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BUILDING AN ENTERPRISING GENERATION

AN EVALUATION OF THE YOUNG ENTERPRISE SCHEME

*A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Business Studies in Management
at Massey University*

**Kate Lewis
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*“You have inquiring minds and strong bodies given to you by God and by your parents,
who sit behind you and pass on to you today their still unrealised dreams and
ambitions”*

(Powell, 1994 cited in Safire, 1997, p.1036).

ABSTRACT

Enterprise education aims to develop in individuals (particularly the young) a set of skills and/or attitudes that will allow them to be both job creators and job seekers. In the context of the heightened interest in the potential contribution of enterprise education to the 'knowledge economy', the promotion of self-employment as a legitimate work option in schools is evidenced by increasing participation levels in programmes like the Young Enterprise Scheme (YES) (administered by the Enterprise New Zealand Trust).

Currently there is little empirical evidence in New Zealand relating to the impact of enterprise education programmes like the YES, or the different ways students manifest the qualities of enterprise. This responsive evaluation of the YES was grounded in the axioms of the naturalistic paradigm. It was based on parallel cycles of data collection that involved observation, interviewing and the dissemination of a questionnaire. Respondents included both adult stakeholders and YES student participants.

The evaluation established that the benefits of an experiential, enterprise education opportunity like the YES are wide ranging. They vary from issues of personal development to the accumulation of a portfolio of 'enterprising' skills. It appears that the YES also has some influence on the career intentions and employability of participants. This impact appears more influential on students who are exposed to enterprising role models through their own family or friends. In terms of programme delivery, stakeholders described teachers as the primary influence on how successfully the YES is facilitated.

The evaluation identified a number of areas for future research including the role of mentors in the programme, aspects of regional diversity in terms of programme delivery, the need to track the future activities of YES participants, and compare the attitudes and behaviours of YES participants and non-participants. Within the evaluation a transferable framework is proposed for classifying enterprise education programmes in terms of key definitional criteria and proposed programme outcomes.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

In response to changing labour market dynamics and the prevailing global economic climate, the development of a 'knowledge economy' has become a primary objective for many countries. A knowledge economy depends on individuals who are enterprising and have the ability to take action, as employees or employers, with creative and innovative approaches. The question is whether individuals can be taught to be more enterprising? Enterprise education operates on the premise that this is the case, and aims to develop in individuals (particularly the young) a set of skills that will allow them to be both job creators and job seekers – and so contribute to the knowledge economy.

Definitions of enterprise education can be narrow, focusing on the development of business related skills, or broad, recognising that enterprise education can be more holistic, enabling personal and community development. The OECD (1989) has defined enterprise, and therefore education for enterprise, in the broadest sense, regarding enterprise “as a group of qualities and competencies that enable individuals, organisations, communities, societies and cultures to be flexible, creative and adaptable in the face of, and as contributors to, rapid social and economic change” (p.84). Implied in this definition is that investing in enterprise education can therefore be beneficial for both student participants and the development of a knowledge economy. This suggests that the impact of enterprise education can be examined at micro or macro level, and that its benefits can be both individual and collective.

The literature has reinforced the fundamental role of enterprise education in building a culture in which enterprise (in the broadest sense) is valued, thereby stimulating entrepreneurship and contributing to the economic and community development of nations (APEID, 1992; OECD, 2001; Turner, 1988). Indeed Burrows (1989, in Harrison & Hart, 1992) described the discourse relating to the development of a culture of enterprise as being “one of the major articulating principles of the age” (p.104). Bechard and Toulouse (1991) feel that the knowledge transmitted through education should be the knowledge needed to enable the individual to perform well in the dominant culture, irrespective of what that culture represents. Given that students today are formulating their attitudes to work in an era of unprecedented entrepreneurial awareness, the influence of enterprise education may be more far reaching than ever before.

As the labour markets of the world have become more constrained due to global, regional and national influences a pervasive theme emerges: that the students of today will have significantly different 'work lives' than any generation before them. This changing nature of work suggests that young people may face the prospect of a career that will include periods of paid employment, *and* non-work, *and* self-employment (which implies greater scope for entrepreneurial activity) (Henderson & Robertson, 2000). Turner (1988) argued that the ability to deal effectively with this type of employment diversity "is dependent upon the ownership and exercise of enterprise skills" (p.3), suggesting that educating for enterprise is imperative.

