

Special Issue, 2015

“Entrepreneurship education. Insights on current challenges”

Carlos Francisco de Sousa Reis (Coordinator)

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EDITORIAL

SEJ-059 ProfesioLab. Laboratorio de Investigación en Formación y Profesionalización.

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ISSN 1989-9572

Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers

This new magazine, published yearly, is created with a clear perspective: improving the MUNDUSFOR and DEPROFOR consortia, giving it an international renown and granting it a perspective of research, beyond the educational perspective of today. Our intention is also to develop an electronic magazine for the field of the educational professionals.

The objectives of *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers* (M&DJETT) are therefore centered in different aspects of academic and research diffusion related to the teaching professionals. In one hand, M&DJETT pretends to become an educational research database. In the other hand, a second objective of the publication is to facilitate for young researchers the diffusion of their work, masters and doctorates students above all, and to serve as an advertisement vehicle for works which have not reached the article format yet. Besides, another function for M&DJETT will be the diffusion of publications through reviews.

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EDITORIAL

Entrepreneurship education. Insights on current challenges

Educación para el emprendimiento. Miradas sobre los desafíos actuales

Carlos Francisco de Sousa Reis,

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 11 de diciembre de 2015

Fecha de revisión: 12 de diciembre de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 15 de diciembre de 2015

Reis, C.F. (2015). Editorial: entrepreneurship. *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 5–9.



Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

ISSN 1989 – 9572

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

EDITORIAL

Entrepreneurship education. Insights on current challenges

Educación emprendedora. Reflexiones sobre los desafíos actuales

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The word “*entrepreneurship*” is clearly traced from the french noun “*entrepreneur*” (an undertaker or contractor) as well as from the verb “*entreprendre*” (to undertake, start, initiate). But also in Portuguese and Spanish can we find the homologue “*empreendedor*”, a simple result from the way Latin languages have to produce it by joining “*em*”, referring to a something and “*prehendere*”, meaning to catch, capture, hold or undertake, which allows one to easily produce the word “*emprenhendere*”: to undertake. Moreover, it is even possible to trace back the term to the Sanskrit “*antha prena*”, referring to someone self-motivated and sounding very much alike our contemporary common expression.

Approaching the subject by the etymological way –how fallible it may be–, give us the opportunity to advance a first stance on the matter. To be an entrepreneur could just result from being someone with substantial initiative and creativity for undertaking any kind of project that one may propose –which arises an ethical issue– to oneself or involving others, although not necessarily in the realm of business. This may prevent us letting the concept to be captured by a hegemonic understanding, which is nowadays prevalent, and installs the totalitarianism of an “*instrumental rationality*” (Habermas, 1968) or “*performativity*”, in the words of Lyotard (1984), for a consumerist society and in search of a paradoxical happiness (Lipovetsky, 2006).

Therefore, as we have tried to show elsewhere (Reis & Formosinho, 2014), we should not accept that something corresponding to an entrepreneurship attitude or ability could be placed above the core educational teleological aims like creativity or happiness, which are, in our point of view, of a superior order. That would be to take the means for the ends, thus short-circuiting the critical teleological chain that must be discussed as such, while it would pull the whole education system to fall very quickly into a perspective that directly links schools to companies, thus imposing to schools the role of supplying workers for the markets, namely entrepreneurs. However, regardless of the current dominating “*managerialistic*” scope, education has to address a multidimensional purpose of qualification, socialization and subjectification – a domain that “*has to do with the way in which children and young people come to exist as subjects of initiative and responsibility rather than as objects of the actions of others*” (Biesta, 2015, 77); meaning this that education ought, above all, to address the empowerment and the emancipation of living minds.

Yet it is also meaningful, for our case, that we are beings of endeavours, of projects, through which we project ourselves. From far ages and distant places we got innumerable examples of

breakthrough achievements of all kinds, because it is in human nature to always try to reach beyond. For instance, the registered fact that Marco Polo (1254-1324) attempted to establish a trade route to the East in order to sell the goods of a man (a capitalist), while running physical and emotional risks in his endeavors, thus becoming known as "*the entrepreneurial adventurer*" (Dornelas, 2008, 14). In the same sense, Richard Cantillon (1680-1734) used the term entrepreneurship for distinguishing the entrepreneur (the one who takes risks) from the capitalist (the one that provides the capital). He named entrepreneurs those who take risks and buy raw materials, usually an agricultural product with a determined price that should be improved. Besides, one can also distinguish between his approach and the use made by Jean Baptiste Say (1767-1832), a French economist, that apply the term "*entrepreneur*" to someone considered more of a "*planner*" (Brewer, 1992).

There should be no surprise though that in the late nineteenth century Cantillon was appointed by William Stanley Jevons, Henry Higgs, Joseph Schumpeter and Friedrich Hayek as the father of business economics, liberal and neoliberal, would we say. The backbone of nowadays globalized neoliberal capitalism that is taking education, health and justice as goods instead of rights, while work is becoming more and more precarious. Besides, neoliberalism is also disseminating an ideology that inculcates unemployed people for a personal condition much more due to stances played at a macro-level dimension, while imputing each citizen the responsibility of creating his/her own employment. And that is when we come to have to deal with entrepreneurship as a panacea for all economic problems, thus establishing an imaginary framework in which everyone could (should!) be considered a player, if one so wish, of game, of struggling for a place in a world of infinite resources.

Yet it is not for denying the will and the capacity of each human being to assert him/herself by an entrepreneurial attitude. Nor shall we deny those who have initiative and creativity to open new ways of enriching our societies with their value. The case is that for ensuring competitive, innovative, sustainable, inclusive and just societies, as the European Commission so well puts it, takes us to the current dilemma of indefinite growth without really having indefinite resources; an issue that takes us to face the environmental problems as well as the need for equity of growth.

So being, we now must address at the same time the problem of entrepreneurship and sustainability, not just as problems but as scopes of education, i. e., entrepreneurship and sustainability education. An antinomy not commonly considered but often disregard or even hidden. Nevertheless, we also have to tackle the growing demand, even if we should control it, we have to tackle, human ambition even if it should be restraint. Thus we must pursue a line of endeavor or entrepreneurship balanced with a line of respect for difference and diversity as core issues of sustainability.

Europe, as a nation of free nations, has shown awareness about the growth-justice dilemma by supporting European entrepreneurship as well as citizenship education starting from a propaedeutic level, namely at initial teacher education. This is where one must start if one wants to develop rooted and long lasting attitudes. I have personally experience the European Union effort while participating in *Erasmus Intensive Programmes* on both (sustainability an entrepreneurship) issues and having the privilege to participate in the *Dublin European Workshop for 'Educators of Teachers on Entrepreneurship in Education' (Ireland, 2-4 May 2012)*.¹ Fortunately, I had also the pleasure to meet at that event Malcolm Hoare and other colleagues that helped me organizing the *Conference on Enabling Teachers for Entrepreneurship Education 2013 (ENTENP 2013)*.² Especially, we all owe José Gijón Puerta

¹ Developed after the visionary meeting that the *Budapest Agenda on Enabling Teachers for Entrepreneurship Education* brought forth (European Commission, 2011).

² For all their generosity, here and now, I must acknowledge once again the support given from Cristina Pereira (Castelo Branco Polytechnic Institute), Dana Redford (Oporto Catholic University), Dores Formosinho (Coimbra University), Eduarda Ferreira (Guarda Polytechnic Institute), Fátima Paixão (Castelo Branco Polytechnic Institute), José Gijón Puerta (Granada University), Malcolm Hoare (Warwick University), Manuel Fernández Cruz (Granada University), Maria do Carmo Vieira da Silva (Universidade Nova de Lisboa), Maria Margarida Afonso (Castelo Branco Polytechnic Institute), Mohamed El Homrani (Granada University Pedro Tadeu (Guarda Polytechnic Institute), Teresa Gonçalves (Viana do Castelo Polytechnic Institute), Teresa Paiva (Guarda Polytechnic Institute).

the stamina to bear the torch and taken the process a step further by organizing ENTENP 2014, at Granada University, which was a breaking through event that gave birth to a wider partnership, from which we are expecting great achievements. Since this last meeting we have encourage a group of experts to come up with papers that our readers can now take in consideration for further developments as entrepreneurs –we expect them to be–, not just in a simple egotist advance but also aiming to the greater good of mankind.

This issue of the *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers* (JETT) presents a broad spectrum of insights on entrepreneurship education (EE) we hope it could be a contribute to help scholars and practitioners tackling current challenges and opening new paths. The first three papers form a section that explores some EE theoretical issues; while the second group focuses in the practical realm. A third group also explores concrete issues regarding different fields of appliance of EE and the last one, while considering entrepreneurship of small or micro companies give us a strong critical reading of a misleading mainstream understanding of the concept, thus opening up the subject to a broader and more complex approach.

The first paper considers the impact on the institutional culture and pedagogy necessary to implement the changes indicated by the so called Budapest Agenda, while introducing the concept of the entrepreneurial school as a prerequisite for change as well as a strategy for designing appropriate teacher professional development. Deepening a close connected subject, the second paper starts with the baseline goal of improving EE and training as set out by the European Commission, highlighting the challenges that are faced in fostering an entrepreneurial attitude within educational institutions, namely the need to support teachers through training programs that pursue a long-term policy commitment simultaneously creative and well-conceived. A good pedagogical appointment is presented by the third paper that focuses on explaining how individual differences and alternative assessment techniques could be used by entrepreneurial teachers to implement entrepreneurial teaching.

The forth paper puts in perspective a robust model of a pilot EE programme for the new junior cycle curriculum, capable of extended implementation across all years of second level education. In particular, the study identifies the key elements of its conceptualisation and structure, to implement it as an integral and holistic contribution to a sustainable EE input, by relying in a pilot programme developed in a flagship school that suggests a novel and credible way to integrate EE into the full curriculum, something unprecedented in Ireland. The paper also highlights the necessary supports and the crucial importance of a broad yet precise definition of EE in line with Irish and EU parameters that will lead to credible learning outcomes for individual students, the economy and society as a whole. For its part, the fifth paper analyzes entrepreneurial education in higher education, giving the example of two centers (Learning and Development Center for Children – CeADIn and Science, Tradition & Culture Center – CT&C), that want to educate children, youth and adults for entrepreneurship, involving in the process the students of teachers' education courses. Also in the same line of practical concern, the sixth paper points out what makes the originality of Reims Champagne-Ardenne University way of teaching entrepreneurship.

The seventh paper describes two theories, the discovery theory and the creation theory, in order to undertake a discussion of some of their broader theoretical implications for the fields of entrepreneurship and strategic management. In particular the paper addresses the implications for social entrepreneurship theory and management practice, and discusses some policy directions. As to the eighth paper, it endorses a comprehensive review of the different approaches and definitions associated to Entrepreneurship in order to establish the basis for a wide analysis of immigrant Entrepreneurship reality, including motivations, abilities and specific challenges to achieve success. With the ninth paper the reader may get aware of the structural characteristics of the Andalusian entrepreneurial model in comparison with other Spanish regions, namely the qualitative profile of the structural weaknesses of the existing businesses and their entrepreneurs, which is the basis for supporting a differential proposition for an embedded education towards entrepreneurship, by identifying the content and pedagogical techniques necessary to overcome the referred weaknesses. Closing this third section, the last paper is a special case that gives us a strong critical counterpoint of Entrepreneurship, while

considered as a specific individual inclination, thus misleadingly conceived as being able to render the small enterprise competitive in the contemporary capitalism arena. Avoiding criticizing the small business or the entrepreneur in themselves, it deconstructs the ideological meaning that structures the discourses used to conform the agent and his “*thinking style*”. The paper concludes by showing that the importance granted to certain aspects such as disposition to risk, creative ability and adaptation to scenery changes are touted as being “*natural*”, along with the assumption by the individual of all responsibility for what happens in his entrepreneurial action, while thus obtaining the legitimation of the functionality of the small enterprise concerning the systemic reproduction of contemporary capitalism.

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Budapest 2011 revisited – An Enterprising Europe or a journey too far?

Revisión de Budapest 2011 ¿Una Europa emprendedora o un viaje demasiado lejos?

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 22 de mayo de 2015

Fecha de revisión: 5 de octubre de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 20 de noviembre de 2015

Hoare, M. (2015). Budapest 2011 revisited – An Enterprising Europe or a journey too far? *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 10–16.



Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

ISSN 1989 – 9572

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

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Revisión de Budapest 2011 ¿Una Europa emprendedora o un viaje demasiado lejos?

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Abstract

The paper considers the implications for European schools and colleges of the strategic decisions taken at the High Level Entrepreneurship Education conference in Budapest in April 2011. Particular focus is given to the impact in these organisations on the institutional culture and pedagogy necessary to implement the changes indicated by the so called Budapest Agenda. The concept of the entrepreneurial school is introduced as a prerequisite for change and a strategy for designing appropriate teacher professional development is outlined.

Resumen

El artículo examina las repercusiones de las escuelas e institutos europeos sobre las decisiones estratégicas adoptadas en la Conferencia de Educación en Emprendimiento de educación superior en Budapest en abril de 2011. Se presta especial atención al impacto de estas organizaciones en la cultura institucional y la pedagogía necesaria para implementar los cambios indicados por la llamada Agenda Budapest. El concepto de escuela empresarial se presenta como un requisito previo para el cambio y se marca una estrategia para diseñar el desarrollo profesional docente apropiado.

Keywords

Budapest agenda; Entrepreneurial school; Entrepreneurship education; Learner-centred pedagogies; Teacher professional development

Palabras clave

Agenda Budapest; Escuela empresarial; Educación en emprendimiento; Pedagogía centrada en el aprendizaje; Desarrollo profesional docente

1. Introduction

Many commentators have described the move from a 'job for life' culture to one of 'a life of jobs' and much has been written the need for 'portfolio careers'. Technological change and automation is often charged with bringing both uncertainty and greater insecurity to the jobs market. Whatever the outcome, there is general agreement that the economy will always require self reliant enterprising workers and that schools and colleges have a major role to play. In April 2011 an event took place in Budapest which would have major implications for everyone working in the field of enterprise education in schools. The European Commission brought together expert practitioners from 30 countries for three days to consider the contribution of teachers to improving the quality of enterprise teaching. Following a parallel meeting in Istanbul, the Commission published a paper entitled;

"Entrepreneurship Education: Enabling Teachers as a Critical Success Factor, A report on Teacher Education and Training to prepare teachers for the challenge of entrepreneurship education"

The economic backdrop for this meeting in 2011 was gloomy. Many economies across Europe were in recession and youth unemployment was at record levels. As ever, education and training was seen by many policy makers if not as the panacea for all economic ills, as at least the right sort of place to be looking for some of the answers.

"As well as contributing to European competitiveness, entrepreneurship education also helps to ensure a number of positive social benefits. The entrepreneurship key competence plays a vital role in Europe" (European Commission Brussels 2011)

The report was produced as a direct result of the workshops organised during the three days of the conference, with delegates identifying their priorities for action based on their own experiences in classrooms and staffrooms and in strategic policy making in real life. A number of presenters from across Europe delivered succinct, evidence based lecture inputs to add grist to the mill of debate, allowing for informed discussion about the relative merits of the different approaches being adopted in a range of different contexts and in different European countries.

Contained within this publication was a three page guide to implementation, a call-to-arms for teachers, managers and policy makers wanting to enact real change (European Commission Brussels 2011:53-55). This 'Budapest Agenda' was perceived as key to galvanising support and providing direction, both a catalyst and a road map for development through to 2020. Writing now in mid 2015, and as we approach the half way point on this journey, it would seem timely to review the agenda and remind ourselves of just what a task was being taken on. This paper is not intended as a progress report on the journey thus far but rather as a pause for reflection on the challenging range of tasks set out in those few sides of A4 paper. It may be that sometimes it is better to travel hopefully than to arrive!

2. The entrepreneurial teacher and the entrepreneurial school

Two central and essentially interlinked core concepts are discussed and developed in the report, firstly that of the entrepreneurial teacher and secondly of the entrepreneurial school. Importantly, these two were seen as vital to the success of the initiative. Both of these constructs will be examined in detail and their relative importance to the debate considered. Throughout this paper I will use the term enterprise education as shorthand for the plethora of terminology that surrounds this debate. Whether it should be 'enterprising learning' or 'entrepreneurial learning' or indeed whether there is any true difference between the two, is not the focus of this paper, although I do acknowledge the concerns of those kept awake at night by this semantic wrangle. Perhaps more fundamental has been the debate about the scope and potential reach for enterprise learning. The report acknowledges this discussion and comes down strongly on the side of those who want to go beyond the requirements of preparing learners for their economic role in society.

“Recent thinking has shown that narrow definitions based around preparing learners for the world of business may place limitations on both learners and the teaching community. Instead a broader definition which sees entrepreneurship education as a process through which learners acquire a broad set of competencies can bring greater individual, social and economic benefits since the competences acquired lend themselves to application in every aspect of people's lives” (European Commission Brussels 2011:2).

This approach has obvious implications for both programme content and delivery style and this is acknowledged in the report.

“The development of the entrepreneurship key competence is not simply a question of knowledge acquisition. Since entrepreneurship education is about developing the ability to act in an entrepreneurial manner, attitude and behaviours are perhaps more important than knowledge about how to run a business” (European Commission Brussels 2011:2).

There is also recognition of the major implications this will have on teaching and learning styles.

“Such competencies are best acquired through people-led enquiry and discovery that enable students to turn ideas into action. They are difficult to teach through traditional teaching and learning practices in which the learner tends to be a more or less passive recipient. They require active, learner-centred pedagogies and learning activities that use practical learning opportunities from the real world. Furthermore, since entrepreneurship education is a transversal competence it should be available to all students and be taught as a theme rather than as a separate subject at all stages and levels of education. Clearly, the implication of these changes for teachers is substantial. They mean nothing less than a new role for every teacher: that of ‘learning facilitator’ (European Commission Brussels 2011:3).

Good quality enterprise education learning experiences should be structured to comply with four basic requirements, namely:

1. Learners are presented with a real challenge – this implies a move away from text book learning and artificial constructs to identifying and tackling problems relevant to contemporary life. Local companies/social enterprises are often supportive in coming forward with realistic challenges.
2. Learners are required to take responsibility for their own learning- students are supported to manage their learning experience, to make decisions and reflect on the consequences. Importantly, the challenge experience becomes the core of the learning.
3. Learning is located in the local community and operates as a partnership- opening up the enterprise education experience to the world beyond the classroom gives both staff and learners access to a wide range of relevant and current resourcing
4. Learning results in real change- students experience the satisfaction of making a difference and are provided with an opportunity to to develop their sense of self worth and self esteem.

All of the above rests on one major assumption, namely that we have practitioners who are both able and willing to act as enablers rather than just didactic deliverers of knowledge. The need is for teacher who can create a learning environment which is both supportive and challenging and which gives learners the opportunity to show their full potential.

3. The entrepreneurial school

It has been said that a bureaucratic environment engenders bureaucratic behaviours and that, by the same logic, an entrepreneurial culture is a basic requirement as a backdrop for entrepreneurial learning. The so called '*Hidden curriculum*' often exercises as much influence, if not more than the prescribed curriculum requirements. This raises the question of what an entrepreneurial school would look like. I have written elsewhere about my research which allowed me to identify the ten characteristics of a truly entrepreneurial educational environment (Hoare, 2012). These ideas are picked up by the report and presented as generic characteristics. What is not so clearly presented is that these features were envisaged not as a random grouping of features but as an entrepreneurial development process which would allow the institution to evolve its latent potential as an innovative and creative environment in which learners could develop to their full extent. The process started with developing a vision, moved into planning and strategic decision making, before delivering and finally evaluating and assessing the outcomes. It is also important to say that the aim was not to be prescriptive, these were to be '*guidelines*' not '*tramlines*', with an emphasis on organic growth appropriate to the particular context and community setting that the school served. Engagement with the process was aimed at providing an entrepreneurial professional development experience for the staff, a chance for them to experience '*start-up*' as a curriculum based endeavour and to generate a belief in their own entrepreneurial capabilities.

4. Characteristics of the entrepreneurial school

Many of us will have visited schools which seem to encapsulate the notion of being entrepreneurial. I have tried to formalise this process somewhat and attempted to identify specific characteristics which seem to be essential. Firstly the school will have spent much time developing their vision for enterprise education. This will have been developed through consultation with staff, students and community stakeholders. It encompasses a shared understanding and definition of enterprise education to which all are signed up and which gives then a direction of travel. A strong component of this vision statement will be the attention paid to the moral and ethical dimension of enterprise education.

"Entrepreneurship in this sense refers to an individual's ability to turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation, showing initiative and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives. This supports everyone in day-to-day life at home and in society, makes employees more aware of the context of their work and better able to seize opportunities, and provides a foundation for entrepreneurs establishing a social or commercial activity. Entrepreneurship education is thus about life-wide as well as lifelong competence development"

The staff at the school will have been regularly auditing their existing provision for enterprise education right across the subject areas and including cross curricular and extracurricular experiences and mapping areas requiring more attention. This audit will show not simply what is delivered but also how the entitlement translates into the classroom experience. Interestingly, exercises of this sort often identify areas of the curriculum which are already delivering enterprising experiences but are failing to label them appropriately. Apart from anything else, this process can be reassuring for teachers who are wary of adding to their workload with yet another initiative.

Enterprise Education will be seen as an entitlement for all. The policy statements will reflect this, ensuring that all students are able to engage with the experience and take some ownership of the process, whilst acknowledging that some students may have varied learning styles. Student briefing will be scheduled in to the programme to ensure that they understand the importance of their role in contributing to the success of the programmes, with clear statements about the expected outcomes and benefits of their engagement.

The school will have adopted an innovative approach to timetabling and resourcing. Whilst some experiences will be designed as discrete programmes, many will operate as cross curricular and extra-curricular events. Effective mapping should identify gaps and omissions requiring attention.

It should go without mention that the school ensures full compliance with child protection, health and safety and public liability requirements. This becomes a central issue for effective enterprise education given that there will be a major reliance on partnerships with external community partners. The audit will have identified existing relationships and opportunities for developing new ones.

Adequate resourcing will have been made available by a leadership team committed to delivering excellence of provision. Often there will be a dedicated member of staff with responsibility for coordinating the provision.

The curriculum offer would encompass the full range of enterprise capabilities and learners would be encouraged to take on responsibility for their own learning through team working, decision making and problem solving activities. The approach to student assessment would encompass both assessment for learning as well as assessment of learning. The school will have recognised the need to go beyond the measurement of knowledge acquisition to address the development of transversal skills. Students will be used to reviewing and evaluating their own performance, in conjunction with their peers and with their teacher. Evidence gained will feedback into the school development process, informing planning for future years. The school would also disseminate and celebrate its good practice in entrepreneurship education activities with outside organisations. This will allow for networking and reflection.

5. An agenda for professional development

Planning appropriate, relevant and cost effective professional development for teachers is always going to be demanding. The Budapest Agenda sets out a comprehensive list of requirements and this could be seen as rather intimidating by some schools, particularly those who are new to enterprise education. It could be argued that there is a logic to structuring the professional development requirements in a way that fits with an entrepreneurial development cycle. Trainees should need to develop their vision for enterprise education before they can plan their provision, decide on delivery strategies and undertake assessment and evaluation of the learning outcomes. The sequencing of these topic areas is a deliberate attempt to replicate the same cycle of learning that the school students will be experiencing. The starting point has to be located in the trainees/students own experience. Both sets of learners need to examine their own preconceptions and prejudices about enterprise. One way to do this might be to provide a 'Challenging the Myths' session which allows for the exploration of definitions and is an ideal launch point for starting to build an institutional enterprise education vision statement.

The report provides a 'menu' of professional development choices which is designed as table d'hôte rather than a la carte (European Commission Brussels 2011:38). It also serves as a checklist, allowing schools to avoid duplication through mapping of their existing professional development provision. Health and Safety issues may already be covered as a generic topic and the need is only to fine tune the content to ensure it is appropriate for their enterprise education programmes. Other areas may require more bespoke inputs from expert providers but the central theme remains, that of school improvement. Teachers come into the profession because they want to help students develop their full potential. As an initiative, enterprise education starts with a huge advantage in that it aims to empower students to take responsibility, not just for their learning but for their future. Evidence suggests that it can have an equally powerful impact on teacher development. Having evaluated many enterprise education professional development programmes, I am always struck by the response of the practitioners who report that they have had a positive training experience. Invariably this means that the event has been planned with practitioner input and reflects the reality and the demands

of teacher workloads whilst also providing a balance of challenge and support. Memorably, one teacher wrote that his training event had reminded him why he came into teaching.

High quality enterprise education has to encompass exemplary teaching and learning and that, in a school context, is truly transferable. The entrepreneurial school has a default setting as a successful school. Linking enterprise education to school improvement has to be the goal and there is a sense that thus far, this has been understated. More research does indeed need to be undertaken to identify the links between institutional success and entrepreneurial culture but what better reason for a journey well travelled.

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Entrepreneurial teacher training in Europe: an overview of European policies and developments

A formação de professores em empreendedorismo na Europa: uma perspetiva das políticas europeias e desenvolvimentos

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 01 de abril de 2015

Fecha de revisión: 15 de mayo de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 09 de julio de 2015

Redford, D. T. (2015). Entrepreneurial teacher training in Europe: an overview of European policies and developments. *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 17–34.



Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

ISSN 1989 – 9572

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Entrepreneurial teacher training in Europe: an overview of European policies and developments

A Formação de Professores em Empreendedorismo na Europa: uma perspetiva das políticas europeias e desenvolvimentos

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Abstract

In regard to the current context of Entrepreneurship Education in Europe, the majority of countries are in a process of educational reform. Among their objectives is to strengthen entrepreneurship education in a perspective of lifelong learning across all educational levels. The challenges presented in teaching entrepreneurship require significant changes in the way teachers themselves are educated. This chapter starts with the baseline goal of improving entrepreneurship education and training as set out by the European Commission. It highlights the challenges that are faced in fostering an entrepreneurial attitude in educational institutions and, in particular the need to support teachers through training programs that pursue a long-term policy commitment that is both creative and well-conceived. Entrepreneurship education is still an up-and-coming subject in teacher education. Nevertheless, experience and good practice indicate that when this type of training is offered the concept and the innovative methods associated with entrepreneurship are quickly adapted to the educational necessities of students.

Resumo

No que diz respeito ao atual contexto da Educação em Empreendedorismo na Europa, a maior parte dos países estão num processo de reformas educativas. Entre os seus objetivos, encontra-se o de fortalecer a educação em empreendedorismo, numa perspetiva de aprendizagem contínua em todos os níveis de ensino. Os desafios no ensino de empreendedorismo exigem mudanças significativas na forma como os próprios professores são formados. Este capítulo começa por abordar o objetivo primordial de melhorar a educação e a formação em empreendedorismo conforme estabelecido pela Comissão Europeia. São assim realçados os desafios que se prendem com a persecução de uma atitude empreendedora nas instituições de ensino e em particular a necessidade de apoiar os professores em programas de formação que tenham em conta um compromisso político prolongado e que sejam criativos e bem concebidos. A educação em empreendedorismo é ainda uma matéria promissora no ensino. Ainda assim, a experiência e as boas práticas mostram que, quando se leva a cabo este tipo de formação, o conceito e os métodos mais inovadores associados ao empreendedorismo são facilmente adaptados às necessidades educativas dos alunos.

Keywords

Entrepreneurial Teacher Training; European Policies; Public Policy in Entrepreneurship Education; Secondary Schools; VET

Palavras – chave

Formação de Professores Empresarial; Políticas europeias; Políticas Públicas em Educação Empreendedorismo; Escolas secundárias; VET

1. Introduction

The definition of Entrepreneurship is not consensual amongst scholars, taking into consideration the available literature on this subject. The European Commission's report, *"Mapping of Teachers' Preparation for Entrepreneurship Education"* (2011), proposes the following conclusions:

"There currently exists a variety of approaches to defining/analyzing entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship has featured as a research topic not only in economic theory, but also (and increasingly) in other areas, such as sociology, psychology and management studies. Entrepreneurship is a human phenomenon linked to a wide spectrum of skills, knowledge and behavioral/emotional attitudes. This may suggest that there is no "simple way" of conceptualizing the "entrepreneur" and what makes an individual "entrepreneurial"; skills, knowledge and behavioral/emotional attitudes linked to entrepreneurship can be fostered and nurtured through learning processes as well as through other processes. Attitudes such as being visionary, passionate or imaginative are also dependent upon other contextual factors, which are often linked to an individual's personal history (e.g. family, early childhood experience, peers, local community)." (European Commission, 2011, p.10).

One important aspect covered by the literature is in the assumption that entrepreneurship is a key factor for fostering economic growth through innovation. Entrepreneurship education is seen as a means to developing a culture that is for and about entrepreneurship. Such competencies are best acquired through people-led enquiry and discovery that result in the enabling of students to turn ideas into action. They are difficult to teach through traditional teaching practices in which the learner tends to be a passive recipient. They require active, learner-centered pedagogies and learning activities that use practical learning opportunities from the real world. Furthermore, since entrepreneurship education is about cross-curricular competences, it is best if it is made available to all students and embedded in existing courses rather than treating it as a separate subject. This is especially true at the primary and secondary school levels (European Commission, 2010).

As highlighted by the European Commission (2006), education and training should support the development of an entrepreneurial mindset and behavior amongst EU citizens and hence advance entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship education aims to develop entrepreneurship related competences and qualities needed to become an enterprising person. More recent studies define entrepreneurship education as a process through which learners acquire a broad set of competencies. In this sense, entrepreneurship refers to an individual's ability to turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation, initiative and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives (European Commission, 2011).

According to the European Commission (2011), this broad set of competences can be structured in three main categories:

- Specific knowledge (e.g. knowledge of the workings of the economy);
- Skills (e.g. planning, organization, analysis, communication, negotiation, working individually and in teams, risk assessment, capacity to identify opportunities for personal and professional/business activities);
- Attitudes (e.g. sense of initiative, pro-activity, independence, motivation and a determination to meet objectives).

Knowledge, skills and attitudes can be nurtured in the context of education and training. The Eurydice Unit of the Education, Audio-visual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) has coordinated a comparative overview of entrepreneurship education data within the Eurydice Network (consisting of 31 European countries). The following graph displays an updated comparison of how the above mentioned 3 categories of competences are being required as learning outcomes, within these European countries (in ISCED 1-3).

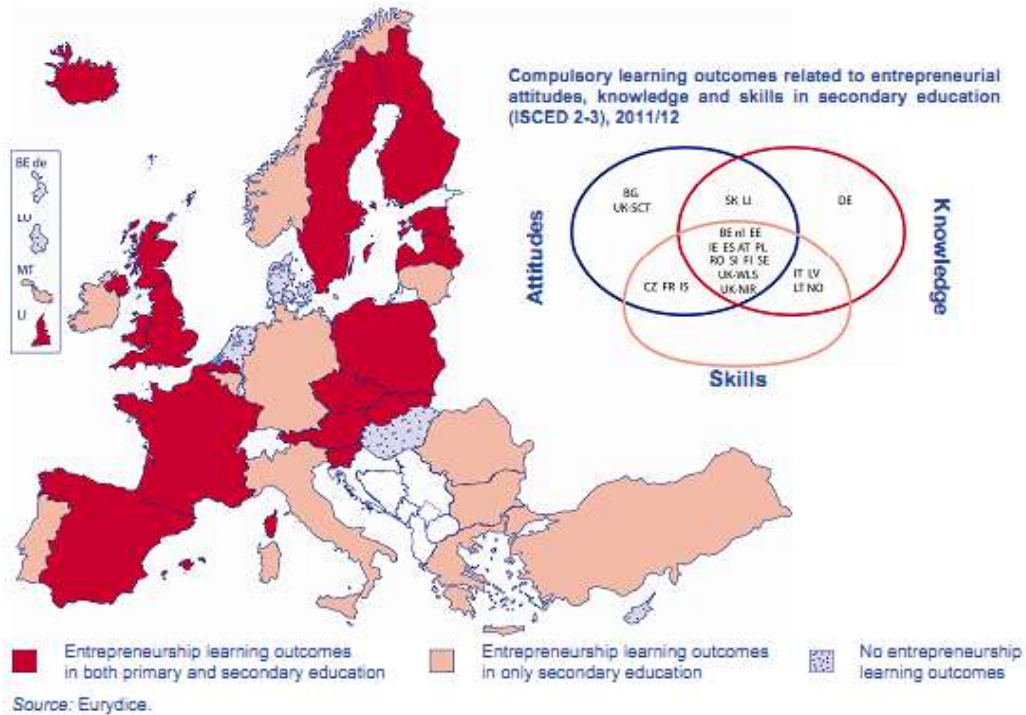
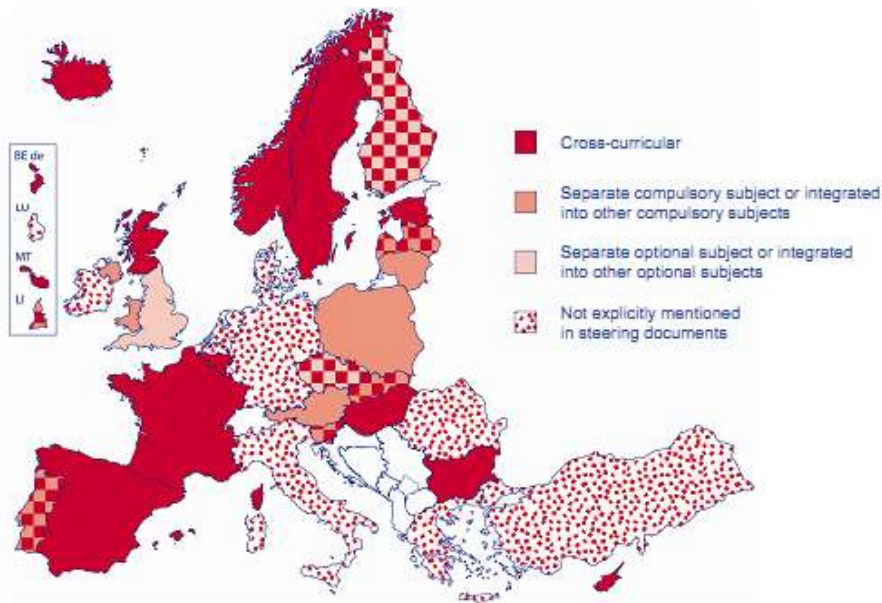


Figure 1: European Countries Comparison regarding Expected Learning Outcomes in Entrepreneurship Education (ISCED 1-3). EACEA, 2012, p.20

A report coordinated by the Commission under the Best Procedure Project, “*Education and Training for Entrepreneurship*” (European Commission, 2005) concluded that although numerous entrepreneurship related activities are currently being developed at all levels of education, many are neither integrated into the curriculum nor part of a coherent framework, and that as a result of this, most students do not yet have the possibility of taking part in entrepreneurship courses and programs.

Entrepreneurship education can be integrated into general education in different ways: Through a cross-curricular approach, through existing subjects or by introducing it as a separate curricular subject. When it is integrated into existing subjects, it is often made optional. Although in some cases, it is compulsory. Many different combinations of approaches appear within European countries. Most European countries explicitly recognize entrepreneurship education at least to some degree in primary and secondary education. However, the overall pattern of provisional changes significantly varies from one school level to another (EACEA, 2012). The following graphs offer a comparative overview of the most recent data on mainstream curricula integration options used in European countries according to the specific ISCED level.

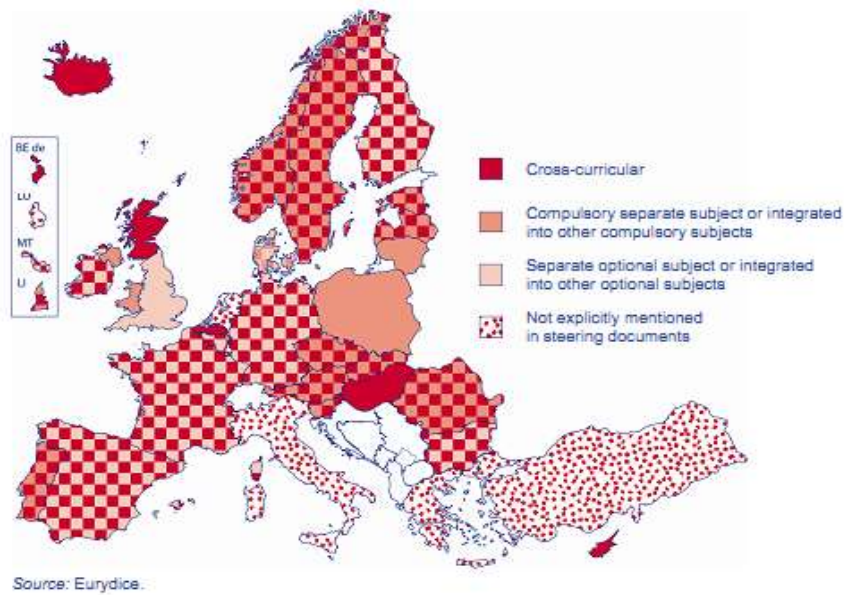


Source: Eurydice.

Figure 2: European Countries Comparison regarding the Approaches to Entrepreneurship Education (ISCED 1). EACEA, 2012, p. 14

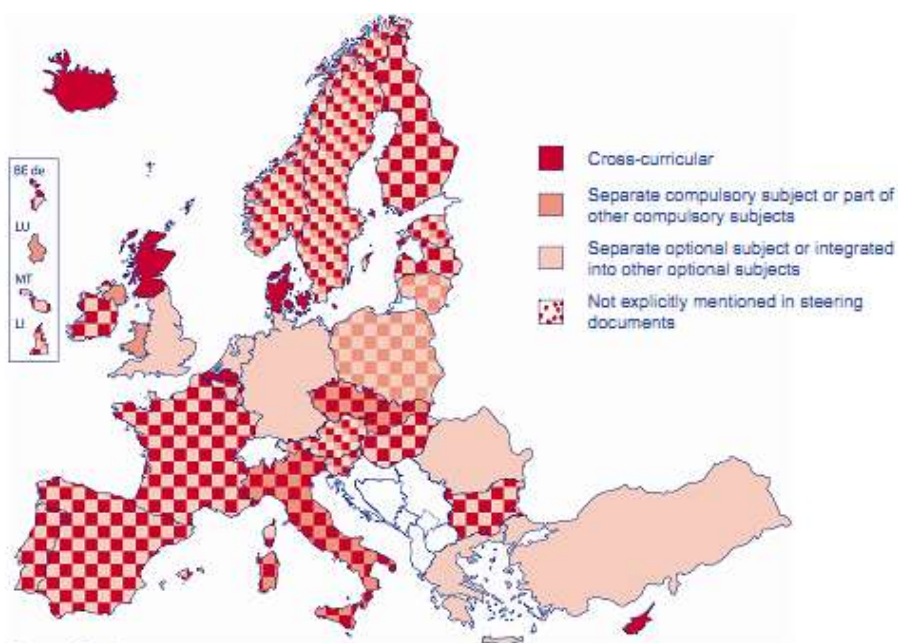
Good practice example: mini-company project in primary schools in Spain

The courses' robust and coherent methodology provides a set of tools to develop a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship key competences in a primary school setting. The course is accredited by CPRs (Teacher Training Centres, Department of Education). Its main objectives are raising awareness about entrepreneurship education among primary school teachers, helping teachers adopt more entrepreneurial learning styles and providing practice-based methodologies to develop entrepreneurship in primary schools. Its key strength is that it is online, which allows for greater flexibility, adaptation and personalization of course content. The program is on a voluntary basis of participation and it is followed-up by tutors, from the Valnalon community development organization, which enhances the level of commitment.



Source: Eurydice.

Figure 3: European Countries Comparison regarding the Approaches to Entrepreneurship Education (ISCED 2). EACEA, 2012, p. 15



Source: Eurydice.

Figure 4: European Countries Comparison regarding the Approaches to Entrepreneurship Education (ISCED 3). EACEA, 2012, p.16

As shown at the primary level, half of European countries define specific learning outcomes for entrepreneurship education. These are generally linked to compulsory subjects, whereas in secondary education, more countries specify learning outcomes for lower or upper secondary levels or, in some cases, both. In this sense, entrepreneurship education in secondary education is more often integrated into optional subjects. Therefore, not all students will choose to take entrepreneurship to achieve the desired learning outcomes.

2. Innovative learning environments

Referring to the skills of the 21st century teacher, the OECD report *“Preparing teachers and developing school leaders for the 21st century – lessons from around the world”* (Schleicher, 2012), states that there is no single best way of teaching and that it is even more true in the 21st century than in the past. The report concludes that teachers need a rich repertoire of teaching strategies, the ability to combine approaches, and the knowledge of how and when to use certain methods and strategies. Such strategies should include: direct, whole-group teaching, guided discovery, group work, and the facilitation of self-study and individual discovery. They should also include personalized feedback. Importantly, teachers need to have a deep understanding of how learning happens and of how individual student motivations, emotions and lives outside the classroom affect the learning process. Teachers need to be able to work in highly collaborative ways, working with other teachers, professionals and *“paraprofessionals”* (e.g. class assistants, teacher’s aides, etc.), within the same organization, or individuals in other organizations, networks of professional communities and with different partnership arrangements, which may include mentorship.

Innovative learning environments are characterized by a good balance between discovery and personal exploration on the one hand, and systematic instruction and guidance on the other while respecting individual differences in a student’s abilities, needs and motivations. It also indicates that the balance between external regulation by the teacher and self-regulation by the student will vary during this type of educational experience (i.e. as student competences increase, their portion of autonomy can also increase resulting in explicit instructional support diminishing).

Teachers tend to use several pedagogic methods in Finland, a country where entrepreneurship education is part of the curriculum (Seikkula-Leino et al., 2007, 2009, 2011). In their study, the Finnish researchers show that surveyed teachers primarily use the following methods:

- Discussions in the classroom: talking about entrepreneurship seems to be the easiest way for teachers to promote entrepreneurship education. Almost all teachers surveyed reported having used this method;
- Facilitating student projects in school: approximately two-thirds of the teachers surveyed have taken part in these projects. However, this method is used less frequently due to the extra resources needed to implement projects;
- Study tours or company visits: used at one time or another by approximately half of the teachers surveyed, however on a less frequent basis;
- Working in pairs, group work, cooperative methods, “*learning by doing*”: using real world simulation and creative problem solving techniques. These are also very popular and regularly used by teachers. (Seikkula-Leino et al., 2009; as cited in European Commission, 2011, p. 17)

Although Finnish teachers use several of these working methods, it is interesting to note that the most frequently used in the classroom remain relatively traditional.

These findings confirm those of Hytti and O’Gorman (2004) who have analyzed 50 entrepreneurship education programs at all levels of education in Austria, Ireland and the UK. These researchers found that the working methods used (in decreasing frequency of occurrence) are as follows: “*traditional*” teaching methods, business simulations, workshops, counseling/mentoring, setting up a business, study visits, games and competitions and practical training.

These results hold not only for the pedagogy of entrepreneurship education, but also for the general educational pedagogy used in schools. When looking at teaching pedagogy across the EU, irrespective of the course taught, it appears that teachers tend to rely on traditional teaching methods, despite agreeing on the importance of creativity in the classroom (European Commission, 2011).

The TALIS Study (OECD, 2010) reached similar conclusions by assessing teacher practices in 23 participating countries (in and outside of Europe). Results point towards a tendency to put greater emphasis on ensuring that learning is well structured. Student-oriented activities and enhanced learning activities such as project work are less frequently applied.

This fact challenges schools to become more open to their local communities. In equal measure, businesses and the wider community in general, should be willing to play an active and committed role in supporting teachers and schools in their endeavors. Changes to teacher education methodologies cannot take place in a vacuum if they are to be effective.

Four key areas of action to promote entrepreneurship teacher training were identified in EKORYS report (2011):

- Initial education of teachers;
- At national or regional level, the development of the requisite vision and supporting frameworks across the education systems as a whole;
- Teachers' continuing professional development;
- At local school level, the development of appropriate support structures and activities.

The OECD report on preparing teachers (Schleicher, 2012) states that school-based professional development activities involving the entire staff or significant groups of teachers are becoming more common, while teacher initiated personal development is becoming less so, at least in terms of programs supported through public funds. Most countries now link professional development to the developmental priorities of the school and coordinate in-service training in the

school accordingly. School leaders and, in some cases, local school authorities, play an important role in planning professional-development activities. Supporting collaborative work cultures is an increasingly important and recognized responsibility of school leaders.

Currently, entrepreneurship training is most commonly available for teachers as a part of their continuing professional development, with no instances of it being cited where it is an integral part. The dominant modes of incorporation of entrepreneurship education are through external actors and as part of specific programs organized by ministries of education (EKORYS, 2011).

The recommendations related to initial teacher education emphasize the need to develop the skills and attitudes that entrepreneurship requires, such as teamwork, sense of initiative, decision-making, problem solving, leadership, risk-taking and creativity.

