Entrepreneurship and Small Business Education: A Conceptual Exploration

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Abstract
Entrepreneurship education is a very important issue in the development entrepreneurship. The purpose of this paper is to explore principles based on entrepreneurship and small business research to build an entrepreneurship education program for potential entrepreneurs. Within this paper, principles are identified that will assist potential entrepreneurs turn into practicing entrepreneurs. Among the issues reviewed are learning, the entrepreneurial process, entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intentions. The paper concludes with a proposition of what to teach to potential entrepreneurs and further research section suggests a curricula and technology review based on the findings of this paper.

1. Introduction
Entrepreneurship and small business education is seen by policy makers and international organizations across the world as important and critical for developing entrepreneurial behaviors and skills that are the basis for economic growth (Bager, 2011; Martínez, Levie, Kelley, Sæmundsson, & Schött, 2010; Volkmann et al., 2009). International organizations such as the OECD, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor and the World Economic Forum have issued research documents and reports that invite not only to improve the quality of entrepreneurship education, but also to make it available to more and younger people (Estimé, Murphy, Ladegaard, Gang, & Hall, 2004; Martínez et al., 2010; Wilson & Volkman, 2009).

The literature about entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur is abound, there is also literature about entrepreneurship education, but research in order to find the ideal curriculum for an entrepreneurship education program has had limited attention (Moremong-Nganunu, 2009).

This paper attempts to determine what should be taught to potential entrepreneurs defined as those individuals that do not have the intentions to become entrepreneurs or start a business yet, as oppose to nascent entrepreneurs, defined as those individuals who are starting a new business from scratch (Allos & Kolvereid, 1998). Since many entrepreneurship education programs do not
address the real needs regarding to content this research attempts to answer the question of what should be taught that is specific to entrepreneurship (Henry, Hill, & Leitch, 2005). There are some attributes, behaviours and skills that emerge from the literature review that become the main principles a potential entrepreneur has to learn. The concept of entrepreneurial intentions and self-efficacy are also keys in entrepreneurship education programs (Cox, 1996; Johansen & Clausen, 2011); and the main component in this paper is the entrepreneurial process that plays a central role in the discussion of this research.

There has to be a link between research and teaching and this paper attempts to close the gap between both doing a literature review on the concepts that researchers consider to be the most important in the discipline of entrepreneurship. From this review the most important concepts are identified and proposed as the basis for an entrepreneurship education program for potential entrepreneurs.

This paper is divided as follows: first a literature review which includes the purpose of an entrepreneurship education program is conducted. Then a review of entrepreneurship education is performed. This review includes a brief discussion on a recurrent question in this literature: can entrepreneurship be taught? Next the review goes into the issue of learning before going deeply into how entrepreneurs learn through life and in the university. This section finishes with an examination about how entrepreneurs learn. The following section is about self-efficacy one of the most important issues in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial intentions which is important for potential entrepreneurs. The literature review ends with entrepreneurship as process and the six points of convergence for the entrepreneurial process.

Finally, there is a discussion which takes concepts from the literature review in order to propose some principles to build an EEP for potential entrepreneurs.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Purpose of Entrepreneurship Education Programs

Entrepreneurship education programs (EEPs) have a long history. Although the first course was taught in 1947 at Harvard, the University of Southern California launched the first entrepreneurship concentration within its Graduate Business Administration program in 1971 (Kuratko, 2005). Since then the number of educational institutions that offer courses related to entrepreneurship has grown to up to 1,600 in the early years of this century (Katz, 2003).

Nevertheless, the lack of consensus on the basic theory of entrepreneurship makes it difficult to determine a common purpose for EEPs. One of the authors in the literature proposed that these programs should be built in a way that potential entrepreneurs be aware of the barriers of starting a career as an entrepreneur and can formulate ways to overcome them (Ronstadt, 1987).