However, the general perception the public have of self-employment and entrepreneurship (both dominant manifestations of enterprise) affects the presentation of self-employment as a suitable career option for young people (White, 1999). As levels of enterprise awareness can influence an individual's predisposition to participate in such activities, enterprise education can contribute by positively influencing those levels of awareness and equip the young to deal with their work futures more effectively (OECD, 2000). Whilst few facilitators of enterprise education programmes would describe their primary objective as being 'business start-ups', there is no doubt that enterprise education can instil, or foster, that potential.

Krueger and Brazeal (1994) argued that a 'group' could be described as having some potential for entrepreneurial activity. Given the current climate today's young could be described as having unprecedented levels of potential, with those having undertaken enterprise education perhaps having even more. While it is easy to dismiss much of the world's reaction to the enterprise potential of the young as hyperbole, it is not so easy to cast doubt on the role enterprise education may play in ensuring the realisation of this latent potential. Indeed the OECD (2001) described enterprise education as an essential component of ensuring the young have the capability to go into business for themselves.

Given the conditions described above (a growing focus on the role of enterprise education in economic development and an increasingly complex work environment for youth), any evaluation of the characteristics and effectiveness of enterprise education programmes has the ability to contribute to a greater understanding of the area's role and importance. A specific focus on programmes delivered in a secondary school (pre-

tertiary) context is even more crucial given that there historically appears to have been a dominant focus on tertiary schemes.

THE CONTEXT OF THIS RESEARCH

“Occasionally, personal experience and social trends converge to generate an appropriate topic for study” (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper & Allen, 1993, p.47).

In the context of a heightened interest in the potential contribution of enterprise education to the ‘knowledge economy’, the Enterprise New Zealand Trust (ENZT) plays a leading role in New Zealand. As a charitable trust the ENZT provides numerous enterprise education courses to schools students of varying ages. The ENZT’s flagship programme is the Young Enterprise Scheme (YES). The YES was established in the early 1980s and is a programme that gives students the opportunity to run their own company within the school environment. At some schools the YES is run as an in-class activity, whilst in others it is an extracurricular option. YES teams are supported by a teacher, a regional coordinator from the ENZT, and generally a mentor sourced from the business community.

Currently there is little empirical evidence relating to the impact of enterprise education programmes in New Zealand, or the different ways students manifest the qualities of enterprise. This knowledge gap prompted the ENZT to seek to evaluate its YES in order to contribute to the body of knowledge regarding enterprise education, and substantiate the significant anecdotal evidence of the success of YES. The ENZT approached the New Zealand Centre for SME Research to carry out this evaluation on their behalf. The researcher was approached to become involved in the project after completing prior work in the area of youth entrepreneurship. The ENZT and NZ Centre for SME Research generously funded the evaluation, the results of which are presented in this report.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

After considering both the environmental and research contexts described above, the researcher’s interest in the broad topic of enterprise education was narrowed to a focus

on the YES. This specificity aimed to expedite the execution of an effective evaluation and to ensure the achievement of the research objectives.

After considering the context outlined earlier in this chapter the research question became:

How does the YES programme impact on its participants?

After reviewing the relevant literature (presented in chapter two) the following research objectives were formulated to assist in answering the research question:

1. **To describe the benefits of the YES programme for primary stakeholders (students).**
2. **To explore what influence the YES has on students' career intentions and employability.**
3. **To identify what contributes to the effective delivery of the YES.**

REPORT APPROACH

"The interweaving of my experiences as an individual with those of a researcher makes my final report a personal document" (Collin, in Reason & Rowan, 1981, p.385).

The research objectives were achieved through a responsive evaluation (Stake, 1980, in Dockrell & Hamilton, 1980) that was comprised of two data collection cycles (chapter three explains the responsive evaluation framework). The qualitative cycle consisted of a focus group, observation and interviews, while the quantitative cycle involved the distribution of a survey to YES participants. This empirical data was supplemented with data gathered through a review of the relevant literature.