Good practice example: WEEN Consortia of University Educators, Wales, UK

The WEEN Consortia of University Educators in Wales, developed an Entrepreneurial Educators Post Graduate Certification in Education. This module (Teachers Award) encourages and develops entrepreneurial skills, self-motivation and analytical abilities through the study and application of entrepreneurship in a teachers own subject area. The module is delivered to groups of teachers comprised of individuals operating within diverse sections of the Lifelong Learning sector, such as higher education, further education, school education, work-based learning and private training organisations. The module will be contextualised through assessment where learners apply the concepts learned in their specific teaching/training subject, environment and experience. The module has been mapped against the Lifelong Learning UK (LLUK) overarching professional standards for teachers, tutors and trainers in the lifelong learning sector and the Higher Education Academy (HEA) Professional Standards Framework for teaching and supporting learning.

Initially, teacher education institutions will need to start by examining existing curricula and determining the extent to which entrepreneurship education underpins and is embedded within it, and what more needs to be done to accomplish this. At the same time, entrepreneurial skills and attitudes will require new pedagogies that in essence consist of the same ones that student teachers will be expected to teach once they professionally qualify, i.e. experiential learning (project-based activities, active learning, learning that is “*co-constructed*” with those beyond the school, or college, etc.) and participatory teaching. Teacher education institutions should thus provide rich context for learning about, through and for entrepreneurship. They should enable student teachers to explore and develop a range of pedagogical techniques which are underpinned by active learning approaches, a willingness to experiment, “*to try new things*”, and to draw upon a wide range of learning contexts both within, but particularly outside the institution.

Good practice example: Resource Center for Mathematics, Science and Technology Education in Norway

The Resource Center for Mathematics, Science and Technology Education at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology has been involved in innovations for entrepreneurial practice in schools since 1999. In 2004 the school authorities of Trondheim Municipality and the Resource Centre at the University agreed to develop a training programme (7,5 ECTE-credits) in Technology & Entrepreneurship (T&E) for teachers in all subjects in primary and lower secondary schools. The course was given twice and involved a total of approximately 40 teachers. Ten of those teachers took a follow-up course in Technology and Entrepreneurship (7,5 ECTE-credits) in 2007-2008. Until then, teacher training in entrepreneurship had been centered mostly around gründer ideas and development of mini-companies and pupil enterprises. During the next phase the concept of entrepreneurship education was further developed, resulting in a broader understanding and one more focused on the development of entrepreneurial skills that may be used in a wide variety of situations. Also, included in the broader understanding of the concept is entrepreneurship as a pedagogical approach and a working method in schools. A request from the education authorities in Sør-Trøndelag County resulted in a teacher course in Entrepreneurship and Innovation (15 ECTE-credits) for teachers in upper-secondary schools in 2010-2011. The course was followed by 20 teachers. Not only was the content of the course focused on entrepreneurship, the working methods used in the course were, to a large degree, entrepreneurial.

Student teachers should be encouraged to learn with student teachers from other subject areas about other subjects and differing approaches across disciplines so that they are open to other perspectives. Such approaches can foster team building, communication and negotiation skills, project management and reflective learning. These are the skills essential for entrepreneurship education.

The OECD Report (Schleicher, 2012) also presents a comparative review of school leadership that identifies a focus on supporting, evaluating and developing teacher quality as the core of effective leadership. This includes co-coordinating the curriculum and teaching programs, monitoring and evaluating teaching practices, promoting teacher professional development, and supporting collaborative work cultures.

Good practice example: training program for trainers in Flanders, Belgium

In Flanders, “*Professionalisering van Leraren en Docenten op het vlak van Ondernemerschap*” Professionalisation of Teachers and Lecturers as part of Entrepreneurship” is a training program for trainers focused on the development of entrepreneurial competences and attitudes (real-life experiences in entrepreneurship). It allows the professionalization of teachers and lecturers in the field of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial spirit, focusing on entrepreneurial skills, networking between schools and companies and a balanced image of female and immigrant entrepreneurship (new since 2011). The main actions of the program are: 1) Organising exploratory and short classic in-company work experiences in cooperation with companies; 2) Allowing teachers/lecturers/members of school management teams to participate in internal in-service training in companies; 3) Organising in-service training actions (workshops/information sessions/information marketing) regarding specific aspects of entrepreneurship. An additional focus will be placed on female and immigrant entrepreneurship in work placements as well as in-service training.

Educational institutions that give initial teacher training should also encourage student teachers to take responsibility for their own learning and reflect upon their learning experiences in order to articulate them through seminars, workshops and learning logs. They should be encouraged to integrate this knowledge into their own planning of entrepreneurship activities for their future pupils.

The Partnership for 21st Century Skills has called for focusing in six areas of teacher training:

- The traditional core academic subjects;
- Twenty-first-century content, including global, financial, and environmental awareness;
- Learning and thinking skills, including creativity/critical thinking, problem solving, communication and collaboration;
- Information and communication technology skills;
- Life and career skills, including time management, group work, and leadership;
- Twenty-first-century assessment skills that accurately measure the other five skills.

3. Assessment

It is especially important that the way in which teachers and students are assessed come in line with the goals of entrepreneurship education. Systems need to recognize and reward teachers for becoming entrepreneurial themselves and for using active and experiential learning methods (ECORYS, 2011).

For the teacher, assessment has a powerful impact on what is taught and how it is taught. ECORYS report (2011) shows that while key competences such as mother tongue, foreign language and math, science and technology are commonly assessed in national exams, transversal key competences like sense of initiative, entrepreneurship and learning to learn are not assessed in these sorts of national tests. Therefore, there are limited incentives for teachers to engage in entrepreneurship education and to apply the teaching methods associated with entrepreneurship. Work by the European Commission has demonstrated that although a

transversal competence like entrepreneurship is complex to assess, Member States are already developing practices in how to assess aspects of it such as creativity and problem solving. Capturing attitudinal development is possible through systematic and intentional use of formative assessment and broader summative assessment. To enable assessment to take place, EU Member States are already developing learning outcomes for entrepreneurship, which need to be coupled with the definition of stages and levels.

“Along with the development of assessment procedures, national education systems should ensure that they incentivise teachers to become learning facilitators. All systems, by their nature, provide both formal (intended) and informal (perhaps unintended) incentives for people involved in them to act in certain ways. For teachers the way they teach is a consequence of a variety of formal factors including: their professional education; the pay they receive; the systems that assess their performance and determine their promotion prospects. But other less formal elements can also be significant including the extent of autonomy teachers experience and the opportunities for networking with colleagues, including at European and international levels. All such elements, and others besides, should point in the same direction, and specific incentives should be developed such as awards for good entrepreneurial teaching practice, and further training opportunities. Special regard should be paid to ensuring that “perverse incentives” which discourage teachers from becoming facilitators despite the overall policy intention area addressed.” (European Commission, 2011).

4. Resources

Reports emphasize the need to ensure that appropriate and high quality resources and tools are made available for teachers. Pedagogies and didactic tools should be based on good quality research. Given the relative newness of the lifelong entrepreneurship education drive there is a clear need for more systematic and longitudinal research to support policy makers and the teaching profession in determining “*directions and corrections*” to the entrepreneurship education drive.

Research studies are thus needed to underpin action. Additionally, over time resource centers could develop into National Centers of Excellence in Entrepreneurship Education with a role in accrediting the quality of teaching and learning materials. There should be one for each country. Schools should be able to identify the resources they need. Designating a teacher as the school entrepreneurship coordinator can be important for strategy implementation.

Good practice example: after-school Gardening Club in England, UK

Created by teacher Simon Pugh-Jones, the “*Writhlington School Orchid Project*” grew out of an after-school Gardening Club (still a central part of the Project) that has involved hundreds of students over the more than twenty years it has been running. The responsible teacher has successfully worked various aspects of the Orchid Project’s horticultural work into the school curriculum (science) for every student at the school. He has also integrated the Project into the subjects of enterprise and technology. Because a single orchid seedpod can contain up to several million seeds, the generative potential of each orchid flower cared for by the students is enormous. The students wholesale their in vitro plants and kits through botanic gardens and the Eden Project, and sell them alongside adult ‘ex vitro’ plants directly to the public at shows, such as the Royal Horticultural Society’s London Orchid Show held in March, at which time they talk about their work and plants with enthusiasm and knowledge.

The preparation for sale requires folding boxes and gluing on information labels to ready to sell in vitro plantlets in a ‘mini orchid kit’ the students developed and designed themselves through a young enterprise company some years ago. Sales of plants generate sufficient funds to run the Project, and its (near) annual fieldtrips taking small groups of students to visit orchid hotspots and to see orchid conservation in action around the world.

There are also enormous opportunities to use skills and expertise within local communities. This is especially important with regard to businesses and entrepreneurs. Firms often do not know

either how to participate or in which activities they could participate. Sometimes they need incentives to take part in entrepreneurship education. They need to be sold on the benefits of internships and placements, and for entrepreneurship education to be linked to their products and services. Here municipalities as well as individual schools can play a role. They can be especially helpful given the variation between schools and the scale and breadth of the local community. They can especially help schools in areas with a smaller entrepreneurial base and therefore a reduced access to businesses.

Good practice example: collaborative projects between municipalities and schools in Iceland

Iceland has developed a collaborative project between the municipality of Fljótisdalshérað and schools on all levels in the county. The main aim was strengthening human capital in a society of creative, entrepreneurial and responsible individuals in the municipality. In recent years, the core activity has been a year-long course for teachers and collaborators entitled, *“Environmental Literacy and Local Pride – Innovation Education as a tool for Entrepreneurship and Understanding.”*

Intermediaries like chambers of commerce can also facilitate interaction between businesses and schools. This helps to establish a common language between commercial entrepreneurs and schools. There are instances across Europe where local business communities/chambers of commerce have instigated community involvement awards for local schools with an annual award ceremony similar to the “Oscars”. These events also recognize and reward the efforts required to develop and sustain potential employment links.

Opportunities are available everywhere and schools should make use of all channels, including parent connections. Another source of support are the students themselves. Many current students have work experience that can provide teachers with a useful resource. Past students can be utilized systematically through alumni networks. They can be used as role models and ambassadors to share their personal successes and failures. Initially, a school’s engagement with its community may be opportunistic and ad hoc. Over time however, the goal should be to establish regular structured and sustainable collaboration, moving from individual teacher-entrepreneur links to corporate school-business networks and partnerships.

As well as developing effective strategies for community collaboration, it is also important to ensure that opportunities are made available for schools to cooperate with one another. Partnerships, networking and good practice exchanges should be supported at local levels. Such measures can help schools to develop mutual support mechanisms. These measures can help those that participate to learn from one another's experiences, and perhaps to pool resources and share connections with local communities and entrepreneurs. Opportunities for networking should also be developed at the European level. Indeed, alongside opportunities for schools and teachers to share experiences, opportunities for mobility should be developed for teachers. They should provide opportunities for both face-to-face and virtual interactions, aimed at fostering the development of self-sustaining communities of interest. In this context, the European Commission should consider the introduction of a European transnational mobility scheme expanding on the current system.

5. The role of higher education

Higher education institutions play an important role in improving entrepreneurship. The labour market has had to face many changes in recent years. Unemployment rates have grown in Europe and the possibility of setting up a business emerges as an important way to add value to a country’s economy and to the creation of jobs. In this environment, schools must provide an entrepreneurship ecosystem, develop and adapt competencies and skills, disseminate knowledge, technology and increase economic development (Costa et al., 2012).

At higher education levels, the primary purpose of entrepreneurship education should be to develop entrepreneurial capacities and mindsets (European Commission, 2008). Yet as the demand for entrepreneurship education is increasing at the university level, there is a shortage of human resources and funding for this type of education making it harder to meet expectations.

When looking at teacher preparation, it is apparent that most teachers have little or no practical experience in being entrepreneurs. Getting experienced entrepreneurs involved in teaching can thus make up for the current lack of practical knowledge among professors (European Commission, 2008). Unfortunately, there are few examples in Europe of entrepreneurs being involved in curriculum development. Most frequently, they come to universities as guest lecturers with the objective of presenting their experience to students as personal testimonials. This panorama seems to indicate that higher education institutions need to engage more vigorously with the enterprise and vice-versa.

In the European reports that have recently analyzed the current state of affairs, there is sufficient data that proves that there are currently too few professors trained in entrepreneurship. There is a need to graduate more PhD students in entrepreneurship, to increase the number of future teachers. Other relevant questions raised by the literature is the lack of effective incentives to involve, motivate and reward teachers in their effort to train a new generation of more entrepreneurial students.

Higher education institutions have the autonomy to pursue innovation, by making constant contact with the diversity and richness of other educational institutions and international experts. This alone makes them potential recipients of good practices and provides them with good opportunities to improve their entrepreneurship education methods. Nonetheless, the one caveat is at the structure level. It can be observed that institutions that provide university level studies usually operate in a rather rigid curriculum format. This constraint makes it difficult to implement a cross-disciplinary program such as recommended by the EU. The organization of siloed academic departments makes it hard to establish cooperation between different areas of knowledge, as they are likely to be established separately and have different hierarchies.

Lectures are still the most common teaching tool. This also poses an obstacle to developing entrepreneurial thinking in both teachers and students, as experience-based pedagogies are crucial in this type of education. But there are exceptions.

Good practice example: development of interactive courses in England, UK

At the University of Cambridge (UK), over a 6-year period, a panel of some 200 entrepreneurs and other practitioners was developed to help deliver interactive courses. Ideally, entrepreneurs should receive some training on how to address students. One suggestion was to identify and train an "Academy" of high profile entrepreneurs who are prepared to give of their time and can be relied upon in the classroom. This has been done in Wales. Also, it should be taken into account that entrepreneurs are more motivated to come back to their previous school/university. These alumni can have the added effect of having students identify with the presenters case and experience.

The European Commission underlines the need to adapt entrepreneurial programs and modules that offer students the tools to think creatively, be effective problem solvers, analyze business ideas objectively, and communicate, network, lead, and evaluate any given project. (European Commission, 2008).

Currently the teaching of entrepreneurship is not yet sufficiently integrated in higher education institutions' curricula. Available data indicates that the majority of entrepreneurship courses are offered in business and economic studies (European Commission, 2008). Nonetheless, innovative and viable business ideas are more likely to arise from technical, scientific and creative studies. So the real challenge is to build inter-disciplinary approaches, making entrepreneurship education accessible to all students, creating teams for the development and exploitation of

business ideas, mixing students from economic and business studies with students from other faculties and with different backgrounds.

To be able to test business ideas in an educational, supportive environment is the keystone in fostering innovation and entrepreneurship in today's society. Academic spin-offs are increasingly seen as important means of enhancing local economic development. However, in their new roles, scientists and universities must build business and managerial competencies. More generally, students in all fields, including humanities, arts and other creative studies, may greatly benefit from learning and gaining experience in entrepreneurship. The benefits of entrepreneurship education are not limited to boosting start-ups, innovative ventures and new jobs. Entrepreneurship is a competency for all, helping young people to be more creative and self-confident in whatever they undertake.

In establishing an effective cooperation between higher education institutions and enterprises, it is recommended that a win-win situation should arise from the experience. Students and teachers contribute to enterprises with their theoretical knowledge and availability to test new ideas. Enterprises have practical knowledge, which is often non-existent in the pure academic experience. In order for higher educational institutions to benefit from the collaboration, it should be long-term oriented, e.g. involving entrepreneurs and businesses leaders as mentors and advisers in building student business hatcheries and incubators, or in developing new entrepreneurship courses and study programs, including internship programs. For enterprises, there should be short-term benefits too, e.g. through involving student groups in innovation activities, particularly helping firms formulate and develop radical innovation ideas, and through linkage to research activities. Taking these basic rules into consideration, close collaboration can be established between SMEs and higher education institutions (European Commission, 2008).

Another action recommended in advancing entrepreneurship in higher education is to increase the mobility of teachers and researchers between institutions and business. Unfortunately, this is not currently encouraged or facilitated by the Academia in the majority of countries. The one exception is France where there are specific programs that have been established for members of scientific staffs. Since 1999, a law has allowed researchers to quit universities and labs to create new ventures based on their work. A network of academic incubators has been set up to support them. They are allowed to go back to university, if desired. Between 2000 and 2005, 844 enterprises have been created in France through academic incubators by researchers who have participated in this program.

In Germany, the Gelsenkirchen University of Applied Science, after a period of at least eight semesters, the University can give professors one semester off for testing and using their scientific expertise and methods as well as to get practical experience in firms. In Spain a new Act for universities was established in 2007, reforming the Statute of University Professors that enabled them to participate in business projects (European Commission, 2008).

Another aspect that deserves attention in creating a more entrepreneurial setting in universities is the support given to innovative spin-offs of knowledge-based businesses launched by students and university graduates. Such students and university graduates would benefit from dedicated advisory and support programs. Entrepreneurship courses and activities should be part of a wider entrepreneurial program within institutions. A high visibility of "*entrepreneurial commitment*" of an institution is achieved through the presence of dedicated spaces, such as "*hatcheries*" or incubators, and through support for student start-up plans.

Members of an Expert Group (European Commission, 2008) were asked if entrepreneurship courses and activities in their respective countries were normally conceived as part of a wider entrepreneurial program. In addition they were asked whether these programs included support mechanisms and services designed to aid student business ideas and new company start-ups, and if they did, whether such mechanisms and services were available for students at all levels. Their answers suggest a rather uneven picture in Europe, with a more or less equal split between "yes" and "no". Where support services exist, they seem to be available in most cases to students of all levels (undergraduate, graduate, post-graduate), while in fewer cases they address mainly

post-graduates and the staff of the institutions. An example of this latter situation is found in Ireland and Portugal.

Good practice example: taking ideas and Projects and Turning them into Ventures in Spain

The INNOVA24 program of the Polytechnic University of Catalonia (Spain) is open to all students, faculty, graduates and staff, with the objective of taking innovative ideas and projects generated in the University and turning them into ventures. The program is run by a support center for the creation of technology-based firms, with the involvement of the University and Business Schools of Catalonia. It operates at the various steps of the entrepreneurial process: awareness-raising activities (including creativity workshops), extracurricular training actions, start-up assistance, location in enterprise hatcheries and financing. Since its creation, the INNOVA program has helped in creating 197 technology-based companies.

6. Implementation: stakeholder roles

A wide range of support measures is recommended at the national and regional levels to support teacher education for entrepreneurship. In most countries teacher education is still waiting to be fully articulated with those of wider strategies that deal with entrepreneurship education. It is recommended that countries move towards mandating entrepreneurship education within curricula so as to ensure that it becomes part of the mainstream and not marginalized as an extra-curricular activity. Stakeholders from the European level can play a role in helping to develop and share experiences in this area assisting national and local realities.

Educational authorities are recommended to play a role in structuring incentives and removing obstacles enabling teachers to become facilitators. Accomplishing this can involve a broad range of actors including businesses, social enterprises and NGOs.

Good practice example: The Choices Program for Social Inclusion, Portugal

Programa Escolhas (Choices Program), a governmental program for the social inclusion of youngsters, in Portugal, in partnership with Universidade Católica Portuguesa, Porto, developed a practical learning manual "Entrepreneurship Manual" aimed at entrepreneurship training in socially vulnerable contexts. It includes training material to develop soft skills, entrepreneurial attitudes and professional opportunities. The main goal is to incentivize and empower socially excluded youngsters through an active participation in building their life-projects. The manual is available online on the national program's website (www.empreende.programaescolhas.pt) and is divided into two main segments, one designed for trainers (didactic and structured information on entrepreneurship and tools to work this subject with youngsters) and a second one directed to youngsters (with simplified information on entrepreneurship and including practical exercises). The manual has been used in several live-training actions, throughout the country, multiplying its effects within 133 socially vulnerable communities.

The development of communities of entrepreneurial teachers should involve a combination of bottom-up and top-down actions. Clearly the onus is on teachers to come together, however, national and European level actions can support the process.

Further areas for action at this level would include the following:

- National/regional authorities should ensure that funding for entrepreneurship education's continuing professional development is only made available if the training conforms to strict criteria, identified as a quality framework.
- Imaginative programs should be offered with a broad range of opportunities made available, including SME and other community placements/internships for all teaching staffs.
- Regular dissemination events should be organized at the national level to both inform teachers of best practice examples and also to celebrate progress being made towards

establishing excellence in entrepreneurship education as a student entitlement available to all.

7. School leadership: the role of management

Opening up schools to the wider world by involving business and local communities to a greater degree can constitute a major challenge to traditional norms and approaches in education. Without the full support of school leaders, achieving entrepreneurship education will be an extremely difficult task. Whilst local communities have a very important role to play, it is head teachers and senior school managers who have to set the overall framework within which local goals can be achieved.

Good practice example: Small Scale Projects in Schools, The Netherlands

Entrepreneurial education can take on the form of small-scale projects, but can also entail a more team-oriented approach or even a *'total concept'* of the school as an enterprise (business school) with contributions from all departments of the institution. The courses offered by SLO, in The Netherlands, "*grijp de buitenkans: seize the golden opportunities*", are first and foremost aimed at forcing the participants into critical introspection by letting them experience firsthand what being entrepreneurial means. In addition, the courses provide a starting point to offer existing curricula in a fresh way, together with partners. The final aim of the courses is in facilitating the management of the schools involved *"to bring the real world in" and "put the internal expertise out"*. Not just taking, but giving, is where the challenge lies.

School leaders thus are recommended to have a clear vision of what they hope to achieve through entrepreneurship education, a vision that should be shared with their teaching staff. Without this vision, allocating resources in the most appropriate ways is unlikely to be achieved. For these reasons, school leaders should give attention to national and regional strategies with regard to entrepreneurship education. Entrepreneurship education needs to be included as part of a school leaders' own continuing professional development, and should also be identified as separate target groups in national and regional communication strategies. School leaders need to understand the new role that teachers perform as facilitators. In doing so they can identify the best means by which to support their teaching staff both through informal learning opportunities and formal episodes of continuing professional development.

The 2011 Education and Culture D.G.'s report states, as a concluding remark that, *"invisible walls between educational institutions and the outside world have been mentioned"* (Education and Culture D.G., 2011; p.51). Nonetheless, both students and schools can benefit by overcoming those barriers and enhancing cooperation with enterprises and business representatives. Research shows that entrepreneurship education is still a relatively new issue and a quite uncommon topic in initial teacher education. If activities are introduced, it should help to ensure that students receive enough information on what entrepreneurship education means and how they can personally benefit from its associated methods. Experience and good practices indicate that, once it has been established, the concept and the innovative methods associated with entrepreneurship education gain popularity very quickly.

8. Conclusions

Considering the literature review on entrepreneurship education, as well as the European practices that were highlighted in this Chapter, the need to support teachers in their training endeavor seems evident. Both experience and theory indicates that, although entrepreneurship education is still an *"up-and-coming"* subject in teacher education, once a support strategy is established, the concept and the innovative methods associated with entrepreneurship education are easily adopted to the educational necessities of their students. To strengthen entrepreneurship education it should be seen as a perspective of lifelong learning, across all educational levels, as well as in initial teacher training.

Researchers and academics in entrepreneurship education also specify the need to draw on many sources to make entrepreneurship education more effective: Research and evaluation (ensuring the quality of entrepreneurship knowledge); Entrepreneurial development of products and services (experimentation and practice); and, active participation of teachers, school heads, students, parents, communities, etc., in order to input new and relevant knowledge into the learning community.

As to the ideal educational level when entrepreneurship education should be implemented, the survey that was analyzed in this article indicates that secondary school is the ideal starting point. However, in the literature review, primary schools are mentioned as the initial target, in order to produce more significant changes that favor entrepreneurship to prosper.

It can be concluded that one of the main focus of entrepreneurship education has to be the development of teacher entrepreneurial skills. In order to develop these skills, entrepreneurship training must allow teachers to experience firsthand what being an entrepreneur means. According to the self-efficacy theory being entrepreneurial is about behavior, but first and foremost it is about beliefs. That is to say, intention and propensity to act are only possible if informed by positive beliefs formulated into the shaping of attitudes, intentions and finally behavior.

Widely recognized good practices, such as mini-companies and business mentorship programs (e.g. Germany's identified good practice, Student mini companies: Common trainings for teachers and students), confirm the value of experimentation in the learning environment. As stated above, student and enterprise involvement in the process of learning, improves the likelihood of future entrepreneurship practices.

Evidence indicates that a good training model in entrepreneurship education increases the competences in social capital and networking (e.g. Portugal's good practice, A Choice for the Future - Entrepreneurship Handbook). Direct participation and mentorship seem to be the most successful training methods to foster entrepreneurial behavior (e.g. Iceland's good practice, Environmental Literacy and Local Awareness and, The Orchid Project in England).

A high-quality training model must enhance both mentorship and autonomy of teachers, as well as assist them with opportunities at the local, regional and European levels, to join networks of colleagues and other stakeholders within the business community. Considering all the dimensions analyzed in this Chapter, there are five recommended areas of content to be included in future entrepreneurship teacher training initiatives:

1. Clarification of overall concepts to help teachers understand and contribute with their own expertise to the definition and advantages of entrepreneurship.
2. A significant focus on entrepreneurship education and teaching methods that promotes entrepreneurial attitudes.
3. Inclusion of enterprising teaching techniques to enhance teacher entrepreneurial behavior through the co-creation of educational projects, finding curricula opportunities, innovating methodologies and evaluation/assessment of knowledge.
4. Teaching teachers how to train their colleagues and local communities. The benefits of entrepreneurship training will multiply if this happens.
5. A business coaching approach that allows teachers to follow-up, evaluate and coach their student's start-up projects, small businesses and mini-companies.

However, teacher preparation programs related to promoting entrepreneurship education become entangled in debate with inevitable challenges. Experiments already carried out in entrepreneurship education inform us about difficulties that might be found in practice. Partnering between the educational sector and industry, certification and recognition of practices, assessment/evaluation of the programs, difficult national contexts (where education is seen as a local issue) are examples of some of the challenges that must be met. To overcome these

obstacles, the learning environment must be prepared to foster creation, experimentation, accumulation and diffusion of professional knowledge in entrepreneurship education.

In order to develop a consistent and supportive model of entrepreneurship education within an effective national partnership, efforts should be made in planning ahead how this partnership will work. Entrepreneurship by its very nature involves both the educational and economic sectors. Researchers that have been observing the best practices conclude that the business sector does not automatically commit itself to other areas of activity, such as education, even though they demonstrate a positive attitude to such ideas. Therefore, proper planning and organizing a partnership model that involves business decision-makers and educators plays a crucial role. Defining a common vision and the individual responsibilities and roles in the partnership (schools, universities, teachers, community actors, enterprise and government) is of the utmost importance in order to keep all parties involved in the process.

In summary, Entrepreneurship Education demands the development of a mindset that is for, and about, entrepreneurship. Thus, in implementing entrepreneurship education effectively there is a clear need to establish collaboration between schools/universities, communities, enterprises and the government. Enterprises have the practical knowledge and the environment that is lacking in academia, while teachers and students can develop the skills and the willingness to innovate and further develop new business ideas. The decision-makers need to provide the necessary endorsement to shape educational policies into academic curricula. Bringing these protagonists together is the key to developing a successful entrepreneurial program for educational institutions, one that will benefit students and ultimately society.

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Enseñanza emprendedora y profesores emprendedores

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 02 de enero de 2015

Fecha de revisión: 25 de marzo de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 16 de noviembre de 2015

Altan, M.Z. (2015). Entrepreneurial teaching & entrepreneurial teachers. *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 35–50.



Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)
ISSN 1989 – 9572

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Entrepreneurial teaching & entrepreneurial teachers

Enseñanza emprendedora y profesores emprendedores

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Abstract

We live in a time of unprecedented social, economic, technological and environmental problems and desperately are in need of change and improvement in many different areas on a global scale. Present education systems are fundamentally based on Verbal/Linguistic and Mathematical/Logical Intelligences, defined as IQ, and as a result focus mainly on the functions of the left brain. These systems aim at acquiring similar skills and passing the courses and as a result provide advantages to those who already have an advanced level of these intelligences in their profiles of intelligences. Since these systems assess individuals via standardized and centrally performed tests, they never help individuals to question, to think, be creative, take risks and think critically. The answer to all these concerns is entrepreneurial teaching and teachers. Entrepreneurial teaching which takes individual differences into account and is based on alternative assessment systems has the power to be the ultimate solution to overcome present obstacles of education systems. Entrepreneurial teaching implemented by entrepreneurial teachers has a potential power to help the world create economic growth, jobs, innovation and raise happy citizens capable of finding solutions for many long-lasting and ever-growing global issues in all sectors. This paper focuses on explaining how individual differences and alternative assessment techniques could be used by entrepreneurial teachers to implement entrepreneurial teaching.

Resumen

Vivimos en una época de problemas sociales, económicos, tecnológicos y ambientales sin precedentes y en una desesperada necesidad de cambio y mejora en muchas áreas diferentes a una escala global. Los sistemas educativos actuales se basan en su mayoría en inteligencias Verbal/lingüística y matemáticas/lógica, definidas como coeficiente intelectual, y como resultado se centran principalmente en las funciones del cerebro izquierdo. Estos sistemas tienen como objetivo la adquisición de habilidades similares y pasar los cursos y como resultado proporcionan ventajas a aquellos que ya han mejorado el nivel en estas inteligencias en sus correspondientes perfiles. Dado que estos sistemas evalúan los individuos a través de pruebas estandarizadas y se realizan de forma centralizada, nunca ayudan a las personas a cuestionar, pensar, ser creativo, tomar riesgos y piensan críticamente. La respuesta a todas estas preocupaciones es la enseñanza emprendedora y los profesores emprendedores. La enseñanza emprendedora tiene en cuenta las diferencias individuales y se basa en los sistemas de evaluación alternativa y tiene el poder de ser la solución definitiva para superar los obstáculos actuales de los sistemas de educación. La enseñanza emprendedora implementada por profesores emprendedores tiene un poder potencial para ayudar al mundo a conseguir un crecimiento económico, empleo, innovación y conseguir ciudadanos felices, capaces de encontrar soluciones para muchos duraderas y crecientes problemas globales en todos los sectores. Este documento se centra en explicar cómo las diferencias individuales y las técnicas de evaluación alternativas podrían ser utilizadas por los profesores emprendedores para poner en práctica la enseñanza emprendedora.

Keywords

Entrepreneurship; Entrepreneurial teaching; Entrepreneurial teachers

Palabras clave

Emprendimiento; Enseñanza emprendedora; Profesores emprendedores

1. Introduction

Education is universally accepted as an essential element in the process of national development and prosperity. And there is no doubt that teachers play a significant role in the success of any educational system for a positive societal change. Quality and well-equipped teachers can lead education to the highest quality.

We live in a time of unprecedented social, economic, technological and environmental problems and desperately are in need of change and improvement in many different areas on a global scale.

Current concerns and ever increasing need of change are placing pressure on education systems and calling into question many of the traditional models, content and processes of education leading to new thinking about the nature of education, what learners should know and what they should be able to do as a result of their education in order to be able to come up with innovative solutions to these concerns and meet the needs of individuals of nations.

It is obvious that current educational models, assumptions about learning and approaches to learning and teaching are unable to equip individuals for these new and unexpected challenges, and, as educators, we need to create alternatives. That is, we desperately need for an educational paradigm shift.

2. Current education practices

Present education systems are fundamentally based on verbal/linguistic and logical/mathematical intelligences and as a result focus mainly on the functions of the left brain (Altan, 2014).

Verbal/linguistic intelligence can be defined as the sensitivity to spoken and written language, the ability to learn languages, and the capacity to use language to accomplish certain goals. Whereas, logical/mathematical intelligence can be defined as the capacity to analyze problems logically, carry out mathematical operations, and investigate issues scientifically (Gardner, 1999).

Present education systems force all individuals to put on the same size and never help them to question, think, be creative, take risks and think critically which are necessary and vital of having an entrepreneurial mindset and as a result become an entrepreneur (Altan, 2014).

The purpose of this paper is to present a framework for teaching in a new world. I advocate the concept of entrepreneurial teaching as an educational model which is in contrast to the current ways-the known worlds-in which we are currently teaching entrepreneurship. Instead, I am advocating entrepreneurial education and teachers who are trained to be entrepreneurial themselves.

3. Entrepreneurship & entrepreneurship education

The concept of entrepreneurship is not new and usually draws on economic theory and argues that the entrepreneurs can shift economic resources out of an area of lower and into an area of higher productivity and greater yield (Drucker, 1985). Any change which unsettles economic balance is due to an innovative entrepreneur who sees change as the norm and as healthy to an economy. These changes are generally considered to be opportunities for entrepreneurs in order to innovate, to create new ways of doing things, and even to create resources for further economic and social development necessary for nations. Therefore, Drucker (1985) defines the entrepreneur as the one who always searches for change, responds to it, and exploits it as a possible opportunity.

The concept of entrepreneurship is often associated with the concept of innovation. Such innovation does not always have to be economic or technological or even result in a tradable product for the market. Innovation can be social. Changes for example in an education system, environmental policy, social inequity or a national health service can be considered to be social innovations since they would have a profound impact on society as well as on economy. Therefore, entrepreneurs and the practice of entrepreneurship can be found in every part of life and in any type of organization.

On the one hand, entrepreneurship is complex, chaotic, and more importantly lacks any notion of linearity (Neck & Greene, 2011, p.55). The present worldview usually focuses on a linear process and it is believed that if entrepreneurship is carried out correctly, it will increase the possible venture success (Neck & Greene, 2011).

On the other hand, it is a common belief that entrepreneurship is easy to teach, talk on it and give seminars about. Therefore, the steps of entrepreneurship education are usually introductory entrepreneurship courses followed by electives such as opportunity, entrepreneurial marketing, entrepreneurial finance, and managing (EC, 2008). And not to forget of attending here and there, hit and run type seminars given by so-called entrepreneurs or gurus of the field! As a result, it is assumed and expected that individuals having such courses and attending such seminars would automatically have entrepreneurial mindsets and eventually practice entrepreneurship!

The problem, as Neck and Greene (2011) claim, is that entrepreneurship is neither linear nor predictable. That's by taking a course on entrepreneurship or attending to a seminar on entrepreneurship will not automatically help someone to show entrepreneurial behaviors. So how do people think entrepreneurially? What and how should we teach so that people can think entrepreneurially?

4. Entrepreneurial teaching

Although there is a significant increase in the number of courses and programs about entrepreneurship education, the teaching of entrepreneurship is not yet sufficiently integrated in higher education institutions' curricula. And the available data reveal clearly that the majority of entrepreneurship courses are offered in business and economic studies (EC, 2008).

Are business schools the most appropriate place to teach entrepreneurship? Innovative and viable business ideas are more likely to arise from technical, scientific and creative studies. So the real challenge is to build inter-disciplinary approaches, making entrepreneurship education accessible to all students, creating teams for the development and exploitation of business ideas, mixing students from economic and business studies with students from other faculties and with different backgrounds (EC, 2008; Neck & Greene, 2011).

The entrepreneurial world has clearly showed us that there is no one type of entrepreneur. Therefore, Neck and Greene (2011, p.59) point out that diversity in the ways people can be entrepreneurs should be recognized.

How could this diversity be recognized? It is clear that with the present process approach, and the type of entrepreneurship education, it is impossible to recognize this diversity (Neck and Greene, 2011). Therefore, as a new concept, Neck and Greene (2011) propose teaching entrepreneurship as a method which requires using, applying, and acting rather than emphasizing understanding, knowing, and talking.

However, even teaching entrepreneurship as a method concept lacks a very important part and seems unable to explain of how this method could help students to know more about themselves so that we could be away from the monolithic personality of entrepreneur as discussed by Neck and Greene (2011).

Therefore, I advocate that instead of creating specific courses designed to educate entrepreneurs either as a process or as a method, the whole education system should be designed entrepreneurially so that individuals could build entrepreneurial mindsets to help them to perform entrepreneurship in every area.

Entrepreneurial education taking individual differences into account and based on alternative assessment systems has the power to be the ultimate solution to overcome the present obstacles and to achieve improvements for the future of the nations. Here the emphasis is on entrepreneurial education which triggers creativity rather than entrepreneurship education which is presently seen and practiced in many educational contexts (Altan, 2014).

Indeed, individual differences in creativity, ambition, and risk-taking can explain why some people have much more potential for entrepreneurship than others, and valid personality measures can help us identify who the entrepreneurs of tomorrow will be. This will also help the individuals to discover themselves, to see their strong and weak sides along the journey of entrepreneurship.

Sociopolitical factors also play an important role in building entrepreneurial mindsets and performing entrepreneurial activities. Education, even performed entrepreneurially, cannot be able to create the desired entrepreneurs (Altan, 2014; EC, 2012). Therefore, socio-political factors contributing to entrepreneurial attitudes should not be underestimated. For example, it is a lot harder to perform entrepreneurship in some countries, e.g. North Korea, whereas it is much easier in South Korea. Another point to keep in mind is that in any country at any given point of time, there will still be more or less entrepreneurs (EC, 2012).

By taking individual differences into account and implementing performance based or alternative assessment techniques, entrepreneurial education aims to prepare enterprising individuals who are creative, ready to take risks, think critically, responsible for the society they live in and who have the attitudes, skills and knowledge necessary to achieve the goals they set for themselves to live a fulfilled life and as result help the prosperity of the communities they live in (Altan, 2014). It is clear that identifying and nurturing entrepreneurial potential among the youth can have long-term implications for the development of nations in many areas including economy. Who is responsible for this nurturing?

As educators, we have the responsibility to develop the discovery, reasoning, initiation and implementation skills of our students so they can be successful in highly uncertain environments.

Entrepreneurial education implemented by entrepreneurial teachers has a potential power to help the world create economic growth, jobs, innovation and raise happy citizens capable of finding solutions not only for economy as it is the general view of today's entrepreneurship, but also for many long-lasting and ever-growing global issues in any areas (Altan, 2014).

Since there is not one type of entrepreneur, there should not be just one type of education system based on two types of intelligences (verbal/mathematical) and with the same token there should not be just one type of assessment (standardized, multiple choice tests)!

Current education practices focusing on academic success evaluated by centralized high-stake standardized tests or school-based tests based on mathematical/linguistic intelligences which focus only left side of the brain reduce or even kill creativity, risk taking, critical thinking and all other characteristics necessary and vital for entrepreneurs (Altan, 2014).

It is obvious that current education practices kill individuals' entrepreneurial potentials. The rich diversity in entrepreneurial motivation and entrepreneurs should lead us to think about the diversity in learning and assessment.

5. Why to support entrepreneurial teaching?

Why to support entrepreneurial teaching, entrepreneurship as a teaching or as an education philosophy?

If we can take entrepreneurship as a teaching or education philosophy, we can help individuals to understand, develop, and practice the skills and techniques needed for productive entrepreneurship at all levels and areas.

Approaching entrepreneurship as a teaching philosophy means teaching a way of thinking and acting built on a set of assumptions which take individual differences into consideration and use alternative assessment techniques to encourage creativity, risk taking, critical thinking, etc. that is all necessary qualities to have an entrepreneurial mind-set!

This type of education will involve developing behaviors, skills and attributes applied individually and/or collectively to help individuals and organizations of all kinds to create, cope with and enjoy change and innovation. In an ever-changing world, we need to teach with the philosophy to help individuals to cope with problems and come up with creative solutions.

In fact, the strategy of the European Union also highlights the importance of the development of entrepreneurial culture by fostering the right mind set, entrepreneurial skills and awareness of career opportunities too (EC, 2006).

Very often it has been reported that the greatest obstacle in Entrepreneurship Education are the teachers and their attitudes towards entrepreneurship (Pesonen & Remes, 2012).

Teachers are in a central role in implementing entrepreneurship education, and more importantly in finding the best practices.

Entrepreneurship education needs to be taught entrepreneurially. This, in turn, will make the education entrepreneurial (Altan, 2014).

Entrepreneurial teaching or pedagogy is still seen as the part of business studies and teaching entrepreneurship often uses business terminology and methods. This misconception is a significant problem when we talk about entrepreneurial pedagogy or teaching.

Entrepreneurship education should be embedded within the standard curriculum instead of an add-on in certain classes, as it is the case of today's practices.

Teacher education programs should be designed to provide entrepreneurial pedagogy so that future teachers could easily implement it in their classrooms. In educational context it is the behaviors associated with entrepreneurship that are important.

Can these behaviors be developed in individuals? Or are they genetically encoded?

Nature vs nurture?

I believe that the entrepreneurial spirit is definitely the result of both biology and culture. Unless the education culture is based on cultivating, enriching and assessing these qualities, it is impossible to teach them formally by just opening some courses or organizing some seminars. The challenge is to allow individuals to experience and feel the concept rather than just learn about it in the conventional sense.

The pedagogy should encourage learning by doing, by exchanging, by copying, by experimentation, by risk taking and positive mistake making, by creative problem solving, by feedback through social interaction, by dramatization and role playing, by close exposure to role models and in particular, interaction with the outside world.

Who will practice this kind of teaching? The entrepreneurial teacher, of course!

6. Standard tests & entrepreneurship

If the culture does not support entrepreneurship, individuals will not be able to perceive it as an option. Learning to fish requires something even more basic than bait, nets, or an adequate supply of fish, the water of course. In order to start fishing, an entrepreneurial culture needs water.

It is clear and obvious that standardized curriculum, uniformly carried out fact- transferring teaching approach, narrowly prescribed classroom activities and rigorous high stakes-centrally administered tests are unable to produce entrepreneurial individuals (Altan, 2014).

In such cultures, then it becomes very difficult to raise and nurture creative artists, musicians, scientists, athletes, business people, politicians, academics, sportsmen, judges, doctors, teachers, farmers, etc.

We can see this better when we compare the scores of an international standardized test called PISA (The Program for International Student Assessment) with the list of countries with high creativity and innovation-driven entrepreneurship profiles (See Table 1).

It's not surprising to see countries which consistently produce outstanding scores in international standardized tests like PISA (The Program for International Student Assessment) show a very low level of creativity and innovation-driven entrepreneurship.

Table 1.
OECD PISA 2012 country results

	Maths		Science		Reading
1	Shanghai, China	1	Shanghai, China	1	Shanghai, China
2	Singapore	2	Hong Kong, China	2	Hong Kong, China
3	Hong Kong, China	3	Singapore	3	Singapore
4	Taiwan	4	Japan	4	Japan
5	South Korea	5	Finland	5	South Korea
6	Macau, China	6	Estonia	6	Finland
7	Japan	7	South Korea	7=	Taiwan
8	Liechtenstein	8	Vietnam	7=	Canada
9	Switzerland	9	Poland	7=	Ireland
10	Netherlands	10=	Liechtenstein	10	Poland
11	Estonia	10=	Canada	11=	Liechtenstein
12	Finland	12	Germany	11=	Estonia
13=	Canada	13	Taiwan	13=	Australia
13=	Poland	14=	Netherlands	13=	New Zealand
15	Belgium	14=	Ireland	15	Netherlands
16	Germany	16=	Macau, China	16=	Macau, China
17	Vietnam	16=	Australia	16=	Switzerland
18	Austria	18	New Zealand	16=	Belgium
19	Australia	19	Switzerland	19=	Germany
20=	Ireland	20=	Slovenia	19=	Vietnam
20=	Slovenia	20=	United Kingdom	21	France
22=	Denmark	22	Czech Republic	22	Norway
22=	New Zealand	23	Austria	23	United Kingdom
24	Czech Republic	24	Belgium	24	United States
25	France	25	Latvia	25	Denmark
26	United Kingdom	26	France	26	Czech Republic

	Maths		Science		Reading
27	Iceland	27	Denmark	27=	Austria
28	Latvia	28	United States	27=	Italy
29	Luxembourg	29=	Spain	29	Latvia
30	Norway	29=	Lithuania	30=	Luxembourg
31	Portugal	31	Norway	30=	Portugal
32	Italy	32=	Italy	30=	Spain
33	Spain	32=	Hungary	30=	Hungary
34=	Russia	34=	Luxembourg	34	Israel
34=	Slovakia	34=	Croatia	35	Croatia
36	United States	36	Portugal	36=	Iceland
37	Lithuania	37	Russia	36=	Sweden
38	Sweden	38	Sweden	38	Slovenia
39	Hungary	39	Iceland	39=	Lithuania
40	Croatia	40	Slovakia	39=	Greece
41	Israel	41	Israel	41=	Russia
42	Greece	42	Greece	41=	Turkey
43	Serbia	43	Turkey	43	Slovakia
44	Turkey	44	United Arab Emirates	44	Cyprus
45	Romania	45	Bulgaria	45	Serbia
46	Cyprus	46=	Serbia	46	United Arab Emirates
47	Bulgaria	46=	Chile	47=	Thailand
48	United Arab Emirates	48	Thailand	47=	Chile
49	Kazakhstan	49	Romania	47=	Costa Rica
50	Thailand	50	Cyprus	50	Romania
51	Chile	51	Costa Rica	51	Bulgaria
52	Malaysia	52	Kazakhstan	52	Mexico
53	Mexico	53	Malaysia	53	Montenegro
54	Montenegro	54	Uruguay	54	Uruguay
55	Uruguay	55	Mexico	55	Brazil
56	Costa Rica	56	Montenegro	56	Tunisia
57	Albania	57	Jordan	57	Colombia
58	Brazil	58	Argentina	58	Jordan
59=	Argentina	59	Brazil	59	Malaysia
59=	Tunisia	60	Colombia	60=	Argentina
61	Jordan	61	Tunisia	60=	Indonesia
62=	Colombia	62	Albania	62	Albania
62=	Qatar	63	Qatar	63	Kazakhstan
64	Indonesia	64	Indonesia	64	Qatar
65	Peru	65	Peru	65	Peru

When we look at the list of countries with high level of creativity and innovation-driven entrepreneurship, we see a very different list compared to PISA results (See Table 2).