Alternatively, according to a survey of the top 15 entrepreneurship educators in the USA there are two purposes of entrepreneurship education programs: to increase awareness and understanding
of the process of starting and managing a new business and to increase awareness of business ownership as a serious career option (Hills, 1988). In contrast, research that evaluated six entrepreneurship programs in Europe says that the most common purposes of these programs include: to identify and stimulate entrepreneurial drive, talent and skills; to undo the risk-averse bias of many analytical techniques; to develop empathy and support for all unique aspects of entrepreneurship and to devise attitudes towards change.

Other authors believe that one of the most important purposes of an entrepreneurship education program directed to the awareness and new venture creation stage of the entrepreneurial development process is to increase intention and self-efficacy of the students regarding the creation of new ventures (Cox, 1996). In other words, the final purpose at the awareness stage of the process should be to increase students’ intentions to become entrepreneurs (Cox, 1996); and at the new venture creation stage of the process it should be to reflect reality (Solomon, 2007).

2.2 Entrepreneurship Education

Can entrepreneurship be taught? is one of the main questions when the issue of entrepreneurship education arises. This question is also addressed in the literature and there is consensus that at least some aspects of entrepreneurship can be successfully taught (Henry et al., 2005; Kuratko, 2003). Hindle (2007) develops a discussion about whether entrepreneurship can be taught concluding that it can. Actually, as any other discipline it can also be learned (Drucker, 1985). All this discussion about teaching entrepreneurship naturally leads to the question: how do we teach people to be entrepreneurs, how do we teach them to be entrepreneurial, how do we teach them to create new ventures?

Researchers have been for several years in the quest of the answer to these questions (Kuratko, 2003). The literature goes from how entrepreneurs learn (Rae & Carswell, 2001) to even suggesting different approaches to teach it within the University context (Bager, 2011). It is also important to notice that there is a difference between teaching entrepreneurship and teaching about it (Hindle, 2007); and according to Jamieson (Jamieson, 1984) there are three categories of entrepreneurship education: Education about enterprise, for enterprise and in enterprise. Following there is a literature review that will help to understand how entrepreneurs learn, what they learn and ultimately what to teach them.

2.2.1 Who should learn?

So far some of the purposes of an EEP and the question of whether entrepreneurship can be taught have been explored. Nevertheless, there are some other questions that have to be answered before conceptualizing an EEP to teach people how to be entrepreneurs. Hindle mentions in his paper From the Wrong Building to the Right Philosophy (Hindle, 2007) seven interrelated problems when teaching entrepreneurship as part of the business school – entrepreneurship education paradox. These are related to teaching entrepreneurship in University and whether entrepreneurship education belongs there or not. This paper does not deal with the same paradox, nevertheless it is agreed that the first question to be answered is: can entrepreneurship be taught? Which has already been addressed and another question should be: who are we going to teach?
When designing entrepreneurship education and training programs it is important to identify the audience to which the program is targeted (Maritz, Brown, & Shieh, 2011). Entrepreneurs' learning is different according to the stage of development where they are (Henry et al., 2005) and I would add depending on the personal circumstances of each individual as well.

The objectives, subjects, pedagogies, length, etc. are different for each audience. More specifically the needs depend on the stage of development of the process: awareness, pre-startup, start-up, growth or maturity (Moremong-Nganunu, 2009).

It is very important to know your audience in order to really know what to teach and how to do so, because as mentioned before, not everyone has the same experience, expectations, knowledge, etc. Truls Erikson in his paper *Towards a taxonomy of entrepreneurial learning experiences among potential entrepreneurs* (Erikson, 2003) analyses the factors that lead individuals to choose business venturing as a career path early in their careers. From his analysis he develops a taxonomy of entrepreneurial typologies based on entrepreneurial competence. This leads to eight typologies. More specifically his document explores how potential entrepreneurs may turn into nascent entrepreneurs, defined as those individuals who are starting a new business from scratch (Alsos & Kolvereid, 1998).

Erikson argues that entrepreneurial behaviour determines the supply of entrepreneurs to the economy and that is why the flow of new entrepreneurs in the economy is important for his research. He explores the initial source of entrepreneurial supply and how potential entrepreneurs may become nascent entrepreneurs.

