment among youths in West Africa is a step to increase their likelihood of becoming successful entrepreneurs and small business owners. This would not only reduce unemployment, but increase the economic wealth of West Africa as its youth progresses. This is bound to have a positive domino effect on everything else within the country (Todd, 1996). Micro-entrepreneurship and credit have definitely increased employment, women's and youth's upward mobility in many other developing countries. The potential downside is the possibility of increased workloads for youth and women working as micro-entrepreneurs in the underground and informal economy. This three-tiered approach of microism, microcredit and coop/school-to-work programs could be another solution to other serious social problems. The author recognizes that for entrepreneurship and small businesses to flourish, a reasonable infrastructure of service institutions in the financial, administrative, legal, and educational fields need to exist. Unfortunately, these and other social ills circumvent well throughout economic plans and strategies.

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