Table 2.

List of top countries with high level of creativity and innovation driven entrepreneurship, GEM 2012.

Country	Rank	Score
United States	1	82.5
Canada	2	81.7
Australia	3	77.9
Sweden	4	73.7
Denmark	5	72.5
Switzerland	6	70.9
Taiwan	7	69.5
Finland	8	69.3

Country	Rank	Score
Netherlands	9	69.0
United Kingdom	10	68.6
Singapore	11	67.9
Iceland	12	67.5
France	13	67.2
Belgium	14	66.5
Norway	16	65.1
Chile	16	65.1
Germany	17	64.6
Austria	18	64.0
Ireland	19	61.8
Puerto Rico	20	61.7
Israel	21	59.7
Estonia	22	59.0
Slovenia	24	52.7
Qatar	24	52.7
Colombia	25	49.8
Lithuania	26	49.6
Poland	27	49.1
Latvia	28	48.4
United Arab Emirates	29	48.3
Oman	30	47.6
Portugal	32	46.9
Spain	32	46.9
Korea	33	46.7
Hong Kong	35	46.6
Slovakia	35	46.6
Japan	36	46.1
Bulgaria	37	45.5
Bahrain	38	45.4
Uruguay	39	45.3
Turkey	40	44.7
Romania	42	44.6
Czech Republic	42	44.6
Hungary	43	44.5
Kuwait	44	44.3
Malaysia	45	44.1
Saudi Arabia	46	43.5
China	47	41.6
Peru	48	41.3
Italy	50	40.9
Croatia	50	40.9
South Africa	51	40.4
Cyprus	52	40.3
Montenegro	53	39.5
Brunei Darussalam	54	39.3
Lebanon	55	38.9
Barbados	56	38.5
Argentina	57	38.4
Mexico	58	38.2
Greece	59	37.8
Tunisia	61	37.2
Costa Rica	61	37.2
Namibia	62	36.8

Country	Rank	Score
Macedonia	63	36.2
Botswana	64	35.6
Thailand	65	35.5
Panama	66	34.8
Dominican Republic09	68	34.3
Indonesia	68	34.3
Serbia	69	34.0
Russia	70	33.2
Gabon	71	32.8
Albania	72	32.6
Jordan	73	31.7
Nigeria	74	31.6
Jamaica	75	31.4
India	76	31.3
Moldova	77	31.2
Bolivia	78	31.1
El Salvador	79	31.0
Kazakhstan	80	30.6
Brazil	81	30.4
Trinidad & Tobago	82	30.4
Ukraine	83	30.2
Morocco	84	29.5
Ecuador	85	29.3
Algeria	86	29.1
Swaziland	87	29.0
Paraguay	88	28.9
Angola	89	28.7
Philippines	90	28.5
Zambia	91	28.4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	92	27.8
Venezuela	93	26.4
Ghana	94	26.3
Egypt	95	25.2
Senegal	96	24.8
Benin	98	24.7
Cameroon	98	24.7
Liberia	99	24.5
Iran	100	24.2
Honduras	101	24.0
Kenya	102	23.8
Tanzania	103	22.5
Nicaragua	104	22.1
Mozambique	106	21.1
Rwanda	106	21.1
Gambia	107	21.0
Malawi	108	20.9
Guatemala	109	20.7
Burkina Faso	110	19.9
Ethiopia	111	19.8
Madagascar	112	19.6
Côte d'Ivoire	113	19.4
Uganda	114	19.3
Mali	115	18.8
Pakistan	116	18.7

Country	Rank	Score
Mauritania	117	18.5
Sierra Leone	118	17.6
Burundi	119	15.5
Chad	120	15.0
Bangladesh	121	13.8

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) provides annual assessment of entrepreneurial activities, aspirations, and attitudes of individuals in over 50 countries. Initiated in 1999, about the same time when PISA began, the GEM (2012) has become the world's largest entrepreneurship study.

Comparing the two sets of data shows clearly that countries scoring high on the PISA do not have the level of entrepreneurship that match their brilliant scores.

In cultures nothing except academic success is of value and if something does not help to get good scores, it gets no importance and attention. So individuals are discouraged to do anything but studying for the exams!

Standard tests reward only those who are skilled in finding the correct answer. They are usually discouraged to take risks, ask questions since four wrong answers get one correct answer! In such a situation who can dare to take risks? Making mistakes is not allowed and even not considered to be normal (Altan, 2014).

Since individuals are judged with a single criterion in such standardized and centrally-performed exams, they are usually compared with their peers. An individual who stays much behind his or her peers after the first exam, loses his or her self-esteem, which is one of the very important characteristics of becoming an entrepreneur.

7. Why individual differences?

On the one hand, teachers and university professors have been expressing frustration about attendance to courses, failures in completing reading assignments, and students' ever-increasing focus on grades instead of learning. On the other hand, students complain about the poor quality of the course contents, lack of their efficient delivery and as a result they question the value of what they have been learning in classrooms. Dolence and Norris (1995) point out that both society and individuals have different needs, both in terms of what people need to learn and how they can and should learn what they have been taught. Therefore, the goal of education should be helping learners to develop their own intellectual tools and learning strategies instead of transferring subject matter knowledge.

As mentioned previously, individuals bring a huge variety of skills, needs, and interests to learning. Neuroscience reveals that these differences are as varied and unique as our DNA or fingerprints. Therefore, curricula, that is educational goals, methods, materials, and assessment should be designed to enable all individuals to gain knowledge, skills, and enthusiasm for learning.

Individual differences can influence how an individual behaves in various situations. Therefore, understanding and respecting these differences can help us know how to best support and respond to what an individual needs.

Individual differences can help learners to become self-directed, empowered, and responsible for their actions and civic values along with developing self-awareness about why they learn and questioning the process of learning.

Awareness on individual differences will eventually help individuals to take the initiative to diagnose their learning needs, formulate learning goals, identify necessary resources for learning, select and implement learning strategies and finally evaluate learning process.

The key to telling the impact of individual differences on behavior is to think about an individual's unique personality and his or her general approach to the world.

This could only be accomplished by simultaneously providing rich supports for learning and reducing barriers to the curriculum, while maintaining high and varied achievement standards for all students.

It is very important to recognize our thinking patterns and be aware of the strengths and weaknesses of these patterns while dealing with information, learning and living. Individuals must be aware of how they think and process information and appreciate other people's different approaches. However, present education systems are far away from accomplishing this vision.

Respect for individual differences and its deliberate implementation in teacher education will directly affect future teachers' teaching, will have impact on basic transformation of our schools, will help learners to discover their real potentials and use them both for the personal and the social development (Altan, 2014).

Identifying and accommodating students with special needs will definitely help us to build better personalities. As a result, the awareness on individual differences will have a great impact in raising more individuals with entrepreneurial spirits.

8. Basic individual differences (Altan, 2014)

- Motivation
- Intelligence
- Theory of Multiple Intelligences
- Age & learning
- Gender & learning
- Attitude & learning
- Self-esteem & learning
- Learning strategies
- Brain and its functions
- Learning styles
- Personality & learning
- Risk taking
- Field dependence/Field independence
- Tolerance of ambiguity
- Anxiety level
- Beliefs about learning

The affective domain receives very little attention from the present education practices since they mostly focus on the cognitive aspects of the teaching and learning and as a result most of the classroom time and assessments are designed for cognitive outcomes. Therefore, we desperately need a paradigm shift.

Attention to affective factors will not only help individuals to be better learners but also help them to live more satisfying lives and become responsible citizens.

There are many comprehensive professional assessments for identifying the students' profiles and specific needs so that teachers can perform thorough evaluation and implement remedies.

9. Why alternative assessment?

Assessment policies exert considerable influence over the education in general since assessments influence the identification, classification, placement, and ongoing monitoring of students (Lachat & Spruce, 1998).

Traditional standardized tests are intelligently biased and tend to favor those who are left brain dominant and have better verbal/mathematical intelligence and so a variety of instructional and assessment strategies that address diverse learning styles are needed (Altan, 2014).

Present assessment practices, mainly standardized, left brain dominant and mathematical and verbal intelligence focused, are not designed for/with the diversity of today's population and to meet the needs of 21st century skills (Altan, 2014).

Although who said it is a disputed topic, the quote "Everybody is a genius. But if you judge a fish by its ability to climb a tree, it will live its whole life believing that it is stupid.", and the cartoon related to this philosophy will suit well to explain the current situation discussed here.



Our Education System

Assessment results shape teachers' beliefs about student abilities and the quality of instruction offered to them.

Alternatives to standardized assessment have been referred to in the literature in many ways: alternative assessment, authentic assessment, or performance-based assessment.

"Alternative assessment refers to procedures and techniques which can be used within the context of instruction and can be easily incorporated into daily activities of both the school and the classroom" (Hamayan, 1995, p.213).

Unlike standardized testing, it does not provide a comparison of an individual to a larger group beyond the students in a given classroom.

10. Types of alternative assessment

In order to capture complex outcomes, alternative assessment goes far beyond the assessment of knowledge and facts to the more complex goals of assessing and developing most valued life-long skills of creative thinking, problem solving, summarizing, synthesizing, and reflecting.

Since alternative assessment techniques focus on the students' strengths rather than weaknesses, they usually enable the teacher to get a more accurate view of students' achievement, of what they can do, and of what they are trying to do.

To meet the present differences in individuals, alternative assessment techniques offer a broad spectrum of assessment possibilities to nurture these differences in learning. Some of the most widely used techniques I myself have used in my classes and I highly recommend are:

- Portfolios
- Process folios
- Diaries, Journals, and writing folders
- Audio and video recordings
- Conferences
- Performances
- Individual or group projects
- Student logs
- Selected responses
- Oral reports
- Exhibitions and demonstrations
- Interviews
- Essays
- Anecdote logs
- Audio and visual
- Take home exams
- Minute papers
- Fact maps
- Graphic organizers
- Dramatic readings
- Dramatic performances
- Debates
- Contracts
- Observations
- Reports
- Simulations

11. Assessment & entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurs are no longer only those who start a business and try to maximize profits. We are talking about and in fact, are in need of many different types of entrepreneurs.

We need people with entrepreneurial spirit in every single profession and sector of industry. No matter what we do and are after, everyone needs to own entrepreneurial characteristics in the 21st century and onward.

With this expanded definition of entrepreneurship, it will be much easier for people with entrepreneurial spirit to have more power to solve the ever increasing complex problems facing human beings and bring prosperity to humanity.

Why don't we have enough entrepreneurs for every sector? What is missing is the entrepreneurial mindset-critical thinking, creativity, risk taking, curiosity, imagination collaboration, seeking opportunity and opportunity recognition.

What causes to the lack of entrepreneurial mindset? Present educational systems around the world push students toward the same pathways followed by their parents in the last century! (Altan, 2014).

This system is designed to produce typical workers or civil servants, not good entrepreneurs. This type of education systems produce slaves with diplomas unable to question, to think critically, to be creative, to take risks due to memorization and measurable, predictable results of standardized tests! (Altan, 2014).

Facts transferring teaching and standardized testing force emphasis on rote learning instead of critical, creative thinking, and destroy and eventually diminish students' curiosity available from birth. Standardized tests leave no room for imagination, curiosity, creativity and critical thinking, which are at the heart of entrepreneurial spirit! (Altan, 2014).

12. Conclusions

To prepare global, creative, risk taking, critically thinking, and entrepreneurial individuals for our futures, education systems should not harm their curiosity, imagination, desire to be different by imposing outdated practices and assess with standardized tests designed for "one size fits all" philosophy. Instead, education should be able to enhance human curiosity and creativity, encourage risk taking, and cultivate the entrepreneurial spirit (Altan, 2014). Educational organizations at all levels and teachers have a great responsibility of designing curriculum with various learning experiences to stimulate, guide and lead the student brains. And teacher educators have the responsibility to train teachers to able to perform these qualities.

Entrepreneurs have always existed in human history, and they have been a major driving force for economic prosperity. However, it seems impossible to increase the number of entrepreneurs with the present philosophy of education!

We no longer need better test takers who think, act and live the same way. Instead we need individuals who are more creative, innovative, and able to come up with solutions to both present and future concerns of the societies they live in.

This could only be accomplished by an educational system taking individual differences into account and which focuses on performance-based assessment.

That is, through entrepreneurial teaching performed by entrepreneurial teachers who are trained entrepreneurially too (Altan, 2014).

This paper is a revised and expanded version of a paper entitled 'Entrepreneurial Teaching & Entrepreneurial Teacher' presented at ENTENP' 2014, Granada.

13. Acknowledgements

I would like to thank ENTENP'2014 organizing committee for including me to the experts' panel and Pablo Garcia Sempere for the Spanish translation of the abstract.

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Opportunities for entrepreneurship education in an era of curriculum change in Ireland: the case of an innovative Irish second level school

Oportunidades en EE (espíritu emprendedor en educación): el caso de una innovadora escuela secundaria en Irlanda

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 01 de julio de 2014

Fecha de revisión: 25 de marzo de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 30 de noviembre de 2015

Danaher, M.P. y Slattery, G.M. (2015). Opportunities for entrepreneurship education in an era of curriculum change in Ireland: the case of an innovative Irish second level school. *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 51 –61.



Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

ISSN 1989 – 9572

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

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Abstract

The research paper highlights a robust model of a pilot Entrepreneurship Education (EE) programme for the new junior cycle curriculum, capable of extended implementation across all years of second level education. The research focus was on how an EE programme could be credibly devised, given the fragmented history of its emergence over recent years. The study identified the key elements of its conceptualisation and structure, to implement it as an integral and holistic contribution to a sustainable EE input. A pilot programme in a flagship school- Innovation, Creativity and Entrepreneurship (ICE) which received the full endorsement of the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment body (NCCA) was examined. Semi-structured interviews took place with all the key designers and implementers of ICE. The findings suggest a novel and credible way to integrate EE into the full curriculum, something unprecedented in Ireland. Necessary supports to achieve this were acknowledged: the link between school culture and an innovative disposition; national validation through the NCCA; links with a diversity of enabling partners; credible CPD and training opportunities; and finally, an objective assessment method for the programme. The study highlights the crucial importance of a broad yet precise definition of EE in line with Irish and EU parameters that will lead to credible learning outcomes for individual students, the economy and society as a whole.

Resumen

Esta ponencia resalta un modelo piloto de espíritu emprendedor en el campo de la educación para el Nuevo curriculum del junior cycle (programa para alumnos de secundaria del primer ciclo), cuya implementación podría prolongarse hasta el Segundo ciclo de la secundaria. Esta investigación se centra en una concepción creíble, considerando el modo fragmentado de su aparición en años recientes. El estudio identifica los elementos claves de su conceptualización y estructura para su implementación de una manera integral y holística, que conduzca a un aporte sostenible en el espíritu emprendedor (EE). Un modelo piloto para una escuela insignia - Innovación, creatividad y espíritu emprendedor (ICE) - que ha recibido el completo apoyo de National Council for Curriculum and Assessment body (NCCA) fue examinado. Se llevaron a cabo entrevistas parcialmente estructuradas con los principales diseñadores del ICE. Los resultados sugieren un modo novedoso y creíble de integrar EE en el curriculum, algo completamente nuevo y original en Irlanda. La importancia de ciertos lazos/vínculos fue reconocida: el vínculo entre la cultura escolar y la disposición innovadora, autenticación a través del NCCA, contactos con ciertos posibles socios, oportunidades reales de entrenamiento, y finalmente, un método objetivo de evaluación del programa. Este estudio enfatiza la importancia de una amplia pero precisa definición de EE en línea con los parámetros irlandeses y europeos que nos conducirán a obtener resultados creíbles para los estudiantes, la economía y la sociedad en su conjunto

Keywords

Entrepreneurship education; Curriculum change; Innovation; Creativity; Junior Cycle; Enterprise

Palabras clave

Educación de espíritu emprendedor; Cambio curricular; Innovación; Creatividad; Primer ciclo; Empresa

1. Introduction. An innovate school

It is contextually important to make explicit the authors' understanding of entrepreneurship. We use the interpretation generated by the 2011 EU Conference on Enabling Teachers as a Critical Success Factor in EE more commonly referred to as the Budapest Agenda. This defines entrepreneurship as

An individual's ability to turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation, showing initiative and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives.

(EU Budapest Agenda, 2011, p.8).

Such a definition encapsulates a holistic interpretation of entrepreneurship that includes everyone in day-to-day life at home and in society, employees in the context of their work and by enabling them to seize opportunities, and provides a foundation for entrepreneurs establishing a social or commercial activity. Recent thinking has shown that narrow definitions based around preparing learners for the world of business may place limitations on both learners and the teaching community. Instead, a broader definition which sees EE as a process through which learners acquire a broad set of competencies can bring greater individual, social and economic benefits since the competencies acquired lend themselves to application in every aspect of people's lives (EU Budapest Agenda, 2011, p.8).

The deployment of the ICE programme in the school where we conducted our study is consistent with a history of entrepreneurial endeavours undertaken by them. Peter Drucker once wrote that innovation is the driving force of entrepreneurship "*the goal of entrepreneurship being purposeful, focused change, in either a social or economic context*" (1998, p.149). Innovation encompasses something original, something new and important, in whatever environment it is delivered (Frankelius, 2009). The mission statement of the school is; *Innovation through Education*, which reflects a tradition of multiple achievements in diverse areas, borne out of a fundamental drive for students' holistic development.

Today, technology is a significant driver of change, and it plays an important role in educational innovation in terms of both design and delivery (Kuboni et al, 2014). Although other schools are in closer proximity to Dell's European Headquarters, situated in Limerick, this school demonstrated their entrepreneurial prowess by negotiating a sophisticated deal with them. This deal included for the first time in an Irish second level school, the provision of laptops for all students. It also facilitated the implementation of a jointly engineered pioneering educational software platform to enhance student learning. Due to the success of the partnership, founder and global CEO, Michael Dell, has personally visited the school to witness for himself, this innovation in action.

As with all second level schools in Ireland, this school operates in an educational arena undergoing significant reform at both junior and senior cycles. Conceptually, seismic progress has been achieved towards curriculum redesign at a national level, but much ambiguity and uncertainty remains as to how these reforms will manifest themselves in practice. Whilst it appears that most schools are content with awaiting further governmental direction, it has again used this ambiguity to its advantage. It has led the way on a pilot scheme that will ensure, for the first time, the provision of EE in each year of the student's life at second level. Such provision tallies with aspirations set forth in Section 2.1 of the EU Budapest Agenda, where an entrepreneurial school is one that possesses a clear vision and policy for EE, and expresses it as an entitlement for all pupils.

Within the broader context afforded to contemporary interpretations of entrepreneurship, ample validation exists of its innovative disposition, evidenced in recent achievements such as progression to the final stages of Ireland's Junior Dragons' Den competition; the fact it was the first school in Ireland to introduce e-text books back in 2006; and they had no fewer than six projects shortlisted for the Irish 2014 Web design awards. Other national achievements include a recent film-making award where five students won an educational trip to the US following their

graphic portrayal of a significant Irish historical event, at the inaugural Irish Congress of Trade Unions' annual Youth for Decent Work Video Awards. In May 2014, one student won a top international award for mechanical engineering at the Los Angeles International Science Fair.

2. Limitations of EE models in Irish second level schools to date

In Ireland, curriculum provision has had a predominant bias toward a public, final exam-focus, involving the study of many subjects (OECD Talis Report, 2009). At junior cycle level, ages 12-15, students can study up to ten or eleven subjects over a three year period, with only a small number having continuous assessment, e.g. in the languages and technology areas. At senior cycle level, ages 16-18, students can study up to seven or eight subjects or more, with high stakes attached to grade achievement, determining entry to university and further education sectors via a points entry system.

The significant exception to this is Transition Year (TY) which has been in operation since the early 1980s. This is a programme offered over the course of one year in many schools between junior and senior cycle for 15-16 year olds. This is treated like a gap year where there are no public examinations; studies are predominantly designed and assessed locally for the most part. The year is an opportunity to interact with varied teaching and learning stimuli. The preponderance of didactic teaching, so evident at junior and senior cycles (OECD Talis Report, 2009), yields to a wide mix of methods embracing constructivist and social constructivist experiences.

Although schools have discretion in devising a curriculum programme suitable for the aims of TY, in practice however, this has largely meant that core subjects like Mathematics, English and Irish dominate the agenda. In this context, the development of non-core subjects such as EE have habitually lagged, despite sporadic successes in individual schools. Potential exists for innovation around learning in TY, centred around freedom gained through the removal of a preoccupation with grade achievement in public examinations. The primary focus is on the cultivation of student skills, and TY provides teachers with an opportunity to explore their professional capacities, by offering them the opportunity to design and deliver, a diverse range of teaching and learning experiences.

Since TY's inception, a course in EE has been a regular feature of its curriculum, linked with an explicit experience called 'Mini-Company', where students devise their own product or service for profit generation. Almost invariably, it was the Business teacher who was called upon to lead this endeavour. The Home Economics or Technology teachers could also be called upon. (Birdthistle et al, 2007). In the context of a typically simplistic design, it has been a case of selecting teachers who could contribute to the 'production' of some item for manufacture and sale. Consequently, the construction of EE was for the most part based on a distinctly business oriented model, embracing a very narrow definition of EE and ignoring the more holistic elements as identified at the EU Budapest Conference. The traditional deployment of TY EE therefore was guided by expedient, utilitarian considerations. Nor was it supported by any systematic training or CPD for teachers.

Outside of the TY experience, the provision of EE modules called 'Enterprise Education' was only provided to a minority of students participating in Leaving Certificate Applied (LCA) and Leaving Certificate Vocational Programmes (LCVP). These programmes were limited in provision to a minority of students undertaking alternatives to the mainstream academic Leaving Certificate (LC) programme. These modules were marginalised in a culture dominated by a focus on academic grade achievement in order to accumulate the necessary points for entry to the third level education system. The marginalisation of these modules left Enterprise Education isolated amidst the 'important' subject disciplinary studies.

3. New frontiers, curriculum change

In 2012, the Irish Department of Education and Skills (DES) published a new policy called 'A Framework for Junior Cycle', a recalibration of the junior cycle curriculum. This marked a significant change in policy from what had been in place since 1922 when Ireland first became an independent sovereign state. For over 90 years, for those students who went to second level education, the three year junior cycle was a period of intense exam preparation. A high number of subjects were tested in a national public exam called the Intermediate Certificate since renamed the Junior Certificate. The primary emphasis was on an end-of-cycle written examination, and grades achieved in that exam. This system was characterised by high levels of didactic teaching; a focus on accumulation of knowledge; rehearsal through completion of past-paper exam questions and a strong formality in the classroom where questioning was neither emphasised nor encouraged. Didactic teaching and rote learning leant itself towards developing compliant, passive and non-questioning students (Garavan et al, 2010; OECD Talis Report, 2009). Value and attainment in education was measured by the level of grades achieved in public examinations. This originated in a mainly agricultural and rural economy, largely unconnected with the wider world. It was not however, a robust or sufficiently dynamic system of education to foster entrepreneurial adaptation in a fast-changing social and economic world.

Informally, individual schools and teachers may have broadened their pedagogical approaches in line with growing insights from the world of education, psychology and other disciplines, but the system itself, with its end-of-cycle exam preoccupation, has endured to this day. Some progression along the way has taken place. The adoption of new insights into teaching and learning; the presence of more informed younger teachers and greater uptake of postgraduate education by teachers themselves, have all contributed to informal variations and the embrace of a more integrated approach to teaching and learning methodologies. These isolated improvements have been hampered by institutional inertia and engrained teaching practices highlighting the need for system-wide change. The impact of social and economic movements in the world at large, shifting changes in expectations of society, parents, teachers and students themselves, have incrementally brought about the conditions for change that are now evident in the 2012 Framework for Junior Cycle Change. This represents a significant shift in thinking, policy and provision at government level. The status quo of teachers and students being passive agents within a national 'one size fits all' curriculum was no longer tenable. This new approach to second level education offers an unprecedented opportunity for systemic autonomy at national and local levels. Under the new framework, the student is clearly identified as being at the centre of learning. Her/his growth is expressly highlighted as a process of continuous engagement with the teaching and learning environment as part of ongoing life development. The framework document asserts that:

The quality of students' engagement with the school; with teachers and with learning is central to developing the skills and competences that are necessary for students in today's world, and that ongoing assessment of students' progress and achievement over time, rather than the use of a once-off-measure in the form of a final examination, can improve the quality of learning outcomes across the three years of lower secondary education.

(DES: A Framework for Junior Cycle, 2012, p.1)

The new approach adopts eight principles by which the framework is constructed. These are based on a holistic, cross-disciplinary and integrated approach to teaching and learning. Table 1. below outlines these eight principles.

Table 1.
Eight principles of the new junior cycle framework

1	Quality of education – high expectations and pursuit of excellent.
2	Wellbeing – all dimensions of the person in a collective context.
3	Creativity and innovation – open pedagogical approaches to teaching and learning.
4	Choice and flexibility – offering a variety of learning experiences.
5	Inclusive education – openness to a diverse range of people and experiences.
6	Engagement and participation – pedagogy will promote this.
7	Continuity and development – recognition of and structuring of incremental learning.
8	Learning to learn – preparation for self-agency and contingency for the future.

Source: (DES: A Framework for Junior Cycle, p.4)

The new framework cultivates a multi-disciplinary pedagogical approach expressed within twenty four statements of learning for the whole junior cycle programme. It enables a school, through a balanced provision of subject choice and judicious provision of bespoke short courses, tailored to student requirements, to approach the achievement of those statements of learning in a diverse and dynamic way. The national curriculum body (NCCA) provides security through an overall structure within which schools can maximise their creative conceptualisation and delivery of these short courses. In effect, individual schools will now have significant levels of discretion in the design and structuring of their curriculum in contrast to the past.

4. Progression in schools – overview of the ICE programme

The ICE programme was purposefully constructed to consciously embody the school's overall vision of 'Innovation through Education'. The curriculum reform outlined in the previous section heralded an entrepreneurial opportunity that was too appealing for the school to ignore. When we interviewed the school's principal, he advised us that the fundamental question he enquires of all his staff is whether they want to be leaders, or whether they want to be followers? This disposition towards entrepreneurship and innovation feeds through to the fundamental vision of i.e. the empowerment of student growth towards leadership and success, in whatever arena they choose to apply themselves.

In terms of programme design, very careful consideration was given to time and resource allocation. A similar degree of consideration was given to both the overall *raison d'être* and *modus operandi* of the programme. The design committee, made up of teachers and school management, agreed on the following set of criteria as non-negotiable and essential parameters for ICE:

- a) The programme had to have significant relevance to the junior and senior cycle.
- b) It had to be exciting, interesting, and different.
- c) Although not readily available, an objective measurement mechanism for ICE must be employed as quickly as possible to ensure that students are achieving reasonable levels to warrant progression.
- d) It had to be capable of being taken seriously i.e. that it could not be interpreted as a marginalised programme in the same manner that EE had previously been treated in TY.

Regarding the last point above, a suitable litmus test as to a school's commitment to a particular subject can be measured in terms of its pervasiveness in the timetable, and also in general school discourse. The EU Budapest Agenda (2011) postulates that nothing less than a sea change in teaching methods is required in the case of EE, to increase its potency. Section 2.1 of the report states that in order to establish EE as a clear and defined entitlement for all pupils, a range of strategies and procedures can be used, e.g. an agreed list of annual activities, specified timetabling and the use of student diaries etc. EE should also appear through explicit references in the school's curriculum policy. The ICE portfolio of activities includes a large

number of cross-curricular and extra-curricular experiential activities, in the areas listed below. These are aimed at exploiting any opportunity to deploy EE as a suitable subject for enhancing student development.

- Idea Development
- Project Management
- Market Research
- Effective Communication and interpersonal skills
- Personal and team Leadership
- Public Speaking
- Decision Making
- Conflict Management
- Time Management
- Marketing and Selling
- Financial Management
- Community Impact
- Greater understanding of self and enhanced confidence

The EU Budapest (2011) report identifies that the entrepreneurial school should explicitly identify time for EE in the school timetable. This should include time within the ‘normal’ curriculum across a broad range of subject areas. Also, opportunities should be created through collapsing the timetable, operating ‘themed’ sessions and, in addition, a commitment to running extra-curricular activities. Table 2 below demonstrates the impact of the implementation of the ICE programme regarding the permeation of the timetable with EE.

Table 2.
 Permeation of EE in CC following the Introduction of ICE

Year	Weekly Allocated Periods for EE	Allocated Periods for EE Pre ICE	Variance
1	3	0	+3
2	3	0	+3
3	3	0	+3
TY	9	5	+4
5	5	0	+5
Total	23	5	+18

Budapest also set forth a vision for fostering self-regulation in student learning. Guidelines provided suggest activities requiring decision-making and problem-solving skills, team work, and involvement in ‘supported’ risk-taking, along with learning activities that incorporate the possibility of failure. Case studies of successful entrepreneurs, intrapreneurs and successful organisations tend to promote the ability to view failure as an expected event and a learning opportunity (Cope, 2011). The ICE programme allocates significant time for student reflection fostering an environment where experiential learning can be assimilated by paying homage to both successes as well as failures.

The report also highlighted that EE activities should be adequately varied to allow for the preferred learning styles of different students to emerge. The subjective interpretation of the teachers directly involved in ICE supports the argument that traditional teaching methods are unsuitable for EE (Kirby, 2004). There a number of reasons for this. For example, entrepreneurs require a wider portfolio of skills and a more significant knowledge base, necessary to support the start-up stage as well as the ongoing leadership of an organisation. In contrast, most employees only need a relatively narrow specialisation in the limited field of knowledge demanded by their particular job (Matlay, 2012).

Experiential learning environments as such as ICE create a holistic and integrative perspective on learning that combines experience, perception, cognition and behaviour (Kolb, 1984). This type of approach is in distinct contrast to a didactic teaching environment, where the communication flow is distinctly one directional. When interviewed, Teacher #1 who been involved in the design and delivery from the outset, said that “*I started off thinking I could teach ICE using my normal approach, but very quickly I realised this would not work*”. He went on to say that “*the ICE programme required me to become a facilitator and not a teacher*”. He also advised that his self-concept in the classroom had changed for the better now as a direct result, as he could see himself as a mentor or a coach, or as Teacher #3 put it, “*I have evolved from being a transmitter to being a transformer*”.

An emphasis on active learning and the provision of new experiences for students outside of the classroom represents a fundamental transition away from traditional pedagogical approaches. Section 1.3 of the EU Budapest Agenda (2011) posits that teachers need to be equipped with the right skills, knowledge and attitudes, to be able to provide their students with the new curriculum, pedagogies and learning environments that they will need if they are to acquire entrepreneurial competencies, in a school environment conducive to entrepreneurship itself. Section 1.4 of the report proceeds with broad guidelines as to the effective criteria of teachers for EE. The researchers found strong concurrence towards alignment with these guidelines in the school.

1. Improving teacher competences, making sure that teachers possess the necessary pedagogical skills to teach their own subjects and the transversal key competences, including in heterogeneous classes and making the best use of ICT.
2. Improving the quality of Initial Teacher Education (ITE) which should provide a Higher Education qualification and should balance research-based studies and teaching practice.
3. Ensuring the quality of teacher educators (teacher trainers) who should have solid practical teaching experience, good teaching competences and be of a high academic standard.
4. Promoting professional values and attitudes in the teaching profession where teachers adopt a culture of reflective practice, undertake autonomous learning, engage with research, and collaborate extensively with colleagues.

If the thrust of ICE is a rebuff of traditional and didactic modes of teaching enterprise for business creation, the interviewees were interested in understanding what the school's ethos for the new programme was. In contrast to historical methods that focused on mainly transactional elements of enterprise creation, ICE instead promotes the creation of an entrepreneurial mindset, where students achieve a range of appropriate behaviours, skills and attributes, individually and collectively to empower them to create, manage and enjoy change and innovation. ICE acts as a key facilitator of the student's cognitive and social development by exposing them to situations that allow for an experiential self-exploration of entrepreneurial interests and talents. The programme provides an appropriate balance of support and challenge, fostering greater self-efficacy through the management of complex situations and problem solving in adversity and uncertainty. These fundamental experiential aspects of the programme are seen as pivotal to character development.

When we interviewed the school's principal, he was adamant that any attempt to limit the scope of the programme to enterprise or business creation would be to effectively “*dumb down*” or diminish the holistic potential for the student's overall development that an entrepreneurial programme can offer. When Teacher #2 who was involved in the design of ICE was interviewed for this study, he advised that a central concern when formulating the programme was not to imprison the scope of it to a constrained concentration on business start-up “*when so many of the skills, particularly soft skills such as communication and interpersonal skills are both transferrable and essential for aspects of life, and not just for business start-up*”. Such openness promotes an egalitarian homogeneity with all other subjects taught in the school. The distinctly humanistic approach to the design and delivery of ICE appears to have had a unifying effect in the school according to Teacher #2 and has created what he described as a “*new atmosphere*”

in the staff room". Subjects are now seen as complementary and mutually agreeable, and the ICE programme itself is therefore becoming a catalyst of greater co-operation and mutual respect amongst teaching staff, as well as students in the school.

The final criteria for the course made reference to the need for objective grading to facilitate decision making regarding progression on the programme. That issue was going to be problematic from the outset. The school however has embarked on being active participants in developing the EU Grading Soft Skills (GRASS) Programme; a 3-year research project financially supported by the EU. It focuses on representing soft skills of learners of various ages and at different levels of education in a measurable way, so that these skills can become the subject of formal validation and recognition. The project is being developed with the support of the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP) of the EU, the flagship European funding programme in the field of education and training. The key objective of LLP is to enable individuals at all stages of their lives to pursue stimulating learning opportunities across Europe. The project has officially started since Jan 2014, and once again the school in question is at the forefront of such an endeavour.

5. Conclusion

The qualitative nature of this study embodies a three tier examination of EE. Whilst the primary focus is centred on the efficacy of the ICE pilot programme in the setting of a particular school, this study is positioned within a time of macro-environmental reforms within Irish education. This is in turn set against a backdrop of contemporary EU efforts to improve and expand EE across Europe. There are two principal conclusions from our study. Firstly, although the ICE programme is in its infancy, the authors looked at triangulation to validate the efficacy of the programme hitherto. This is a method used by qualitative researchers to establish validity in their studies, by analyzing research questions from multiple perspectives (Cohen et al, 2013). This type of approach "*adds rigour, breadth and depth to any investigation*" (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011, p.188). In judging the effectiveness of ICE, positive validation has been provided of same by way of the subjective interpretation of the success of the programme through an analysis of teacher interviews, and also in the various accolades the school has achieved and continues to receive.

The second conclusion however is that ICE cannot succeed in isolation despite the best efforts of the school that we looked at. The sustainability of the programme and the overall development of EE in Ireland depends on the successful continuation of curriculum reform. The road ahead is anything but assured, as for instance, teaching unions have highlighted areas of significant concern resulting in the manifestation of resistance. These concerns include the efficacy of proposed assessment methods; the impact of subject limitations on smaller schools; and the varying ability of schools to implement the changes resultant from levels of middle management posts that have been lost through a promotions moratorium within the school sector. Funding and resources underpin several of their concerns, including a lack of investment into technology (Irish Examiner Newspaper, 18th December 2013). Regarding the latter point, it is important to reflect that the school's ability to provide technology to its students in this study is a result of a unique and stand-alone partnership with a global technology provider, and this initiative will not be available to all schools in Ireland.

Even if negotiations with teaching unions are ultimately successful, the extrapolation of programmes such as ICE to the masses is not a given. Under the proposed new national structure within which ICE is currently being piloted, individual schools would retain creative licence regarding subject matter choice, as long as the courses adhere to NCCA guidelines around rationale, structure and assessment. There is neither compulsion nor inducement for schools to favour EE. There is also a key dependency on sustained pressure being maintained at an EU level to ensure that aspirations espoused in the EU Budapest Report (2011), translate into Irish educational strategy.

Despite early momentum achieved in response to the Budapest Agenda, a question has been asked if the European agenda is abating, possibly in response to improving socio-economic conditions where complacency may lead to a shift in focus to more traditional subjects to fulfil staffing needs of the business economy. McLaren and Farahmandpur, (2001) speak of the impact of the globalisation of capitalism as an exacerbating factor in the continued compression of education, to primarily serve the needs of industry. They speak of education in terms of being increasingly directed to servicing the requirements of labour demands. In times of depressed economic conditions where existing labour opportunities are lessened, we believe it to be understandable that an entrepreneurship focus is high. When unemployment falls, the focus habitually reverts to supplying industry with skills required for its sustainability.

The above scenario is currently evident in Ireland and the UK, as these economies at the time of writing, continue to recover from economic recession. Taylor, (2011) highlights the impact of shortages amongst skilled and trades-people in the UK as a significant threat to ongoing economic viability. The same author cites an inability to meet customer needs and the excessive impact on existing employees as catalysts for the depletion of morale and staff retention resultant from issues pertaining to skills shortages. The largest employers group in Ireland - The Irish Business and Employers' Confederation (IBEC) published a medium range plan to 2016 in 2011. Their report focused on member expectations for revenue, employment and investment in the period up to 2016. Skills shortages were cited in their report as a significant constraint for many Irish firms, and they called for more government focus on producing expertise in mainly technical areas such as IT and Engineering (IBEC, 2011). This natural tension in the short term may well focus minds away from EE. In the longer term however, this may lead to a circularity of issues. For example, if those very industries that are seeking specific technical skills, locate to a lower labour cost destination in the future, any move away now from EE would create a dearth in the availability of EE savvy graduates, and a surplus of technical savvy graduates who will not necessarily have the business acumen to either transfer their skillsets to a different context, or to indeed commence a business venture on their own. Therefore, any failure to promote a stronger focus on EE now, could well have serious and unintended economic and social consequences into the future.

The relative success of ICE to date demonstrates that Ireland stands at a crossroads. The opportunity to develop EE lies to the fore, and programmes such as ICE prove that the new framework has the ability to shape innovative curriculum reform, which has potential for the extrapolation of EE to all schools nationally. It is fair to say, that Ireland's unique identity traditionally promoted a didactic and rote pedagogical approach to learning. This produced multiple generations of compliant and non-questioning students, graduates and workers alike. Whilst Ireland existed as mainly a rural economy unconnected with the wider world in the past, this was possibly appropriate for those times, but this is not a robust or sufficiently adaptive enough system of education to address a modern globalised world. For the first time in its history, a new second level framework offers unprecedented opportunity for EE to thrive as this study demonstrates. In conclusion, we argue that the success of ICE beckons Ireland once and for all, to turn its back on the didactic past. Based on this study, we propose the willing embrace of the spirit of the entrepreneurial school we investigated, that can foster generations of Irish graduates armed with holistic skills-sets that will in turn enhance both the European economy and society as a whole.

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Educación para el Espíritu Emprendedor – Informe de una experiencia en una Institución de Educación Superior

Education for Entrepreneurship – An experience report in a Higher Education Institution

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 28 de mayo de 2015

Fecha de revisión: 08 de junio de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 20 de noviembre de 2015

Pereira, C.M., de Afonso, M. y Santos, D.F. (2015). Educación para el Espíritu Emprendedor – Informe de una experiencia en una Institución de Educación Superior. *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 62–75.



Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

ISSN 1989 – 9572

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

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Education for Entrepreneurship – An experience report in a Higher Education Institution

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Resumen

El concepto de espíritu emprendedor se entiende actualmente como una competencia transversal, fundamental para el desarrollo humano, social y económico. Sin embargo, tradicionalmente se ha asociado solo a las áreas económicas y de negocios, a pesar de que venimos observando un cambio gradual en esta concepción. Así, en la última década, se ha producido un verdadero incremento en el papel de la educación para el desarrollo de las competencias relacionadas con el espíritu emprendedor, puesto que pueden y deben ser aprendidas y desarrolladas desde muy pronto. Este reconocimiento de la importancia de la educación en el desarrollo del espíritu emprendedor otorga una nueva responsabilidad a las instituciones educativas, en particular a la educación superior. Es precisamente sobre la educación del espíritu emprendedor en la educación superior que este artículo habla. El artículo presenta el ejemplo de dos centros (Centro de Aprendizaje y Desarrollo de la Infancia-CeADIn y el Centro de Ciencia, Tradición & Cultura-CT&C) de la misma institución de educación superior que, aunque con una estructura de organización, objetivos, estrategias y formas de trabajo diversas, tienen algunos puntos en común, como el hecho de que pretenden educar para el espíritu emprendedor tanto a niños, como a jóvenes y adultos, involucrando en este proceso a los alumnos de los cursos de formación del profesorado.

Abstract

The concept of entrepreneurship is currently assumed to be a cross competence, fundamental for human, social and economic development. However, it has traditionally been associated with economic and business areas, although we have been witnessing a gradual change this design. In the last decade there has been a growing defense role of education in development of entrepreneurial skills, as these can and should be learned and developed very early. This appreciation of the role of education in development of entrepreneurial skills prints a new responsibility to educational institutions, particularly to higher education. It is precisely the entrepreneurial education in higher education that this article talks. The article gives the example of two centers (Learning and Development Center for Children - CeADIn; Science, Tradition & Culture Center - CT&C), from the same institution of higher education, albeit with different organizational structure, strategies, have some common points as they wish to educating for entrepreneurship, both children, youth and adults, involving in this process the students of teachers education courses.

Palabras clave

Formación del Profesorado; Educación para el Espíritu Emprendedor; Servicio Comunitario; Desarrollo humano y social.

Keywords

Teachers Education; Education for Entrepreneurship; Community Services; Human and social development.

1. Introducción

El Informe Intermedio presentado ante la Comisión Europea sobre el Programa “*Educación y Formación 2010*” (European Commission, 2004) introdujo el concepto de *competencias clave para el aprendizaje a lo largo de la vida*, considerando que éstas son esenciales en la sociedad del Conocimiento y de la Información. En este nuevo enfoque, las *competencias clave* pasan a ser entendidas como una referencia de políticas nacionales para la creación de oportunidades de aprendizaje a lo largo de la vida para los ciudadanos, en los contextos de educación y de formación continua.

Competencias clave para el aprendizaje a lo largo de la vida:

1. Comunicar en lengua materna.
2. Comunicar en lengua extranjera.
3. Competencia matemática y competencias básicas en ciencia y tecnología.
4. Competencia digital.
5. Aprender a aprender.
6. Competencias sociales y cívicas.
7. Espíritu emprendedor.
8. Expresión cultural.

Es en este contexto donde el concepto de *espíritu emprendedor* se asume, actualmente, como una competencia transversal, fundamentalmente para el desarrollo social y económico.

La capacidad de emprender e innovar es, así, considerada fundamental para el gradual resurgimiento competitivo a escala local y regional –empleo más cualificado, surgimiento de hileras emergentes de actividades y de renovación de sectores tradicionales basados en la innovación–. En este proceso la escuela puede y debe asumir un papel determinante, anticipando la disposición de instrumentos de sensibilización, experimentación y análisis que permitan a los niños y jóvenes, desde muy temprano, valorar una cultura de cambio, innovación y de asimilación de riesgos (Pereira, Afonso y Santos, 2013).

Dentro del actual contexto, y considerando que Portugal ha estado dominado, hasta la última década, por una cultura donde la asertividad y la proactividad son conceptos alejados del comportamiento dominante, es fundamental que las Instituciones de Educación Superior (IES) empleen sus conocimientos y sus competencias en la promoción de actividades y comportamientos emprendedores junto a sus estudiantes.

Según algunos estudios (Potter, 2008; EC, 2012), el espíritu emprendedor es visto como uno de los principales motores de la innovación, la creatividad y el conocimiento, y las organizaciones –gubernamentales y no gubernamentales, nacionales e internacionales–, como la OCDE y la Unión Europea consideran a las IES y a la formación que en ellas se desarrolla como uno de los grandes focos a favor del espíritu emprendedor.

No obstante, en Portugal los ciudadanos carecen tanto de vocación para asumir riesgos, como de preparación para pensar y actuar de forma emprendedora. Esta actitud, culturalmente dominante, no ha sido adecuadamente confrontada en la educación superior, que se ha centrado en garantizar una cualificación que sirva de garantía para un empleo futuro. Aun así, las mutaciones dinámicas asociadas a la crisis que ha dominado el país, sobre todo desde 2011, alteraron drásticamente el escenario de expectativas positivas, reforzando la necesidad de que los jóvenes sean capaces de enfrentarse a una realidad dominada por la incerteza y la inseguridad. De acuerdo con Potter (2008), en Europa el espíritu emprendedor todavía está buscando su espacio, lo que requiere que la educación superior pase por un cambio de paradigma, en el que se incluye la alteración de los fundamentos de su acción formativa y de su papel dentro de la sociedad.