2.2.2 Learning

Before going into entrepreneurship education itself the first thing to know is how people normally learn. According to the education literature there are several theories about learning some of them are the following: behaviourist, cognitive and constructivist. The theory that best suits entrepreneurship education should be the constructivist theory of learning because there is a consensus that entrepreneurs learn by doing, in other words, entrepreneurs learn by experience and discovery (Deakins & Freel, 1998; Gibb, 1987). Constructivist learning theory's basic principal is that the learner participates actively in its own learning. He takes information from different sources, experiences, current and past knowledge to construct his own understanding about an idea; he builds the concept (Moremong-Nganunu, 2009).

2.2.3 Entrepreneurship Education through Life and Work

Under the umbrella of the constructivist learning approach there is the need to understand how entrepreneurial capabilities are acquired and developed through life and work experiences. This is one of the issues treated on the research conducted by Rae and Carswell (2001). They performed a research that explores how people learn to act entrepreneurially and understand entrepreneurial learning as a way in which people construct new meaning through the process of recognising and action on opportunities and of organising and managing ventures.
Their research suggests that there is a close relationship between learning and entrepreneurial achievement. They find that the needs for constant challenge, show sharpness, take good decisions and have ownership are characteristics that lead to achievement. They also found that a positive thought process is positively related to achievement and helps people’s personal motivation and setting goals.

Learning through life and work depends among other things on relationships. According to some findings business practices and skills are learned through working relationships. Also skills and knowledge in which people become confident through getting them right in repeated occasions are the basis of their careers. This helps entrepreneurs understand their limitations and therefore, look for people with complimentary skills.

Other concepts that explain how entrepreneurs learn include active learning, personal theory, confidence and self-belief, all of which are findings of Rae and Carswell’s (2001) research. These are the ways entrepreneurs learn in practice and I think it could be taken into the classrooms.

2.2.4 Entrepreneurship education at University
A more traditional view of entrepreneurship education can be found in Universities. Teaching entrepreneurship at universities has also been discussed in the literature (Volkmann, C., Wilson, K. E., Mariotti, S., Rabuzzi, D., Vyakarnam, S., & Sepulveda, A., 2009). According to Sager (2011) policy makers want a change in the educational system specifically in universities because they think entrepreneurship teaching and training will help them achieve their overall economic goals.

Bager (2011) provides a very interesting perspective on entrepreneurship education. He argues that entrepreneurship education can be understood in a much broader way than only building skills to start-up businesses. He states that universities take this narrow approach and that is why their programmes are focused on three elements: entrepreneurship orientation and awareness, new enterprise creation and the survival and growth of young businesses. They focus more on building a company than developing the person.

It is also argued that building personal dimensions requires not only a wider perspective view of entrepreneurship – cross-disciplinary learning activities, building entrepreneurial mindsets and strengthening university-business relationships – but also new ways to deliver the knowledge, new alternative ways of teaching and learning. Behaviours, skills and attributes have to be taught with pedagogies designed precisely for these proposes and exposure to experience are essential to make people feel what is it like to be an entrepreneur.

The author seeks to discuss various aspects of entrepreneurship education and to link the narrow and broad perspectives on entrepreneurship mentioned before. It also looks at how universities can facilitate the formation of student start-ups.

Bager (2011) explores the main components of a comprehensive perspective of entrepreneurship education in a university; he discusses what should be taught in a University. To do this the author makes an important distinction between the inventor and the entrepreneur. According to him the entrepreneur is the one that recognizes and evaluates the opportunity more than the former
does. Based on this the author mentions what he considers the core competences of an entrepreneur are and what should be taught in an entrepreneurial university.

The first core competence is opportunity recognition and evaluation; in this learning context the next steps for the entrepreneurs would be to follow through exploiting these opportunities and to do so the entrepreneur has to build organizations, both considered as core competences as well. Additionally, Bager (2011) recommends including in entrepreneurship education programmes the traditional business school topics and practical training, as well as, teaching students to work comfortably with chaos.