This chapter has presented the rationale for the choice of research topic, background to the topic, and the objectives of the research. In the following chapter the literature review is presented, while chapter three describes and justifies the methodological choices made by the researcher. Chapter four presents the results (drawn from the data collected in accordance with the methods outlined in the previous chapter) and in the subsequent chapter these results are discussed. The final chapter of the report contains conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter aims to set the research objectives in a historical and theoretical context by reviewing what previous research has revealed about the area of enterprise education. This will assist in identifying gaps in the current knowledge, how this research has sought to contribute to closing that gap, and the scope for further investigation into enterprise education in a New Zealand context.

In conducting the literature search it became clear that as a field of inquiry enterprise education spanned several well-established research areas, including the literature on entrepreneurship. The review is separated into sections that illustrate the dominant themes that emerged from the literature. These are: the emergence and growth of enterprise education; definitions of enterprise education; the differences between enterprise and entrepreneurship; best practice enterprise education delivery; and outcomes of enterprise education. Particular attention is given to coverage of evaluations of enterprise education programme and these are divided by country (New Zealand, Australia, England, Ireland, Northern Ireland, America and others).

ENTERPRISE EDUCATION: ITS EMERGENCE AND GROWTH

The 1980s and 1990s saw an unprecedented growth in the demand for enterprise education that was matched by a corresponding growth in the number of courses offered by academic institutions throughout the world (Sexton & Smilor, 1997, cited in Jack & Anderson, 1999). Much of this growth stemmed from an acknowledgement of the contribution enterprise education can make to economic growth by contributing to the development of a more entrepreneurial culture.

The view that enterprise contributes to economic expansion is reflected in the theories of Cole, Schumpeter, McClelland and Webber (Kilby, 1971, cited in Caird, 1990b). Despite definitional problems (to be discussed later in this chapter), the aims of enterprise education initiatives are directly or indirectly linked to economic development. As Caird (1990b) pointed out, economic development encompasses a wide-ranging group of activities and objectives, and therefore logically the aims of enterprise education are equally varied and broad. For example, the processes of both

enterprise development and enterprise education have been demonstrated to be as much about developing people who are prepared to *potentially* own businesses as about creating businesses as (Rosa, 1992, cited in Jack & Anderson, 1999). As a result of the growing emphasis on the capability of enterprise to enhance economic development there has been a corresponding focus on the role of enterprise education in promoting enterprising actions in individuals (APEID, 1992). This suggests that there is a subtle distinction between individual and collective enterprise, and whether education for each should be different is a question worthy of closer attention.

Gasse (1985) affirmed this distinction between individual and collective enterprise by arguing that enterprise education could make an important contribution to the identification of 'entrepreneurial potential' (i.e. collective) and entrepreneurs (individual). The author pointed out that identifying and evaluating such potential at a secondary school level enhances the chance of that potential developing into action because career and study options at that age are still open. Filion (1994) concurred, stating: "high school is the most determinant level in the development of young people's entrepreneurial potential" (p.68). Gorman, Hanlon and King (1997) noted that little attention had been given to investigating the impact of enterprise education on attitudes, but that preliminary evidence would suggest that enterprise education programmes could positively influence entrepreneurial attributes. The authors concluded that further research into whether enterprise education has the capacity to influence the formation and development of entrepreneurial attitudes is needed before substantive conclusions can be drawn.

One of the most comprehensive reviews of the enterprise education literature was carried out by Gorman et al. (1997). The authors limited themselves to mainstream journals published between 1985 and 1994 (inclusive), but within this many dimensions of the enterprise education construct were covered. This work was an excellent starting point for this literature review, and much of its content is incorporated into this discussion.

Enterprise education as a field of inquiry is one that appears to be characterised by a lack of empirical investigation, with the majority of work having been exploratory in nature. Gorman et al. (1997) observed that most research in the field was carried out using cross-sectional survey designs, measurements of key variables based largely on

self-reports, and that the use of basic controls such as pre and post-testing was the exception rather than the rule. A focus on one course, or institution, has also led to a lack of generalisability in the research results. They also emphasised that because the cumulative impact of repeated exposure to enterprise education should have a much greater impact on attitudes and propensity, the challenge for researchers will be to measure the overall, long-term effectiveness of more broad-based programmes.