Para las instituciones de Enseñanza Politécnica Superior en general, y para las Escuelas Superiores de Educación en particular, teniendo en cuenta su función en la habilitación

profesional de educadores y profesores, el desafío es decisivo para su afirmación y para conseguir responder a uno de los propósitos incluidos en el origen de su creación, fundamental en zonas económica y socialmente deprimidas: el de contribuir a la cualificación de los jóvenes y potenciar el desarrollo y el bienestar, basándose en una cultura de afirmación personal y regional.

2. ¿Podemos educar en el espíritu emprendedor?

La educación y la formación para el desarrollo del espíritu emprendedor se encuentran integradas en la estrategia de la Comisión Europea, en el ámbito del procedimiento *Best* y en las “*Competencias claves para el Aprendizaje a lo Largo de la Vida*”, y son ampliamente reconocidas como factores determinantes para el desarrollo económico y cultural en toda Europa.

Las organizaciones y los contextos donde los individuos se integran, se organizan como espacios de oportunidad, de conocimiento, innovación y desarrollo. Las evidencias apuntan, no obstante, hacia la existencia de contextos y relaciones que potencian individuos con mayor resistencia emocional y/o más emprendedores (Pereira, Afonso y Santos, 2013).

Los contextos de formación/educación son los más privilegiados para la promoción del desarrollo de competencias emprendedoras: por un lado, porque son orientadas por profesionales, y por otro, porque la introducción de métodos pedagógicos experimentales (aprender haciendo) puede complementar los procesos más tradicionales de enseñanza, constituyendo así una fuente de enriquecimiento curricular.

Los sistemas educativos pueden, de hecho, contribuir en la promoción de este espíritu emprendedor, desde los primeros años hasta la enseñanza superior, pasando por la educación primaria. Ahora bien, la concretización de estos aspectos pasa necesariamente por el cambio en las prácticas de formación de profesores.

Un proceso efectivo de formación y desarrollo profesional deberá tener en cuenta, entre otros, los siguientes principios (Pereira, Afonso y Santos, 2013):

1. No restringir las experiencias y los procesos de formación y de desarrollo a la valoración de competencias técnicas de enseñanza efectiva. Se deben tener, igualmente, en cuenta los contextos ético, social y económico en los que la enseñanza tiene lugar, así como los intereses políticos a los que sirve y rechaza.
2. Reconocer el cambio tanto como un proceso individual como organizativo. Centrar exclusivamente los esfuerzos en la formación profesional de los individuos. Cuando se descuidan factores tales como aspectos organizativos y políticos, se limitan severamente las posibilidades de éxito. Centrar el cambio únicamente en los aspectos organizativos es igualmente ineficaz. Es importante tener presente que los cambios sucedidos en una de las dimensiones afectan necesariamente al resto de dimensiones.
3. Contemplar programas inclusivos e integrados. Las innovaciones tienen que ser presentadas dentro de un marco de referencia global y coherente. Sólo existen posibilidades de mejoría sustanciales cuando las diferentes estrategias están cuidadosa y sistemáticamente integradas en dicho marco.
4. La formación no se debe limitar al objetivo de fomentar el espíritu emprendedor; debe incluir también prácticas, métodos y estrategias pedagógicas y emprendedoras.
5. Buscar la isomorfía: Cuando hay gran similitud entre los contextos de formación con perfiles semejantes a los que se buscan en los contextos de aplicación, ya sean

escuelas, aulas, espacios formales o no formales, tanto la transferencia como el cambio de las prácticas parecen ser facilitadas.

Desde nuestra perspectiva, la enseñanza del espíritu emprendedor deberá asumir un carácter transversal en las IES e incluir un conjunto de programas curriculares y extracurriculares que favorezcan la creación de un ambiente que se organice como un ecosistema emprendedor (Carvalho, Costa y Dominginhos, 2010), favoreciendo de este modo el desarrollo y la adaptación de competencias, la diseminación del conocimiento y la tecnología, ayudando a crear oportunidades de desarrollo personal, profesional y local, en una lógica de creación de sinergias e interdependencias (Costa y Carvalho, 2011).

3. La experiencia en la Escuela Superior de Educación de Castelo Branco: un ejemplo de espíritu emprendedor en la educación

A lo largo de la última década el desarrollo de competencias emprendedoras ha sido una preocupación asumida por el Instituto Politécnico de Castelo Branco (IPCB), en el que la Escuela Superior de Educación (ESECB) está integrada. Se puede afirmar que fue una institución pionera en Portugal, ya que estuvo en el inicio –en 2003– y continúa promoviendo, en conjunto con otras instituciones politécnicas, el concurso *Poliempreende*, que, con el objetivo de desarrollar en sus estudiantes el espíritu de iniciativa y las ganas de emprender, estimula la creación de empresas propias y la generación de puestos de trabajo, amén de acentuar el carácter práctico y profesionalizador de su formación.

Tiene también en funcionamiento desde 2002 el Centro de Estudios y Desarrollo Regional (CEDER). El CEDER pretende actuar como un polo dinamizador y coordinador de acciones de investigación de desarrollo y de prestación de servicios, desempeñando un papel de relevancia en la relación entre el IPCB y otras instituciones públicas y privadas, nacionales y extranjeras, asumiendo así un papel importante como apoyo a la concepción y operacionalización de los profesores y alumnos.

Por otro lado, la ESECB, ha desarrollado acciones a favor de la educación para el espíritu emprendedor, tales como:

- La creación de una asignatura específica de emprendimiento, de carácter obligatorio en uno de sus grados, y de acceso optativo para el resto de alumnos, no sólo de la ESECB sino para todo el IPCB.
- Formación complementaria en el área de emprendimiento que algunos de sus docentes han recibido.
- La aplicación de proyectos de emprendimiento, implicando a los estudiantes en la asistencia a cursos de formación de educadores y profesores. Esos proyectos son concretizados en la creación de centros de prestación de servicios a la comunidad, como el Centro de Aprendizaje y Desarrollo de la Infancia-CeADIn y el Centro de Ciencia, Tradición & Cultura-CT&C, que más adelante detallaremos.
- La creación de lazos de cooperación internacionales con instituciones de enseñanza superior de referencia en este ámbito, traducidas en el desarrollo de proyectos de investigación y en la presentación de comunicaciones en congresos internacionales.
- Relaciones de apertura y cooperación con la comunidad implicada, que se han caracterizado por su postura institucional y se han desarrollado, principalmente, a través de la realización de prácticas curriculares en instituciones de cariz educativo, social, deportivo, y de ámbito empresarial en general.

Estas iniciativas han permitido trazar un itinerario que, progresivamente y de una forma integral, pretenden desarrollar competencias que, según varios autores, son la base para adoptar una postura emprendedora y proactiva (Pereira, Ferreira y Figueiredo, 2007).

Otra preocupación presente en la ESECB es el esfuerzo en la articulación entre el proceso formativo y el desarrollo de proyectos de investigación y/o intervención en una línea conductora que, integrando los contenidos pretende motivar e implicar a los profesores como mediadores entre los alumnos y el mundo en constante evolución, utilizando como soporte en las relaciones de cooperación con instituciones nacionales e internacionales esta actuación.

Respecto a la organización de las prácticas curriculares, desde nuestro punto de vista, permite la operacionalización de una educación para el espíritu emprendedor. De acuerdo con la naturaleza profesionalizadora de la enseñanza superior politécnica, todos los grados ofrecidos por la ESECB contemplan en sus planes de estudio prácticas curriculares realizadas en el ámbito profesional, bajo la orientación de supervisores de la institución formadora y de profesionales-especialistas ejerciendo funciones en el lugar donde se realizan dichas prácticas. La realización de las mismas se entiende como un contexto privilegiado de desarrollo de competencias profesionales, determinantes en la formación emprendedora.

Es una experiencia preprofesional supervisada que desafía la autonomía, el aprender haciendo (*learning by doing*) a través del ensayo, el error, la persistencia, la cooperación y la responsabilidad progresiva de nuestros estudiantes.

De acuerdo con la visión constructivista y socioconstructivista (Piaget, Bruner, Vygotsy), los procesos de desarrollo y aprendizaje dependen de la vivencia de situaciones-problemas a los que el ser humano intenta dar respuesta, en un proceso de construcción individual, soportada por contextos de interacción potenciadores del cambio y del aprendizaje. Para que esta actitud pueda ser asumida por los estudiantes, los contextos formativos tienen que concebir el aprendizaje como un proceso cimentado en la experimentación, la formulación de hipótesis y la construcción de proyectos, lo que implica siempre desafíos susceptibles de terminar bien en éxito, bien en fracaso, cuestionando la representación – aún socialmente dominante – de la penalización del error. La operacionalización de estos principios metodológicos permite que la planificación y las acciones desarrolladas durante las prácticas, basadas en la identificación de cuestiones-problema y en la construcción de una acción de intervención, potencien la capacidad de iniciativa e intervención.

Se describen a continuación los principios y objetivos, así como el tipo de acciones desarrolladas por los centros de prestación de servicios creados en la ESECB - dos proyectos de educación para el espíritu emprendedor.

4. El Centro de Aprendizaje y Desarrollo de la Infancia (CeADIn) y el Centro de Ciencia, Tradición & Cultura (CT&C): ejemplos de proyectos emprendedores en la educación.

4.1 Um poco de historia

4.1.1 El Centro de Aprendizaje y Desarrollo de la Infancia (CeADIn)

El CeADIn (ceadin.ipcb.pt) fue el resultado de un proyecto construido y desarrollado en colaboración con la Facultad de Psicología y de Ciencias de la Educación de la Universidad de Coímbra (FPCE-UC) a partir de una idea presentada por un profesor del Primer Ciclo de Educación Primaria, diplomado por la ESECB.

Este proyecto tiene como misión la prestación de un servicio credenciado y de referencia en el área educativa a la comunidad escolar de la zona de influencia de la institución. Su objetivo central es ofrecer un conjunto de servicios de desarrollo integrado de competencias psicopedagógicas a los alumnos que se encuentran realizando su formación inicial como profesores de la ESECB, proporcionando al mismo tiempo acciones e intervenciones

educativas promotoras del ajuste psicosocial y del éxito académico de los alumnos del distrito de Castelo Branco.

El público objetivo del CeADIn lo integran los alumnos de Preescolar y de primero, segundo y tercer ciclos de Educación Primaria, padres, familias y responsables de educación, educadores y profesores y, en general, toda la comunidad educativa.

4.1.2 El Centro de Ciencia, Tradición & Cultura (CT&C)

La idea de crear un centro de Ciencia, Tradición & Cultura pretendía dar respuesta a necesidades detectadas en una sociedad que presenta constantemente nuevos desafíos que exigen intervenciones a diversos niveles y áreas de actuación –áreas social, ambiental, científico-tecnológica, educacional–, que a su vez atiendan a factores estructurales y a contextos culturales y que conduzcan, simultáneamente, a la cohesión entre generaciones y a una sociedad cada vez más competente e interventiva.

El CT&C, un centro de ideas y materiales puesto a disposición de la comunidad, establece la unión entre el pasado y el futuro, donde la ciencia y la tecnología juegan un papel determinante. En este centro la tónica general es comprender y valorar la cultura y la tradición portuguesa, interpretándolas a la luz de los conocimientos científicos y dándoselas a conocer a todos, desde la población más joven hasta las personas mayores.

Las principales fuerzas de arranque llegaron particularmente de las personas y entidades ligadas al trabajo artesanal y a la cultura más tradicional, ya que consideraban que había “*alguna esperanza*” en su preservación futura. El hecho de que el Centro concilie las tradiciones, unidas normalmente a los mayores, con las actividades educativas de campo y experimentales, unidas habitualmente a los más jóvenes, constituye, en opinión de las personas y entidades dedicadas al trabajo artesanal, una configuración “*original*”, “*innovadora*” y “*prometedora*” para la preservación de nuestra cultura por parte de las nuevas generaciones. La idea de crear este Centro surge en 2010, pero es entre 2012 y 2013 cuando es llevada a cabo por un conjunto de profesoras de las áreas de Ciencia, Arte y Tecnología de la ESECB. A pesar de que la idea de creación del Centro solo tomó forma en 2010, el trabajo de investigación, sensibilización, divulgación y elaboración de materiales empezó mucho antes. Las profesoras, desde hacía ya algunos años, desarrollaban en sus actividades docentes trabajos de investigación, producción de materiales, sensibilización de los alumnos en cuestiones culturales, así como su valorización y divulgación, y lo hacían de forma interdisciplinar, asociando las ciencias y las artes.

Promoviendo competencias emprendedoras en los alumnos, éstos eran invitados a realizar –de la manera más autónoma posible– las actividades de búsqueda y la elaboración de materiales que eran posteriormente aplicados y probados en diferentes contextos como colegios, guarderías, museos, etc., muchas veces bajo la forma de encuentros intergeneracionales.

Actualmente el Centro cuenta con un espacio propio, con diferentes materiales, algunos de naturaleza laboratorio-experimental y otros usados en las tradiciones y cultura portuguesa. Cuenta con una página web (<http://centroctc.com/>) que ha desarrollado actividades divulgativas, ha organizado encuentros, conferencias, ferias regionales unidas a las tradiciones, ha promovido acciones de formación de profesores y educadores de infancia y de profesionales ligados directa o indirectamente a la educación. También ha publicado libros.

Para estas tareas, además de la participación de colaboradores, cuentan con alumnos que de forma voluntaria desarrollan las más diversas tareas, implementan actividades, organizan materiales y colaboran en la investigación.

Se establecieron también multitud de colaboraciones con agrupaciones de colegios, museos, residencias de ancianos, instituciones de apoyo social a niños con problemas de naturaleza social, motora o cognitiva, y con la Universidad Sénior.

En un futuro el CT&C busca agrandar y profundizar su espacio de actuación. Se está valorando una unión con el ámbito empresarial, particularmente con empresas que puedan contribuir a la consecución de sus objetivos y en la expansión de su actividad.

4.2 Valores comunes en el CeADIn y el CT&C.

El CeADIn y el CT&C desarrollan sus prácticas de intervención educativa con base en los siguientes valores:

- Colaboración: Adoptar y fomentar un sentimiento de comunidad entre profesores y agentes educativos que promueva el desarrollo profesional y el reparto de buenas prácticas.
- Integración: Promover la integración de la enseñanza, del aprendizaje y de la investigación para mejorar la eficacia, la productividad, el aprendizaje y el éxito académico.
- Aprendizaje: Promover encuentros centrados en el alumno y en el aprendizaje, y en el desarrollo de experiencias profesionales diversificadas y pertinentes de aprendizaje a lo largo de la vida.
- Investigación: Realizar procesos de intervención y evaluación de los resultados, utilización de buenas prácticas y de rigurosos procesos de investigación.
- Innovación: Promover la implicación y la intervención de los alumnos para asistir a cursos de formación de profesores a través de encuentros innovadores, creativos y aprendizajes significativos.

4.3 Objetivos

El CeADIn y el CT&C tienen la preocupación de crear contenidos, sinergias y niveles de intervención educativa que busquen dar una respuesta integral a las necesidades y al desarrollo de oportunidades en los siguientes ámbitos:

CeADIn	CT&C
<p>▪ Escuela Superior de Educación de Castelo Branco</p> <p>a) Contribuir al reconocimiento y la visibilidad de la oferta formativa de la Escuela;</p> <p>b) Contribuir a la constitución de la Escuela como polo de atracción privilegiado de nuevos candidatos a la educación superior;</p> <p>c) Contribuir al reconocimiento externo de la Escuela como institución promotora de proyectos innovadores, emprendedores y aglutinadores.</p>	
<p>▪ Formación de los alumnos durante la formación inicial de profesores</p> <p>a) Fomentar y dotar a los alumnos de competencias de gestión y de implementación de proyectos de emprendimiento;</p> <p>b) Desarrollar oportunidades de movilidad y empleabilidad con los centros educativos internacionales;</p> <p>c) Certificar complementariamente la formación, gestión e implementación de proyectos educativos internacionales;</p> <p>d) Fomentar la integración del componente práctico y teórico de los conocimientos y de las competencias psicopedagógicas.</p>	

<p>▪ Alumnos y comunidad educativa del distrito Objetivos generales</p> <p>a) Oferta de formación especializada, acreditada y de ámbito general a través de acciones de formación dirigidas a la comunidad educativa, a los profesores, a los padres y a los responsables de educación;</p>	
<p>b) Oferta de un servicio educativo y de aprendizaje integrado, especializado y científicamente validado, de promoción de la calidad de vida, y del bienestar físico, emocional y social de los alumnos del distrito de Castelo Branco a coste más reducido;</p> <p>c) Promoción de competencias de estudio, análisis, resolución de problemas, auto monitorización y regulación del aprendizaje, promotoras del éxito escolar.</p>	<p>b) Valorar la tradición y la cultura portuguesas comprendiéndolas desde el punto de vista científico;</p> <p>c) Sensibilizar a todos, desde los más jóvenes hasta los ancianos, a través de diversas actividades como la organización de encuentros, compartir experiencias, colaboración entre instituciones con valores diferentes pero complementarios, sobre la importancia de preservar nuestros valores culturales como base para la construcción del futuro.</p>
<p>Objetivos específicos</p> <p>a) Obtener resultados positivos en la reducción de síntomas emocionales, problemas de comportamiento, hiperactividad y problemas de relación;</p> <p>b) Obtener resultados positivos a nivel de calidad de vida, del comportamiento prosocial, de la cooperación y comunicación, autoeficacia, empatía, resolución de problemas y autoconocimiento.</p>	<p>Objetivos específicos</p> <p>a) Concebir y ofrecer ideas y materiales relacionados con los intereses y misión del Centro a toda la comunidad. Para que esto sea posible se ha creado una logística que permite tanto el uso de los materiales a toda la comunidad, como la prestación de servicios a todos los interesados;</p> <p>b) Planear un calendario anual con actividades a realizar en colaboración con los diferentes agentes y entidades que se entrecrucen con las finalidades del Centro;</p> <p>c) Promover la participación activa de los alumnos de la ESECB y de otros eventuales interesados en las actividades del Centro.</p>

4.4 Estructura, Organización y Capacidades.

4.4.1 CeADIn

El CeADIn instaura un componente de investigación basado en un programa de establecimiento de sinergias y colaboraciones, nacionales e internacionales, que potencien el desarrollo y la implementación de buenas prácticas y se constituyan como potenciales polos de movilidad profesional dentro del continuo intercambio de saberes, conocimientos y experiencias.

En este sentido, su estructura organizativa, además del equipo de coordinación, cuenta con un grupo de consultores de la comunidad y de consultores científico-profesionales. Los consultores científico-profesionales representan a un conjunto de profesionales, a nivel nacional e internacional, con distintas áreas de interés e intervención, transversales a la misión y a los servicios ofrecidos por el CeADIn.

Contempla en su estructura cinco ámbitos de intervención que pretenden funcionar permanentemente de forma integral y en régimen de complementariedad de funciones y de desarrollo de competencias.

a) Laboratorio de desarrollo de proyectos lúdico-pedagógicos:

Este laboratorio pretende implicar a los alumnos que se encuentren en formación inicial de profesores de la ESECB en la elaboración y presentación de proyectos de clubes/talleres educativos que contemplen una serie de parámetros identificativos, posterior objeto de análisis y evaluación por parte del equipo de coordinación del CeADIn.

Tras la valoración positiva y aceptación del proyecto por parte del equipo de coordinación del CeADIn, los monitores que lo propusieron desarrollan e implementan dicho taller en colaboración con el profesor titular del grupo/clase junto al que se desarrollará la intervención.

La integración de un Centro de Actividades Lúdico-pedagógicas en el ámbito del CeADIn se justifica por la apuesta e importancia que los aprendizajes iniciales de desarrollo de competencias académicas y sociales, integradas en intervenciones lúdicas de promoción de la autonomía, asumen tanto de cara a las constantes transformaciones de la sociedad a las que asistimos, como a las necesidades detectadas a nivel de formación de los alumnos en edades más tempranas.

Por otra parte, el aparente aumento de interés por parte de los responsables de educación en relación al currículo escolar y al ajuste psicosocial de los educandos, deberá reflejarse en el ejercicio activo de selección y elección de las actividades de enriquecimiento curricular que reemplacen las actividades aparentemente poco organizadas y desprovistas de una definición clara de estructuración de objetivos educativos dentro de la oferta formativa de las instituciones de enseñanza reglada.

A este respecto, y de acuerdo con Estríbio (2010:18)

“es el propio Ministerio de Educación quien reconoce que existen algunos inconvenientes en el hecho de que, en la mayoría de los colegios, el enriquecimiento curricular se desarrolle en el aula y se usen métodos de enseñanza dirigidos por el profesor, semejantes a los del currículo nuclear. El efecto es alargar dicho currículo nuclear a través del incremento de asignaturas suplementarias, haciendo la jornada escolar mucho más larga para los niños”,

dejando así de existir espacio para las actividades de tiempo libre que permitan al niño decidir qué hacer y cómo hacerlo. Esta autonomía se revela importante para el desarrollo del niño, puesto que *no basta aprender, “es necesario que cada niño desarrolle todas sus capacidades y su personalidad aprendiendo normas de convivencia social que refuercen su integración y su autonomía”* (ME, 1998: 6).

b) Centro de apoyo al estudio y acompañamiento escolar:

Este centro pretende complementar la dimensión lúdico-pedagógica de la oferta formativa del CeADIn, dirigiendo su foco sobre todo a los alumnos que se encuentran en mayor riesgo o en dificultades académicas.

Se organiza como un complemento de apoyo especializado en el que el desarrollo de competencias de análisis, la resolución de problemas y la autorregulación de aprendizajes son parte integrante del acompañamiento al estudio y la realización de tareas para casa.

La literatura ha evidenciado la preocupación presente en los encargados de educación respecto a la incapacidad e imposibilidad de acompañar como les gustaría los aprendizajes escolares de los alumnos, y de prestarles el apoyo necesario en la realización de trabajos escolares. Por otro lado, es frecuente que padres y alumnos no encuentren en la escuela una respuesta educativa a las dificultades escolares manifiestas que muchas veces se concentran en torno a dificultades instrumentales de desarrollo de competencias de estudio y de aprender a aprender.

c) A su vez, el Centro de psicología y apoyo psicopedagógico:

Tiene como misión fundamental la intervención especializada en el ámbito de la evaluación psicológica, psicopedagógica y neuropsicológica, centrada en la evaluación de dificultades de ajuste psicosocial, emocional, compromiso de desarrollo normativo y señalización de dificultades de aprendizaje detectadas, interviniendo en una visión integral y sistemática dentro del contexto más amplio de vivencia del niño. En consonancia, pues, con la Organização Mundial de Saúde (2002: 3), que contempla el *bienestar subjetivo, la autoeficacia entendida, la autonomía, la competencia, la dependencia intergeneracional, y la autorrealización del potencial intelectual y emocional de la persona*, la salud mental no se limita, por tanto, exclusivamente, a la ausencia de trastornos mentales, constituyéndose así como un factor determinante para el bienestar general de los individuos, con especial influencia en el ámbito de la educación.

d) El centro de formación educativa y psicopedagógica:

Persigue objetivos distintos pero complementarios de formación de profesores especializada e acreditada, con acciones de formación dirigidas a la corporación, que pretenden aumentar la oferta formativa en el ámbito de la educación.

A través de éstas, la comunidad educativa, los profesores, los padres y los encargados de educación, podrían encontrar respuestas a sus dudas, angustias e inquietudes en relación tanto con la vivencia de la paternidad, como con las exigencias escolares y educativas.

La formación de ámbito especializado, particularmente dirigida a los monitores y a las personas que intervienen en las actividades desarrolladas por el CeADIn, desarrolla acciones formativas de ámbito psicopedagógico que ofrecen competencias teóricas y de intervención psicopedagógica que deben ser consideradas en el ámbito de la implementación de proyectos de clubes/talleres y del desarrollo de competencias de estudio, análisis, resolución de problemas y automonitorización y regulación del aprendizaje de los alumnos que asistan al centro de Apoyo al Estudio y Desarrollo de Competencias Académicas.

El área de formación acreditada busca establecer una dinámica de relación con otros estudiantes y profesores, capaz de desarrollar prácticas y acciones formativas acreditadas para los profesores ya profesionalizados o que se encuentren en el ejercicio de sus funciones.

e) Núcleo de investigación en educación e innovación:

Compartimos con Abreu (2004) la idea de que en la dinámica de la escuela del s. XXI, el profesor más que dar clase o transmitir contenidos, tendrá que ser capaz de desarrollar, en colaboración con sus alumnos, proyectos y programas de acción; y deberá así mismo investigar los procesos, las variables y las contingencias que influyen en el recorrido y los resultados de esos programas.

A lo largo de las últimas décadas, los especialistas y prácticos de la educación nos han venido concienciando de la necesidad de que los modelos de formación de los profesores tengan como objetivo el desarrollo de competencias de investigación, entendiéndose así la importancia de la creación de equipos integrados por investigadores, formadores y profesores. Éstos últimos deben ser capaces de practicar la reflexión, la investigación y la producción de conocimientos relacionados con la acción educativa (Formosinho y Nisa, 2001).

De acuerdo con estos supuestos, el CeADIn se organiza con un *modus operandi* que valida su intervención a través de procesos de investigación basados en una lógica de investigación-acción. Esta metodología se opera en la elaboración (planificación, evaluación y reorganización) de proyectos en las distintas vertientes de acción del CeADIn, capacitando a los alumnos en formación con actitudes y posturas de cuestionamiento, reflexión y cambio fundamentado en las prácticas.

El desarrollo de algunos de esos proyectos culmina en trabajos finales de máster, elaboración de artículos, pósters o comunicaciones para presentar en eventos científicos y/o pedagógicos.

El núcleo de investigación del CeADIn privilegia también el desarrollo de proyectos de investigación en colaboración con instituciones y centros homólogos, a nivel nacional e internacional.

4.4.2 CT&C

El CT&C privilegia, tal y como lo hace el CeADIn, un componente de investigación basado en un programa de sinergias y colaboraciones – nacionales e internacionales– que potencien el desarrollo, el reparto e intercambio de saberes, conocimientos y experiencias.

Su estructura organizativa es simple: cuenta con un equipo de coordinación¹ y un conjunto de consultores – locales, nacionales e internacionales – de diversas áreas científicas y profesionales que evalúan el proyecto anual de actividades y colaboran en la (re)definición de orientaciones y actividades, con la finalidad de que los objetivos del Centro sean alcanzados de un modo más efectivo y completo.

Los alumnos de la ESECB y la comunidad en general son incentivados a colaborar de acuerdo con su interés y disponibilidad. La colaboración puede ser llevada a cabo de diversas maneras: búsqueda de tradiciones y de su explicación, elaboración de materiales, estructuración de espacios, organización de encuentros, etc.

Las distintas capacidades/dominios de intervención, a pesar de ser diferentes, se desarrollan de manera integrada e interdisciplinar, involucrando las ciencias, las expresiones – sobre todo la expresión plástica –, la lengua portuguesa, las matemáticas.

- a) Investigación** (de naturaleza científica y de naturaleza etnográfica y social): La investigación de naturaleza más etnográfica y social procede de la recuperación e interpretación de las tradiciones que forman parte de nuestra cultura. Esta tarea se lleva a cabo junto a los artesanos y a las comunidades, pero implica también la búsqueda bibliográfica y recopilación de diversos documentos tanto escritos como audiovisuales.

Posteriormente las tradiciones son interpretadas desde el punto de vista científico, a través de nuevas investigaciones bibliográficas y de laboratorio. Es ahí cuando entra en juego la dimensión científica. La investigación busca, en ese momento, interpretar – desde el punto de vista científico– las elecciones y procedimientos tradicionales, dando respuesta a preguntas como: ¿Por qué el artesano utiliza este material y no otro? ¿Por qué el artesano sigue este procedimiento e indica que de no hacerlo así no se obtendrían los resultados deseados? ¿Tal vez porque durante toda la vida lo vio hacer así o, sin tener conciencia de ello, hay alguna explicación de naturaleza científica?

- b) Producción y divulgación de ideas y materiales pedagógicos:** Una vez encontradas las explicaciones científicas, llega el turno de la producción de ideas y materiales, y su divulgación en diversos contextos y para diversos públicos, a través de la formación de profesores, actividades desarrolladas en el propio local del Centro y en congresos, colegios, centros, museos, usando medios digitales o en soporte papel.

La producción de materiales tiene en cuenta los siguientes principios: (a) los materiales se destinan a contextos educativos formales y no formales, y son adaptables al tipo de público que los vaya a utilizar: niños, jóvenes, adultos, niños con necesidades educativas especiales; (b) tienen un fuerte componente práctico, que

¹ Profesoras Helena Margarida Tomás, Paula Peres y Margarida Afonso.

alía la tradición y la ciencia, con recurso a trabajos de campo y experimentales desarrollados de forma integral; (c) buscan establecer el diálogo entre dimensiones vistas habitualmente como distantes, y en ocasiones irreconciliables, tales como el diálogo entre científicos y artesanos, niños y ancianos, ciencia y tradición, teoría y práctica.

La divulgación también se lleva a cabo a través de la organización de encuentros, invitación a entidades locales y nacionales, investigadores, artesanos y profesionales del área de la divulgación científica, periodistas y escritores que puedan contribuir a la aproximación ente el público y el centro y, simultáneamente, la ciencia, la cultura y la tradición portuguesas.

c) Formación de profesionales en las áreas de educación y animación cultural. La formación inicial y continua va dirigida a profesores, educadores de infancia, animadores y agentes educativos de diferentes instituciones, como por ejemplo, museos, centros de interpretación ambiental, parques naturales, centros de día y residencias de la tercera edad. La formación se rige por los mismos principios de producción de materiales e ideas, teniendo, por lo tanto, en cuenta sujetos y contextos diversificados, integrando el componente tradicional con el científico. Los concretiza mediante trabajos de campo y experimentales, con especial atención al establecimiento de un diálogo entre dimensiones consideradas normalmente distintas.

Es muy importante subrayar que para la consecución de todas estas capacidades intervienen siempre diferentes profesionales, instituciones y diferentes generaciones: artesanos, investigadores, profesores, alumnos de diferentes niveles de enseñanza y técnicos de las más diversas áreas de intervención.

Es también importante resaltar que el Centro ha contribuido al desvanecimiento de las fronteras entre las personas y las instituciones y a la concienciación de que, por medio del trabajo coordinado, los diferentes intervinientes contribuyen en mayor medida para la valoración y la divulgación científica y cultural, la cohesión social y la valoración de todos en general y de cada uno en particular.

Por su parte, y para finalizar, los objetivos y la forma de alcanzarlos han contribuído – unas veces de forma más directa, otras indirectamente – a la creación de una actitud más interventiva, más emprendedora, en todos aquellos que han colaborado con el Centro.

5. A modo de conclusión

En Europa, y muy particularmente en Portugal, el espíritu emprendedor comienza a constituir, tímidamente, su espacio. La escuela asume en este proceso un papel determinante, concretizado en la disposición de instrumentos de sensibilización, de experimentación y de realización que permiten a las nuevas generaciones valorar una cultura de cambio, innovación y asimilación de riesgos.

Dentro de nuestra perspectiva, las IES, como responsables de la formación de profesionales cualificados – principalmente en el área de educación– pueden contribuir de manera decisiva para que el espíritu emprendedor se asuma como una actitud y una competencia presentes en el desarrollo y afirmación individual y comunitaria.

La asimilación de este nuevo paradigma, que redefine los fundamentos en la acción formativa de las IES y su papel en la sociedad, es un proceso lento, complejo, pero deseado. De acuerdo con un estudio realizado recientemente (Caseiro et al., 2014), un porcentaje significativo de docentes de Enseñanza Superior Politécnica de Portugal consideró a las competencias

empreendedoras especialmente relevantes, y se siente por ello motivado a implementarlas dentro del ámbito de su acción formativa.

Hemos mostrado en este capítulo dos proyectos de la ESECB, el CeADIn y el CT&C, que tienen en común la asunción de un ambiente de aprendizaje efectivamente emprendedor:

- El CeADIn y el CT&C son Centros de prestación de servicios a la comunidad que pretenden dar respuesta a necesidades previamente detectadas;
- Implican a profesores y alumnos en procesos de experimentación e investigación;
- Permiten que la construcción del conocimiento se apoye en una intervención práctica;
- Dinamizan procesos de interacción entre las IES y los diferentes intervinientes locales, a nivel individual y/o constitucional.
- Basan su acción en la integración entre la formación, el coaprendizaje, la innovación y la investigación.

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The teaching of the entrepreneurship at the University of Reims Champagne-Ardenne, approaches conception in tension

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 28 de marzo de 2015

Fecha de revisión: 08 de junio de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 19 de noviembre de 2015

Leclercq, E. (2015). L'enseignement de l'entrepreneuriat à l'Université de Reims Champagne Ardenne, des approches en tension. *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 76-86.



Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

ISSN 1989 – 9572

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

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Résumé

Après avoir resitué le contexte national et local sur l'évolution de l'entrepreneuriat auprès des publics étudiants nous soulignerons ce qui fait l'originalité de cet enseignement à l'université de Reims Champagne Ardenne. Plusieurs conceptions de cet enseignement semblent s'opposer dans les différentes formations sur le contenu, l'encadrement, l'accompagnement des étudiants

Abstract

Having defined the national and local context on the evolution of the entrepreneurship with the public students we shall point, what makes the originality of this teaching to the university of Reims Champagne-Ardenne. Several conceptions of this teaching seem to oppose in the various trainings on the contents, the frame, accompaniment of the students

Mots clés

Entrepreneuriat; Approches pédagogiques; Étudiant entrepreneur

Keywords

Entrepreneurship; Educational approaches; Studying entrepreneur

1. Introduction

L'activité d'entreprendre est singulière. Elle renvoie fréquemment à une image idéalisée d'un acteur indépendant, actif, recherchant une forte autonomie. Cette représentation de l'entrepreneur a évolué ces dernières années, elle devient plus complexe et moins individualiste. L'image de l'entrepreneur est comprise comme un état d'esprit autour de l'entrepreneuriat, la création, l'innovation comme on le trouve par exemple dans les « start-up ». Mais elle est de plus en plus empreinte de valeurs et d'intentions sociétales, écologiques solidaires, comme on peut le voir par exemple dans le développement de l'entrepreneuriat social et solidaire (Hély, 2013). Sont défendus et développés des modèles économiques, d'organisation du travail où peuvent-être valorisées certaines valeurs plutôt que d'autres (Boncler, Hlady-Rispal, Verstraete, 2006). On peut pourtant synthétiser la démarche de création ou de reprise d'entreprise autour de différents axes: innover au regard d'un produit ou d'un service développé, participer à la croissance en fonction d'un modèle économique choisi, créer des organisations et des manières de travailler, défendre des valeurs. Selon les définitions de l'entrepreneuriat elles peuvent aujourd'hui recouvrir plusieurs acceptions: « création et reprise d'entreprise, intrapreneuriat, auto-entrepreneur et profession libérale, entrepreneuriat social et univers des organisations non lucratives. » (Boissin, Shieb-Bienfait, 2011).

Ces différents axes seront très vite confrontés à la réalité des marchés économiques qui au-delà de l'intention de ces étudiants les renverront à la faisabilité des projets et leur viabilité dans le temps. Toutefois les enquêtes auprès des jeunes créateurs montrent que bien souvent, a posteriori, ils considèrent l'entrepreneuriat comme un « vrai métier » (Fayolle, Gailly, 2009). Que signifie cette expression de « vrai métier »? Que dit cette expression sur la formation de ces jeunes entrepreneurs? L'entrepreneuriat serait une activité tellement complexe et diversifiée que la notion d'unité ou d'identité de métier ne fait pas partie a priori de l'imaginaire de ces étudiants? Que révèle-telle de la professionnalisation proposée dans les formations? Vaste question à laquelle nous répondrons que partiellement en axant notre analyse sur la conception des formations proposées à l'Université de Reims Champagne Ardenne, tant du point de vue de leur place dans l'offre de formation, de leur contenu et des intentions qui les traversent.

2. Le contexte français et l'entrepreneuriat dans la formation à l'URCA

On peut souligner que la France en matière d'enseignement à l'entrepreneuriat a un certain retard. Cependant ce retard se comble depuis la loi d'autonomie de l'université. La loi ESR du 22 juillet 2013 dans son article 31 invite à rendre obligatoire un module de sensibilisation à l'entrepreneuriat au niveau L à hauteur d'une vingtaine d'heures pour chaque formation.

Cette loi insiste sur trois leviers pour développer l'entrepreneuriat au sein de l'Université:

- L'introduction de l'entrepreneuriat dans toutes les filières et à tous les niveaux (LMD),
- Le statut d'étudiant entrepreneur qui s'adresse à un étudiant ou jeune diplômé qui entreprend pendant ou après ses études. Il bénéficiera du maintien du statut étudiant notamment en ce qui concerne sa protection sociale,
- La mise en place d'une formation à l'entrepreneuriat via un diplôme universitaire et pourra bénéficier des infrastructures mises à disposition par l'université (locaux, réseaux, manifestations autour de l'entrepreneuriat),
- Il pourra consacrer son temps de « stage » de fin de cursus, court ou long, à son projet de création d'entreprise qui sera reconnu dans l'attribution du diplôme et il pourra bénéficier des infrastructures mises à disposition par l'université (locaux, réseaux, manifestations autour de l'entrepreneuriat).

Cette évolution vise tout à la fois une sensibilisation à la culture de l'entrepreneuriat et de l'innovation au même niveau qu'un autre module de formation. Elle participe à l'accompagnement à la création de projets. On peut noter dans le texte de loi le lien réalisé entre l'entrepreneuriat et l'innovation, invitant à accentuer le transfert d'innovation vers la

création d'entreprises ou les entreprises en général. Les liens avec les débouchés de la recherche sont ici clairement favorisés. De ce fait l'approche actuelle reprend la philosophie du traité de Lisbonne de développement de plusieurs types d'entrepreneuriat, dont l'innovation appelle à des systèmes de coopération entre différentes catégories d'acteurs.

Ce texte du Ministère a clairement vocation ne pas laisser les Universités de côté en ce qui concerne la création d'entreprises où les écoles, notamment de commerce, de management, de gestion, ont développé un savoir-faire depuis de nombreuses années. Mais plus encore l'enjeu et la particularité de l'Université est de clairement lier l'entrepreneuriat avec les innovations issues de la recherche scientifique. Si ces évolutions existent pour les sciences exactes tout un pan reste à explorer pour les sciences humaines. Les initiatives en matière d'économie sociale et solidaire particulièrement marquées à Reims sont un exemple prometteur.

Pour ce faire l'Université de Reims a depuis 2007 développé un certain nombre d'actions à un niveau transversal à l'université.

- La nomination d'un ingénieur de recherche, réponse à des appels d'offre au niveau national pour lancer des projets de suivi et d'incubation de projets. Aujourd'hui au sein de l'URCA plusieurs dispositifs se développent:
- L'université de Reims Champagne Ardenne participe au programme Nationale lancé par le ministère de l'enseignement supérieur PEPITE Pôles Etudiants pour l'Innovation, le Transfert et l'Entrepreneuriat avec la région Champagne-Ardenne et l'école supérieure de Commerce (Néoma), la chambre de commerce et d'industrie, notamment.

Elle a mis en place un dispositif Potentiel qui comprend trois volets d'actions

1. La sensibilisation et la découverte de l'entrepreneuriat
2. Des formations actions
3. De l'accompagnement de projets

Un concours « défi étudiants » où les meilleurs projets sont recomposés et accompagnés (45 projets accompagnés – 10 créations d'entreprise en moyenne).

Nous reviendrons en détails sur ces propositions.

Mais par ailleurs plusieurs formations ayant un lien direct avec l'entrepreneuriat existent. En effet, depuis une dizaine d'années les offres de formation se diversifient en matière d'approche de l'entrepreneuriat. On peut penser que l'université ces dernières années a développé cet enseignement et ce pour diverses raisons. La première serait un aspect conjoncturel lié à l'économie de la Région. La seconde relève d'initiative d'enseignants chercheurs qui ont favorisé certaines approches comme la thématique de l'économie sociale et solidaire ou des réflexions sur les modèles économiques et organisationnels de ce type d'entreprises.

De fait l'enseignement à l'entrepreneuriat se concentre à l'université de Reims Champagne Ardenne sur plusieurs catégories de formations. Nous pouvons relever plusieurs initiatives comme:

- Des Unités d'enseignement dont pour les doctorants – 25 h
- UV en droit - plus de 130 inscrits
- DU Créa (nous reviendrons en détails sur ce diplôme)
- La licence professionnelle administration et gestion des entreprises de l'économie sociale et solidaire

Le programme de cette licence professionnelle est construit selon un schéma d'enseignement ciblé sur les entreprises du secteur de l'économie sociale et solidaire. La notion d'entrepreneuriat y est développée de manière complémentaire au travers d'enseignement concernant l'analyse des organisations et des domaines juridiques spécifiques (droit des

affaires, droit social et du travail). Un volet important est consacré à la dimension comptable et financière de l'entreprise. Enfin un volet management d'équipe est longuement évoqué. Les étudiants de cette licence en 2012 sont massivement en emploi mais aucun n'est entrepreneur.

- Master Entrepreneuriat et innovation (nous reviendrons en détails sur ce diplôme)
- Master Administration des entreprises

Master généraliste qui a vocation de former des gestionnaires et cadres d'entreprises mais dont la vocation est également de former des créateurs, repreneurs d'entreprises. Des cours généraux couvrant tous les domaines de la gestion (RH, Qualité), finance, comptabilité, marketing, droit sont dispensés. La gestion d'un business plan, de projet et des jeux de négociation sont mis en avant.

- Master 2 Management des entreprise de l'économie sociale et solidaire

Il a pour vocation de former des cadres des entreprises du secteur de l'économie sociale et solidaire. Ce master est une formation en alternance. L'enseignement est découpé entre la connaissance du contexte associatif, des cours généraux de gestion et de droit. Des enseignements relevant de la négociation et de la gestion de conflit, technique de médiation, et communication. La gestion de projet et la gestion d'équipe sont mises en avant. Les étudiants rendent un rapport de stage et un mémoire.

3. L'enseignement de l'entrepreneuriat à L'université de Reims: des réalités en tension

Au regard de cette offre de formation variée, nous allons maintenant revenir sur les spécificités de trois d'entre elles. Nous allons précisément détailler la conception, le contenu et les publics, la vocation du DU Créa, du master entrepreneuriat et innovation et du dispositif Potentiel pour nous rendre compte de points communs et de fortes divergences. Ces divergences concernent les objectifs des formations et les valeurs qui les sous-tendent. Ceci impacte de fait les contenus et leur philosophie. Ces initiatives révèlent toutes de la difficulté que ces formations ont à faire le lien entre la finalité de la formation à l'entrepreneuriat et l'insertion professionnelle. On suppose que les diplômés vont réussir une création effective et durable d'une entreprise ou d'une reprise d'entreprise ce qui en définitive est peu le cas. De fait dans ce type de formation l'évaluation devient centrale. Évalue-t-on la maîtrise de contenus théoriques et/ou techniques ou la pertinence d'un projet et sa faisabilité. Comment l'accompagne-t-on? Quelles sont les formes de professionnalisation ici mises en avant? Doivent-elles déboucher sur la création d'entreprise, ou est-ce une professionnalisation qui peut amener à diverses futures activités professionnelles?

3.1 LE DU CREA cible la création de l'emploi

Ce diplôme s'adresse à un public en difficulté par rapport à l'emploi. C'est un diplôme géré par la formation continue de l'IUT de Reims. Ce DU s'adresse à un public spécifique porteur d'un projet de créer ou de reprendre une entreprise et peut concerner des demandeurs d'emploi.

Le diplôme existe depuis une dizaine d'années, le porteur de celui-ci est fortement influencé par les modèles anglo-saxons des universités de Mac Gill ou de l'UQAM qui développent l'entrepreneuriat bien plus précocement, à même hauteur que d'autres enseignements au sein des écoles et des universités. Cette formation a comme caractéristiques de donner tous les outils techniques et appliqués en matière de créateur ou de repreneur d'entreprise. Les enseignements sont exclusivement pris en charge par des professionnels tous chefs d'entreprise, spécialisés dans une partie du montage du projet soit en ce qui concerne l'aspect plutôt juridique, économique, gestionnaire, financier, comptable, communicationnel, Cette formation s'adresse à des personnes qui ont un projet viable et non pas à ceux qu'ils veulent se former dans l'absolu. Cependant cette formation est fondée sur le principe de la traduction tel que l'on peut l'appréhender chez Michel Callon et Bruno Latour, (Akrich, Callon, Latour, 2006) dans le sens où toutes les composantes professionnelles sont capables de se comprendre

mutuellement et de construire un langage commun au service d'un projet. C'est bien la traduction de l'enjeu commun qui va faire se compléter les interventions et construire un réseau de partenaires. Les professionnels agissent alors comme garant de la démarche, tout à la fois évaluateur de la faisabilité du projet et apportant un réseau facilitant sa mise en place.