Another important distinction Bager (2011) makes is the way entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs approach situations and relates this difference to the entrepreneurial mindset. Not only traditional knowledge is needed, personality also has a role to play in this educational set.

Entrepreneurial programs have to include the development of the mindset, behaviour and intentions. Alertness of opportunities, self-confidence and overoptimism are components that form an entrepreneurial mindset, which some consider to be one of the most important things to teach in this field.

According to Bager (2011) entrepreneurial intention is underpinned by the effectuation theory of Sarasvathy and is considered as the action oriented approach to entrepreneurship. This concept demonstrates the difference in the way an entrepreneur approaches situations compared to a manager. Entrepreneurs start taking into account the resources they have and create an achievable goal applying what Sarasvathy calls effectuational reasoning whereas managers do the opposite, they set goals and then gather the resources needed to get there, this process is called causal reasoning (Sarasvathy, 2001a).

Action, the author says, is not only about praxis is also about finding the way to create a new venture. Entrepreneurial knowledge and experienced-based training have a positive effect on building entrepreneurial intention because entrepreneurship competences make it easier the entrepreneurial act. In other words, competence increases positive expectations and therefore the likelihood to action.

2.2.5 How potential entrepreneurs learn?
In order to achieve this objective Erikson (2003) does a literature review of entrepreneurial competence and the determinants of entrepreneurial behaviour. After this review he concludes that the focus should be the perception that the individual has of its entrepreneurial competence, which determines entrepreneurial intentions and thus behaviour. This is to say that although desire and feasibility are essential to develop intentions the most important factors to develop intentions and behaviour should be the perception of competence and their determinants.

The author states that the three determinants of competence are mastery experience (practical experience and repeated performance accomplishments), vicarious experience (observational learning) and social experience (social influence) and that it is crucial to combine them to build competence. Moreover, according to Wood and Bandura (1989) this is the most effective way to
develop self-efficacy. Erikson (2003) identifies that positive enactive mastery experience, positive vicarious experience and social entrepreneurial persuasion relate positively to perceived entrepreneurial competence; and that the more complementary the entrepreneurial exposures, the better the learning effect.

He then provides the implications of the determinants of competence for the typologies of entrepreneurs based in those mentioned by Westhead and Wright (1998): Novice, Parallel and Serial to which Erikson includes the nascent and potential entrepreneur. By combining the three typologies and the determinants of competence he creates eight new typologies depending on whether each has experienced one or a combination of the three types of the main learning experiences. These new typologies are shown in the following table.

Table 1: Taxonomy of learning experiences for potential entrepreneurs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes or No</th>
<th>The Complete Inexperienced</th>
<th>The Sole Observer</th>
<th>The Sole Practitioner</th>
<th>The Sole Socialiser</th>
<th>The Loner</th>
<th>The Social Observer</th>
<th>The Social Practitioner</th>
<th>The Experienced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social experience</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mastery experience</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vicarious experience</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Erikson, 2003).

For example, the typology called The Complete Inexperienced is someone who has no social, mastery or vicarious experience and The Experienced is someone who has all three main learning experiences. In this way he structures a map that facilitates educators knowing where to emphasize learning and how to transform a complete inexperienced person into an experienced entrepreneur.

2.3 Entrepreneurial self-efficacy and intentions

During the literature review self-efficacy has been a recurrent factor for entrepreneurship learning. This is why this concept has to be defined and explained in the context of the entrepreneurial process.

Entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) is one of the most important factors that helps to understand entrepreneurial success and it is also a determinant factor on start-up and business growth processes (Baum, Locke, & Smith, 2001; Boyd & Vozikis, 1994; Chen & Crick, 1998; Krueger, 2003; Markman, Balkin, & Baron, 2002; Segal, Borgia, & Schoenfeld, 2005). There are different definitions of ESE in the literature. Some authors define it as the entrepreneur’s task-specific self-confidence (Baron & Markman, 1999; Baum et al., 2001; Boyd & Vozikis, 1994), others define it as the ability to master the necessary cognitive, memory processing, and behavioural facilities to deal effectively with the environment (Chen & Crick, 1998; Segal et al., 2005). And according to Drnovsek, Wincent and Cardon (2010) ESE is the individual’s self-believe that he/she has the
capabilities and control cognitions for achieving success when taking challenging goals during the entrepreneurial process.