The majority of literature and evaluations also appear to have focused on enterprise education at a tertiary rather than secondary school level. This may relate to the fact that enterprise education in the tertiary sector is more developed (i.e. more readily available). A gap is therefore present in the enterprise education literature that needs to be addressed by work that incorporates a focus on enterprise education in primary and secondary schools. There is little doubt that enterprise education can be a means of developing certain core skills and attributes in young people. However, how effective and efficient it is remains largely unevaluated (DUBS, 1989, cited in Gorman et al., 1997).

DEFINING ENTERPRISE EDUCATION

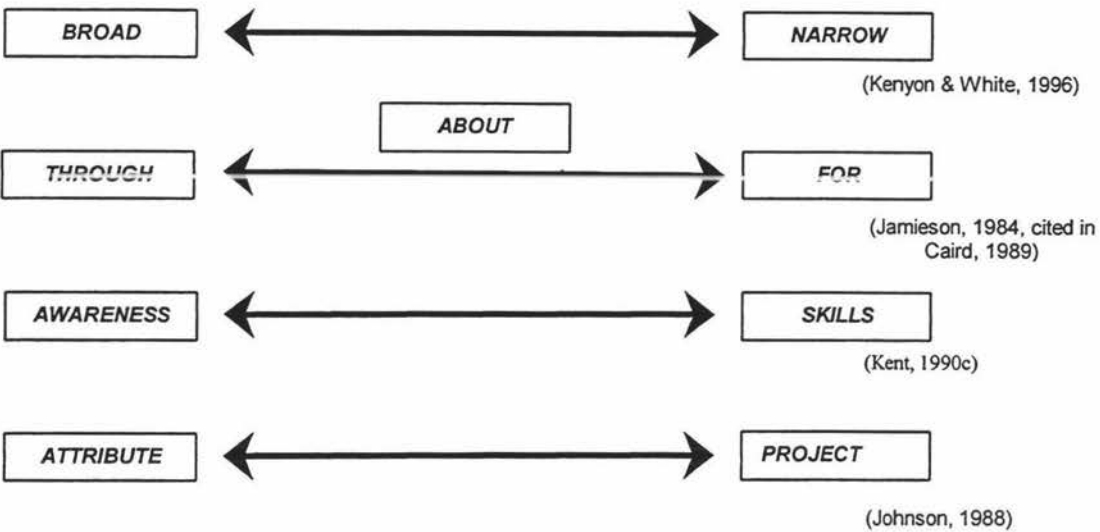
The formulation of a description of 'enterprise' or 'enterprise education' has preoccupied many researchers within the enterprise education field. Whilst this has led to many insights into how best to deliver enterprise education, it could be argued that a focus on 'the ideal' has distracted researchers from evaluating current enterprise education programmes and how well they meet their objectives.

Given the diversity that characterises both the delivery and outcomes of enterprise education it was useful to examine some of the definitions proposed to identify where the differences or similarities lay. In attempting to identify a degree of definitional consensus it appears that enterprise education can be defined in broad or narrow terms (Kenyon & White, 1996) and that enterprise education initiatives can be categorised into those that educate 'for' enterprise, 'about' enterprise, or 'through' enterprise Jamieson (1984, cited in Caird, 1989). Kent (1990c) also described two 'dimensions' of enterprise education: awareness (being aware of: the past, present and future roles entrepreneurs play in society; economic growth; the development role of entrepreneurship; and

entrepreneurship as a possible career), and skills (technical; managerial; human resources; and psychological).

There was a degree of consensus in terms of the definitions in the literature, and a number of these definitions are depicted as continua in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Some definitions of enterprise education



Many definitional opinions in a field can often prove problematic for researchers; however, Bridges (1992) felt that in the absence of an authoritative definition there is some freedom to be prescriptive. For example, while Kenyon and White (1996) emphasised that enterprise education could be defined broadly or narrowly, they also qualified this with the assertion that enterprise education should typically involve participants facing degrees of difficulty or uncertainty, and that the associated risks may be financial, physical, intellectual or emotional (illustrating that the outcomes of enterprise education can be complex, and both tangible and intangible).