Le planning se construit autour de trois jours d'enseignement et deux jours consacrés au projet en lui-même.

La construction de ce diplôme universitaire se décline autour de 5 axes.

- Le premier concerne la démarche entrepreneuriale, la prise de risque et un volet relatif à la communication.
- Un deuxième volet appréhende l'organisation de l'entreprise, tant du point de vue juridique, que de son administration.
- Un troisième volet examine la gestion financière et comptable.
- Un quatrième volet aborde la démarche commerciale, le repérage du marché, la clientèle, la politique de l'offre, le plan commercial.
- Un cinquième volet traite de la méthodologie de gestion du projet. Elle préconise la construction du projet en abordant trois étapes clés:
 - validation du projet
 - validation de la construction du plan d'action
 - validation des conditions de mise en œuvre et du suivi

Ces différentes approches sont validées par des mises en situation et des passages devant des jurys de professionnels spécialistes des questions à traiter. De plus l'approche pédagogique est fondée sur l'analyse de situations problèmes. Par exemple le comptable viendra avec un problème à résoudre, le RH idem, etc... les étudiants sont mis devant des exemples réels et concrets auxquels ils doivent apporter des solutions.

La pédagogie renforce la mise en situation, l'analyse de l'activité. La vidéo est souvent utilisée. Elle l'est également dans une dimension psychologie sociale sur l'aspect comportemental appréhendant la relation à l'autre selon les situations. L'éthique et la professionnalité sont travaillées dans cette formation par des coachs comportementalistes.

La pédagogie relève par ailleurs de savoirs académiques. Cette approche des fondamentaux mélangés d'éléments techniques font référence à des exemples d'anciens, qui ont suivi la formation au préalable, dans le but d'analyser leur manière d'établir leur projet au regard de contextes complexes. Par ailleurs, le porteur de la formation a su développer un réseau important de professionnels permettant de soutenir la démarche des étudiants. Des liens avec les organismes locaux sont favorisés comme notamment la chambre de commerce et des métiers.

L'évaluation de cette formation est fondée sur deux niveaux d'évaluation. Si la faisabilité du projet est un élément central de la notation, la maîtrise des outils pour y arriver l'est tout autant. Ainsi la notation se réalise tout à la fois sur la maîtrise des outils qui ont été dispensés en cours mais la note principale est donnée après la présentation du projet. Cette soutenance se réalise devant tous les professionnels qui ont participé à la formation, expert d'une dimension du projet.

La formation est fondée sur la démarche entrepreneuriale et sa faisabilité, plus que sur un coup de génie d'une personne. Plusieurs professionnels évaluent au-delà de la viabilité du projet, sa maturité dans les phases de construction. Il doit être cohérent dans son ensemble, ne pas montrer des points plus fragiles. Un projet qui est viable aura toutes les chances d'être financé.

« ce n'est pas ceux qui suivent une formation qui sont les meilleurs créateurs »
(directeur de la formation)

Le public est très varié en âge et en niveau de diplôme. Dans cette formation le taux de réussite à savoir des personnes qui vont réussir à créer pour reprendre une entreprise viable sur le long terme avoisine les 50 %. Le taux de réussite de création est le plus important pour les bac+2/3, car ce type de public détient plusieurs compétences très appliquées. Mais force est de constater que pour ceux qui n'y arrivent pas, la reconversion est facilitée par cette démarche de création d'entreprise valorisée dans le Curriculum Vitae. En effet, le profil de créateur, amène des compétences recherchées par les entreprises. Ces derniers ont pu trouver à la suite de la formation des postes d'envergure importante. Les niveaux les plus élevés de formation ont des qualités d'innovateur (ingénieur, docteur) mais n'ont pas toujours les qualités managériales, relationnelles, comportementales nécessaires au bon développement d'une entreprise. Mais le suivi des sortants de la formation montre que ce type de profil retrouve rapidement du travail car ils ont un potentiel important d'innovation qui intéresse les entreprises.

3.2 Le Master créateur d'entreprise une vision sociale de l'entrepreneuriat

Si l'on analyse maintenant la philosophie du master entrepreneuriat et innovation on observe une intention de formation très différente alors que l'on retrouve des similitudes dans les outils et les méthodes enseignés aux étudiants.

C'est un master qui se réalise sur une année (M2), il a été mis en place à la rentrée 2005. Il s'adresse aussi bien à l'entrepreneuriat privé, public ou associatif, ce qui de prime abord peut paraître contradictoire. La démarche et la philosophie de ce master s'inscrivent en faux par rapport à l'image de l'entrepreneur du secteur marchand et lucratif pour explorer d'autres figures de l'entrepreneuriat, notamment celui du développement local. L'innovation est ici à comprendre comme un processus collectif en lien avec le développement local à moyen-long termes. Cette philosophie de l'entrepreneuriat tournée vers les administrations et les associations reste pourtant difficile à défendre et à mettre en œuvre. Le porteur du projet de la formation incite à replacer le questionnement de l'utilité sociale de l'entrepreneuriat et la place du développement dans cette approche. Ce master dans sa philosophie privilégie la mise en réseau innovante où la complémentarité et la non concurrence des compétences viennent soutenir un projet. Ce qui signifie qu'il y a un partage de ressources dans le but de développer une vision commune de la démarche du projet.

Il est réfléchi sur une conception économique de développement local et d'innovation. La vocation de la formation n'est pas forcément de former des entrepreneurs au sens libéral du terme mais de former des personnes capables de porter et développer des projets qui peuvent émaner de structures publiques. Les profils de chargés de missions ou de projets sont privilégiés ici. C'est pourquoi le master est fondé sur une base importante d'une culture générale socio-économique et de la maîtrise de stratégies. De fait des enseignements comme le développement local sont imposés. La veille stratégique et l'innovation se réalise à hauteur d'un territoire, de ses contraintes et de ses opportunités (Nieddu, 2006).

L'enseignement se découpe en quatre volets

- Un premier volet concerne des cours théoriques sur l'économie, le management de l'innovation, le développement territorial,
- Un second volet aborde l'enseignement de l'environnement juridique et fiscal de l'entrepreneuriat afin de donner des outils aux étudiants,
- Un troisième volet traite du montage du projet et du management de celui-ci avec des conseils de professionnels et des évaluations de professionnels. Des jeux d'entreprise sont mobilisés sur la dimension de l'incertain et du non fixe propre au projet d'entreprise nouvelle.
- Un dernier volet est fondé sur l'expérience et un retour sur celle-ci. Il se compose d'un stage et d'un rapport de stage qui fonde une expérience soit dans une structure ou auprès d'entrepreneurs. Un mémoire de recherche est exigé, il est axé sur un travail bibliographique afin de donner des outils théoriques pour une réflexivité sur le stage.

L'équipe de formateurs est mixte entre des enseignants chercheurs et des professionnels. Elle nécessite beaucoup de réseaux de la part des porteurs de projet, une visibilité de la sphère socio-économique locale. La démarche projet et l'accompagnement sont développés, soutenus par des outils disponibles à l'université ou dans les chambres de commerce ou des pépinières d'entreprise.

Ce master reste atypique dans l'offre de la formation par sa visibilité floue et par une motivation des étudiants à s'y orienter diverse au regard des valeurs portées par l'équipe pédagogique.

3.3 Le dispositif potentiel fondé sur une philosophie de l'innovation

Le dispositif Potentiel repose sur une autre conception de l'entrepreneuriat. Celui-ci est considéré comme un enseignement transversal, ou encore une forme de culture au cœur d'autres enseignements. Là encore les approches anglo-saxonnes sont privilégiées dans le sens où l'entrepreneuriat est considéré comme une culture et doit s'enseigner à tous les niveaux de la formation (Fayolle, 2011). L'étudiant entrepreneur est considéré comme un étudiant sportif de haut niveau ; il doit pouvoir dégager du temps pour son projet tout en n'étant pas pénalisé dans le suivi de sa formation. L'équivalent d'un temps de stage pourra être consacré à un projet d'entrepreneuriat.

« C'est un projet de vie que l'on accompagne » (Porteur du dispositif Potentiel)

Dans ce dispositif une série d'interventions sont centrées sur la découverte de l'entrepreneuriat et la vocation de faire réfléchir les étudiants sur cette possibilité qui leur est offerte.

Si la création d'entreprise est visée, elle privilégie plusieurs axes :

Elle veut rendre visible les actions de l'université envers l'entrepreneuriat et donner envie aux étudiants de s'y intéresser, voire de s'y engager. Ce dispositif montre également les compétences que peut développer l'université pour ce type d'approche face en France aux écoles de commerce et de gestion.

La démarche du dispositif Potentiel privilégie par ailleurs le travail en commun et la mutualisation de compétences. Au travers de moments de rencontre, d'espace de co-working, l'échange et la complémentarité de compétences sont renforcés. La conception veut mettre en relations des étudiants de spécialités différentes, afin de favoriser l'innovation et des transferts de compétences notamment avec les fruits de la recherche scientifique. Mais cette conception reste dans les projets que nous avons pu voir relativement limitée. Là encore la dimension collective a du mal à se partager et les projets restent fortement ancrés dans un modèle économique libéral et individuel.

La réalité des publics auxquels sont destinées ces formations est au centre des approches pédagogiques et sous-tend leur conception. Elles s'adressent soit à des étudiants qui ont un projet et ont besoin d'encadrement pour le réaliser ou d'autres qui ont besoin de formes de sensibilisation à ce type de démarche. On retrouve plusieurs cas de figures entre des étudiants qui vont effectivement développer leur entreprise -qui restent encore une minorité- et ceux qui vont se servir de cette opportunité comme approche plus globale de développement culturel, ou une collaboration momentanée à un projet, ou une ouverture d'esprit sur un monde changeant.

La mise en place d'un incubateur par la création d'un espace de travail pour les étudiants de co-working et de conseils dédiés est en cours de réalisation.

Ce dispositif est fondé sur des modules de formation, la méthode du business model Canvas est enseignée, elle permet d'évaluer l'environnement dynamique et stratégique d'un projet. La démarche se construit en partant des possibilités liées à l'environnement pour adapter un projet. La méthodologie se veut aménageable selon le porteur, elle s'adapte à l'évolution du projet.

Mais surtout ce dispositif axe son action sur la mise en réseau.

- Réseaux d'experts conventionnés – prêts à taux zéro
- Rencontres et possibilités de mises à disposition de professionnels dans certains secteurs (comptable, bancaire, juridique)
- Co-working – travail collaboratif souvent dans le même espace – ce qui permet de croiser et compléter des compétences.
- Ateliers créatifs,
- Soirée Pitch – présentation en quelques minutes de son projet – permet des rencontres entre porteurs de projets et des business angels. L'esprit de réseaux est également important dans ces manifestations.
- Défi étudiant: manifestation sur plusieurs jours où les porteurs de projets sont en concurrence pour un prix et se préparent à présenter leur projet. Puis les étudiants seuls ou en groupes exposent leurs projets devant un jury d'experts (directeur de pépinière ou d'incubateur d'entreprises, experts-comptables, avocats, banquiers, conseils, entrepreneurs, business angels, investisseurs...), ils ont bénéficié d'ateliers de préparation à cet exercice. Beaucoup de coaching, de cours de communication sont donnés, les instructeurs utilisent la vidéo, la réflexivité sur les présentations. Ce défi étudiant renvoie à des modèles enseignés déjà expérimentés en France dans des écoles dont certains chercheurs ont montré le relatif effet sur la création réelle d'entreprise (Arlotto, 2012).

C'est également le moment où les porteurs de projets qui ont besoin de compétences peuvent démarcher et construire un réseau. Ces rencontres sont inter établissements, ce qui permet également de croiser des étudiants d'origine différente (université, école de commerce, de gestion) et de niveaux de diplômes différents (LMD).

La conception de ce type d'enseignement et d'encadrements se veut « à la carte » et doit répondre aux besoins des étudiants en fonction de l'avancement du projet et de sa faisabilité.

L'originalité de ce dispositif est la diversité de mise au défi collectif où la mise en concurrence joue comme une forme de socialisation des attendus de l'entrepreneur. Si il crée cet esprit de compétition il n'en reste pas moins qu'il crée également de l'esprit de corps entre ces futurs entrepreneurs.

Tableaux 1.
Profil des formations

Formation	Objectif	Types d'enseignement	Equipe	Public
DU Créa	Trouver un emploi	Technique Professionnel Construction du business plan	Professionnels Réseaux	Hétérogène (âge, parcours, formation)
Master	Création d'entreprise et cadres d'entreprise	Théorique, conception éco/ gestion / droit Rencontre professionnel Recherche	Mixte Enseignants chercheurs Professionnels	Homogène Etudiants ayant suivi des cursus éco –gestion –droit -comptabilité
Potentiel	Sensibiliser, accompagner Création entreprise	Co-working, coaching, Défi étudiants Mise à disposition de professionnels conseils Esprit de corps	Professionnels Réseaux	Pluriel Spécialités différentes BTS IUT LP Master Ecoles de commerce

Tableaux 2.

Point de convergence et de divergence des formations

Formations	Points communs	Point de divergence	Commentaire
Du Créa	- Beaucoup de professionnels qui amènent un conseil aux porteurs de projets.	Vision individuelle de l'entrepreneuriat. Formation qui donne beaucoup d'outils techniques Réseau professionnel et d'anciens	Modèle économique marchand Vision sociale d'insertion
Master	- Suivi des porteurs de projets - Mise en situation face aux professionnels (juristes, comptables, banquiers, entrepreneurs ...)	Vision collective, de développement local Cours magistraux sur le développement local et une vision de développement durable de l'innovation	Modèle économique non marchand - orienté conseil au développement local
Potentiel	- Structures qui viennent soutenir (incubateur, pépinière d'entreprises) - Compétences comportementales	Coaching plus marqué, compétences comportementales poussées. Entrepreneuriat comme éléments de défi entre jeune porteurs Esprit de corps	Modèle économique marchand

4. En guise de conclusion

La création des diplômes est très clairement, dans le cas de l'Université de Reims Champagne Ardenne, liée à l'existence de personnes qui ont pris en charge cet enseignement dans une conception et une philosophie particulières.

L'approche de l'innovation se réalise au travers des conceptions ou philosophie de l'entrepreneuriat dont le master entrepreneuriat et innovation tente de développer des projets d'envergure locale avec des répercussions collectives voulant très clairement trancher avec une conception individualiste d'enrichissement de la personne. Au regard de l'expérience de l'université de Reims Champagne Ardenne des philosophies et des conceptions économiques du modèle entrepreneurial sont en tension entre une vision sociale, économique ou de développement.

Cependant les liens entre l'innovation issue de la recherche et sa mise en application dans des formes d'entrepreneuriat sont encore à développer et restent faibles. C'est certainement dû également à une dynamique manquante d'enseignants sur cette question, même si à Reims certains chercheurs en gestion sont spécialisés sur cette question (Hernandez, 2001).

En revanche les innovations pédagogiques, le développement des mises en situation de la réflexivité sur celle-ci sont fortement utilisées, c'est un point commun de ces formations. Tout comme le développement de compétences comportementales est développé par des mises en situation ou des formes de coaching.

Cependant les tensions entre projet individuel ou collectif sont encore vives tout comme les retombées individuelles et collectives de ces projets, mais ceci pourra faire l'objet de recherche plus approfondie sur la question.

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Present and future of social entrepreneurship: alternatives theories and research

Presente y futuro del emprendimiento social: teorías e investigaciones alternativas

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 04 de junio de 2014

Fecha de revisión: 25 de marzo de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 09 de julio de 2015

García, I. (2015). Present and future of social entrepreneurship: alternative theories and research. *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 87–100.



Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

ISSN 1989 – 9572

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Present and future of social entrepreneurship: alternative theories and research

Presente y futuro del emprendimiento social: teorías e investigaciones alternativas

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Abstract

The process of creating new value is central to the field of entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurship has led to an emerging stream of research that is of interest to researchers and academics in management, strategic management, and entrepreneurship. To understand theories on social entrepreneurship, two internally consistent theories are presented describing how entrepreneurial opportunities are formed, and the discovery theory and creation theory are described. The implications of these theories are listed, along with a discussion of some of their broader theoretical implications for the fields of entrepreneurship and strategic management. Within the field of social entrepreneurship an emerging area of investigation can be found in the entrepreneurship and not-for-profit marketing literatures. A review of the literature in a number of domains reveals that it is fragmented and that there is no coherent theoretical framework. In particular, current conceptualizations of social entrepreneurship fail to adequately consider the unique characteristics of social entrepreneurs and the context within which they must operate. This paper addresses the implications for social entrepreneurship theory and management practice, and discusses policy directions.

Resumen

El proceso de la nueva creación de valor es fundamental en el campo de la iniciativa empresarial. El emprendimiento social ha dado lugar a una corriente de investigación emergente de interés para los investigadores y estudiosos de la gestión estratégica, y el espíritu empresarial. Para entender las teorías sobre el emprendedor social, se presentan dos internamente consistentes de cómo se forman las oportunidades empresariales, se describen la teoría del descubrimiento y de la creación. Es un área emergente de investigación dentro de la iniciativa empresarial y sin fines de lucro. Una revisión de la literatura emergente revela que no existe un marco teórico coherente. Específicamente las conceptualizaciones actuales de emprendimiento social no tienen en cuenta de manera adecuada las características únicas de los emprendedores sociales y el contexto en el que deben operar, en esta comunicación se abordan las implicaciones para la teoría emprendimiento social así como las políticas a seguir.

Keywords

Entrepreneurship theory; Discovery theory; Creation theory; Social enterprise

Palabras clave

Teoría del emprendimiento; Teoría del descubrimiento; Teoría de la creación; Emprendedor social

1. Introduction

Dictionaries tell us that the etymology of the word entrepreneur derives from the French verb *entreprendre* and the German word *unternehmen*, both of which translate as 'to undertake' (Carton et al. 1998). This dictionary definition of entrepreneurship may be adequate for general communication but not for research and policy formulation. Operational definitions, on the other hand, specify the characteristics of physical objects (e.g. a machine tool) or highly abstract objects (e.g. achievement motivation) and how such characteristics are to be observed, and are therefore more useful in research (Cooper and Schindler, 2003).

Social sector leaders will exemplify these characteristics in different ways and to different degrees. The closer a person gets to satisfying all these conditions, the more that person fits the model of a social entrepreneur. Those who are more innovative in their work and who create more significant social improvements will naturally be seen as more entrepreneurial.

The main purpose of this study is to review entrepreneurship literature. The paper defines and explores the origins of the word "*entrepreneur*" and looks back at the past. The first section develops a theoretical framework to improve understanding of entrepreneurial theories. The second section discusses the main strengths of the theories from a teleological point of view – discovery and creation– and seeks to explain these entrepreneurial actions in terms of their impact on the ability of entrepreneurs to create and exploit opportunities. Most theories on the entrepreneur are characterized by two suppositions. Firstly, entrepreneurship is a "*good*" thing, with beneficial outcomes for the structure or system in which it occurs. Secondly, entrepreneurship is observable as a behavior that can be attributed to some definitive theoretical attribute capable of differentiating the entrepreneur (actor) from the non-entrepreneur (non-actor).

We begin by analyzing the different contributions to the theory of the entrepreneur to uncover some common theoretical insights: epistemological, philosophical and psychological evidence from the literature portrays the entrepreneurial spirit using similar conceptualizations of the preventive role of uncertainty in entrepreneurial action (Sommer and Haug, 2011). We then go on to provide an interpretation of the different entrepreneurial theories. Finally, a pragmatic and a conceptual approach to the difficult task of reconciling contentious philosophical perspectives is put forth.

This study is based on information taken from the literature on entrepreneurship theory. The sources used were databases, PsycINFO, and Stanford University Entrepreneurship Research, among other bases from several European and American universities. Therefore, it is a qualitative approach with an analysis characterized by a conceptual analytical discussion.

2. Origins of the word "*entrepreneur*". A look back at the past

The word entrepreneur is always connected with starting a business, but this is a poor application of a term that has a very rich history and a much more significant meaning. Historical perspectives have played a role in the theoretical development of entrepreneurship since the very start of the concept. As mentioned previously, the word entrepreneur originated in French economics as early as the 17th and 18th centuries. More specifically, it came to be used to identify audacious individuals who stimulated economic progress by finding new and better ways of doing things. The French verb *entreprendre*, meaning 'to undertake', was originally translated from the German verb *unternehmen*, which has the same meaning. It denotes someone who "*undertakes*" or launches a significant project or activity.

As Martin and Osberg (2007) explain, Jean Baptiste Say (JBS) was a French economist writing at the turn of the 19th century, and commonly credited with giving the term this particular meaning. JBS (1803) had classical liberal views and was an advocate of competition, free trade, and lifting restraints on business, and provided two examples:

1. He used the rapid rise of the eighteenth-century English textile industry over the earlier dominance of Belgian woolens and German cotton products to develop the theoretical distinction between “*scientific*” ability and “*entrepreneurial*” skill (which he defined as combining production factors) and to argue that the supply of entrepreneurship was critical in determining the wealth and growth of a nation’s economy.
2. Likewise, he used the example of the introduction of tea as a commodity in the seventeenth-century, which contributed to extending Dutch trade with China.

During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries the notion of entrepreneurship was not employed. In the works of Adam Smith and David Ricardo there was no distinctive role for entrepreneurship, not even in the sense of pulling production factors together, as JBS had. “*Entrepreneurship*” was finally reintroduced into economic theory in the second half of the nineteenth century by Mill, Say, Amasa and Walker, Marshall, Knight and others (Hébert and Link, 2009).

Initially, there was a tendency to conceive it primarily as a managerial function, and the dynamic and innovative connotations that the term has today were not present. Mill (1848) describes entrepreneurship as the “*labour and skill required for superintendence*”. Say (1855) defines entrepreneurship as the act of combining production factors. Knight described it as successful new combinations that disrupted market equilibrium and the source of “*entrepreneurial profits*” (Jones and Wadhvani, 2006).

It is relevant to this paper that social and scientific research into entrepreneurship focused not only on entrepreneurs and their firms, but also on the structure of and changes in the industries, markets, societies, economies, and the political systems in which they operated. Most researchers worked to understand how historical context and social structure shaped the emergence, amount, and character of entrepreneurship within a particular national setting.

The research found that entrepreneurship varied significantly over time and place and was essentially determined by historical and social context (Landes, 1949; Ranis, 1950; Cochran, 1953; Kellenbenz, 1953-4; Sawyer, 1954; Parker, 1954; Landes, 1958; Cochran, 1959; Morris, 1967; Yamamura, 1968; Sass, 1978 mentioned by Jones and Wadhvani (2006). By the 1960s, however, this stream of research was losing momentum among historians.

At the same time that American business historians were shifting their attention from entrepreneurship to organizations, social scientists interested in the subject were embracing a comparative-historical approach in a series of large-scale studies designed to scientifically identify and analyze the key traits or roles associated with entrepreneurship in modern societies.

As a result, historical research on entrepreneurship continued to flourish in the 1960s and 1970s, primarily in the work of sociologists, psychologists, and heterodox economists. Most of the landmark entrepreneurship studies of this era embraced comparative-historical methods as essential to the study of entrepreneurship. Jones and Wadhvani (2006) provided the following examples:

- McClelland’s *The Achieving Society* examined the levels of his achievement orientation indicator over long stretches of historical time.
- Hagen’s *On the Theory of Social Change* analyzed the historical emergence of innovation and technological creativity in England, Japan, Colombia, and Burma (Hagen, 1962)
- Wilken’s comparative study of entrepreneurship delved even further into the histories of Great Britain, France, Germany, Japan, the United States, and Russia (Wilken, 1979).
- Moreover, for the first time, the social scientific research of this era explored the historical record on entrepreneurship in the developing regions of Africa, Latin America, and Asia (Kilby, 1971; Leff, 1979).

This historical approach to research in the 1960s and 1970s was largely an extension of the sociological approach to entrepreneurial history that Jenks and Cochran had developed two decades earlier. On the whole, most researchers continued to view entrepreneurial behavior as determined by one's social environment.

However, unlike the earlier work, the social scientific research of the 1960s and 1970s was shaped by a narrower conception of historical context; it focused on identifying specific traits or personalities that were considered markers of a distinctively "modern" outlook. The older historical literature sought to understand the substantial variations in entrepreneurship caused by historical and institutional contexts.

In contrast, the newer social scientific work searched for what were believed to be modal traits and personalities that distinguished modern societies from pre-modern ones. Sociologists, for instance, focused on theories that considered the role of social norms and legitimacy as well as social mobility in understanding the supply of entrepreneurship in a society (Parsons and Smelser, 1956; Hoselitz, 1957; Katzin, 1964; Lipset, 1967; Marris and Somerset, 1969; Wilken, 1979 mentioned by Jones and Wadhvani (2006). Psychologists focused on such factors as the achievement-orientation and status-orientation of individuals within a population to consider their likelihood of engaging in entrepreneurial behavior (McClelland, 1961; Hagen, 1963; McClelland, 1965; Hagen, 1967; McClelland and Winter, 1971 mentioned by Jones and Wadhvani, (2006). In each case, researchers indicated the trait, personality or orientation as uniquely modern.

The formal economic theory presenting the concept of entrepreneur and entrepreneurship is first recognized in the essays of Cantillon (1734), who described the entrepreneur as an agent who purchased the means of production for combination into marketable products (Gedeon, 2010). Cantillon refers to this individual as an 'undertaker,' acknowledging that such a person undertook or managed large scale projects and acted as a go-between in sizeable transactions (Kumar, 2010).

The entrepreneur was any individual who was self-employed and did not directly work in a production process. The author therefore makes a clear distinction between the capitalist and the entrepreneur. He also included beggars and thieves in his definition of entrepreneurs, as they were not working for an employer and therefore faced economic uncertainty. From Cantillon's early description we can visualize many of the characteristics and qualities later theorists would focus on in an attempt to define more accurately what an entrepreneur was and how they engaged in economic activity (Martin, 2004).

It was found that the disappearance of entrepreneurship from economic debate has a long history. Smith (1776), in the *Wealth of Nations*, clearly separates the functions of the capitalist from those of the manager, emphasizing the fact that the profits accumulated by the capitalist excluded the wage paid to management, citing these as payment for the labor of inspection and direction.

2.1. Definition of entrepreneurship

Dees (1998) considers that Schumpeter, who was most closely associated with the term in the 20th century, described entrepreneurs as the innovators who drive the "creative-destructive" process of capitalism. In addition, von Mises (1949) stated that it was the entrepreneur who determined the course of production in a society's economic organization. Hébert and Link (2009) said of von Mises that he recognized that the key to entrepreneurial profit was the decision-making capacity of the entrepreneur. Whereas there are numerous operational definitions of entrepreneurship in literature, there are broadly speaking only two plausible approaches to defining it operationally:

1. Psychological approach
2. Behavioral approach

Carton, Hofer, and Meeks. (1998) defined the psychological approach as asking who the entrepreneurs are, observing them, and then defining entrepreneurship inductively based on their characteristics as persons and on what they do as entrepreneurs. This approach is also referred to as the trait approach, and it tries to establish a causal link between the characteristics of entrepreneurs and their actions.

Past empirical research and literature cite the following characteristics of behavioral entrepreneurs: the need for independence; locus of control; propensity for taking risk; creativity and innovation. These characteristics involve the individual's mindset and include self-confidence, persistence, passion, and the desire to achieve. They also depend on opportunities, society and the individual's background. Entrepreneurs are not necessarily born with these characteristics, but can acquire them through life experiences.

The psychological aspect is only part of the process; skills and the environment are also necessary. The psychological approach is useful in bringing to the fore the pertinent point that entrepreneurial abilities can be directly developed by education, training, and experience, which provide the competencies, knowledge and skills required to carry out all or part of the entrepreneurial process.

The behavioral approach is to ask what the entrepreneurial activity is, and then to define entrepreneurs as those who engage in such an activity. This approach focuses on the entrepreneurial process and not on the characteristics of the entrepreneur (Carton et al. 1998). Following the entrepreneurial process approach, Bygrave and Hofer (1991) defined entrepreneurship as involving actions associated with the perceiving of opportunities and the creation of organizations to pursue them.

For Pretoris et al. (2005), entrepreneurship is about the actions of people who perceive opportunities in the market, take risks, gather or combine resources, and establish and grow organizations to meet such market needs for profit as well as reward (figure 1).

- ✓ New forms of behavior, innovation, business creation. Kyrö (1996)
- ✓ Creating business opportunities perception. Veselainen & Pihkala (1999)
- ✓ Way of thinking that emphasizes business opportunities. Krueger *et al.* (2000)
- ✓ Creating business. Cromie (2000)
- ✓ Creating products and services, creating and exploiting opportunities, business building Mitchell *et al.* (2002)
- ✓ Exploiting opportunities, business creation, innovation, risk taking, proactivity, team building. Yamada (2003)
- ✓ Coordination of the contracted work, relying on a risk uncertain work and innovation. Parker (2003)
- ✓ Creation of new business. Korunka *et al.* (2003)
- ✓ Creation of a new organization, search and identification of the opportunity analysis and business viability. Kruger (2004)
- ✓ Creating a new company. Grundsten (2004)
- ✓ Creation and / or business expansion. Bastos *et al* (2004)
- ✓ Special type of economic activity, but also a way thinking, style and type of behavior. Zotova & Arkhipov (2005)
- ✓ Creation and realization of the opportunity to create business. Wood (2005)

Figure 1: Entrepreneurship concepts by author, 2014

2.2. Theories on the entrepreneur

Teleological theories on entrepreneurial action can be defined as:

1. The doctrine that there is evidence of purpose or design in the universe, and that this provides proof of the existence of a Designer
2. The belief that certain phenomena are best explained in terms of purpose rather than cause
3. The final cause of the study should be seen systematically as a phenomena (Alvarez and Barney, 2007a)

On the other hand, teleological theories of human action explain human behavior in terms of the impact of that behavior on the ability of individuals to accomplish their purposes. In general, these theories assert that behavior that helps people accomplish their purposes is more likely to occur than behavior that does not (Katsikis and Kyrgidou, 2009). Examples of teleological theories in the social sciences include the motivation theory in psychology (Maslow, 1943; Herzberg, 1976), functional theory in anthropology (Lesser, 1935), and institutional theory in sociology (Alvarez and Barney, 2007a). In general, all teleological theories of human action must make three critical assumptions (figure 2).

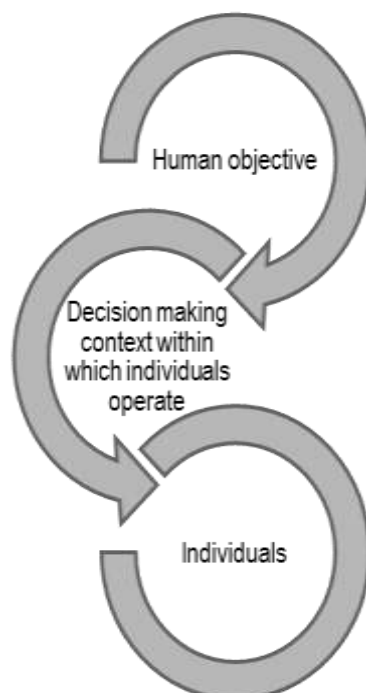


Figure 2: Teleological theories of human action by author (2014)

Alvarez and Barney (2007b) maintain that, when different teleological theories generate different predictions about the same human actions, these predictions are usually related to differences in one or more of these three critical assumptions. Consequently, they are an effective basis upon which to compare and contrast various teleological theories of human action. Both of the theories identified in this paper—discovery theory and creation theory—are examples of teleological theory and thus have much in common. (Shane, 2003 reference by Alvarez and Barney, 2007b).

Moreover, as teleological theories, both discovery and creation seek to explain these entrepreneurial actions in terms of their impact on the ability of entrepreneurs to form and exploit opportunities.

Most theories on the entrepreneur are characterized by two suppositions. Firstly, that entrepreneurship is a “good” thing, with beneficial outcomes for the structure or system in which it occurs; and secondly, entrepreneurship is observable as a behavior that can be attributed to some definitive theoretical attribute capable of differentiating the entrepreneur (actor) from the non-entrepreneur (non-actor). Both theories recognized in this paper (discovery theory and creation theory) are important because:

1. They are examples of teleological theory and thus have much in common. They both seek to explain the same dependent variable actions that entrepreneurs take to form and exploit opportunities. In this context, entrepreneurial action is defined as any activity taken by entrepreneurs to create and exploit opportunities.
2. As teleological theories they seek to explain these entrepreneurial actions in terms of their impact on the ability of entrepreneurs to generate and exploit opportunities.
3. However, while the discovery and creation theories have much in common, they often generate different predictions about when specific entrepreneurial actions will be more or less effective in enabling entrepreneurs to create opportunities.

As previously stated, when different teleological theories produce different predictions about the same human actions –in this case, entrepreneurial actions– these different predictions are usually related to one or more differences in the three critical assumptions that all teleological theories must make.

The theories recognize that opportunities occur when competitive imperfection exists in a market or industry. However, those theories differ in their analysis of the origin of competitive imperfections. In the discovery theory, competitive imperfections are assumed to arise exogenously, from changes in technology, consumer preferences, or some other attributes of the context within which an industry or market exists. Shane (2003, p.23) mentioned by Barreto (2012) cites technological, political and regulatory changes, and social and demographic changes as examples of the kinds of events that can interrupt the competitive equilibrium that exists in a market or industry, thereby forming opportunities. This emphasis on exogenous shocks as the forces that create opportunities has several important implications for discovery theory.

2.2.1. Discovery theory

The Discovery theory has received much more attention in the literature (Eckhardt and Shane 2003; Alvarez et al., 2014; Keyhami et al., 2015; Suddaby et al. 2015). The three critical assumptions of discovery theory as presented in this literature are summarized in Figure 3.

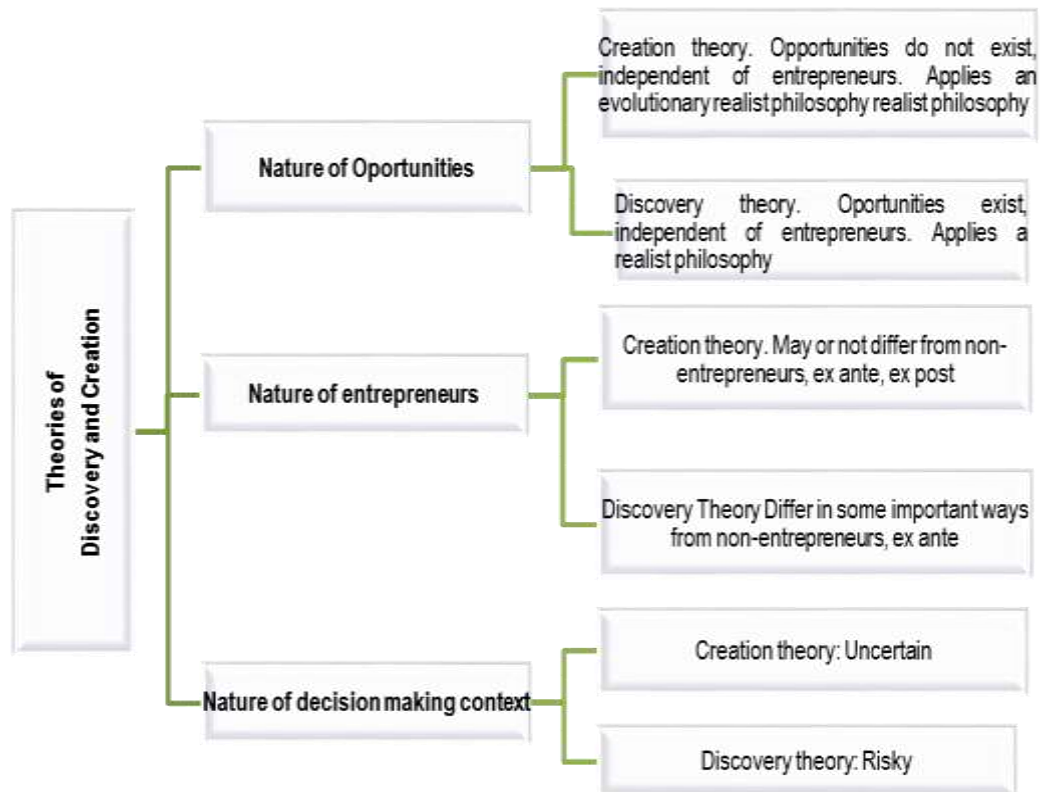


Figure 3: Central assumptions of discovery and creation theories of entrepreneurial action

This paper classifies the three components of discovery theory under the headings of objectives, entrepreneurs and decision making context (Alvarez et al. 2014).

- Discovery objectives. Emphasis on exogenous shocks that create opportunities suggests that the discovery theory is predominantly about searching systematically scanning the environment to discover opportunities to produce new products or services. In this search process entrepreneurs must consider both its direction and duration, and have to also guard against confusing local search where opportunities to produce new products or services are modest with global search, where much more substantial opportunities exist.
- Discovery entrepreneurs. The assumption made by discovery theory concerning the nature of entrepreneurs follows on directly from its assumption about the nature of opportunities. Since opportunities are created by exogenous shocks to an industry or market and since these opportunities are objective and thus, in principle, observable, then everyone associated with that industry or market should be aware of the opportunities a shock has created. Of course, if everyone associated with an industry or market knew about the opportunities created by a shock, and were all sufficiently skilled to exploit these opportunities, then they could all try to exploit them (Schumpeter, 1939; Barney, 1986; mention by Alvarez et al. 2014). Kirzner (1997) summarizes the differences between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs with the concept of “*alertness*”. Many potential components of alertness have been identified in the literature, including information asymmetries, different risk preferences, and cognitive differences, among others. Any of these attributes, or any combination of them, might lead some entrepreneurs associated with an industry or market to become aware of opportunities created by exogenous shocks, while others associated with that same industry or market could remain ignorant of these opportunities.
- Discovery decision making context. Finally, in discovery theory the decision-making context within which entrepreneurs choose to exploit an opportunity is assumed to be risky, rather than uncertain. Currently these terms are often used interchangeably in

the entrepreneurship and strategic management literatures (Shane, 2000). However, for purposes of distinguishing between the assumptions of discovery theory and creation theory, these terms have distinct meanings. A decision-making context is risky if decision makers can collect enough information to anticipate possible outcomes associated with that decision, and the probability of each of those possible outcomes. A decision-making context is uncertain if, at the time a decision is being made, decision makers cannot collect the information needed to anticipate either the possible outcomes associated with a decision or the probability of those outcomes.

As objective phenomena, entrepreneurs can use a variety of data collection and analysis techniques to understand the possible outcomes associated with an opportunity, along with the probability of those outcomes. It may take some time and effort to complete these analyses, but, in principle, they can be done when an opportunity is objective in nature. It took many decades to discover the existence of Mount Everest, and still many additional decades to measure its height. But despite these challenges, there was never a question about whether or not, in principle, information about this mountain was collectable.

2.2.2. Creation theory

Creation theory is a logical theoretical alternative to discovery theory for explaining the actions that entrepreneurs take to form and exploit opportunities (Gartner, 1985; Aldrich and Kenworthy, 1999; Venkataraman, 2003; Aldrich and Ruef, 2006 mention by Alvarez & Barney, 2007a). Aspects of creation theory have been described by different authors (Baker and Nelson, 2005; Alvarez et al. 2014). The decision making settings defined refer to objective properties of a particular decision-making context, not to an entrepreneur's beliefs about those contexts (Alvarez et al 2010). In creation theory as mentioned by Alvarez and Barney (2007a):

- Opportunities are not assumed to be objective phenomena formed by exogenous shocks to an industry or market. Rather, they are created, endogenously, by the actions and reactions of entrepreneurs exploring ways to produce new products or services.
- Opportunities do not necessarily evolve out of pre-existing industries or markets. The term “*search*” has little or no meaning in creation theory. “*Search*” implies entrepreneurs attempting to discover opportunities like mountains that already exist. Entrepreneurs do not search for there are no mountains to find they act, and observe how consumers and markets respond to their actions.
- “*Bringing agency to opportunities*” is without meaning since opportunities do not exist independently of the actions taken by entrepreneurs to create them. In this view, instead of being passive with respect to the formation of new opportunities, creation theory assumes that an entrepreneur's actions are the essential source of these opportunities - they build the mountains.

Opportunities are social constructions that do not exist independently of an entrepreneur's perceptions. However, when entrepreneurs act to exploit these socially constructed opportunities, they interact with an environment –the market– that tests the veracity of their perceptions. Of course, the market in itself is a social construct, made up of the perceptions and beliefs of numerous other individuals. This form of analysis suggests that creation theory is grounded in what has come to be known as the evolutionary realist perspective in the philosophy of science (Campbell, 1960; McKelvey, 1999; Azevedo, 2002 mention by Alvarez and Barney, 2007(b); Short et al. 2009).

This enactment process is consistent with evolutionary theories of entrepreneurial action, in both evolutionary theory and creation theory, a blind-variation –an action that emerges without any self-conscious planning or foresight– can create a process of action and reaction that leads to the formation of opportunities.

Creation theory actions need not be “*completely blind*”. They may be deliberate or intelligent or even a random variation that starts the process. However, variations are likely to be quite short-

sighted. The notion of blind-variation emphasizes changes in unforeseen and perhaps even unwanted ways. Rarely will entrepreneurs be able to see *“the end at the beginning”*. In this view there is no *“end”* until the creation process has unfolded, i.e., opportunities cannot be understood until they exist, and they only exist after they are played out in an iterative process of action and reaction (Berger and Luckmann, 1967; Weick, 1979 mention by Alvarez and Barney, 2007b).

As they begin to take action to form opportunities, entrepreneurs' beliefs, formed along the path down which the variations have taken them, can become social constructs that guide the subsequent actions of these entrepreneurs and others associated with an industry or market, including customers. As entrepreneurs act upon their initial beliefs about opportunities and then observe the market responses, beliefs are transformed, reflecting the acquisition and creation of knowledge and information.

3. Social entrepreneurship literature review and definition

Social entrepreneurship, commonly defined as *“entrepreneurial activity with an embedded social purpose”* (Austin et al. 2006), has become an important economic phenomenon on a global scale (Zahra et al. 2008). The concept of social entrepreneurship has thus become a large tent (Martin and Osberg 2007) where many different activities are finding a home under the broad umbrella of *“activities and processes to enhance social wealth”* (Zahra et al. 2008) or *“entrepreneurship with a social purpose”* (Austin et al. 2006). As a consequence, the concept of social entrepreneurship is poorly defined and its boundaries with other fields of study remain uncertain (Mair and Martin, 2006).

Some authors consider this inclusive approach to be beneficial for the development of the academic field of social entrepreneurship (Dacin et al. 2010). Based on this approach, they develop arguments on how social entrepreneurship is connected with and may enrich more established fields of inquiry such as structuration theory, institutional entrepreneurship and social movements (Mair and Martin, 2006).

The development of a theory of social entrepreneurship is important because this phenomenon is fundamentally distinct from other forms of economic organization. While our economic theories are based on the assumption of self-interested economic actors, social entrepreneurs exhibit economic behaviors that seem inconsistent with this motivation. While our strategy theories suggest how organizations can develop sustainable competitive advantages, often social entrepreneurship does not seem to involve competitive behavior (Dees et al. 2004).

When we analyzed the concept of *“social entrepreneurship”* we realized that it calls for further investigation; a few opinions on the definition have been found. Any definition of social entrepreneurship should, at the least, reflect the need for a substitute for the market discipline that works for business entrepreneurs. (Dees et al. 2004; Tokarski and Ernest 2012; Suddaby et al. 2015). As Martin and Osberg (2007) state: any definition of the term *“social entrepreneurship”* must start with the word *“entrepreneurship.”* The word *“social”* simply modifies entrepreneurship. If entrepreneurship does not have a clear meaning, then modifying it with *“social”* will not accomplish much either. The word entrepreneurship is a mixed blessing.

- On the positive side, it connotes a special, innate ability to sense and act on opportunity, combining out-of-the-box thinking with a unique brand of determination to create or bring something new to the world.
- On the negative side, entrepreneurship is an ex post facto term, because entrepreneurial activities require a certain amount of time to pass before their true impact is evident.

We have taken the following definition, as it links an emphasis on discipline and accountability with the notions of value creation taken from Say, innovation and change agents from Schumpeter, pursuit of opportunity from Drucker, and resourcefulness from Stevenson (Dees,

2001). In brief, this definition can be stated as follows, where social entrepreneurs play a very important role of change agents in the social sector, as shown in figure 4.