2.3.1 Entrepreneurial intentions

ESE is also very important to entrepreneurship education because it is related not only to success, but also to start-up intentions (Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000). ESE is also a task-specific construct that includes an assessment of confident beliefs an individual has about internal and external constraints and possibilities and it is close to action and action intentionality (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994). It is also a good predictor of start-up intentions (Krueger et al., 2000), a determinant of new venture growth and personal success (Markman et al., 2002), and the best predictor for entrepreneurial outcomes (Shane, Locke, & Collins, 2003).

In addition, the self-efficacy construct has also been closely linked not only to important entrepreneurial outcomes such as start-up intentions (Krueger et al., 2000), but also to determine the strength of entrepreneurial intentions and the likelihood that those intentions would result in entrepreneurial actions (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994). Further analysing self-efficacy it has been found that personal efficacy influenced the development of attributions of nascent entrepreneurs for creating new businesses (Carter, Gartner, Shaver, & Gatewood, 2003; Gatewood, Shaver, Powers, & Gartner, 2002; Shaver, Gartner, Crosby, Bakalarova, & Gatewood, 2001) and it also has been associated with perceived feasibility and formation of entrepreneurial intentions (Krueger et al., 2000). An overall finding of self-efficacy is that individuals with higher entrepreneurial self-efficacy have higher entrepreneurial intentions and are consequently more likely to believe they also have an actionable idea.

Nevertheless, intentionality might not be enough despite behaviour, feasibility and desire are present. Commitment to action has to occur in order to turn the choice of creating a new venture into action. Entrepreneurial commitment is a process that forms the choice of creating a new venture by a set of minor decisions taken by the potential entrepreneur; it is the result of a series of almost irreversible actions that necessarily leads to more actions (Fayolle, Basso, & Tornikoski, 2011).

2.3.2 ESE and the entrepreneurial process

ESE is a multidimensional construct that may include two beliefs: goal and control beliefs in the context of the entrepreneurial process. Goal beliefs are assessments of an entrepreneur’s capabilities to engage in activities that will lead to successful task or outcome completions during the business start-up process. Control beliefs are an entrepreneur’s beliefs about his capabilities to control negative thoughts and bolster positive thoughts during goal pursuit (Drnovsek et al., 2010).

This multidimensional definition of the ESE is relevant during the different stages or segments of the entrepreneurial process. The success on each of the stages of the entrepreneurial process depends on the individual dimensions of the ESE that each entrepreneur has at each stage. Some will possess high levels of task self-efficacy and others high levels of outcome self-efficacy or some will have both (Drnovsek et al., 2010). So, paying separate attention to the individual dimensions
of ESE that entrepreneurs hold at specific phase of the entrepreneurial process will help develop a better EEP and therefore increase the entrepreneurial intentions of potential entrepreneurs.

2.4 Entrepreneurship as a Process

Researchers have studied entrepreneurship from a traits approach, a behaviour approach and also from a process approach. This paper has reviewed several aspects about entrepreneurship education, but in order to understand entrepreneurial success it is required that entrepreneurs understand the entrepreneurial process (Low & MacMillan, 1988).

There are many proposals in the literature of different entrepreneurial processes, but what is distinct and what is generic about all of them? This question is the one that Moroz and Hindle attempt to answer in their paper *Entrepreneurship as a Process: toward harmonizing multiple perspectives* (Moroz & Hindle, 2012 forthcoming). This is a very comprehensive study in which the authors analyse 32 models of entrepreneurial process. They examine peer-reviewed, published entrepreneurial process models to find out whether there are factors that are at the same time generic and distinct to the entrepreneurial process.

They mention that authors in general might not have considered the many concepts that already exist in the literature and bring them altogether into a single whole entrepreneurial process. These concepts or frameworks include the following:


- Cognitive processes and routines of successful entrepreneurs (Baron & Ward, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2004; Sarasvathy, 2006).