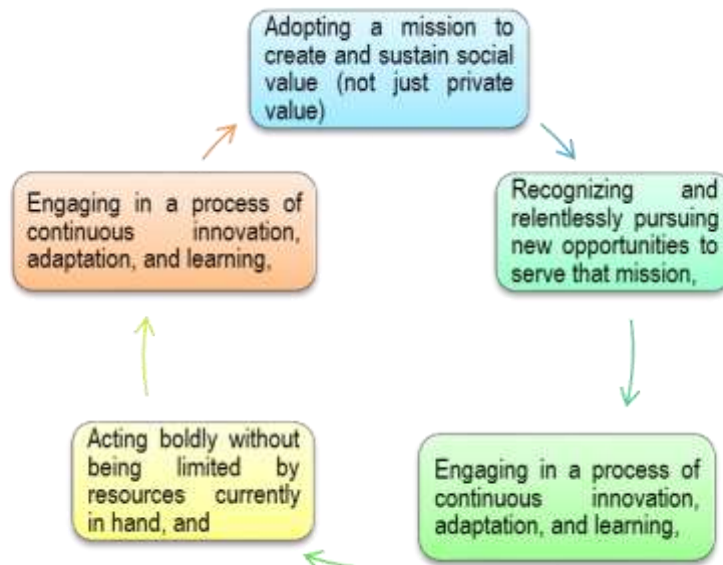


Figure 4: Social entrepreneurship elements of the concept

Social sector leaders will exemplify these characteristics in different ways and to different degrees. The closer a person gets to satisfying all these conditions, the more that person fits the model of a social entrepreneur. Those who are more innovative in their work and who create more significant social improvements will naturally be seen as more entrepreneurial. Martin and Osberg (2007) explain:

- Adopting a mission to create and sustain social value. This is the core of what distinguishes social entrepreneurs from business entrepreneurs, even from socially responsible businesses. For a social entrepreneur, the social mission is fundamental. This is a mission of social improvement that cannot be reduced to creating private benefits (financial returns or consumption benefits) for individuals. Making a profit, creating wealth, or serving the desires of customers may be part of the model, but these are means to a social end, not the end in itself. Profit is not the gauge of value creation, nor is customer satisfaction; social impact is the gauge. Social entrepreneurs look for a long-term social return on investment. Social entrepreneurs want more than a quick hit; they want to create lasting improvements. The main idea is thinking about sustaining the impact.
- Recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities. Where others see problems, entrepreneurs see opportunity. Social entrepreneurs are not simply driven by the perception of a social need or by their compassion, rather they have a vision of how to achieve improvement and they are determined to make their vision work. They are persistent. The models they develop and approaches they take can, and often do, change as the entrepreneurs learn about what works and what does not work. The key element is persistence combined with a willingness to make adjustments as one goes. Rather than giving up when an obstacle is encountered, entrepreneurs ask, "How can we surmount this obstacle? How can we make this work?"
- Engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning. Entrepreneurs are innovative. They break new ground, develop new models, and pioneer new approaches. However, as Schumpeter notes, innovation can take many forms. It does not require inventing something completely new; it can simply involve applying an existing idea in a new way or to a new situation. Entrepreneurs need not be inventors. They simply need to be creative in applying what others have invented. Their innovations may appear in how they structure their core programs or in how they assemble the resources and fund their work. This willingness to innovate is part of the

modus operandi of entrepreneurs. It is not just a one-time burst of creativity. It is a continuous process of exploring, learning, and improving. Of course, with innovation comes uncertainty and risk of failure.

- Acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand. Social entrepreneurs do not let their own limited resources keep them from pursuing their visions. They are skilled at doing more with less and at attracting resources from others. They use scarce resources efficiently, and they leverage their limited resources by drawing in partners and collaborating with others. They explore all resource options, from pure philanthropy to the commercial methods of the business sector. They are not bound by sector norms or traditions. They develop resource strategies that are likely to support and reinforce their social missions. They take calculated risks and manage the downside, so as to reduce the harm that will result from failure. They understand the risk tolerances of their stakeholders and use this to spread the risk to those who are better prepared to accept it (Dees, 2001).

4. Conclusions

4.1 Why should we care?

We are concerned that serious thinkers will also overlook social entrepreneurship, and we fear that the indiscriminate use of the term may undermine its significance and potential importance to those seeking to understand how societies change and progress. Social entrepreneurship, we believe, is as vital to the progress of societies as is entrepreneurship to the progress of economies, and it merits more rigorous, serious attention than it has attracted so far.

Clearly, there is much to be learned and about social entrepreneurship, including why its study may not be taken seriously. Our view is that a clearer definition of social entrepreneurship will aid the development of the field. The social entrepreneur should be understood as someone who targets an unfortunate but stable equilibrium that causes the neglect, marginalization, or suffering of a segment of humanity; who brings to bear on this situation his or her inspiration, direct action, creativity, courage, and fortitude; and who aims for and ultimately affects the establishment of a new stable equilibrium that secures permanent benefit for the targeted group and society at large (Roger Martin and 2007).

Social entrepreneurship attempts to identify the core behavioral dimensions of innovativeness, proactiveness and risk management. Social entrepreneurship is thus identified as a behavioral phenomenon operating within constraints. This research has attempted to identify any key areas where strategy and operations can be aligned in social entrepreneurial service contexts. Finally, we would also like to suggest that Social entrepreneurial organizations need to adopt a culture aimed at innovativeness, proactiveness and risk management.

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Value contribution of immigrants to society through entrepreneurship

El valor de la contribución de los inmigrantes a la sociedad a través del emprendimiento

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 06 de junio de 2014

Fecha de revisión: 25 de marzo de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 09 de julio de 2015

Osorio, M., Urquiza, A. y Rodríguez, R. (2015). Value contribution of immigrants to society through entrepreneurship. *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 101–112.



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Abstract

Immigration today is a reality that is transforming the social and economic landscape, particularly in some European developed countries as in Spain. Moreover, Entrepreneurship is considered as a key driver in today's economy recovery processes, particularly in relation to the innovative, change searching and opportunity seeker nature of entrepreneurs. Despite these facts, very little academia research has been published to date on the relationship effects between Immigration and Entrepreneurship. The main objective of this article is to analyze the differential values that immigrants introduce in the entrepreneurship process, starting with the motivation and discovery of the opportunity (Fiet and Patel, 2008), business start up (use of resources) and further economic and job creation effects associated to new business developments. Our approach starts with a comprehensive review of the different approaches and definitions associated to Entrepreneurship, considering that this process has not been yet defined as a basic and fundamental term (Fernandez, 2012). This review will be the basis for a wide analysis of immigrant Entrepreneurship reality, including motivations, abilities and specific challenges to achieve success.

Resumen

La inmigración, hoy en día, es una realidad que está transformando el panorama económico y social, particularmente en algunos países europeos desarrollados como España. Además, el emprendimiento está considerado como una pieza clave en el proceso de reconversión económica actual, particularmente en relación a la capacidad de innovación, adaptación al cambio y búsqueda de oportunidades de los emprendedores. A pesar de esto, se han publicado muy pocas investigaciones académicas hasta la fecha sobre la relación entre inmigración y emprendimiento. El principal objetivo de este artículo es analizar el valor diferencial que los inmigrantes introducen en el proceso de emprendimiento, comenzando por la motivación y la búsqueda de oportunidades (Fiet y Patel, 2008), posibilidades de negocio (uso de recursos), y la promoción económica y de creación de empleo como efectos asociados al desarrollo de nuevos negocios. Nuestra aproximación comienza con una revisión amplia de los diferentes enfoques y definiciones asociadas al emprendimiento, considerando que este proceso todavía no ha sido definido como un término básico y fundamental (Fernández, 2012). Esta revisión será la base para un análisis amplio sobre la realidad del emprendimiento inmigrante, incluyendo motivaciones, habilidades y capacidades específicas para lograr el éxito.

Keywords

Entrepreneurship; Immigrants; Motivations; Characteristic

Palabras clave

Emprendimiento; Inmigrantes; Motivaciones; Característica

1. Introduction

During the 1970s and 1980s, in a context shaped by economic stagnation, rising unemployment and tightening immigration policies in most Western countries, some American researchers focused attention and developed new ideas around what is known today as "*sociology of ethnic entrepreneurship*" (Light, 1972; Bonacich, 1973; Bonacich & Modell, 1980; Wilson & Portes, 1980; Portes & Stepick, 1985; Portes & Bach, 1985; Waldinger, 1986a & 1986b; Light & Bonacich, 1988; cited by Riesco-Sanz, 2014), highlighting valuable benefits derived from self-employment initiatives, introduced by minority populations.

From a global perspective, immigration is a phenomenon characteristic of most developed societies. This phenomenon causes socio-economic impacts and is analyzed from different theoretical perspectives. In this article, we will focus on analyzing immigrant self-employment effects and the entrepreneurial behavior of various groups of immigrants; this has led to the emergence of a new phenomenon, known as "*Business created by Immigrants*" (Baycan-Levent y Nijkamp, 2009).

There is substantial empirical evidence that the intensive process of new jobs creation, driven and occupied by immigrants, has occurred, in parallel with a reduction in native citizens unemployment rates, thus allowing new employment opportunities within the native population or transition to different jobs under better working conditions (Conde Ruiz et al, 2008; cited by Aboussi & García-Caro, 2012).

Thus, in this article we will focus on the entrepreneur, defined as the individual coming to a country, and settled down in a city and having started a business as a self-employed person. Due to the complete absence of official data directly related to immigrant entrepreneurs in Spain, we will just reference official data on foreign, self-employed persons. We are fully aware that ideally, we should analyze at the entire volume businesses immigrants; but due to the limitations, we will focus on self-employed workers.

We will start addressing some general considerations prior to address immigrant, specific entrepreneurship concerns. First, we will briefly review the concept of entrepreneurship, followed by analyzing specific characteristics of immigrant entrepreneurship, in order to better understand how they face entrepreneurship challenges and all this in order to get know ledge about the following question: what values immigrants bring to entrepreneurship?

2. The entrepreneurship concept

In order to specifically analyze new businesses developments driven by immigrants in our society, we have to consider that the entrepreneurship domains still considered as a relatively young research field (Copper, Lambert & Pagh, 1997), although during its short history, has been analyzed by economists, sociologists as well as researchers from other disciplines.

The delimitation of this concept-entrepreneurship -has been a difficult task, and in fact, the economy has not been able to define entrepreneurship as a basic and essential element specifically associated to economic performance (Fernández, 2012).

Actually, there are some difficulties in finding consensus on what entrepreneurship features deserve research activities (Audrestch, Thurik, Verheul y Wennekers, 2002). These difficulties in the definition itself, limit us in measuring the immigrant entrepreneurship complicating also the study of its economic and social impacts. Entrepreneurial's activities, lack an adequate conceptual framework and many authors in their researches on entrepreneurship, suffer from this lack of consensus on the definition (Shane & Ventakaraman, 2000). In this article we will refer to entrepreneurship or entrepreneurial activity, just considering self-employed, immigrant's occupation activities, although we will not discard in future research efforts analyzing as well entrepreneurship effects in existing companies (development of new, innovative revitalization

initiatives in already established businesses) as well as in start-ups & new employment creation opportunities (Guzmán & Santos, 2001).

This brief approach can be useful to better understand the differentiation that in the Scandinavian countries is commonly identified as *"opportunity entrepreneurs"* and *"forced or necessity-driven entrepreneurship"*. The first is the one that claims to have created a company or start up business, driven by a lack of formal employment alternatives (Bustamante, 2004). The second one relates to persons assuming the risks associated to exploiting a perceived opportunity. As indicated by Solé, Parella & Alarcón (2008), many immigrants arrive at entrepreneurship as their single option in order to overcome the difficulties associated in labor market's access and social integration.

This differentiation provides interesting evidence on immigrant's arguments to seriously consider entrepreneurship as the best alternative to overcome social integration difficulties and to help them to achieve better social and labor status in a society that, in many cases offers them a hostile and difficult opportunities scenario.

It is also important to consider that, in addition to its importance and implications within the entrepreneur's private domain and personal environment, the phenomenon of immigrant entrepreneurship, has also social implications in the public domain. These processes actively contribute to parallel social, cultural & economic integration processes, in a way that these immigrants do not lose out previous ties and identity (Díaz y González, 2005).

3. Immigrant entrepreneurship's characteristics

Immigrant's entrepreneurship global contribution in Europe, clearly promotes economic growth and employment benefits. The companies act as an important links with the world markets, favor globalization and are fundamental to the integration of immigrants into the labor market, because they creating jobs for themselves and, increasingly, also for other immigrants or the native population (DOUE C315, 2012).

The EU has publicly acknowledged the importance of immigrant entrepreneurs and their contribution to growth and sustainable employment development (DOUE C315, 2012). In fact, data from the Ministry of Employment and Social Security (2014) in Spain shows that the total labor population (employed and self-employed persons) totals 16,420.9 millions, of which 1,532,685 of them are foreign nationals (Chart 1). These data reveal us that 9.3% of workers are foreign nationals, but if we focus on the self-employment workers (Chart 2), we note that 7.3% are foreign entrepreneurs, this indicating that 14, 8% of foreigners having a job in Spain, have created their own business.

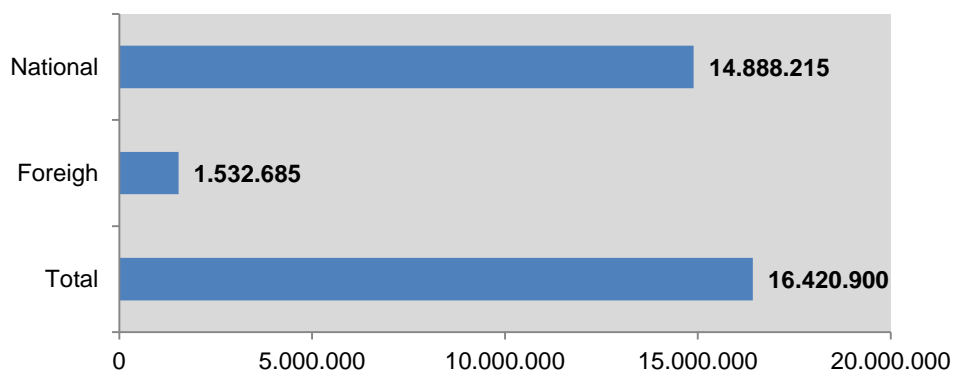


Figure 1: Total employment record figures in Spain

Source: Own Creation by data from the Ministry of Employment and Social Security (2014)

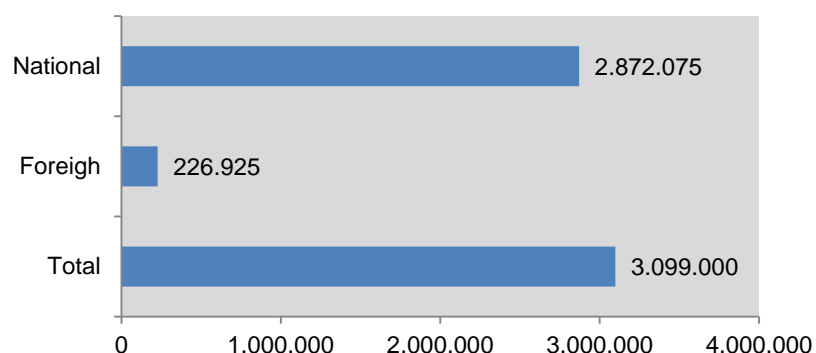


Figure 2: Self-employed persons in Spain

Source: Own Creation by data from the Ministry of Employment and Social Security (2014)

Last year's economic growth record in Spain had some sort of 'magnet effect' for immigrants, but today, due to the fact that recent crisis is lasting much longer than expected, the situation is changing, and many of those immigrants that significantly contributed to last decade's expansion, are now forced to pack and return back to their country of origin. The total foreign population in Spain began its decline in 2011 and during 2013, return rates of migrants to their country of origin has contributed to a drop in the overall population in Spain, for the first time since 1996, date in which the INE started recording these data (INE, 2013).

Nevertheless, immigrants continue undertaking new businesses developments, despite Spain's current financial crisis and additional specific immigration-related difficulties. They have to face, for example, discrediting myths such as the supposed tax benefits that autonomous migrants enjoy under our current legislation. These myths falls under its own weight, particularly considering that it is an essential requirement for them to be up to date on payments to the Social Security, condition without which they cannot renew their residence card. The latter is major complaint of many entrepreneurs who consider that taxes are too high and difficult to cope with during crisis periods.

Immigrants undertaking entrepreneur's initiatives face difficulties that can often be discouraging, however, facing difficult situations is not new for them, because they have developed abilities to adapt and successfully deal with this type of situations.

Entrepreneurial activity is multidimensional and incorporates multidisciplinary features. Davidsson (2004) mentions that multidimensionality is the basic characteristic of entrepreneurship, as it encompasses different levels, including: individual level, business level, and regional / industry level, national or international levels. (Wennekers et al, 2002) claim that entrepreneurship should be based on a variety of disciplines.

Miller (1983) defines an entrepreneurial company as an innovation-oriented, ready to assume risks and developing proactive management. Other authors such as Santos (1998) and Guzman & Santos (2001) clearly identify innovation as the first and main element characterizing this concept.

According to Osorio and Florez-Estrada (2010), the businesses developed by immigrant's initiative, make a clear contribution to the development of the areas in which they are located, introducing new and unusual features in the Spanish commerce and marketplace system:

- Broad and extensive opening hours: something valued by large consumer populations, as they cannot easily afford to do business or shopping under traditional, limited time schedules.
- Skilled craftsmen work as demanded by households: footwear, clothing alterations, plumbing, electricity, home reforms, carpentry...

- Products and services demand associated to new, valued cultural diversity: restaurants, fruit shops and stores selling food products from other countries, dance lessons, art ...
- New products and services derived from the needs of other cultures: religious services from uncommon religions in Spain, specialized mobile communication companies, call centers, real estate...
- Variety, proximity, highly sensitive price goods: stores providing wide variety of products, low price, located in every neighborhood.

A study conducted by Zolin & Schlosser (2013), states that immigrant entrepreneurs are comprehensively educated, have international connections, adequate college degrees, and technical training.

Various researchers have shown that entrepreneurship has close dependencies with various conditions, such as environmental factors and certain characteristics of individual entrepreneurs (Peterson and Bergen, 1972; Jinshi and Guth, 1990; Zhara, 1993, Tyson et al, 1994; Moreno and Casillas, 2008, cited by Yu Zhikun, 2013). Among these conditions we will mention in this article, as some of the basic characteristics of immigrant entrepreneurship, the following: risk taking features, pro-activity, meaning & motivation, enterprise analysis models, support networks and social capital.

4. Assumption of risk

Risk-taking in entrepreneurship is seen as a key factor, risk and uncertainty been basic elements to start an entrepreneurial idea (Dess & Lumpkin, 2005).

Hébert & Link (1989) highlights that any entrepreneur is a person who takes a risk associated with uncertainty. Entrepreneurs always have to deal with risks when starting new business: introducing new products, discovering new markets & customer responses, etc. (Bhide, 1996).

In the particular case of immigrant entrepreneurs, it is very common in them to seek financial support and collect money from friends & family prior to launching the business idea. The emigration decision-taking process and further 'set into action' implies risks (establishing new life prospects in another country) and could be considered as a similar situation as starting a business.

As indicated by Osorio & Lopez-Estrada (2010), a large percentage of immigrant entrepreneurs invest all their savings in the process of creating new businesses.

5. Proactivity

The proactivity is a personality trait, based on a responsibility assumption to act, doing the right thing and influence in the environment to initiate a change, been this something typical and characteristic in any business initiative (Bateman and Crant, 1993). Current research in this field clearly identifies that proactivity is positively and significantly related to the development of most organizational improvement initiatives (Parker, 1998). Besides, acting upon entrepreneur's behavior, proactivity usually generates positive effects on any individual or organization activity, in any field.

Similarly as it happens in other developed countries viewing immigration from a proactive approach, our State should apply regulations and manage immigration under these principles, such as using specific selection criteria for potential migrants. The purpose of defining selection criteria responds to the need to ensure a wide range of skills provided by immigrants about to come, since immigrants are not assigned to any particular job at their destination. Such criteria could be based on skills and abilities, such as language skills, profile / level of education, etc. (Sandell, 2005).

6. Motivation

There may exist several reasons favoring the creation of a new, start-up company but motivation (having a meaning) can be considered as the major one. Any person who migrates to another country aims first at achieving a better work situation, and then afterwards, additional entrepreneurial motivations arises (Ndoen, Gorter, Nijkamp & Rietveld, 2002).

Motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic (Gúzman & Santos, 2001; cited by Yu, 2013). Extrinsic motivation refers to achieving an objective that belongs to the outer sphere of individuals (Dorsh, 1996, cited by Yu, 2013) and intrinsic motivation refers to the will or pleasure derived from performing an activity (Yu, 2013).

The driving motivations in immigrants developing entrepreneurial initiatives are very closely linked to their intention to establish themselves in the new host society (Ndoen, et al, 2002; Diaz & Gonzalez, 2005). In their work, these researchers reflect the importance of economic, social and personal variables such as market or consumer's accessibility, access to financial sources or tolerance within the host society (Díaz & González, 2005).

7. Immigrant Entrepreneurship Analysis Models

Research literature considers various models when analyzing immigrant entrepreneurship, the most frequently used were the following:

- The interactive model (Waldinger, Aldrich & Ward, 1990; Aboussi & García-Quero, 2012): it provides a specific opportunity structure associated to immigrant entrepreneurs.
- The embedded mixed model (Kloosterman, 2000; Aboussi & García-Quero, 2012): it integrates the networks (family, friends, fellow citizens ...) within market's impact.
- The light and gold model used by Aboussi & García-Quero, 2012): it classify factors in groups, such as class and ethnic factors, which are further translated into cultural motivations and solidarity indications within the host community.

None of these models fully conforms to immigrant's entrepreneurship in Spain, been this the reason why Arjona and Checa created what is known today as the South-European Model. In this model, ethnic entrepreneurs have to overcome a huge amount of obstacles to successfully achieve the objective of establishing a new business and then make it flourish afterwards. They will have to cope with various contextual decisions (external) with little room for (internal) business initiatives (Arjona & Checa, 2006).

8. Social networks

The social and family networks play a key role in the decision to undertake any start up business, not only as a network to launch the new idea but also as an example of cognitive and social development. This affirmation has been observed in the case of businesses where there exists evidence on the influence of entrepreneur parents when making entrepreneurial decisions (Scherer, Brodzinski & Wiebe, 1991; Schiller & Crewson, 1997; cited by Diaz & Gonzalez, 2005).

The already established relatives or friends tend to act as social networks, thus helping the entrepreneur to better do his job and facilitating a less dramatic social integration. They also produce a "call effect" due to the fact that if they have been previously successful concerning their exodus decision, the decision becomes much easier and challenging. Nevertheless, there will be many situations in which reality, as indicated by friends & family is very different from the real situation that the new immigrant has to face. This distance between found reality and what

the immigrant has idealized in his head, becomes the final driver that triggers interest and push decisions to become one's own boss.

The family or friend's network offers entrepreneurs (and to organizations) access to information, knowledge and other required resources (Nahapiet&Ghoshal, 1988; Hoing & Davidsson, 2003; Elfring & Hulsink, 2003, Lechner & Dowling, 2003; Batjargal, 2007; cited by Yu, 2013).

Many business premises run by immigrants become more than just commercial point of sales, they also serve as meeting points with fellow citizens, in a way that new support networks are then created (or existing ones are enlarged). These scenarios facilitate the development of mutual trusted financing deals, thus enlarging the immigrant's potential business and commercial networks. These new attitudes finally shape the way in which new businesses develop, having also positive effect in the revitalization of many urban areas, driving also native, traditional businesses to start offering new products to their customers that were at first considered as exotic and eventually become adopted as regular, consumer products.

Cueto (2002) notes that any migration process, is build upon social networks, replicating itself through generations, building contacts between social partners and creating new ties between both, original and destination's countries.

9. Social capital

Social capital has been defined by different authors, but we highlight Putnam's statement, indicating that it can be considered as a combination of rules and social trust facilitating coordination and cooperation aiming at achieving mutual benefits (Putnam, 1995).

In today's knowledge economy, the concept of social capital has gained importance in entrepreneurship analysis (Doh & Zolnik, 2011). Research on social capital argues that this concept plays an important role in knowledge-based economies, in the way that it facilitates knowledge & information's acquisition (Dosi, 1988, Hofstede, 1991; Maillat & Lecoq, 1992; Maillat, 1995 1998; Stoper 1995; Knack & Keefer, 1997, Fountain, 1999; Maskell, 2001; Landry et al, 2002; cited by Yu, 2013).

Entrepreneur's Capital theory (Asc & Audretsch, 2003; Audretsch, 2003 & Keibach, 2004, cited by Yu, 2013) highlights that social capital promotes innovation and economic growth. Audretsch, Keilbach, and Yu Zhikun suggest that entrepreneurial activity is closely linked to social capital (Audretsch & Keilbach, 2004); Yu Zhikun, 2013).

Some authors argue that social capital can be one of the key elements for individuals when identifying new business opportunities derived from changes in the economy (Doh & Zolnik, 2011).

The contribution to the economy derived from enterprises created by immigrants has played a major role, both at micro and macro levels, as several studies reflect in their conclusions (Froschauer, 2001, Saxenian, 2002; Clydesdale, 2008; Kloosterman, 2003; cited by Aliaga- Isla, 2010). In addition to these authors, Zuckerberg (2013) states that in a knowledge economy, the most important resources are talented people, leading us to growth and new and better jobs creation.

Immigrants, as any other entrepreneur, provide economic values that are commonly analyzed and measured in terms of profitability, but additionally, they empower shared human values, innovation and creativity ... among other features.

10. Immigrant path to entrepreneurship

The immigrant entrepreneurship is a response to situations of precarious wage & income conditions (Dieng, 2002; cited by Abussi & García-Quero, 2012), employment discrimination, unemployment or reduced social mobility (Ward & Jenkins, 1984; Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990, Sassen, 1995; Hones ... [et al], 2000, cited by Abussi & Garcia-Quero, 2012). Blanco (2000) notes that sometimes, the mere fact of being an immigrant, can lead to rejection in the host society. However, we have observed that besides undertaking start-up businesses as the unique labor option, many immigrants assume this path because they essentially prefer running their own business (Osorio & Lopez -Estrada, 2010).

Immigrants start their personal adventure driven by various motivations, but in most cases they just want to improve their living conditions, all influenced by different factors such as poor economic situation in their home country, commitment in helping their families, etc. There may sometimes exist other reasons, as political or personal driven decisions leading to emigrate, but they are uncommon (Oyarzun, 2008).

Immigrants willing to become self-employed are not easily discouraged if they fail developing a particular project, they soon will start and try again. This does not mean that the path is easy because, in addition to specific credit and financial difficulties, as the topic been repeatedly identified as the biggest obstacle when starting the business, in most cases they have to cope with very tough situations in which giving up is frequently considered. In general, their personal, intuitive and limited business demand research studies, as outlined in their minds, create situations in which the business end up running just because of individual commitment (CM, 2006). As Osorio & Lopez-Estrada (2010) point out, not all immigrants count on native, Spanish friends, they often suffer discrimination or think that entrepreneurship and integration are not related, but this does not stop them going forward.

There is empirical evidence that the intensive process in immigrant's occupied job creation has taken place in parallel with native labor unemployment reduction rates scenarios, thus facilitating native national's employment growth and transition to better jobs, offering higher valued labor conditions (Conde Ruiz et al, 2008, cited by Aboussi & García-Quero, 2012).

In different cities and municipalities in Spain we can easily spot commerce and trade run by immigrants. They largely concentrate in large cities, because they offer larger potential for business success (Muñiz, Li & Scheilecher, 2011).

Many of the immigrant's run business initiatives are created upon self-employment conditions, in order to facilitate residency in their host countries, thus creating jobs and wealth as a result of entrepreneurship (Law 14/2013 of 27 September, created to support entrepreneurs and internationalization). All these new business projects do contribute to the country's global wealth creation so it is now common the emergence of new immigration laws and regulations specifically devoted to immigrant investors, entrepreneurs and self-employed persons.

Law 14/2013, 2nd, V; has granted the acquisition of a series of granting rights to immigrants, improving and facilitating legal opportunities to create their own business initiatives.

To finish this section it seems appropriate to consider also that under the current crisis situation and after encountering multiple difficulties, many immigrants often debate about important decisions and challenges for them: to remain in Spain or return to their home country. Most of them, particularly if they have family and children here, prefer to stay and often think and try to consider entrepreneurship adventures as an effective option (CM, 2006).

11. Conclusions

As we have explained all along this article, we can assume that immigration is a characteristic phenomenon that occurs in most developed societies, having highly relevance and economic

and social significance. In fact, as a consequence of immigrant self-employment and entrepreneurial behavior of different groups of immigrants, the phenomenon known as "*the creation of companies by immigrants*" (Baycan-Levent and Nijkamp, 2009) has emerged.

Immigrant entrepreneurship's contribution in Europe keeps growing. The EU has publicly acknowledged the importance of immigrant entrepreneurs and their contribution to growth and the creation of more sustainable employment settings (Unión Europea, 2012). If we focus on official data in Spain, 14.8% of the total amount of Social Security's registered foreign nationals currently run their own business (Ministry of Employment and Social Security, 2014).

The immigrant entrepreneurship can highlight by be an employment generated by need, generally the immigrant often pass through different jobs until it reaches self-employment as the only alternative employment. In fact, today many immigrants arise a dilemma: stay in Spain or to return to their country of origin. The most part, especially if their family and children is here, they prefer to stay and begin in the world of entrepreneurship (CM, 2006).

We also have analyzed the close relationships conditions been established in entrepreneurship experiences, such as risk taking attitudes, proactivity, motivation, the considered analytical models and the creation of support networks and social capital. Each of these conditions has differential characteristics, in the case particular the entrepreneurship immigrants, between them we highlighting:

- Assumption of Risk: often tend to invest all their savings and borrow their family for starting your business idea.
- Motivation: the motivation in the enterprising immigrant's is related their intention to stay in the host society. (Ndoen, et. al., 2002; cited by Díaz y González, 2005)
- South-European Model: this model explains the case of the Spanish immigrant entrepreneurship.
- Social Networks: the relatives and friends in addition to contribute with aid to start the business link favored of integration in the host society.
- Social Capital: the contribution of immigrant business has played a major role in the economy both at the micro level as at the macro level, exist different studies that clearly reflect these contributions (Froschauer, 2001; Saxenian, 2002; Clydesdale, 2008; Kloosterman, 2003; cited by Aliaga- Isla, 2010).
- Differential Value: the business of immigrants: facilitate the development of areas where they are located; most capacity to adapt to difficult situations and changing; they stimulate the internationalization of the business and are a point of meeting with their compatriots. (Osorio & Florez-Estrada, 2010).

Immigrants provide clear contributions to revitalizing and increasing overall social capital in any country. They have initiative and are capable (and willing) to become entrepreneurs, thus generating new businesses in larger proportions than native citizen's populations (Constant & Zimmermann 2006, Kalantaridis & Bika 2006, Levie 2007, cited by Mancilla, 2009).

The immigrant's labor roadmap can be complex and arduous in most situations, but however, they are not easily discouraged even under entrepreneurship, hard to cope with personal failure life experiences.

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Entrepreneurship education in Andalusia. An embedded approach

La educación emprendedora en Andalucía. Un enfoque integrado

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 05 de junio de 2014

Fecha de revisión: 25 de 03 de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 09 de julio de 2015

Liñán, F., Fernández, J. y Martínez-Román, J.A. (2015). Entrepreneurship education in Andalusia. An embedded approach. *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 113–132.



Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

ISSN 1989 – 9572

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

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Abstract

When evaluating the relevance of actions within the area of entrepreneurship education, the quite remarkable national and regional differences regarding entrepreneurial culture, entrepreneurial potential and, of course, the business structure, have to be taken into account. Based on these differences, there is a need to specifically design entrepreneurial education policies which take into account the strengths and weaknesses of the business structure of each region. This paper aims to identify the structural characteristics of the Andalusian entrepreneurial model in comparison with that of other Spanish regions. To do this, a database of over 1000 companies have been used coming from the Research Project (Ref. P09- SEJ -4857) carried out by the "SMEs and economic development" research group (SEJ -128) of the University of Seville. This information will also be complemented with regional reports from the GEM project. From these two data sources, an eminently qualitative profile of the structural weaknesses of existing businesses and their entrepreneurs in Andalusia will be established. From this analysis of regional needs, we will raise our differential proposition for an embedded education towards entrepreneurship. It will identify and include the content and pedagogical techniques necessary to overcome these weaknesses of the regional business community.

Resumen

Al evaluar la pertinencia de las acciones en el ámbito de la educación empresarial, las notables diferencias nacionales y regionales con respecto a la cultura emprendedora, el potencial empresarial y, por supuesto, la estructura empresarial, han de ser tenidos en cuenta. Sobre la base de estas diferencias, hay una necesidad de diseñar políticas específicas de educación emprendedora que tengan en cuenta las fortalezas y debilidades de la estructura empresarial de cada región. Este trabajo tiene como objetivo identificar las características estructurales del modelo empresarial andaluz en comparación con el de otras regiones españolas. Para ello, se ha usado una base de datos de más de 1.000 empresas procedente del Proyecto de Investigación (Ref. P09- SEJ -4857) llevado a cabo por el grupo de investigación "PYME y desarrollo económico" (SEJ -128) de la Universidad de Sevilla. Esta información también se complementará con los informes regionales del proyecto GEM. A partir de estas dos fuentes de datos, se establecerá un perfil eminentemente cualitativo de las debilidades estructurales de las empresas existentes en Andalucía y de sus empresarios. A partir de este análisis de las necesidades regionales, vamos a plantear nuestra propuesta diferencial para una educación emprendedora integrada. Se identificará e incluirá el contenido y las técnicas pedagógicas necesarias para superar estas debilidades de la comunidad empresarial regional.

Keywords

Entrepreneurship education; Business structure; Programme development; Andalusia

Palabras clave

Educación emprendedora; Estructura empresarial; Desarrollo de programa; Andalucía

1. Introduction

Since the economic crisis of the seventies, entrepreneurs have received more and more attention as job creators, innovators, as promoting flexibility, productivity and economic growth (Acs & Audretsch, 1990; Spencer, Kirchhoff, & White, 2008; Wennekers & Thurik, 1999). They are increasingly being seen as “*heroes*” (Allen & Lee, 1996), at least within the academic and policy-making communities. It is not strange, then, that so many attempts have been made to identify what makes entrepreneur. It is hoped that effective education initiatives may be implemented to develop these characteristics in the participants and thus help them become actual entrepreneurs (Liñán, Rodríguez-Cohard, & Rueda-Cantuche, 2011; Pittaway & Cope, 2007).

Starting in the USA and expanding throughout the world, there has been unprecedented growth in entrepreneurship education (EE) programmes in higher education in the last decades (Fayolle, Gailly, & Lassas-Clerc, 2006; Katz, 2003). This growth is due to an increasing recognition that university-based EE programmes provide a promising vehicle to support a range of potential entrepreneurial outcomes (Nabi & Liñán, 2011). These, for example, include enhanced student venture creation skills, knowledge and attitudes (Greene & Saridakis, 2008) and more substantively, graduate business start-ups, which contribute to economic growth and development (Bosma, Acs, Autio, Coduras, & Levie, 2008).

Most programmes, however, tend to replicate what has already been done and has been successful in a different setting (notably the USA), without sufficient attention paid to the specific characteristics of the participants and the social setting (Wilson, Kickul, & Marlino, 2007; Zhao, Siebert, & Hills, 2005). The present study tries to contribute to overcoming this problem by describing the development process of an “*embedded entrepreneurship education programme*”. To do so, it has specifically adopted a process-view of entrepreneurship (Moroz & Hindle, 2012) stressing person-environment interaction in the development and implementation of entrepreneurial opportunities (Liñán, 2007).

The region of Andalusia, in southern Spain, is characterized by lower per capita income, higher unemployment, and a weaker entrepreneurial structure, when compared with the rest of the country (Fernández-Serrano & Romero, 2013). Entrepreneurship has been called for to help overcome these deficiencies (Marchese & Potter, 2011). However, so far, measures adopted have not yielded the expected results, and the region still is seen as lacking a supportive entrepreneurial culture (Liñán, Urbano, & Guerrero, 2011). In this regard, entrepreneurship education has the potential to significantly alter the situation since its reach may be very wide, especially if implemented throughout the educational system (Kyrö, 2006).

The great majority of entrepreneurship education initiatives in Andalusia, though, have been concentrated at the university level, and offered as electives (Marchese & Potter, 2011). In our experience, they tend to replicate standard business-plan courses as developed elsewhere and, therefore, lack adaptation and integration into the specific Andalusian environment (Liñán, Rodríguez-Cohard, et al., 2011).

Therefore, in this paper, we seek to describe the origins, development, and results of an entrepreneurship education course that is firmly embedded in its environment; i.e., the region of Andalusia. After this introduction, some contributions about the entrepreneurial process and the role of EE are considered. Then, in section three, the characteristics of the entrepreneurial structure in Andalusia are analysed. Next, the development of an entrepreneurship education programme specifically adapted to address these needs is presented. The paper ends with a brief conclusion.

2. The role of education in the entrepreneurial process

The literature has stressed different elements in their analysis of the entrepreneurial process. When this entrepreneurial process is carefully analysed (Moroz & Hindle, 2012; Shane, 2003), it

comes out that there are at least three kind of variables involved in any start-up: (a) the persons leading the project; (b) the environment in which it is embedded; and (c) the characteristics of the opportunity to be exploited. In the first place, Gartner's (1985) individual and, to some extent, process dimensions concentrate on people and their actions. Bygrave (2003) considers the personal factor as one key element, as Timmons (1999) does. Finally, Katz and Gartner (1988) also highlight the relevance of the individual's intention. Therefore, we think the individual's mental decision to create the firm should be considered as a first element to be analysed.

In our opinion, this personal intention is a previous element in the entrepreneurial process. Intention is a cognitive construct which captures the motivational factors influencing behaviours, and is described as the single best predictor of actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). However, intentions are difficult to analyse, and their link to actual performance also deserves close attention. As Shaver & Scott (1991: 28) point out, «most modern psychology subscribes to some version of the S-O-R [stimulus-organism-response] model, but all recognize that only the stimulus and the response can be observed directly. Any and all of the organismic variables (the various O states) must be inferred from the relationships observed between classes of stimuli and classes of responses».

In its original formulation by Ajzen (1991), intention depends on the individual's perceptions of three motivational elements: attraction towards the behaviour, social norms, and behavioural control. This model has been applied to firm creation with good results, becoming one of those "*organismic*" variables that mediate between stimulus and response. In this paper, we will be considering the entrepreneurial intention model as a basic element in the entrepreneurial process.

The environment in which the firm would be created may be considered as the second key element in the entrepreneurial process (Bygrave, 2003; W. B. Gartner, 1985). It is evident that potential entrepreneurs act within a specific milieu that influences their decisions and actions (Bird, 1989). The opportunities to be pursued will depend, at least partially, on the environmental characteristics. In this sense, ecological approaches have made extensive use of two concepts: munificence and carrying capacity (Specht, 1993). The first of these concepts is defined as the degree of resource abundance in that environment. This would be particularly relevant for more specific assets, such as highly-skilled labour force or advanced business services. In its broadest sense, therefore, munificence could be somewhat similar to Timmons' (1999) "*resource*" factor. Carrying capacity, in turn, refers to the number of organizations competing for the same resources or markets. There is some empirical evidence that these two factors do have an effect on start-up rates (Begley, Tan, & Schoch, 2005).

The presence of entrepreneurial role models in that society is another environmental element that has been extensively highlighted in the literature. Role-models have been recognized in general as an important source of "*vicarious learning*" (Bandura, 1986). In particular, with respect to entrepreneurship, there is strong empirical evidence relating entrepreneurial role-models to preference towards self-employment (Carsrud, Olm, & Eddy, 1987; Matthews & Moser, 1995; Scott & Twomey, 1988). A close personal contact with one or more of these role-models, if they are seen as successful entrepreneurs, would help potential founders to consider firm-creation as a visible, viable and respected career option for them (Davidsson, 1995; Kirby, 2003; Scherer, Brodzinsky, & Wiebe, 1991).

Finally, we will consider the business opportunity as the third variable in the entrepreneurial process. In the literature, there is a considerable debate about whether opportunities are discovered or enacted (Alsos & Kaikkonen, 2004; DeTienne & Chandler, 2004). The former would imply they are objective potential businesses that are there waiting for someone to exploit them (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). The latter, on the other hand, would mean opportunities have to be built by combining personal knowledge, skills, experience, and so on (W.B. Gartner, Carter, & Hills, 2003).

As Alsos & Kaikkonen (2004) point out, these two contrasting views would be based on different ontological perspectives about the world. One of them sees it as consisting of objective facts, while the other considers it as made up of subjective perceptions and constructions. In this sense, opportunity recognition could be understood as the combination of both elements: firstly, objective resources, market needs and information; and secondly, the potential entrepreneur's subjective abilities, skills and perceptions. This idea is presented in Figure 1.

A balance between both extreme views is proposed by Shaver and Scott (1991). In this sense, Alsos & Kaikkonen (2004) consider that the opportunity-generation process may include both discovering and creating elements. From a similar point of view, Hills, Shrader, and Lumpkin (1999) see opportunity recognition as a creative process. Opportunities may be seen as varying along an axis where pure objective discovery and subjective creation represent the two opposite extremes. Thus, DeTienne & Chandler (2004), even though they consider that opportunities are discovered, see creativity as an essential element in opportunity identification. Likewise, Krueger (2000) understands the pursuing of opportunities as an intentional behaviour and, therefore, suggests that intention models be used to study the opportunity identification process. Finally, once the idea has been accepted and becomes an opportunity, it may be the basis for a new venture. This final stage could be the elaboration of the business plan. This elaboration stage would be a different element separated from the opportunity recognition, but as problems and impediments arise, it may be necessary to go back to earlier stages of the creative process and (partially) re-elaborate the opportunity (DeTienne & Chandler, 2004; Sarason, Dean, & Dillard, 2006).

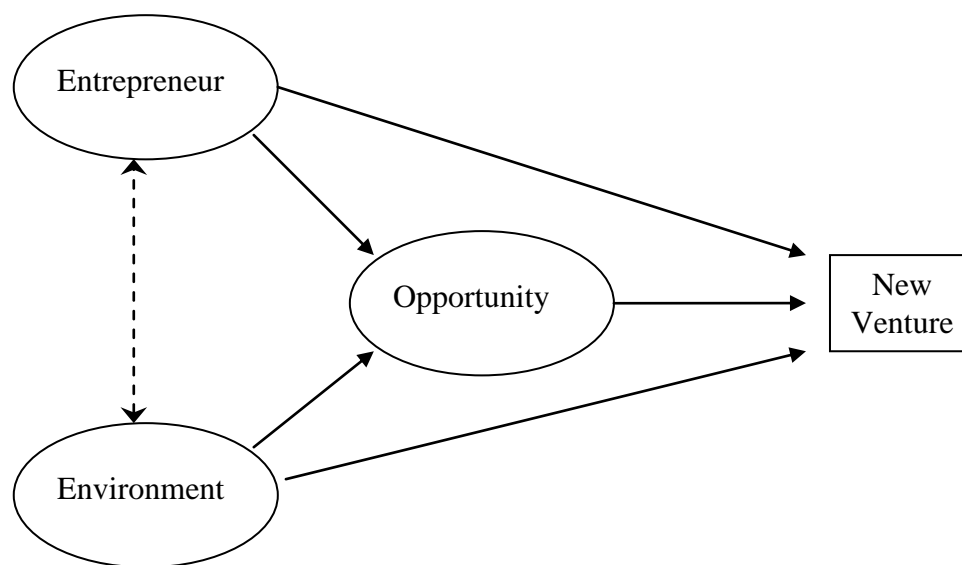


Figure 1. The entrepreneurial process

Source: Elaborated from Singh, Hills, and Lumpkin (1999), Figure 1.

Entrepreneurship education may act on the three basic elements of the entrepreneurial process, but to a different extent and with distinct instruments. Its major role will surely be played preparing the person for successfully attempting the start-up. In this sense, there have been numerous attempts to conceptualize entrepreneurship education. The simplest one identifies it with training for firm creation (McIntyre & Roche, 1999). On the other hand, wider conceptions are comprised of a number of objectives and of different stages that usually include action during the whole educational system (Ashmore, 1990). A similar approach, although not so wide, is supported by the European Commission (2003a).

In our opinion, therefore, entrepreneurial intention models could serve as the basis for an operative definition of entrepreneurship education (Fayolle, Gailly, & Lassas-Clerc, 2007), since intention models seem to provide a very useful framework for analysis of the entrepreneurial process (Fayolle & Gailly, 2005; Kolvereid, 1996; Krueger, 2000). Besides, the following conception would be wide enough to embrace those mentioned above:

«the whole set of education and training activities -within the educational system or not- that try to develop in the participants the intention to perform entrepreneurial behaviours, or some of the elements that affect that intention, such as entrepreneurial knowledge, desirability of the entrepreneurial activity, or its feasibility» (Liñán, 2007: 236).

This includes the development of knowledge, capacities, attitudes and personal qualities identified with entrepreneurship. Specifically for those of working age, entrepreneurship education would seek the effective creation of enterprises and their subsequent dynamism.

According to this view, it may be argued that stimulating entrepreneurship through education should consider the three elements of the process (Figure 1). In practice, however, it is very common for entrepreneurship education initiatives to concentrate on those participants that already have an entrepreneurial intention and have identified an opportunity (Liñán, 2007). Many of these people may attempt firm creation even if they do not take any course. Yet, they may be lacking detailed knowledge about their closer environment (where the firm would operate) and, most commonly, not know what specific steps should be taken to start a firm. In this situation, the training could be very useful and significantly increase the number of start-ups effectively attempted. This could be identified as “*start-up education*”, and it usually concentrates on the business-plan elaboration, carrying out visits to entrepreneurs and support bodies, or taking in local relevant guest speakers (Honig, 2004). The electives available at the University of Seville are of this kind.

However, when substantially increasing the levels of entrepreneurial activity is a major concern, as it is the case in Spain or, more generally, in the European Union (European Commission, 2003b), a wider approach to entrepreneurship education should be used. The inclusion of some awareness contents within the training would be very important. It might be integrated within the same course, or as a separate one. This latter option has been adopted by some relevant initiatives outside the university, such as the Graduate Enterprise Programme in the United Kingdom (Brown, 1990) or the Entrepreneur-Service in Norway (Kaltefleiter, 1998).

On the other hand, there is no need to limit the education programme to the start-up phase. It might be possible to implement initiatives to develop dynamic behaviours in the participants (Foley & Griffith, 1998). In this sense, Gibb (1987) pointed out the importance of training contents relating not only to the pre-start-up phase, but also to the post-creation stages. With respect to this, Garavan and O’Cinneide (1994b) highlight aspects such as “*managing growth*” or “*continuous team building*”.

Entrepreneurship is considered as a process where the entrepreneur interacts with his/her environment to identify an opportunity and, eventually, start a new venture. Educational interventions may act upon different elements of that process. Therefore, in Figure 2 we try to summarise the different kinds of training activities identified so far, and where they would exert their main effect.

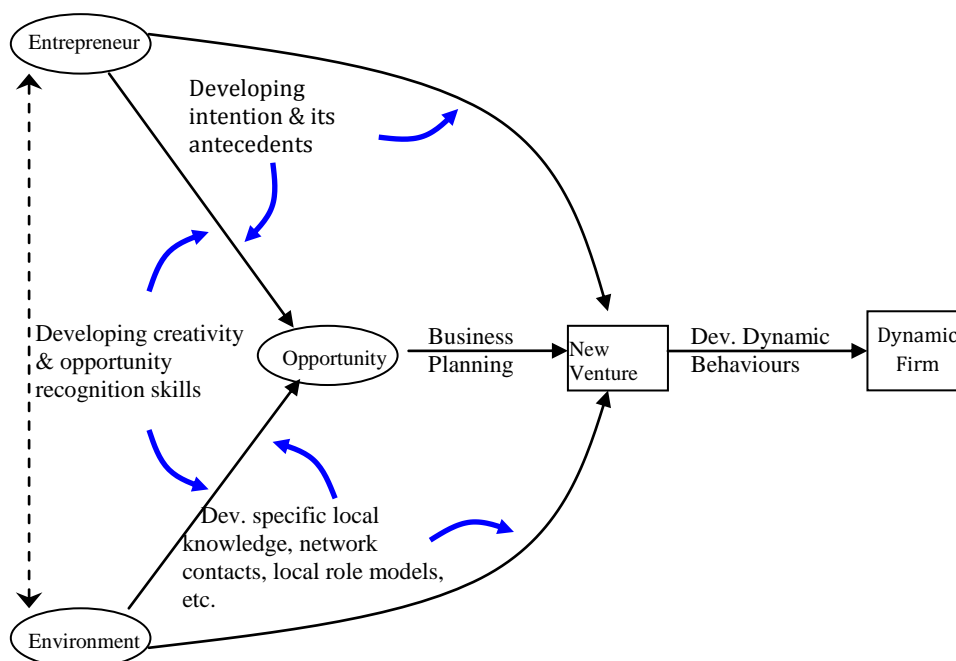


Figure 2. Role of entrepreneurship education in the entrepreneurial process
Source: Liñán (2007, p. 241, Figure 13.4)

According to Figure 2, development of the entrepreneurial intention could allegedly be considered as the first element to be addressed. In this sense, Kent (1990) indicated that the general opinion towards entrepreneurs is not very favourable. He was referring to the United States, but this is probably even truer in Europe (European Commission, 2003b). Transmitting the important role entrepreneurs play in economic growth and development would help improve participants' valuation of entrepreneurship. Similarly, Fillion (1995) includes in the category of "*foundations of entrepreneurship*" a series of courses that could be clearly considered as entrepreneurial awareness education. In particular, besides insisting on the importance of the entrepreneur in the economy, the following contents may be highlighted: transmitting the roles and aspects of entrepreneurship, together with the problems usually faced; identifying the abilities used by entrepreneurs, making clear that they may be developed and showing some techniques to do so; and making explicit the successive steps involved in both the start-up and the firm-development processes.

Peterman and Kennedy (2003) found that participants not having much previous experience regarding entrepreneurship -and not specially positive- increased their perceived feasibility and desirability more. Fayolle, Gailly and Lassas-Clerc (2007) and Cooper and Lucas (2007), also found a similar result: those with lower initial levels of intention increased them more than the rest. There would be a rationale, then, to try to reach all those that do not even consider this option. It may very well be the case that after participating in the programme they change their minds. In this sense, helping participants make their personal objectives explicit in the short and in the long run (their "*mission*") and see how it may be compatible with entrepreneurship could be another very interesting exercise, which has already been tried out with good results (Brown, 1990; Fillion, 1995; Foley & Griffith, 1998; Garavan & O'Cinneide, 1994a).

Contents described so far would have their main effect in affecting perceived desirability and, to a lesser extent, feasibility. However, it should be noted that all other possible contents depicted in Figure 2 would also affect intentions and their antecedents (Liñán, 2007). The difference, therefore, lies in their main purpose. For that reason, these contents described below should be considered as primarily pursuing the stated objective, but indirectly affecting the entrepreneurial intention of participants (Liñán, Rodríguez-Cohard, et al., 2011).

To develop opportunity recognition abilities, Epstein (1996) identified four skills to enhance creativity. DeTienne and Chandler (2004) have adapted those skills into a training model named as SEEC (securing, expanding, exposing and challenging). They offer a detailed list of activities that could be used in an opportunity-recognition course. When they tested this model, results indicated that this training model led to the identification of more opportunities and more innovative opportunities.

On the lower part of Figure 2, over the Environment/Opportunity/New Venture area, a set of measures has been included which are specifically addressed to increase the knowledge of the local business environment, developing network contacts and having the possibility to interact with local successful role models. The importance of developing local network contacts has been highlighted by a number of authors (Johannisson, 1991).

However, it is possible to go further. Hartshorn and Parvin (1999) describe a training programme which includes mentoring of participants by local entrepreneurs. Each student is placed with an entrepreneur/mentor who considers the student as a kind of advisor, letting him/her take part in all business decisions made by the entrepreneur. This would be very important not only to get a closer and more accurate knowledge of what being an entrepreneur is, but also to introduce the prospective entrepreneur in the local business circles (Gibb, 1998).

Similarly, Kent (1990) suggests the utility of using “*socialization*” seminars for participants. Local entrepreneurs and relevant business community stakeholders are invited to participate as well. This gives participants the opportunity to know “*who is who*” in the local business world, to establish important contacts, to solve specific doubts that they may have, and also to reinforce their motivation.

At the Opportunity/New Venture link, business plans are a very well-known and widely used pedagogical methodology (Gorman, Hanlon, & King, 1997). They would not only provide an operationalization of the business opportunity (Lechner & Dowling, 1998), but also serve as a legitimization of the entrepreneur. They would produce «an aura of formality and conviction often required before an individual's creation of a new organization will be taken seriously» (Honig, 2004: 260). Besides, it may reasonably be argued that increased specific knowledge and formalization of the business idea would also help increase perceived self-efficacy of the potential entrepreneur.

However, some recent studies (Carrier, 2005) indicate that a course consisting only of the production of a business plan may have a negative effect on desirability. This result, if confirmed, would be strengthening the case for a wider entrepreneurship education programme, including some or all of the contents described in this section as a complement to the business planning.

Finally, an additional element that could be also included in entrepreneurship education would refer to the development of dynamic behaviours once the firm is in operation. If these contents are integrated, we would be talking of “*education for entrepreneurial dynamism*” or entrepreneurial quality (Santos & Liñán, 2007). Some examples that could be considered here have been described by Garavan and O’Cinneide (1994b), and they include teaching on how to manage growth and its implications for the entrepreneur’s time, the firm’s structure and functioning, financing requirements, and so on. Similarly, the need for the entrepreneurial team to be continuously re-built to adapt to new situations would also be included, together with motivation of human resources and leadership.

3. A revision of entrepreneurship in Andalusia

The concept of “*entrepreneurship*” may be applied broadly or in a narrow and focused way, depending on the context. Despite the definitional differences, it is commonly agreed that entrepreneurship is a driving force behind SMEs. Substantial entrepreneurial behaviour can

occur among existing entrepreneurs and existing firms, including longer established firms, and the systematisation of innovation and commercialisation within existing firms.

Generally, entrepreneurship comprises two viewpoints (OECD, 1998):

- a) First, entrepreneurship may be defined as the capacity to create and develop new business ventures, with studies focusing on the process of creation of new firms.
- b) Second, entrepreneurship may refer to the process to develop economic activity by building risk-taking, creativity and/or innovation capabilities, within a new or an existing organization.

Therefore, we can analyse these two dimensions of entrepreneurship: a quantitative dimension in reference to the number of firms and a qualitative dimension in reference to some entrepreneurial characteristics and behaviours.

Entrepreneurship has been historically poor in Andalucía: deficiencies in entrepreneurial culture and entrepreneurial dynamism (birth, survival and expansion) are some major structural drawback in Andalucía (Faiña, Lopez-Rodriguez, Romero, Fernández-Serrano, & Montes-Solla, 2014). So, quantitative and qualitative entrepreneurship deficiencies can be observed in Andalusia.

3.1. Quantitative dimension of entrepreneurship

This section will try to approach this dimension by observing two indicators on entrepreneurship: Business Density and Total Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA). As may be seen in Figure 3, the level of business density - measured as the number of businesses per 1,000 inhabitants - has increased both in Andalusia and the whole of Spain in the last two decades. Nevertheless, this density in Andalusia has been traditionally among the lowest within the Spanish regions.

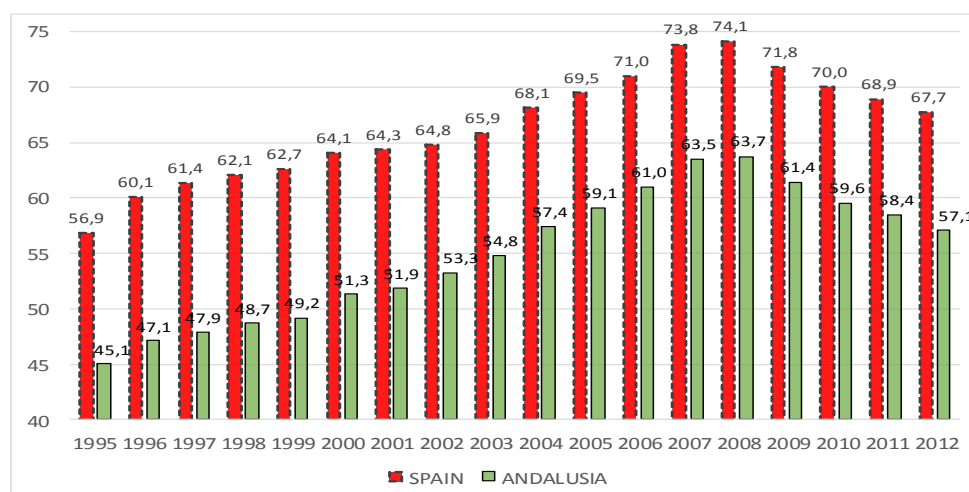


Figure 3. Business density (number of business per 1,000 inhabitants)
Source: Elaborated from DIRCE, INE.

Two clearly differentiated processes clearly emerge from Figure 3 (Romero & Fernández-Serrano, 2013):

- First, an incomplete process of catching-up: the gap between the Andalusian and national averages decreased by more than five percentage points over the whole period 1995-2012: from 79.3 percent to 84.3 percent of the national average.

- Second, the evolution of this indicator has followed the business cycle: a steady increase throughout the expansion period 1995-2008 (in which Andalusia reduced by almost seven percentage points its gap with the national average) followed by a fall in the current crisis 2009-2012 (in which the Andalusian catching-up process has been partially reversed).

Regarding TEA rates (defined as the percentage of the 18-64 years-old population who are either a nascent entrepreneur or owner-manager of a new business) Andalusia has presented levels of entrepreneurial activity comparable to the national average (see Table 1). The average rate of Total Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) in the period 2003-12 has been 6.0 in Andalusia and 6.1 in the whole Spain. Andalusia shows lower rates than Cataluña (6.9) or Extremadura (6.2) for the period, but higher than the Basque Country (4.8) or Navarra (5.4) regions which have traditionally been associated with a sound entrepreneurial culture. Nevertheless, the qualitative characteristics of entrepreneurs will help explain this apparent contradiction.

Table 1.
TEA in the Spanish regions

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Andalusia	6.2	6.0	5.7	6.1	7.2	6.7	6.3	4.0	5.8	6.1
Catalonia	7.7	5.6	6.8	8.6	8.4	7.3	6.4	4.0	6.8	7.5
Madrid	---	4.4	6.9	9.3	7.9	8.5	5.1	4.5	5.6	4.4
The Basque country	---	5.3	5.4	5.4	6.4	7.0	3.0	2.5	3.9	4.4
Extremadura	7.7	7.0	7.0	8.3	8.1	7.1	3.3	2.6	6.0	5.1
Navarra	---	---	5.5	6.3	8.1	6.5	3.9	3.6	5.5	4.4
Spain	6.8	5.2	5.7	7.3	7.6	7.0	5.1	4.3	5.8	5.7

Source: Ruiz, Martínez, Medina, and Ramos (2013)

3.2. Qualitative dimension of the entrepreneurship

In the long run, the improvements in business demography and entrepreneurial activity require a detailed analysis about the quality of the firms created. In this way, we anticipate two problems. First, the Andalusian productive system is characterised by a marked predominance of self-employed workers and microenterprises; and a comparatively low participation of SMEs and large enterprises. Secondly, the high level of TEA could be partially explained by high Andalusian unemployment rates (36.3% versus 26.4% in Spain in 2013) as factors causing an increase in the number of new entrepreneurs driven by necessity motives¹ (Romero & Fernández-Serrano, 2013).

In the present study, we analyse this qualitative dimension in detail by comparing Andalusia with three high-income Spanish regions: Navarra, Basque Country and Madrid. The methodology used in this analysis follows Fernández-Serrano and Romero (2013). A survey on Spanish entrepreneurs carried out in 2011 was designed to gather data to measure the qualitative entrepreneurship dimension. The interviewee is the entrepreneur, defined as a business owner who also assumes managerial functions within the firm. A response rate of 20.8 percent was obtained in fieldwork. The enterprises participating in the survey were randomly selected using public information from DIRCE (Official Spanish Company Register) from the National Statistics Institute (INE). The stratified sample, with quotas for sectors and firm size, was representative of the business population of every region included in the study. The final sample had 260 observations in each region, corresponding to a $\pm 6.5\%$ error margin, and a confidence level of 95% percent. Most of the firms (87.6%) were long-established companies (over 5 years old) and employed less than 10 workers (87.9%).

¹ Necessity entrepreneurs represent 21.5% of the total number of entrepreneurs in Spain and 25.9% in Andalusia as an average in the period 2008-12.

The statistical method used is comprised of a series of logistic regressions, therefore, the following dependent variable was included to carry out the regression:

- Dependent variable (Andalusia). This variable takes the value “1” if the firm is from Andalusia (260 observations), and “0” if the firm is from Madrid, Navarra or Basque Country.

Three groups of variables were used to measure the qualitative aspects of the entrepreneur: cognitive variables, human capital and entrepreneurial capabilities.

3.2.1 Cognitive variables: motivations and self-efficacy

Two personal features of the entrepreneurs are considered: the nature and strength of their motivations and their self-efficacy. Regarding the first of them, the entrepreneurs interviewed were asked about their level of agreement with the six statements related to their motivations for start-up. The answers were coded using a Likert scale with 7 items (from “1” meaning absolute disagreement to “7” meaning full agreement). Since there are certain correlations between the different items from the questionnaire which measure these variables, a factorial analysis was carried out in order to include a lower number of uncorrelated variables in the regression model. As a result of this, the following two vectors with eigenvalues greater than one were obtained (60.35% variance explained; Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin = 0.687):

- Pull Motivation. This factor draws individual motivation towards an entrepreneurial career. It explains 38.06% of the total variance. This motivation implies that entrepreneurs start-up their firm because this was the best option for his/her personal and professional development, they want to be his/her own boss; they wanted to take advantage of a good economic opportunity and they believed they would earn a higher income than working as an employee.
- Push Motivation. This vector includes motivations that may have forced the individual going into self-employment. Thus, they would correspond more closely to a necessity motivation. It explains 22.29% of total variance. “Push entrepreneurs” started a new firm up because they did not have another option (they were unemployed) or they had to add to the family income.

Entrepreneurs were also asked about their level of agreement with four questions related to their self-efficacy. The questions were: “I am capable of have a viable business”; “I can control the process of boosting of the business”; “I know the practical details to continue expanding the activity”; and “If trying to expand the business, have a high probability of successfully”. The answers were coded using a Likert scale with 7 items (from 1 meaning absolute disagreement to 7 meaning full agreement). A factorial analysis was carried out and only one vector was obtained:

- Self-efficacy. This vector draws individual self-efficacy towards an entrepreneurial activity. The vector explains 55.47% of the variance in the original scale items (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin = 0.681).

3.2.2 Human capital

This group of variables aims to analyse the main characteristics of human capital of entrepreneurs. The variables are:

- Descendant of an entrepreneur. Dummy variable, it takes value “1” if the interviewee has mother or father entrepreneur and “0” in the negative case.

- Study level. This continuous variable reflecting the level of education of entrepreneurs. Takes the following values: "1" not studies, "2" primary education; "3" secondary education; "4" Vocational Training and "5" university degree.
- Specialised Business Training. Entrepreneurs were asked whether they had attended specialised courses related to their economic activity. This dummy variable takes the value "0" for "No" and "1" for "Yes".
- Work experience. This dummy variable takes value "1" if the interviewee had previously worked as employee before running your current business and value "0" in the negative case.
- Entrepreneurship experience. This variable takes value "1" if the interviewee had previously worked as an entrepreneur before running their current business and value "0" in the negative case.

3.2.3 Capabilities

As indicators of managerial, energizer and social capabilities, we use the following variables, identified in the literature as relevant for entrepreneurship (Jiao & Cui, 2010; Woldesenbet, Ram, & Jones, 2012):

- Innovation. The entrepreneurs interviewed were asked: Are you taking actions to introduce innovations (in its broadest sense, not just R & D), variable dummy, takes the value "1" for yes and "0" for not.
- Proactivity. This variable takes value "1" if the firm habitually carries out activities for the monitoring and forecasting of the firm's performance, as well as for and the search and identification of new markets and business opportunities.
- Risk-taking. The entrepreneurs interviewed are asked about their tendency to undertake high-risk projects. The answers are coded according to a seven-item Likert-type scale.
- Ambition. This variable is result of a factorial analysis. Four questions (Likert-type scale) were included: "The idea that my business grow is attractive", "Managing a larger company would be an exciting challenge", "Having a large company would be gratifying", "I wish my company was a large company". One vector was obtained. It explains 80.10 % of the variance (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin = 0.730).
- Cooperation. This variable reflects the existence of collaboration agreements between firms. It takes value "0" in the case of absence of any type of cooperation with other firms, "1" if informal cooperation existed, and "2" in the case of the existence of formal cooperation agreements.

Additionally, we also included three variables to analyse the specific kind of this cooperation.

- Research and Development cooperation. This dummy variable takes value "1" if the firm carried out any cooperation activity with other firms in the field of research and development and "0" in the negative case.
- Production cooperation. It takes value "1" if the firm carried out any cooperation activity with other firms regarding the organization of production and "0" in the negative case.
- Distribution and Sales cooperation. This variable takes value "1" if the firm carried out any cooperation activity with other firms regarding the distribution and sales of its products and 0 in the negative case.

Table 2.
Logistic regression: qualitative entrepreneurship model

	Cognitive		Human Cap.		Capabilities		Qualit. model	
	B	Sig.	B	Sig.	B	Sig.	B	Sig.
Push Motivation	0.169	*					0.127	*
Pull Motivation	0.125	0.09					0.046	0.57
Self-efficacy	-0.140	*					-0.164	*
Descendant of entrep.			0.213	0.15			0.166	0.29
Work experience			-0.423	**			-0.621	***
Entrepreneurial experience			-0.483	**			-0.321	*
Study level			-0.093	0.20			-0.052	0.47
Specialised courses			0.519	***			0.572	***
Innovation					-0.452	**	-0.431	**
Proactivity					-0.072	0.35	-0.081	0.32
Ambition					0.441	***	0.441	***
Cooperation					0.056	0.62	0.112	0.33
R&D cooperation					-0.841	**	-0.885	**
Production cooperation					-0.282	0.23	-0.251	0.28
Sales cooperation					0.211	0.38	0.232	0.34
Risk-taking					-0.282	***	-0.292	***
Constant	-1.108	***	-0.826	**	-0.146	0.82	-0.152	0.85
R-Nagelkerke	0.017		0.038		0.133		0.176	
Correct Predictions (%)	60.1		61.1		68.4		70.1	

Dependent variable: Andalusia (1), Other regions (Madrid, Basque Country, Navarra) (0)
Differences statistically significant: at the 0.001 level (***); 0.01 level (**); 0.05 level (*)

Table 2 presents the results of a logistic regression analysis for each block of variables and also for the whole qualitative model with all the variables jointly included. The variance inflation factors (VIF) and the condition indexes (CI) indicate that multicollinearity is not a problem in these models. The highest condition index is 9.16 and the highest FIV is 2.29, this being observed for the variable cooperation.

Entrepreneurs with a high self-efficacy have a lower probability of being found in Andalusia, whereas this probability increases for those entrepreneurs with a push (necessity) motivation. Our results in this respect are in line with previous research from an international perspective within the GEM project, as seen above.

The variable work experience and entrepreneurship experience have a negative and significant coefficient, showing that the inexperienced business owners are more probably located in Andalusia and they try to compensate for these deficiencies with specific courses.

Andalusian entrepreneur have a higher level of ambition. Nevertheless, we take this result as the recognition that their firms are smaller and they are aware of the disadvantage they suffer when compared to larger firms. However, at the same time, these entrepreneurs are more likely to be characterized by lower levels of risk-taking and innovation capabilities in comparison with

those in the others regions, as the negative coefficient of the corresponding β coefficients in the logit regressions indicate. Likewise, no difference is detected regarding proactivity and cooperation, but the Research and Development cooperation is less likely in Andalusia. Again, this represent an important weakness of the Andalusian enterprises and may be a reflection of their smaller size and higher orientation towards local (less sophisticated) markets.

4. Entrepreneurial teaching in Andalusia: the case of secondary school teachers at the university of Seville

Based on the diagnosis just carried out, we find that Andalusian entrepreneurs are relatively scarce, so there is a solid justification to promote entrepreneurship and new venture creation. At the same time, they are motivated by a push factor and lack sufficient self-efficacy perceptions. In this sense, training should include a substantial component related to the values and motivations associated to the entrepreneurial activity. A Business Model generation exercise should also be useful to increase their self-efficacy perceptions.

Regarding human capital variables, the difficult economic situation is reflected by the lower experience and a higher interest and participation in specialised business training. Therefore, experiential and active learning methodologies should be used to compensate this lack of experience. This will also help in the development of a higher self-efficacy.

Andalusian entrepreneurs (when compared to those in more developed regions) lack innovation and risk-taking capabilities. To help compensate these deficiencies, specific creativity and innovation training should be included in the programme. We have also found that these entrepreneurs are conscious of their weaknesses in terms of size. For this reason, emphasis is placed in the need to seek expansion of the business by escalation of the activities, and by implementing opportunities that are not oriented only to the local market. This stress in business growth is highlighted both in the idea generation and in the Business Model generation exercise.

The specific case study in this section refers to the University Master in Secondary School Studies, A-Level studies, Vocational Training and Languages (MAES) that this university has offered since 2010. Our choice is based on three reasons: the potential effects, the profile of the students and the teaching experience accumulated.

Firstly, the Master influences the educational system and, at the same time, the region's labour market. This official course targets the entrepreneurial training that the future secondary school teachers will need to stimulate innovative behaviour among their students. However, more than half of the participants of the Master do not have a clear idea about their work future and are considering the alternative of setting up their own company as a professional option.

Secondly, the participants' university background is varied and they tend to have experience as employees, at times in more than one sector. The multidisciplinary profile of students who have professional experience in different fields creates an enriching and uncommon framework in the area of Andalusian public universities. This certainly warrants research. Thirdly, the authors belong to the teaching team of the module dedicated to entrepreneurship education in this Master. They have been teaching this subject since it began in 2010, accumulating a substantial experience and information.

The MAES include several possible minors. In particular, we focus on the Labour Training and Orientation (career counselling) minor. Within it, a Module on "*Complimentary Disciplinary Training*" intends to make the students aware of the existence and viability of entrepreneurial activity as a professional option. This will allow them to disseminate entrepreneurial activity among their students in the different levels of secondary school. To do so, our involvement with the future teachers aims to improve their training in aspects which are directly related to the promoting of entrepreneurial competencies. This is because they are the ones who will be in direct contact with these young people and in charge of stimulating them, motivating them and

training them in these competencies so that they can generate business ideas and acquire the knowledge necessary to set up an entrepreneurial project.

To this end, Complimentary Disciplinary Training develops the following transversal/ generic skills in the students: teamwork, entrepreneurial initiative and spirit, the capacity to organise and plan, and skills in interpersonal relationships and in retrieving and analysing information from different sources. The subject also help develop the following specific competencies: understanding the venture creation processes, innovation skills, promotion of the entrepreneurial spirit and business ethics, to manage the firm-creation process –considering the joint influence of the person, the opportunity and the environment– and, finally, to work out and evaluate the viability plans of new business initiatives.

This module's contents are structured into two areas. Firstly, a view of entrepreneurial activity in general is offered. This includes aspects such as the concept of entrepreneurship and that of the entrepreneur, the role of entrepreneurs in the modern economy, the process view of entrepreneurial activities and the stages of this entrepreneurial process. Secondly, the module aims at providing the participants – future teachers – with a series of tools which they can use in their labour orientation work with their students in the different levels of secondary school. This subject aims to be an active learning experience. For this to be so, the students will be entrusted with a series of activities (tasks and projects) at both the individual and group level. The effective carrying out of these activities is always related to the subject's aims and allows the students to develop the necessary skills and competencies. The subject therefore has the following structure:

First part: Business activities

1. The concept of entrepreneur
2. The business person and economic development
3. The business process
4. The stages of the business process

Second part: Tools for promoting the entrepreneurial spirit

1. Entrepreneurial values and attitudes
2. The entrepreneur's interpersonal skills (negotiation, leadership, social skills, etc.)
3. Creativity and innovation
4. Recognising and evaluating opportunities
5. Introduction to the business model

The Master has a clearly practical orientation. This is why the evaluation of the activities – both on campus and off campus - is essential for assessing the student's learning. The course's virtual platform is a fundamental support for this. The following activities are carried out during the course. The temporal organization is described in Table 3.

- Activity 1: A record of business ideas. The student will have to work out a list of possible business ideas from the first day of class to the date of handing in the activity. This activity will be handed in via the platform.
- Activity 2: A questionnaire of values and attitudes. The student will fill it out to identify their own value priorities and motivations. It will be handed in via the platform.
- Activity 3: Group work about negotiation and human resources. The students will have to solve the activity in class and present the results to their classmates. The groups will be made up of 3-4 people.
- Activity 4: Group selection and evaluation of business ideas. The students will present in class their "best" individual idea from the list of Activity 1. Groups (3-4 people) will be made up by gathering the ideas together according to their affinity. Each group will strictly evaluate the individual ideas proposed by its members and will select one.

- Activity 5: The profile of an entrepreneur. The students will individually interview an entrepreneur - following the script set out - and will write up a detailed report about the entrepreneur's experience. This report will be handed in via the platform one week before being discussed in class.
- Activity 6: Business model. Each group will develop a business model from the idea selected in Activity 4. The business models will be handed in via the platform before being presented in class. In this way the teacher can study it first.

Table 3.
Didactic plan

Session	Lecturer	Subject	Activities
1	Professor 1	Presentation	Activities 1, 2 & 5 start
2	Professor 1	Concept of entrepreneur	
3	Professor 1	Entrepreneurship and economic development	
4	Professor 1		
5	Professor 1	Entrepreneurial process and stages	Activs. 1 & 2 handed in
6	Professor 1	Values and attitudes	Activ. 2 class discussion
7	Professor 2	Interpersonal skills	Activ. 4 starts Activ. 3 done in class
8	Professor 2	Opportunity Recognition and evaluation	Activ. 4 class discussion Activ. 5 handed in
9	Professor 1	Profile of the entrepreneur	Activ. 5 class discussion
10	Professor 3	Creativity and innovation	
11	Professor 3		
12	Professor 3	Business model	Activ. 6 starts
13	Professor 3		
14	Professor 3		Activ. 6 presented in class

This methodology has offered very satisfactory results along the different years, as shown in Figure 4. As may be seen, students' evaluations have always been highly positive, with the average over 80% every year. This compares substantially better to most other module in the Master and is a reflection, we think, of the interest and didactic approached followed in this subject.

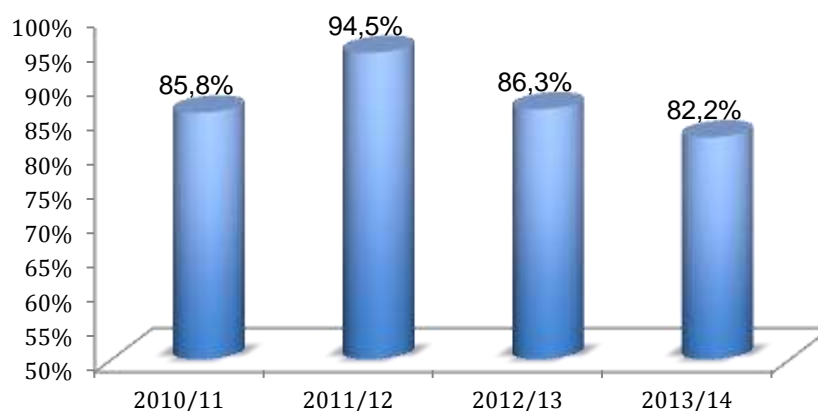


Figure 4. Global acquisition of competencies

As can be seen in the figure, the global progress has been considerable, surpassing 80% in all the examinations. With respect to the decrease in the last year, there was a change of programming in the Master which meant that the students' work placements in schools coincided with the teaching of this subject during part of the course. This was detrimental to the teaching of this and other subjects and to off-campus activities and caused the readjustment of the changes for the following academic year.

5. Conclusions

In this paper, an entrepreneurship education course has been presented. The course structure and contents are based on the identification of the specific needs and deficiencies of the local entrepreneurs in Andalusia, and it thus clearly attempts to be embedded in the local context. The master includes a number of instruments contributing to the increase of student's self-efficacy and promoting cooperation. In this way, it favours that students with different psychological profiles and diverging professional capacities work together around a common project. In order to compensate the relative weaknesses in professional and entrepreneurial experience in Andalusia, the master provides students with a selection of case studies and local guest entrepreneurs. Finally, the low risk and innovation propensities found in the regional environment are tackled through a methodology aimed at promoting creativity and innovation among the future entrepreneurs.

The course is offered to students in the Master in Secondary School Teaching (MAES) at the University of Seville. In this sense, besides the direct effect on the participants, an additional indirect effect is sought through their implementation of entrepreneurial education initiatives in the secondary schools where they may end up teaching. In particular, since the participants are minoring on career counselling, they may be in a very influential position to open the minds of their pupils to the entrepreneurial career path.

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Por conta própria ou à própria sorte? Sobre a pequena empresa competitiva e seu empreendedor

To their own or to their fate? About the competitive small business and its entrepreneur

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Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

Fecha de recepción: 15 de septiembre de 2015

Fecha de revisión: 21 de septiembre de 2015

Fecha de aceptación: 07 de octubre de 2015

Cypriano C. A. (2015). Por conta própria ou à própria sorte? Sobre a pequena empresa competitiva e seu empreendedor . *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 133–152.



Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers, Vol. 6 (2)

ISSN 1989 – 9572

<http://www.ugr.es/~jett/index.php>

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Resumo

Atualmente, dá-se grande relevo ao empreendedorismo e aos pequenos negócios, como fatores desencadeantes de desenvolvimento social e econômico. É necessária uma melhor compreensão das causas, consequências possíveis e interesses envolvidos nesse processo de valorização, expresso através da e sua caracterização como campo específico do conhecimento e como objeto de ensino e pesquisa acadêmicos. O empreendedorismo, considerado como uma disposição individual específica, é erroneamente tomado como capaz de tornar o pequeno negócio competitivo no marco do capitalismo contemporâneo. Este artigo não pretende realizar uma crítica à pequena empresa e ao empreendedor em si, mas ao sentido ideológico estruturante dos diversos discursos que instituem esse agente e seu “*estilo de pensamento*”. Foram identificados e avaliados os pesos relativos que compõem a imagem institucionalizada do objeto – a obra e seu autor. Os resultados evidenciaram a importância conferida a determinados aspectos que sobressaem, como disposição ao risco, capacidade criativa e de adaptação ao cenário de mudanças propaladas como “*naturais*”. Outros aspectos subjazem ao longo do processo, como a assunção pelo indivíduo de toda responsabilidade pelo acontecido em sua ação empreendedora e a legitimação da funcionalidade da pequena empresa face à reprodução sistêmica do capitalismo contemporâneo.

Abstract

Recently, entrepreneurship and small business have been highly regarded as triggering factors of social and economic development. It's necessary a deeper understanding of the causes, possible consequences and interests related to this process as well as its characterization as a specific field of knowledge and as a teaching and research academic object. Entrepreneurship, considered as a specific individual inclination, is misleadingly conceived as being able to render the small enterprise competitive in the contemporary capitalism arena. The objective of this paper is not to criticize the small business nor the entrepreneur in themselves, but the ideologic meaning that structures the several discourses that conform that agent and his “*thinking style*”. The relative weights that compose the institutionalized image of the object – the work and its author – were identified and evaluated. The results showed the importance granted to certain aspects such as disposition to risk, creative ability, and adaptation to scenery changes touted as being “*naturals*”. Other aspects underlay along the process, such as the assumption by the individual of all responsibility for what happens in his entrepreneurial action, and the legitimation of the functionality of the small enterprise concerning the systemic reproduction of contemporary capitalism.

Palavras-chave

Empreendedorismo; Empreendedor; Pequena empresa; Ideologia; Educação; Desenvolvimento

Keywords

Entrepreneurship; Entrepreneur; Small business; Ideology; Education; Development

1. Introdução

Estava acertado que quem se entregasse à fantasia e ao arbitrário, quem criasse um jogo ou quisesse escapar à pobreza arriscaria tudo. Jogando, podia perder. Mas quem não jogasse não poderia perder. Ninguém podia desconfiar que chegaria um tempo, já iminente, precisamente o tempo moderno, no qual quem não jogasse perderia sempre e com mais certeza do que quem jogass¹.

Está demonstrado, dizia ele [Pangloss], que as coisas não podem ser de outra maneira: pois, como tudo foi feito para um fim, tudo está necessariamente destinado ao melhor fim. Queiram notar que os narizes foram feitos para usar óculos, e por isso nós temos óculos. As pernas foram visivelmente instituídas para as calças, e por isso temos calças. As pedras foram feitas para serem talhadas e edificar castelos, e por isso Monsenhor tem um lindo castelo; o mais considerável barão da província deve ser o mais bem alojado; e, como os porcos foram feitos para serem comidos, nós comemos porco o ano inteiro: por conseguinte, aqueles que asseveravam que tudo está bem disseram uma tolice; deviam era dizer que tudo está o melhor possível².

Os dois textos em epígrafe representam bem os sentidos constantes do discurso atual acerca do empreendedorismo e da pequena empresa dita competitiva. Aparentemente contraditórios assim é, a nosso ver, a forma como se apresentam tais discursos feitos pelos mais variados agentes, da academia aos “gurus” empresariais, do texto da política pública à ação das agências de fomento.

A naturalidade com que os indivíduos se lançam aos negócios, repetidamente, e vivenciam experiências de insucesso (Perrin, 2015), a despeito das evidências teóricas e empíricas em contrário e, por outro lado, a forma como esse comportamento é caracterizado, conceituado e incentivado, com o beneplácito e a participação do Estado, evidenciam como a ação deste nunca esteve tão afastada das necessidades da maioria dos indivíduos e que a legitimidade de sua ação político-administrativa encontra-se cada vez mais questionada.

O texto procura discutir de forma crítica o relevo dado atualmente aos pequenos negócios como fator desencadeante de desenvolvimento social e econômico e, associado a isto, o empreendedorismo como uma disposição individual específica capaz de tornar o pequeno negócio competitivo no marco do capitalismo contemporâneo.

Não se trata de uma crítica à pequena empresa e ao empreendedorismo em si mesmo, mas do sentido estruturante contido nas relações sociais de produção que institui esse agente com seu “estilo de pensamento”. Visualizar os pesos relativos que compõem a imagem institucionalizada do objeto – a obra e seu autor – evidenciando a importância de determinados aspectos que sobressaem, diante de outros que subjazem ao longo do processo, permite uma compreensão mais “realista” das causas, consequências possíveis e interesses envolvidos no fenômeno.

Várias são as proposições existentes a respeito de vias alternativas de desenvolvimento baseadas na pequena empresa. O trabalho de Piore e Sabel (1984) ao discutir o fenômeno da produção flexível e de Becattini (1987) sobre distritos industriais italianos podem ser considerados como um ponto de partida para tais proposições. Embora não se possa dizer tratar-se de algo inteiramente original, tampouco se pode ignorar a reelaboração de seu papel e função, que passam a ser associados aos processos de desenvolvimento econômico, tecnológico e social.

O assunto transborda da esfera acadêmico-científica para a profissional-consultiva, como seria esperado, e desde algum tempo se transforma numa espécie de fenômeno tratado na esfera

¹ De Charles Péguy, em L'Argent. Epígrafe do livro de Luc Boltansky e Éve Chiapello (2009), O novo espírito do capitalismo.

² De Voltaire em Candide ou L'Optimisme.

do econômico-produtivo, da ciência & tecnologia, e do desenvolvimento social como objeto da política pública. Sua repercussão está normalmente vinculada a “*projetos*” de desenvolvimento nacional no qual cumpriria um papel estratégico em ambientes capitalistas periféricos ou em crise. Um tema socializado maciçamente e que vem frequentando regularmente os mais diversos espaços da mídia, os noticiários jornalísticos e dispendo, inclusive, de veículos de divulgação especializados³.

A primeira impressão é a de estarmos vivendo uma autêntica “*revolução*” nas formas de organização da produção e de termos encontrado uma “*saída*” para o desenvolvimento nacional autossustentado.

Essa situação se desdobra com a expansão de organismos e ações dedicadas ao fenômeno e que vai refletir-se, também, na instituição de um espaço de geração e difusão de conhecimento científico relacionado ao tema, seja através da re-constituição de temáticas específicas como o empreendedorismo e de cursos especializados sobre o objeto que ganha um sentido específico – um *status* teórico específico e pela introdução de disciplinas relacionadas nos currículos acadêmicos.

A temática do empreendedorismo e do empreendedor se desdobra em várias frentes. Em uma amostra não exaustiva de sua variedade, Paula, Cerqueira e Albuquerque (2000) mostram a variabilidade com que sua natureza é proposta, associada alternadamente a figuras míticas opostas como Prometeu e Fausto. Acs e Audretsch (2001), numa linha liberal e a partir da natureza filantrópica de sua ação (Acs & Phillips, 2002), propugnam a emergência de uma “*entrepreneurial society*”, enquanto Langlois (1987) vê sua obsolescência ao longo da evolução do capitalismo; Negri (1999) vai reconstruir suas funções enquanto “*empresário político*” a partir de uma perspectiva pós-fordista e; Carland, Hoy e Carland (1988) e Gartner (1988) polemizam quanto à propriedade de sua definição a partir de uma abordagem comportamental ou se derivado da esfera da personalidade e de seus traços característicos, o que significa em última instância um reflexo da oposição entre o papel das estruturas e da ação subjetiva.

Embora, os limites deste texto impeçam uma análise mais detida, é oportuno ilustrar a forma funcional e utilitária com que o “*espírito empreendedor*” vem sendo extrapolado (indução) para outros espaços e finalidades gerando diversas adjetivações ao empreendedorismo como social político, coletivo, etc. Da mesma forma é o caso de determinadas formas jurídicas recentes de certas empresas, como aquelas sem empregados (Pastore, 2005; Villela, 2012), conhecidas como “*pejotas*” (Costa & Ternus, 2012) ou ainda a formulação constitutiva do micro empreendedor individual (MEI)⁴. Consideradas como forma democrática e desburocratizada de acesso ao empresariamento, constituem-se, no entanto, em artifícios formais-jurídicos que criam mecanismos de desoneração da atividade produtiva empresarial sem consequências de natureza tributária para o Estado, transferindo para o indivíduo os custos inerentes às incertezas e riscos associados às decisões econômico-(re)produtivas.

As duas situações, a nosso ver, se constituem como dispositivos ideológicos de incentivo à constituição de pequenos negócios tratados, tanto pela política pública quanto pela literatura acadêmica sem a devida extensão e profundidade quanto às possíveis consequências.

2. O empreendedorismo como disciplina básica e o seu ensino

No avanço desse movimento, o ensino do empreendedorismo como disciplina básica, uma vez que sua postulação é pretendida desde o nível fundamental de escolarização não só no Brasil (Dolabela, 2005; Guerra & Teodósio, 2014; Soeiro, 2012, 2015), vem buscando se constituir como um campo científico.

³Como no Brasil a revista e programa televisivo “Pequenas Empresas & Grandes Negócios”.

⁴ Ver em: <http://www.portaldoempreendedor.gov.br/mei-microempreendedor-individual>.

Muito embora o esforço para constituição das bases epistemológicas do empreendedorismo venha se desenvolvendo e procurando dar conta do fenômeno (Verga & Silva, 2014; Bittar, Bastos & Moreira, 2014), é possível identificar a existência de uma crítica, em grau variado de extensão, às postulações pró-empresarias (Leite & Melo, 2008; Dias & Wetzel, 2010; Sabino, 2010; Damiano, Santos & Oliveira, 2013; Guerra & Teodósio, 2014; Kopelke, 2015). Todavia o caráter ideológico original que torna a temática do empreendedorismo objeto de todo interesse permanece ignorado pela maioria dos autores.

Por outro lado, Saraiva (2011) ao realizar a crítica do ensino de administração em voga no Brasil, salienta a sugestão feita pelo MEC constante das Diretrizes Curriculares Nacionais para os cursos de administração, ao incluir a “*capacidade empreendedora e crítica*” como um dos quatro eixos orientadores do perfil do administrador. Imediatamente, tomando o modo como o empreendedorismo se apresenta na retórica de seus defensores, tal possibilidade de empreender criticamente já nos parece antitética, uma vez que esse espírito empreendedor surge de si mesmo, num vácuo institucional, reduzindo a possibilidade da crítica apenas aos aspectos internos relacionados com a própria performance empreendedora, incapaz de questionar a lógica sistêmica ou global.

Na análise feita pelo autor a partir de diversas matrizes curriculares e na orientação institucional de algumas organizações de educação superior, o empreendedorismo se apresenta como algo “*bastante desejável na formação de administradores, quase inexorável*”, despolitizando e naturalizando o conceito.

Na medida em que certos comportamentos devem ser desejados ou tomados como naturais, as repercussões são numerosas: consentir, do ponto de vista profissional, as iniciativas empresariais pró-flexibilização do trabalho; reduzir as questões profissionais à capacidade de competição individual; assumir integralmente toda e qualquer responsabilidade pelo “*empreendimento*” de sua carreira individual (Saraiva, 2011).

Com isso (re)instala-se uma lógica e um direito naturais de todos contra todos (nem todos), enquanto na “*camada superior do capitalismo*”⁵ as corporações empresariais nunca estiveram tão organizadas e desfrutaram de tanto controle.