- Environmental or contextual factors (Gartner, 1985; Gnyawali & Fogel, 1994) that create incentives for economic agents to be entrepreneurs or not (Leibenstein, 1968).

The authors carry out their research using a methodology that reviews what entrepreneurs do and how they do so from a process approach of entrepreneurship. They compare and contrast models of entrepreneurial processes by asking questions such as: "Do the extant models of entrepreneurial processes suggest a convergence in identifying what entrepreneurs do and how they do it?; Do any of the extant models attempt to answer or provide some insight into the focal question 'what is both generic and distinct about the phenomenon of entrepreneurship' ....?"

The authors set up a methodology to identify and classify models of entrepreneurial process. The methodology is based on the evaluation of the following:
They classify the models of process in one of the following groups according to Phan (2004) and Van de Ven (1992): Stage Model (Divide into stages tasks or phases a priori); Static Framework (No examination of the sequence of activities, process oriented, but no dynamic, limited set of variables connected by speculative causal links); Process Dynamics (Examine variations in context and process outcomes employing qualitative methods); Quantification Sequence (Based on a historical sequence approach of new venture creation process) and Other (All models that do not fit with the above parameters).

They also evaluated the primary frameworks of the process models assessing key components, events or stages; and variables, factors and actions. Classification also depended on the approach or method used to generate the model process; whether the processes are contextually focused on entrepreneurship: narrowly specific, broadly specific, mixed general, general, generic and distinct; and on the explanatory power: low (no specific explanation of factors), medium (significance of factors to process) or high (interrelationships between factors and processes).

Process models were also analysed taking into account the unit of analysis. Here they focused on: individual, group or team, organization, meso-environment, community or multiple if there are models that use more than one of these units of analysis.

2.4.1 The four models of entrepreneurial process
The findings of this analysis yield 32 models focused on the entrepreneurial process. Most of them have a static design or a stage model design. There was little uniformity in the key category (components, events, stages), and only 7 models stated practical implications for their research, of these only 5 have a high explanatory power. In summary, only 4 process models were considered to have generic and distinct factors. These models are the following:

- Gartner’s static framework model of new venture emergence (Gartner, 1985).
- Bruyat and Julienne’s model of entrepreneurial process (Bruyat & Julien, 2001).
- Sarasvathy’s dynamic model of effectuation (Sarasvathy, 2001b; Sarasvathy, 2006)
- Shane’s model of the entrepreneurial process (Shane, 2003).

2.4.2 The six points of convergence
Finally, after analysing each of these four process models of entrepreneurship the authors found six points of convergence:

- The relationship between individuals and opportunities is crucial.
- The need to critically assess the transformative and disruptive value of knowledge.
- Evaluation of ways to create value through new business models in contrast to optimizing existing business models.
- Time is important regarding opportunity and market receptiveness.
The process is not complete unless action is taken. Planning is not enough.

A process response to incentives generated by its context. Context has to be understood.

The authors conclude their paper making a call for a harmonized model of entrepreneurial process. The following section discusses how the concepts reviewed previously can be used to understand how entrepreneurship can be taught to potential entrepreneurs.

3. Discussion

In order to design an effective and efficient program (Maritz et al., 2011) and following the framework for an EEP proposed by Alberti (2004) the purpose of this kind of programs should be to increase the awareness and understanding of the entrepreneurial process and to increase the self-efficacy and intentions of potential entrepreneurs to become entrepreneurs some time in the future. This can be achieved giving them the tools they need (attributes, behaviours and skills) so that they are able to design their own entrepreneurial process and to increase their self-efficacy that will allow them to achieve the goals and perform the tasks included at each point of convergence of the entrepreneurial process.

The second component of an effective EEP (Alberti et al., 2004) is the audience. In this case the target of the program will be potential entrepreneurs defined as those individuals that do not have the intentions to become entrepreneurs or start a business yet, as oppose to nascent entrepreneurs, who are those individuals who are starting a new business from scratch (Alsos & Kolvereid, 1998).