Tais disposições, quando institucionalizadas na educação superior, tornam “*normal*” a ideia de futuro incerto e ameaçador em uma realidade em que nada devem esperar além da ultra competição, sendo, por isso, a melhor das alternativas “*empreender*” (Saraiva, 2011).

A respeito da institucionalização do empreendedorismo Leite e Melo (2008) dispõem sobre o aparato ideológico montado em torno dessa ideia que inclui, os gurus, classificados em acadêmicos, consultores e managers heróis; a mídia especializada que inclui desde livros, jornais, revistas, vídeos, palestras, treinamentos presenciais ou virtuais, até reality shows e jogos de computador; sites especializados, sites de consultores para aconselhamento de indivíduos⁶; associações de empreendedores, além das agências de fomento, como o Serviço Brasileiro de Apoio às Micro e Pequenas Empresas (SEBRAE). O mercado editorial de auto-ajuda em negócios (light business) tem sido avaliado como um dos principais filões do mercado editorial atual, se especializando em negócios e carreiras no lugar da auto-ajuda pessoal. Segundo as autoras, o fenômeno geralmente utilizado para explicar essa dinâmica está relacionado com o que se chama o imperativo da mudança.

A extensiva produção, a circulação desse tipo de conhecimento, como bem simbólico e sua legitimação pela ciência, na medida em que seu ensino é, sobretudo, difundido em cursos de administração, faz com que a autenticidade do campo seja reforçada continuamente.

⁵ Conforme Arrighi (1996, p.10) citando Braudel a respeito da estrutura tripla do capitalismo.

⁶ Curiosamente um destes sites denomina-se “Insistimento – o lugar do empreendedor” (<http://insistimento.com.br/>), em alusão metonímica a investimento, o que explicita um dos aspectos que a retórica do empreendedorismo busca naturalizar.

Para Leite e Melo (2008) “os gurus da administração, ao difundir conselhos, assumem a função de empreendedores morais do empreendedorismo” Seja um atributo inato ou adquirido, há sempre um julgamento moral no “ser empreendedor”. Ou seja:

Assim, como já nos apontavam Boltanski e Chiapello (1999; 2001), o empreendedorismo é uma ideologia do capitalismo atual que surge para garantir a adesão e a legitimidade às atividades antes não valorizadas (Leite & Melo, 2008, p.45)

Dias e Wetzel (2010), a partir de pesquisa realizada na literatura empresarial, revelam que a abordagem do empreendedorismo tem sempre o sentido de valorização do empoderamento individual e do empresariamento geral, este como condição imperativa para a adaptação aos novos tempos independente de conjuntura, do manejo de habilidades técnicas ou de competências cognitivas, a partir de qualquer montante de recursos disponíveis, bastando tão somente seguir certos procedimentos e perseverar.

A ideia onipresente de que vivemos “um mundo de mudanças” onde “a única constante é a mudança...” (Carnall citado por Grey, 2004) vai ser designada por Grey (2004) como um fetiche.

Afirma ainda que “a mudança atua como fator de legitimação para as ações pretendidas por atores poderosos, nas organizações e em geral”. O apelo retórico maciço à mudança, no momento acaba por beneficiar as elites, ao passo que “muitas mudanças organizacionais estão provocando estragos na vida das pessoas e suas comunidades”. Com isso advoga que os processos de mudança precisam ser vistos como problema e que a “não questionada celebração da necessidade e do desejo da mudança parece [...] ser o primeiro estágio na identificação desses problemas” (Grey, 2004).

A nosso ver, essa retórica abre caminho para os discursos na maioria das vezes normativo sobre empreendedorismo. Outra ideia catalisada pelo fetiche da mudança é o da empregabilidade, cujo discurso é apropriado no empreendedorismo como intraempreendedorismo. Tais processos são constructos operacionais ideológicos através dos quais o capitalismo vem conseguindo modelar um novo arcabouço de valores, o que Boltanski e Chiapello (2009) denominam como “novo espírito do capitalismo”, cuja finalidade é tornar mais tolerável o seu caráter e mais consensual a validade do modo atual de sua reprodução regenerada e ampliada após a crise do final dos anos 60 num quadro de degradação social que se amplia no tempo-espaço.

3. A construção ideológica do conceito de empreendedorismo

Incorporado no discurso da política pública em geral, o processo de valorização do empreendedorismo é marcadamente ideológico na medida em que ao deixar de analisar determinados aspectos estruturais característicos dos pequenos negócios, exaltando outros como a ação individual empreendedora, induz comportamentos de forma enviesada, sem esclarecer quanto aos limites econômicos desse arranjo produtivo e ocultando um conjunto de relações que o tornam funcional à lógica sistêmica de acumulação capitalista.

A discussão sobre o caráter ideológico do empreendedorismo está articulado à análise da funcionalidade da pequena empresa no capitalismo contemporâneo. Assim, empreendedorismo e pequena empresa devem ser tratados em conjunto na medida em que separadamente seriam constructos idealizados e abstratos.

Sobre a questão da ideologia, Eagleton (1997, p.15) enumera sem dificuldades dezesseis definições, mostrando que o poder do conceito reside exatamente na sua “riqueza de significado” que, comprimido numa única definição, resultaria inútil.

Dada à polissemia do termo e variedade conceitual de ideologia, a forma mais apropriada de demonstrá-la é evidenciando suas formas operatórias – unificadoras, orientadas para a ação, racionalizantes, legitimadoras, universalizantes e naturalizantes – em relação ao objeto em questão – a pequena empresa competitiva e o empreendedorismo que a constitui como tal.

Vista como um conjunto de crenças particularmente orientado para a ação, a ideologia para ter eficácia deve ligar os níveis prático e teórico. O conceito de “*ideologia operativa*” de Selinger exemplifica essa ideia:

Ideologia é uma mescla de crenças e descrenças, normas morais, uma pequena quantidade de evidência fatural e um conjunto de prescrições técnicas, que assegura a ação combinada pela preservação ou reconstrução de uma determinada ordem social (Selinger citado por Eagleton, 1997, p.53) (grifos nossos).

A perspectiva de uma “*ideologia operativa*” é adequada ao processo de instituição do pequeno empreendedor pelos diversos agentes envolvidos com a temática que na sua ação comunicativa se utilizam largamente desta mistura de enunciados analíticos e descritivos, de prescrições morais e técnicas e de conteúdos fatuais e compromissos morais, para fazer agir no e pelo pequeno empreendedor, deixando evidente que tal ação ideológica contém um sentido afirmativo e propondo a construção de um objeto inscrito numa ordem específica o que, ideologicamente, exclui outras possibilidades constitutivas do real.

Sobre a operação racionalizante da ideologia, embora a psicanálise veja na racionalização uma necessária ocultação da motivação verdadeira, no caso da ideologia pode-se defini-la como tentativas sistemáticas de explicar ou tornar plausível aquilo que de outro modo seria objeto de críticas (Eagleton, 1997, p.56). Nesse caso, podemos falar de racionalização como mecanismo-base da auto-ilusão, uma vez que essa verdade pode estar oculta também para aquele que racionaliza.

A formulação microeconômica da pequena empresa abstratamente transposta sem qualquer mediação para o real fornece um arcabouço argumentativo/explicativo racional sobre a pequena empresa que, institucionalizado, dificulta sua crítica e autocrítica. Com isso, a relação entre o despreparo do pequeno e a necessidade de capacitação, instituída de forma absoluta, é um exemplo dessa racionalização ideológica transposta para a esfera cultural do pequeno.

Bourdieu (1990, p.56) ao criticar o objetivismo da antropologia social e cultural, nos oferece argumento para colocar em foco o problema da forma como se dá a construção científica abstrata da pequena empresa. Assim, em vez de procurar saber quanto aos princípios que regem sua prática, a tomam como um “*paralogismo que consiste em tratar os objetos construídos pela ciência [...] como realidades autônomas dotadas de eficácia social e capazes de agir enquanto sujeitos responsáveis de ações históricas ou enquanto poder capaz de pressionar as práticas*”.

A necessidade de legitimar-se perante a sociedade está ligada à necessidade de precisar evidenciar o caráter social de sua ação, ou seja, não deveria ser necessário demonstrar para o beneficiário a positividade de uma ação de apoio e fomento, o que, entretanto, aumenta a crença do agente em si e para seu próprio poder, dialeticamente.

A universalização ou “*eternização*” de si é outro expediente usado para alcançar a legitimidade, fazendo com que valores e interesses específicos sejam projetados e aceitos como universais. Mas é importante que tal aceitação se caracterize como uma aceitação “*pragmática*”, ou seja, por não vislumbrar alternativa realista a não ser a de endossar o direito de dominação posto como legítimo. Não se trata de convencer os outros de que seus interesses estão de acordo com o deles, mas de formular esses interesses de modo a tornar isso plausível.

A forma como Eagleton explicita a operação ideológica por uma estratégia de universalização permite esclarecer como a integração da pequena empresa à dinâmica da reprodução

sistêmica capitalista representa uma operação ideológica onde os interesses do capital são transmutados nos interesses do pequeno:

Se devo persuadir de que é relevante do seu interesse que eu seja interesseiro, então só poderei ser efetivamente interesseiro se me tornar menos assim. Se os meus interesses, para florescerem, têm de levar em conta os seus, então serão redefinidos com base nas suas próprias necessidades, deixando assim de identificar-se consigo mesmos. Mas os seus interesses também deixarão de identificar-se consigo mesmos, uma vez que agora foram retrabalhados de modo a serem alcançados somente a partir da matriz dos meus (Eagleton, 1997, p.61)

Como bem interpretam Dias e Wetzell (2010, p.99) ao salientar que

contrariamente à perspectiva que entende ideologia como uma imposição de interesses unilaterais, ela encerra, por um lado, certa substância real, na medida em que consegue fazer com que os indivíduos se identifiquem com princípios e valores; mas, por outro, apresenta certa substância falsa, no sentido de não revelar as contradições e incoerências dessas próprias ideias (grifos nossos).

4. Perspectivas sobre os conceitos de pequena empresa e empreendedor

A respeito da pequena empresa, é no contexto da dinâmica econômica capitalista que suas elaborações e o pensamento institucional acerca de seu papel ganha sentido. O processo de acumulação se constitui no móvel dos agentes capitalistas em relações de produção e o desenvolvimento das forças produtivas é reflexo da forma como tais relações se desenvolvem e como o trabalho social é organizado em diferentes contextos e momentos históricos.

Todavia, se existe uma característica permanente nesse processo, consiste exatamente na capacidade do capital em mudar e adaptar-se a novas situações com o fito de acumular (Arrighi, 1996).

A estrutura tripla do capitalismo (Braudel citado por Arrighi, 1996, p.10) composta por três camadas hierarquicamente relacionadas – a mais baixa é denominada por vida material, espaço da não-economia onde “o capitalismo crava suas raízes, mas no qual nunca consegue realmente penetrar”; na intermediária prevalece uma economia de mercado com seus mecanismos de autocoordenação típicos e; a camada superior e capitalista propriamente dita, chamada de antimercado é tida como “o verdadeiro lar do capitalismo” – é particularmente interessante à medida em que auxilia a interpretar e situar o surgimento da pequena empresa e perceber as modificações pelas quais sua funcionalidade vai sendo remodelada ao longo do tempo e em diferentes espaços.

Essa concepção estrutural braudeliana se fundamenta em dois movimentos articulados que poderiam ser descritos como se a camada capitalista se deslocasse “arrastando” uma sobre as outras ao longo do tempo num sentido evolutivo, ao mesmo tempo em que essa evolução se alimenta dos estágios anteriores dos quais dependem. Essa perspectiva evolutiva do capitalismo é interessante porque mostra como a pequena empresa – transfigurada nas mais diversas formas produtivas de pequenas dimensões encontradas na história – se vê “dividida” entre estas camadas, mostrando a múltipla determinação com a qual a pequena empresa se depara na sua constituição, função e motivação. Em países periféricos onde uma ordem capitalista se desenvolve de forma original e tardiamente tal processo parece ser bem visível ainda.

A presença permanente da pequena produção, sob configurações estruturais e dinâmicas funcionais aderentes às diferentes lógicas de cada uma das camadas braudelianas, mais ou menos capitalistas, predominando ora em razão de sua função sociopolítica, ora devido à função econômica ou segundo sua posição dentro do conflito de classes, vai evidenciar uma ambivalência característica que se manifesta sincrônica e diacronicamente. Assim, a pequena

empresa vai se institucionalizando capitalisticamente ao longo do tempo, da mesma forma como, em um determinado espaço produtivo, seja um país ou um setor produtivo, coexistem pequenas empresas tão distintas em termos de acumulação própria, embora portadoras de uma funcionalidade específica à ordem capitalista.

Nesse sentido a pequena empresa competitiva capitaneada pelo empreendedor conforme vem sendo postulada por essa ampla rede de agentes, evidentemente só pode ser uma específica, configurada em um determinado tempo-espaço, em setores dinâmicos da economia.

Marshall (1982), Steindl (1990) e Schumpeter (1982, 1984), são autores que vão propiciar os desdobramentos teóricos a partir dos quais a pequena empresa competitiva vem sendo reelaborada (Cypriano, 2004). Todavia, é preciso considerar que tais formulações foram geradas em um contexto histórico-econômico-técnico-institucional específico e que aspectos conjunturais e interesses presentes que vão condicionar objetiva e subjetivamente sua formulação atual. Daí a propriedade de analisar a pequena empresa conforme um fenômeno institucional, que se define e que se eleva a um grau de especificidade e de distinção, como uma forma produtiva específica, à medida que se desvincula variadamente de formas pré ou extracapitalistas da pequena produção para se constituir como empresa inserida no contexto da dinâmica capitalista.

Na visão marshalliana, as possibilidades da pequena empresa, em determinadas indústrias, decorrem das possibilidades destas se organizarem de forma a desenvolver economias externas capazes de contrabalançar as economias de escala internas típicas das grandes empresas.

Muito embora Marshall seja considerado por Schumpeter (1958) como um dos primeiros economistas a perceber a economia como uma ciência evolucionária, e sua releitura mais tarde (Becattini, 1987) possibilitado a compreensão da dinâmica socioeconômica dos distritos industriais italianos, é Steindl (1990) quem reelabora as concepções marshallianas quanto ao tamanho e crescimento da empresa representativa capitalista, procurando analisar a dinâmica do fenômeno em relação aos desdobramentos do processo de desenvolvimento econômico capitalista.

Para Steindl (1990, p.13), a empresa representativa de Marshall é a de tamanho “normal”. Não é necessariamente uma pequena empresa, nem jovem e crescente, nem decadente, e sim uma que existe de forma relativamente numerosa, compondo um grupo mutável e que usufrui de economias de escala para crescer até um tamanho permitido pelas próprias dificuldades em ampliar seu mercado.

Tal constructo requer a existência de um equilíbrio que pressupõe um sistema de concorrência perfeita, de um mercado que cresce permanentemente e de um modelo de relações sociais, democrático e virtuoso, que pode ser entendido através da alusão feita por Marshall a narrativas onde triunfa o “aprendiz fiel, que acabou por se tornar sócio do negócio e, às vezes, por se casar com a filha do patrão” (Steindl, 1990, p.256).

Como se vê hoje nas cogitações quanto ao “espírito empreendedor”, não são feitas alusões à necessidade de crescimento estável dos mercados ou à virtude do processo social para a formação da pequena empresa como condições necessárias. À medida que se postule um caráter universal e natural a tal processo, ignorando determinados aspectos, descamba-se para a ideologia.

Marshall e Steindl concordam quanto à importância das economias de escala como fator que influencia a posição relativa de empresas com vários tamanhos e, conforme o progresso técnico torna-se uma variável determinante do processo de desenvolvimento capitalista, assume um aspecto praticamente geral gerando uma assimetria na qual “as pequenas empresas nunca podem (a longo prazo) obter lucros maiores que as grandes empresas”. Por outro lado, as deseconomias de escala devidas ao aumento de tamanho e burocratização da administração, preocupação de Marshall, têm pouco peso e são desprezíveis para Steindl,

conforme o desenvolvimento de tecnologias de informação permita um novo e mais elevado estágio de concentração de capitais.

Para Steindl (1990) a funcionalidade da pequena empresa é decorrente das transformações estruturais do sistema de produção capitalista, o que faz da competitividade da pequena empresa um resultado de segunda ordem. Isto é percebido pela forma como a ênfase na aptidão pessoal do empresário aventada por Marshall é relativizada pela influência de imperfeições de mercado, singularizando a expectativa de sucesso da pequena empresa em relação às circunstâncias específicas de sua posição no sistema produtivo.

Segundo Steindl, cada vez menos a pequena empresa resiste, altera ou influencia o processo capitalista em seu mister, assumindo função econômica secundária nos “*ramos de ‘pequenos negócios’*” que se caracterizam por desenvolverem mercados diferenciados ou por utilizarem técnicas produtivas não adaptáveis à larga escala ou ainda por se tratar de ramos novos. Em relação a este último caso, relacionado à capacidade inovativa da pequena empresa, tal possibilidade seria realizável apenas no curto prazo.

Em virtude do maior custo unitário ou do custo de diferenciação da produção pela pequena empresa, qualquer política de proteção à pequena empresa – restritiva, compensatória ou regulatória – não resultaria em maior eficiência à medida que os benefícios gerados seriam repassados ou aos consumidores ou a grandes empresas contratantes.

Mesmo no post-scriptum de 1972, quando percebe o desenvolvimento tecnológico recente, a implicação em novas possibilidades para a sobrevivência competitiva da pequena empresa se limita à medida que novos ramos se integrem ao sistema, segundo uma “*divisão natural de funções*” que será mais dependente ou autônoma a depender da disponibilidade de “*pessoal especializado e altamente qualificado*” que possa “*desenvolver e oferecer conhecimentos tecnológicos*” (Steindl, 1990, p.139).

Sobre a possibilidade de cooperação entre pequenos Steindl vai advogar a existência de um simulacro de independência da pequena empresa, devido à sua tolerância por parte da grande empresa. A ideia marshalliana de “*novas oportunidades para pequenos empresários*” decorrentes da desintegração vertical da produção não passa de uma ficção, uma vez que esses “*subcontratantes*” são bastante fracos do ponto de vista econômico e, por consequência, político (Steindl, 1990, p.113). Em vista disso, a possibilidade de ação cooperativa, percebida como uma escolha alternativa entre a interferência governamental e a subordinação à grande empresa, é interpretada como restrição à independência do pequeno empresário, valor tão caro ao credo liberal.

A funcionalidade de segunda ordem se manifesta para Steindl, de formas “*não muito lisonjeiras*”. Uma é a vantagem política que representa para empresas oligopolistas e dominantes a conservação de pequenas empresas como demonstração de “*concorrência*”. Outra é a imperfeição do mercado de trabalho que dota certos ramos de uma “*oferta de trabalho barata e desorganizada*”, garantindo a sobrevivência da pequena empresa às custas dessa exploração, onde a pressão nos preços é repassada rapidamente aos salários ao mesmo tempo em que não incentiva o progresso técnico (Steindl, 1990, p.111).

A “*tenaz sobrevivência*” manifestada “*pela disposição ao risco dos pequenos empresários*”, que faz “*qualquer pequeno empresário lutar até o fim para preservá-la [a posição social] até se ver financeiramente incapacitado de continuar*” consiste num terceiro fator de funcionalidade, mais sofisticado, decorrente da valorização do pequeno empresário como categoria social, descrito por Steindl (1990, p.112). Isso tem correspondência com uma situação muito propagandeada atualmente, onde a vontade de “*ser dono do próprio nariz*” projeta-se com a mesma intensidade nos agentes pequenos. Diz o autor, “*esse fator se tornará tanto mais importante quanto maior for o desemprego entre os assalariados*”, pois essa possibilidade significa “*garantir um emprego para si mesmo*” o que se acrescenta ao fato de adquirir um status social mais elevado. “*É possível que um alto desemprego (especialmente de caráter secular) contribua poderosamente para a determinada resistência das pequenas empresas*”.

Tal fator pode esclarecer quanto à dinâmica demográfica da pequena empresa, principalmente a altas taxas de natalidade e de “*empreendedorismo*” encontradas em países periféricos, em seu aspecto estrutural-funcionalista. Nesse sentido, as explicações de ordem cultural que postulam a superação desse “*legado cultural arcaico*” através da incentivação em massa à constituição de uma pequena empresa competitiva pode implicar na exacerbação ideológica da funcionalidade da pequena empresa.

O problema é que a evolução dos processos de desenvolvimento industrial e econômico é vista por Steindl como se acontecessem pacificamente, posto que pensados, abstratamente, no nível microeconômico e como se as novas possibilidades da pequena empresa, percebidas no post-scriptum, derivassem dela mesma e não da necessidade permanente de intensificação da acumulação. Assim, à funcionalidade estrutural da pequena empresa, e comportamental de seus agentes, incorpora-se sua funcionalidade para a acumulação, numa dinâmica cujos centros de controle não estão localizados na pequena empresa. Portanto, as possibilidades vislumbradas por Steindl e constantes nos desdobramentos recentes sobre a competitividade da pequena empresa, encontram-se, antes, estruturadas pela dinâmica de reprodução capitalista.

A outra alternativa teórica da pequena empresa em Schumpeter (1982, 1984) parte da dimensão individual, onde o empresário inovador é descrito como portador das qualidades necessárias ao processo de desenvolvimento econômico. A pequena empresa pode ser vislumbrada como espaço de realização do empresário inovador, pela forma competitiva com que se insere na dinâmica do desenvolvimento econômico, através do processo de “*destruição criadora*” que permite a geração de lucros monopolísticos temporários que irão dinamizar o sistema capitalista engendrando novos ciclos de crescimento econômico.

Mas também pode ser vista de outra forma, como instituição componente das “*camadas protetoras*” do capitalismo, à medida que representa concretamente a propriedade privada, instituto capitalista por excelência, cuja “*destruição*” o autor pressagiava à época que escrevia. Sobre isso ele diz:

A estrutura política de uma nação é profundamente afetada pela eliminação de uma multidão de pequenas e médias empresas cujos donos e gerentes, juntamente com seus dependentes, agregados e conexões, contam quantitativamente nas urnas e têm um controle sobre o que podemos chamar de classe dos capatazes que nenhuma administração de uma grande unidade pode ter; as próprias fundações da propriedade privada e do livre contrato desgastam-se numa nação em que seus tipos mais vitais, mais concretos e mais significativos desaparecem no horizonte moral da população (Schumpeter, 1984, p.183).

Esta visão, malgrado todas as circunstâncias históricas que diferenciam os capitalismo europeu e norte-americano, desemboca no mesmo dilema – a incessante necessidade de transformar o meio onde se desenvolve, no caso, a transformação do capitalismo concorrencial em monopolista.

É a instituição da propriedade que perde sua “*substância material*”, na qual o pequeno empresário se constitui na mais concreta manifestação, que representa a camada protetora do capitalismo a que se refere⁷.

“*Simbiose*” ativa e proveitosa cuja eliminação completa e inevitável é questionada quanto a sua propriedade para a manutenção do sistema capitalista.

⁷ Importante ressaltar que não é à ação empreendedora que nos referimos enquanto camada protetora do capitalismo, ou seja, não endossamos a visão segundo a qual a inovação se transformaria em rotina nas grandes empresas, pondo em risco o sistema capitalista. Sobre essa questão nos baseamos em Langlois (1987). No entanto, não se pode deixar de perceber como a inovação vai modificar a organização do sistema capitalista e como este último vai integrar o novo móvel de acumulação à sua dinâmica competitiva, institucionalizando-o.

Ao romper a estrutura pré-capitalista, o capitalismo rompeu não apenas as barreiras que lhe impedem o progresso, mas também os esteios que lhe impedem o desmoronamento. [Posto que] não era meramente questão de se remover o peso morto institucional, mas de remover parceiros da camada capitalista, cuja simbiose era fundamental ao esquema capitalista (Schumpeter, 1984, p.182).

Esta passagem evidencia que para Schumpeter preocupava antes a dinâmica de transformação do capitalismo sob novos móveis de desenvolvimento e que, nesse sentido a pequena empresa tinha, antes, uma funcionalidade de natureza político-institucional que perdia sentido conforme o capitalismo passava de um modo de desenvolvimento para outro.

Interessante perceber que é a ação subjetiva do pequeno empresário, como proprietário independente ou como um “*burguês racionalista e não-heróico*” que vai configurar a pequena empresa de um ou outro modo, afeita ao capitalismo competitivo ou monopolista. A ambiguidade do papel e posição da pequena empresa e do pequeno empresário, estão implícitos no pensamento do autor ao refletir sobre a funcionalidade e consequências da ascensão concomitante da burguesia capitalista e dos Estados nacionais, que acontece em países europeus.

Mills (1979) vai mostrar como a “*sociedade do equilíbrio automático*”, a norte-americana, baseada na universalização da pequena propriedade e do pequeno negócio vai desaparecer diante da transformação do capitalismo de competitivo em monopolista, fazendo surgir uma nova classe média de funcionários e transformando a ideia de pequena empresa em competição numa ideologia política da qual se serve a grande empresa monopolista e é utilizada até hoje na promoção do small business norte-americano (Anglund, 1998; Acs et al., 1998; Blackford, 2001).

Temos, portanto, duas matrizes teóricas que tratam de aspectos centrais à pequena empresa, que operam através de eixos analíticos distintos e que, mesmo assim, por distintos caminhos dão margem à percepção da pequena empresa em sua função “*protetora*” do capitalismo. Marshall, num momento anterior, a partir de uma perspectiva equilibrada, pela sua “*normalidade*” benévola. Schumpeter, mais tarde e diante do caráter revolucionário do processo de desenvolvimento econômico, preocupado com os rumos do progresso econômico, no qual a inovação tendia a se rotinizar, representando com isso, a destruição do quadro institucional da sociedade capitalista, onde pequena empresa e o empresário inovador eram vítimas não da competição inerente ao processo, mas de sua burocratização.

Se a inovação não se reduz à rotina, conforme a previsão de Schumpeter, movimento distinto vai caracterizar o âmbito da propriedade do pequeno empresário. Ainda que adrede a toda evolução capitalista, se vê encerrado numa ambiguidade entre sua centralidade na dinâmica inovacionista atual ao mesmo tempo em que vê sua propriedade cada dia mais imaterializada, confinada à condição de fator de produção intelectual.

Além das abordagens mais citadas na literatura, um trabalho que faz interessantes reflexões a respeito do papel socioeconômico e político da pequena empresa em contextos globalizados e se apresenta segundo tal perspectiva analítica, é o de Montañó (1999, p.11):

Não é a dinâmica interna que peculiariza estas pequenas unidades produtivas, não é sua dimensão que explica o papel que cumpre no sistema produtivo-comercial. O que esclarece sobre suas possibilidades e limites de desenvolvimento empresarial, o que se coloca como essencial, é o lugar que ocupa na divisão organizativa deste sistema.

O esforço de conceituação da pequena empresa enquanto papel socioeconômico, numa perspectiva estrutural, vai inverter o ponto de vista analítico fazendo com que as deficiências normalmente apontadas como causas da condição pequena possam ser vistas como consequências de seu posicionamento secundário, subordinado e dependente na estrutura produtiva capitalista em um determinado contexto sócio-histórico.

Para o autor, o fato da pequena empresa ter uma insuficiente definição de objetivos, normas e sistemas administrativos, resultam de sua categoria socioeconômica qualitativamente distinta que tem um papel determinado a desempenhar no sistema de produção capitalista.

Conceituar a pequena empresa a partir de suas diferenças quantitativas representa apenas uma definição intrínseca de algo contido em si mesmo ou, como diz Montaño (1999, p.17), reflete apenas uma realidade empírica. Sua denominação como “satélite” seria mais adequada em termos semânticos do que “pequena”. Com isso, algumas consequências teóricas como pensar a pequena empresa no quadro de uma evolução “natural” ou propor o acesso ao crédito e à capacitação gerencial como condições suficientes para tal evolução, tomando como modelo uma pequena empresa que tenha obtido resultados econômicos elevados, tornam-se problemáticas, “confusas” ou ideologizadas.

Mediante a interpretação da pequena empresa como categoria socioeconômica e segundo uma perspectiva histórico-dialética, três concepções são projetadas quanto ao papel e inserção da pequena empresa na sociedade (Aroceña citado por Montaño, 1999, p.26):

- A pequena empresa como iniciativa privada, sendo o empresário apenas mais um “capitalista em via de desenvolvimento”, com qualidades pessoais que o habilitam num sistema de livre concorrência;
- A pequena empresa como alternativa ao desemprego, convertida a uma categoria politicamente estratégica para a legitimação do Estado e do sistema no contexto de reestruturação produtiva, sendo necessário, portanto, sua proteção e promoção através de políticas de apoio e compensatórias; e mais;
- A pequena empresa como categoria socioeconômica e política num sistema, como parte integrante de um contexto socioeconômico, de uma relação política e econômica entre desiguais e mais, dentro de um estágio do processo histórico.

Essa perspectiva analítica tem a capacidade de propiciar uma visão mais estruturada do pequeno que pode ser útil se contrastada com outras pequenas empresas, derivadas de outros processos históricos e em outras circunstâncias socioeconômicas e políticas.

5. A evolução da institucionalização da pequena empresa no Brasil

A concepção teórica original da pequena empresa e seus desdobramentos de natureza competitiva, pressupõem a existência de uma ordem social competitiva, uma dinâmica das relações intercapitalistas e um conjunto de determinações estruturais impostas pelo processo de desenvolvimento econômico que vão especificar, entre outras coisas, a natureza e extensão da flexibilização produtiva e tecnológica, a propensão à cooperatividade, a racionalidade das formas de articulação intercapitalistas e a subjetividade da ação empreendedora e inovadora.

Nesse sentido, a especificidade que caracteriza a formação econômica brasileira – dependente e subdesenvolvida – e a originalidade da ordem social – restrita e incompleta – que se desenvolve no país e que vai orientar os agentes à competição intercapitalista com vistas à acumulação precisa ser levada em conta. Importa perceber a extensão com que essa especificidade de nossa formação se reproduz ao longo da intensificação das transformações capitalistas ocorridas no país no sentido de verificar como podem se constituir em entraves ao desenvolvimento de uma pequena empresa competitiva nos termos exigidos pela dinâmica capitalista atual.

Os extratos sociais intermediários no Brasil são tão ambivalentes enquanto classe quanto os encontrados nas análises clássicas da pequena burguesia. No entanto, determinados fatores como a condição colonial, a escravidão, o clã patriarcal e o modelo de colonização (Prado Jr., 1999), e o desenvolvimento de um modelo autocrático de transformação capitalista que evolui no bojo de um capitalismo dependente (Fernandes, 1987, 1981), imprimem uma dinâmica específica às relações sociais que repercutem implacavelmente sobre os extratos sociais

intermediários, progênie mais provável da pequena empresa, alterando e conformando as disposições desses agentes à competição capitalista em relação aos moldes tradicionais.

A dependência e a subordinação são as marcas da integração do pequeno no sistema capitalista monopolista. São as condições sociais e políticas que estruturam a subjetividade dos agentes pequenos no espaço competitivo que vão condicionar suas disposições ao empreendedorismo e à cooperatividade.

Além disso, o processo de desenvolvimento capitalista é caracterizado por ser concentrador de rendas e marcado por crises que repercutem na institucionalização da pequena empresa brasileira. É em períodos críticos da economia brasileira e do próprio capitalismo a nível mundial que a alternativa da pequena empresa surge e ressurgue.

O primeiro período, que vai do início dos anos 60, marca do fim do terceiro período do processo de substituição de importações e início do declínio da dinâmica de substituição (Tavares, 1983, p.73), até a metade dos anos 70, início da crise do processo de industrialização e da escalada inflacionária (Sampaio Jr., 1999, p.27), corresponde ao surgimento do interesse pela pequena empresa, vista inicialmente como “*empresa nacional*” e sua constituição, mais tarde como agente econômico estratégico capaz de mitigar os efeitos da crise existente e de reduzir a “*brecha*” típica da estrutura produtiva nacional dualista.

O segundo, de meados dos anos oitenta e chegando à atualidade, situado dentro da chamada crise do fordismo, é marcado pela derrocada do processo de desenvolvimento nacional e por uma crise financeira que leva o país à liberalização econômica progressiva e que assiste às tentativas de inserção do país na nova ordem mundial através de um conjunto de mudanças institucionais profundas como a liberalização dos mercados e que provocam transformações significativas no mercado de trabalho.

Nesse segundo momento, mais uma vez a pequena empresa ressurgue desta vez como alternativa de geração de emprego e renda, adquirindo uma postura privada, antípoda da anterior vinculada a um Estado protetor, sob uma roupagem nova, competitiva e tida como protagonista de um processo de inclusão social através da cidadania empresarial.

Neste percurso histórico a pequena empresa vai se modificando, assim como a retórica sobre o empreendedorismo. Para uma compreensão mais crítica do processo de institucionalização da pequena empresa, as contribuições teóricas de Talcott Parsons (1961) com sua formulação funcionalista do sistema social, de Mary Douglas com sua análise antropológica do modo de operação das instituições e de Pierre Bourdieu com seu conhecimento praxiológico, com a noção de habitus e os conceitos de campo e poder e capital simbólico permitem uma compreensão crítica do mesmo.

A elaboração sistêmica parsoniana vai permitir apreciar a pequena empresa na sua função econômica e sociopolítica integradoras. O problema dessa abordagem consiste na visão a-histórica, não-conflitual e racionalista que desenvolve a respeito das relações entre sociedade e economia, na qual a economia se constitui como um sub-sistema quase autônomo em relação aos demais que atuam para a reprodução das condições econômicas da sociedade. Tal primazia confere um relevo particular e funcional à pequena empresa cuja atividade não consiste apenas em produzir, mas produzir sob condições adaptadas à acumulação sistêmica e, além disso, desempenhando papéis específicos para a manutenção dos valores e normas e integração do sistema, à medida que se projeta como fonte original da ação empreendedora e estrutura nascente de onde evolui o agente produtivo portador de atributos competitivos, cuja capacidade acumulativa é condizente com sua situação, o que explica funcionalmente sua adaptação, posição e condição de existência.

Entretanto, tal concepção sistêmica submetida ao plano sócio-histórico-institucional em que a pequena empresa existe e ao contexto dependente sob o qual as relações capitalistas se desenvolvem revela-se problemática conforme não se evidencie seu funcionamento coeso.

A origem e natureza social do pensamento institucional, a fundação e cristalização das instituições e seu poder classificatório sobre questões importantes e como pensamento e compromisso institucional se impõem à realidade das sociedades, em suma, “*como as instituições pensam*”, são as questões sobre as quais Douglas (1998) discorre. Tal abordagem permite conceber a ideia de um processo de institucionalização da pequena empresa e destacar certos elementos que concorrem para tanto. Através dela permite a reflexão quanto à resistência de certas práticas sociais, variavelmente específicas ao agente pequeno, em contrapartida às dificuldades de mudança institucional do pequeno e os efeitos simbólicos derivados da associação cognitiva institucionalizada entre o termo “*pequeno*” e as características dimensionais e competitivas relativas à pequena empresa.

Com Bourdieu (1990, 1996, 1998) torna-se possível lidar com argumentos derivados de dois tipos de conhecimento antagônicos – objetivismo e subjetivismo – que vão fundamentar perspectivas analíticas igualmente antagônicas que se aplicam à pequena empresa. A esse impasse Bourdieu propõe outro tipo de conhecimento que denomina praxiológico. Essa proposta de articulação dialética entre ator e estrutura permite a análise da pequena empresa instituída como um sujeito, seu empreendedor. O conceito de campo social possibilita a análise do posicionamento do agente pequeno conforme seus interesses e poder em diversos campos específicos, em concorrência com outros agentes, explicitando sua ambiguidade. Por fim, a noção de habitus vai facilitar a interação analítica entre o processo de institucionalização do pequeno a sua ideologização através das práticas instituídas para e nos agentes. Com sua formulação sobre poder e capital simbólico é possível interpretar os discursos em voga no processo de institucionalização e de operação ideológica do pequeno.

Thompson (1995) com sua proposta de “*interpretação da ideologia*” possibilita a análise do modo operatório da ideologia – legitimador, dissimulador e/ou reificador – através do uso de estratégias de construção de formas simbólicas como a racionalização, eufemização e/ou naturalização.

Esta proposta atenta a um aspecto central às nossas preocupações ao propor um conceito de ideologia para se referir às formas como “*o sentido (significado) serve, em circunstâncias particulares, para estabelecer e sustentar relações de dominação*”, o que exige investigar “*as maneiras como o sentido é construído e usado pelas formas simbólicas de vários tipos, desde as falas cotidianas até às imagens e aos textos complexos [e] os contextos sociais dentro dos quais essas formas simbólicas são empregadas e articuladas*”. Com isso se pode saber se e como “*o sentido é mobilizado pelas formas simbólicas em contextos específicos, para estabelecer e sustentar relações de dominação*” ou, em outros termos, se é ou não ideológico (Thompson, 1995, p.16). A interpretação da ideologia se apoia nas fases de análise sócio-histórica e formal ou discursiva “*com o objetivo de desmascarar o sentido que está a serviço do poder*” (Thompson, 1995, p.35).

O autor propõe um campo de análise sobre os modos operacionais da ideologia ligados à utilização de estratégias de construção simbólica, conforme mostrado na Figura 1 abaixo.

Importante frisar que tais modos não são os únicos meios de operação ideológica, que as associações propostas com determinadas estratégias simbólicas também não são únicas e, que tais associações não implicam necessariamente que estas estratégias sejam intrinsecamente ideológicas. Somente “*a análise cuidadosa das maneiras como as formas simbólicas se entrecruzam com relações de dominação em circunstâncias particulares e concretas*” poderá intentá-lo.

Modos Gerais	Algumas Estratégias Típicas de Construção Simbólica
Legitimação	Racionalização Universalização Narrativização
Dissimulação	Deslocamento Eufemização Tropo (sinédoque, metonímia e metáfora)
Unificação	Estandarização Simbolização da unidade
Fragmentação	Diferenciação Expurgo do outro
Reificação	Naturalização Eternalização Nominalização/passivização

Figura 1: Modos de operação da ideologia (Thompson, 1995, p.81)

A pertinência dessa abordagem está no cuidado com o processo de “*mediação da cultura moderna*” com o qual formas simbólicas mercantilizadas se tornam cada vez mais acessíveis a um número maior de receptores de forma que as experiências das pessoas tornam-se cada vez mais mediadas por esses sistemas técnicos de produção e transmissão simbólica. Tal preocupação relaciona-se com nosso objeto e com as circunstâncias com as quais ele é instituído, uma vez que a disseminação e publicização de conhecimento “*mediatizado*” são crescentes, conforme já mencionado anteriormente, e fazem parte das estratégias e dos objetivos assumidos, senão por todos os agentes, mas certamente pela agência de fomento outorgada pelo Estado.

A ideia de desenvolvimento de uma “*mediação da cultura moderna*” significa uma realidade onde “*a produção e recepção de formas simbólicas é sempre mais mediada por uma rede complexa, transnacional, de interesses institucionais*” o que permite perceber como a “*transmissão cultural das formas simbólicas*” através da “*comunicação de massa institui um corte fundamental entre produtor e receptor*”. Tal situação permite o desenvolvimento de novas situações onde sejam engendradas relações de dominação menos evidentes, administráveis e legítimas por “*meios técnicos*” e que desconectam o tempo e o local com as mensagens comunicadas, fazendo com que a mobilização do sentido tenha cada vez mais capacidade de transcender o contexto social dentro do qual as formas simbólicas são produzidas.

Vejamos por exemplo, tal operação ideológica a partir da interpretação de um texto de um dos mais destacados incentivadores do empreendedorismo no Brasil, o professor Fernando Dolabela em “*A urgência do empreendedorismo*” (2005). Sua argumentação parte de um juízo produzido por outrem (portanto imparcial) a respeito de uma situação problemática (no caso do país, ou seja, geral) de alcance histórico, sugerindo as bases da missão a cargo do empreendedorismo.

Nesse percurso argumentativo geralmente a figura do Estado aparece como o ente responsável que nos [indivíduos] entorpece à ação e que nos [a sociedade] levou (historicamente) àquela situação, para então propor mudar tal situação nós mesmos e do nosso próprio jeito! Basta que cada um de nós deseje, queira e projete, pelo sonho e pela libertação da natureza de cada um [como qualidade natural] o empreendedorismo!

Observando criticamente (?) que “*a prevalência da construção do social em relação ao individual deve ser um dos fundamentos da construção da ética empreendedora*”, ao mesmo tempo em que “*a vontade da coletividade, ou o sonho coletivo, irá conformar, alimentar, acolher e apoiar a motivação e capacidade empreendedora individual*”, posto que “*o empreendedorismo não é uma panacéia*” (Dolabela, 2005).

Desse modo, não obstante tudo o que se divulga e alardeia sobre o empreendedor e a pequena empresa, a dimensão ideológica acerca destes se evidencia a partir da não consideração/ocultação (do silêncio) presente em boa parte da literatura acadêmica dos limites estruturais dessa empresa de pequeno porte, das condições de sua inserção nas relações intercapitalistas no Brasil e, principalmente de sua funcionalidade sistêmica ao processo de acumulação capitalista em virtude da condição retardatária do mesmo, bem como por conta dos processos de reestruturação produtiva ainda em curso.

Por sua vez, o Estado tendo na política pública a forma de ação político-administrativa através da qual se legitima é um dos principais apoiadores da ideia em parceria com a agência de fomento que, no caso do Brasil é o SEBRAE. Transfere-se assim, do Estado para o indivíduo a responsabilidade de constituir as condições para sua reprodução, o que em última análise seria de fato de sua alçada, mas além disso, “*impõe-se*” como violência simbólica orientações funcionais ao processo incessante de autonomização do capital em relação aos demais fatores de produção (Cypriano, 2004).

6. Conclusão

A intenção do texto não é negar a ação empreendedora e muito menos o fomento à pequena produção, mas levantar a crítica evidenciando a necessidade de reflexão crítica sobre o fenômeno e da busca de formulações alternativas para o mesmo. Em relação ao empreendedorismo vale dizer que, nos tempos atuais nunca foi tão pertinente valorizar a discussão entre estrutura e ação, assim como sobre a construção política de solidariedades e da ação coletiva.

A pequena empresa competitiva capitaneada pelo empreendedor conforme vem sendo postulada por essa ampla rede de agentes, evidentemente só pode ser uma específica, configurada em um determinado tempo-espaco, em setores dinâmicos da economia. Mesmo nesses setores, é fundamental inquirir sobre os efeitos sociais que a estratégia usada pelos cientistas em atendimento aos objetivos impressos nas políticas de ciência e tecnologia e inovação já vem gerando (Lacey, 2011, 2014).

Pretender que qualquer pequena empresa funcione conforme se vem estimulando trata-se de um equívoco, tanto teórico quanto estratégico e o ensino do empreendedorismo como vem sendo feito e desejado, uma irresponsabilidade científica e ética.

Persistir na ideologização da pequena empresa e seu empreendedor equivale admitir que os discursos instituintes a respeito da questão da competência diferenciada, da perseverança a despeito das dificuldades e do heroísmo diante dos riscos atribuídos ao empreendedor submetido à ordem natural das coisas no mundo, se assemelharia em muito ao último parágrafo do conto de Voltaire “*Cândido ou o otimismo*” que, assim, bem poderia ser transcrito como a visão, a missão e o destino do empreendedor, segundo a retórica em voga atualmente.

Todos os acontecimentos - dizia às vezes Pangloss a Cândido - estão devidamente encadeados no melhor dos mundos possíveis; pois, afinal, se não tivesses sido expulso de um lindo castelo, a pontapés no traseiro, por amor da senhorita Cunegundes, se a Inquisição não te houvesse apanhado, se não tivesses percorrido a América a pé, se não tivesses mergulhado a espada no barão, se não tivesses perdido todos os teus carneiros da boa terra do Eldorado, não estarias aqui agora comendo doce de cidra e pistache.

- Tudo isso está muito bem dito - respondeu Cândido, - mas devemos cultivar nosso jardim.

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- 3- The articles that exceed the first review will be evaluated in two ways: the first one is internal (member of the editorial board), the other one is external. In case of discrepancy between evaluators, a third evaluation will be required.
- 4- The evaluators will make the review of the work using independent criteria, objectivity, and responsibility and without any interest conflict.
- 5- In order to review the articles, the evaluators will use a template (template in Spanish and English), where all the scientific and technical criteria can be founded, in addition of commentaries and improvement suggestions that should be fulfilled. Regarding the commentaries and improvements suggestions it will be proposed in case of necessity, some notes and considerations that help the improvement of the article quality.
- 6- The evaluators will have three options of the article global assessment, (in all cases the decision should be justified in the commentaries paragraph):
 - It can be published as it is.
 - It can be published after making the corrections and the improvement suggestions.
 - It cannot be published.
- 7- To avoid plagiarism conflicts, the evaluators should use the anti-plagiarism application (Grammarly), and also the (Google and Google Scholar seekers).
- 8- The evaluators will send to: jett@ugr.es the evaluation report (filling the template), no later than 20 days from the reception of the template.
- 9- For further information please contact jett@ugr.es