Taking this into account in the previous sections of the document a literature review has been carried out. This review had insights in the ways entrepreneurs learn in work and life, what to teach at university, how potential entrepreneurs learn, self-efficacy and intentions, and the entrepreneurial process. Since many entrepreneurship education programs do not address the real needs regarding to content this review attempts to answer the question of what should be taught that is specific to entrepreneurship itself (Henry et al., 2005). Now, this section discusses how to put the findings of the literature review together in order to establish some basic principles that could be used to design an EEP.

3.1 Attributes, behaviours and skills

It is known that entrepreneurs go through an entrepreneurial process but how do they learn to get through that process? I believe that the attributes, behaviours and skills of an entrepreneur are what help them go through the process regardless of the way this process looks like. And as stated by Moremong-Nganunu (2009) entrepreneurial instruction “needs to inform behaviour, enhance certain attributes, and develop specific skills”.

In order to determine what potential entrepreneurs should be taught we take the attributes, behaviours and skills mentioned by the authors in the literature review and classify them according to the following: attributes, defined as a trait or characteristic that is inherent to a
person; behaviours, which can be described by an action taken by a person; and skills defined as knowledge acquired by an individual that is demonstrated with an action (Moremong-Nganunu, 2009).

They found the following behaviours: the decision making process, active learning (Rae & Carswell, 2001), opportunity recognition, evaluation and exploitation, alertness of opportunities, building organizations (Bager, 2011); attributes: motivation, need of achievement, self-efficacy, self-confidence, a positive thought process and goal setting attributes (Erikson, 2003; Rae & Carswell, 2001), working comfortably with chaos, overoptimism (Bager, 2011); and skills: networking (relationships), personal theory (Rae & Carswell, 2001).
The table above includes the attributes, behaviours and skills taken from the literature review. Additionally, this table includes other factors that will help entrepreneurs with some specific points of the process: creativity and innovation (Moremong-Nganunu, 2009) will be needed for the evaluation of ways to create value through new business models; and commitment to action will help entrepreneurs with The process is not complete unless action is taken. Planning is not enough. At the bottom of the table there are the ways in which the Complete Inexperienced potential entrepreneur will be transformed into the Complete Experienced potential entrepreneur.

3.2 The Entrepreneurial Process

Based on the literature review I believe the following can be argued. One of the basic principles anyone has to learn is the entrepreneurial process. The entrepreneurial process is the road an entrepreneur goes through in order to ultimately become an entrepreneur. But now the question would be what the most appropriate (in the sense that is distinct and generic) entrepreneurial process model to teach is?

As reviewed in a previous section there is a significant number of processes in the entrepreneurship literature; however, from the 32 entrepreneurial process models classified and analysed by Moroz and Hindle (2012 forthcoming) only four were found to have distinctive and/or generic factors of an entrepreneurial process. So, there is no model of entrepreneurial process that can be considered to be the most appropriate to be included in an entrepreneurship education program.

3.2.1 Points of Convergence

Nonetheless, this paper will take the six points of convergence from this exhaustive taxonomy and analysis of entrepreneurial process models as a first set of principles that have to be included in an EEP for potential entrepreneurs. These six points of convergence are factors that all entrepreneurs have to go through at certain point in time during his way to becoming an entrepreneur.
Regardless of their background, age, industry, etc. they will have to run through each of these points.

Figure 2: Points of convergence of the models of entrepreneurial processes.

But even if students know these six points they need to have a set of attributes, behaviours and skills that will help students connect these six points and go all the way through the entrepreneurial process. On the one hand, we might not have a model of entrepreneurial process that adequately satisfies being generic and distinct (Moroz & Hindle, 2012 forthcoming) in the entrepreneurship literature that can be taught and as quoted by Moroz and Hindle “Many of the extant models contain too little generality in a way that makes them not models of entrepreneurial process but models of how to do some very particular thing in a very particular way.” (Moroz & Hindle, 2012 forthcoming).

On the other hand, if we take into consideration that behavioural intention is based not only on rational and intuitive thinking, but also social and personal contexts interact in the process of structuring intentions; in other words different types of experiences and personal capabilities predispose individuals towards entrepreneurial behaviour (Erikson, 2003). Then, this same principle can be applied to entrepreneurship education and argue that each individual will connect the six points of the entrepreneurial process in different ways depending on their own experiences and personal capabilities; their attributes, behaviours and skills; and their multidimensional self-efficacy.

3.3 The means to the entrepreneurial process

What it is argued here is that personal experiences and personal capabilities, which are unique to each person, and in particular attributes, behaviours and skills are the tools that will help
entrepreneurs connect these six points and create or design their own entrepreneurial process which sometimes will be unique, some other times will have similarities and other times will be exactly the same.

Figure 3: Connecting the six points of convergence of the entrepreneurial process models.

We do not know when or how these points are going to be connected, but taking a constructivist approach it can be assumed that each entrepreneur will be able to build its own process based on the attributes, behaviours and skills needed to walk through the path of its own built entrepreneurial process.

The best way to do this is through mastery experiences or opportunities to act entrepreneurially and exposure to real life entrepreneurs and including different purposes according to the stage of the process in which the entrepreneur is (Cox, 1996). In other words through mastering experience, vicarious experience and social experience is the best way to develop the entrepreneurial competence needed at each point of convergence of the entrepreneurial process and transform the Complete Inexperienced potential entrepreneur into the Complete Experienced potential entrepreneur.
Finally, the success on each of the six points of convergence depends on two factors: the attributes, behaviours and skills of the entrepreneur and the individual dimensions of the ESE that each entrepreneur has in each point. Some will possess high levels of task self-efficacy, others high levels of outcome-self-efficacy and some will have a combination of both (Drnovsek et al., 2010).

4. Conclusion
What should be taught to entrepreneurs has been an issue that has not been addressed broadly in the literature. Doing research in order to find the ideal curriculum for an entrepreneurship education program has had little attention (Moremong-Nganunu, 2009). It is not an easy issue to write about because there is so much to be learned, so many concepts and issues that go in
different directions. One very good example of this is the variety of entrepreneurship process models there are in the literature.

Teaching entrepreneurship intends to guide people to be entrepreneurs, thus to have companies being entrepreneurial. To achieve this they have to create organizations, to create them they need attributes, behaviours and skills to either design or follow a process.

From a trait point of view an entrepreneur is a set of personality traits and characteristics, from a behavioural approach the entrepreneur is seen as a set of activities involved in creating an organization (Gartner, 1988), and the process approach is a description of the path they follow to create value. Therefore, this paper concludes that in order to teach potential entrepreneurs, an entrepreneurship education program should consider principles related to trait approaches, behavioural approaches, skills and entrepreneurial processes.

Finally, combining the six points of convergence of the entrepreneurial processes with attributes, behaviours, skills and multidimensional self-efficacy that could be used to design an entrepreneurship education curriculum is one of the contributions of this paper.

5. Future research

This paper has reviewed some of the principles that an EEP should include when intending that students become entrepreneurs sometime in their life. Nevertheless, there is still much work to do in order to transform these principles into a proper curriculum that can be delivered in a classroom to potential entrepreneurs.

As commented before during the paper it is not only what to teach, but also how to teach it. So, one of the future paths of research related to this paper could be to develop a curriculum based on these principles and to find the proper pedagogy to deliver such a curriculum. In this regard, a blended learning approach has been proposed by Maritz (Maritz et al., 2011) which will suit an EEP. It is also important to perform an exhaustive research on all the new technologies for education and develop the curriculum and pedagogies that will suit the use of these new technologies in the classrooms.

Another path to further this research could be to conduct a curriculum review in order to find out whether the principles of the curricula that is actually being taught to potential entrepreneurs matches with the proposal of this research. This could help to close the breach between theory and practice in order to create a more effective EEP for potential entrepreneurs. Finally, another suggestion for further research could be to empirically prove the suggestions made in this paper in a group of potential entrepreneurs taught with a curriculum designed on the basis of the propositions of this paper.
6. References


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