Broad definitions of enterprise education take a more holistic approach to what enterprise education initiatives can achieve. They are based on the premise that being enterprising is not confined to a business context (Cotton, 1991) and centre on the development of personal competencies (OECD, 1989). For example Cotton (1991, p.9) argued that enterprise education can be “a vehicle for the development of the whole person; someone who is aware of his or her own strengths and weaknesses and who takes control of, and makes the most of, his or her own life”. Similarly, Filion (1994) wrote that enterprise education is not just about teaching students how to write business

plans, it is about allowing them to develop an open mind and an interest in taking charge of their own development. "Nobody expects a majority of today's students to go on to become entrepreneurs with their own firms. However, they should be expected to be more independent and more resourceful than before", whether they are self-employed or employees (Filion, 1994, p.68).

The narrow approach to defining enterprise education (i.e. enterprise education as the teaching of business entrepreneurialism and the skills needed to start a business (OECD, 1989)) is seen as having numerous weaknesses by many researchers. Amongst those Kearney (1996) argued that narrow definitions of enterprise education could reinforce the negative overtones that often beleaguer the concept of enterprise in society. Their emphasis on small business ownership and capitalism represent inherent ideological assumptions that can make enterprise education unappealing to teachers, parents, community groups and students themselves. Evaluations have also found that institutions that set out to implement a narrowly based (i.e. largely entrepreneurial) model of enterprise were more likely to encounter resistance from staff and students (Kearney, 1996).

Kearney (1996) also argued that the adoption of a broader approach to enterprise education (i.e. in alignment with the broad definition of enterprise education) could achieve the narrow outcomes, perhaps more effectively than the narrow approach itself. The author also argued that personal development ('broad') outcomes of enterprise education are far more important than employment ('narrow') outcomes. Enterprise education programmes that aim to develop enterprising competencies in individuals (cf. those that aim only to produce small business owners) are also more likely to appeal to a wider range of people (and not just those who may be predisposed to action of an enterprising nature) (Kearney, 1996).

The breadth of definitions that are applied to enterprise education is illustrated by the diversity of schemes that come under this umbrella of description. The wide range signals the different perceptions held by educationalists and policy makers with respect to the concept of enterprise education. Caird (1989) argued that such diversity, and the apparent inability to define enterprise education with any great certainty, might indicate that the time has come to abandon 'enterprise education' as a general label. However, no other 'label' for such initiatives has been put forward in response to the suggestion.

Gibb (1993) drew attention to the high levels of enterprise education activity in the schools and colleges of the world. He reiterated the complications inherent in a field where there are differences in objectives and in meanings of the concept under discussion. In a United Kingdom context Gibb (1993) pointed out that much of what occurs is labelled 'enterprise education' rather than 'entrepreneurship education', and focuses on developing what constitutes the broader definition of enterprise education (that is, the development of personal attributes).

Gibb (1993) argued out that the phrase 'enterprise education' has multiple meanings and that these meanings are all acceptable. However, he also pointed out that those who use the phrase need to be unambiguous in the meaning and context they select, and observed that this does not seem to always be the case. Johnson (1988) also expressed concern at the lack of clarity surrounding the enterprise education construct and stressed that the need for a concrete definition of enterprise education (or at least a commonality of understanding amongst stakeholders) was even more pressing given the growth of the field. McMahon (1989) made similar points, but in mitigation offered the argument that as a field of emerging endeavour enterprise education was bound to be characterised by semantic confusion and ill-defined parameters. It is worth recalling that entrepreneurship was also once a field in its infancy, and over the passing years definitions have been formulated that have helped make research more productive. The time spent formulating and reformulating definitions is not time wasted it would appear.

Johnson (1988) argued that the concept of enterprise, and therefore enterprise education, can be taken from a functional (i.e. setting up and running a project) or an attribute (i.e. the development of personal skills) perspective. The author also makes a useful distinction between 'enterprise training' and 'enterprise education'. In this case, the former is vocational, and aimed at enabling people to run projects (usually businesses), and the latter is educational and aimed at developing particular competencies for life in general.

Despite prolific writing and investigation in the field of enterprise education, Gibb (1987) stopped short of ever postulating a set of consistent definitions for enterprise education, which suggests that the author had a great appreciation of the influence context may have on perception of the construct. Despite this absence of a set of clear definitions, Jamieson (1984, cited in Caird, 1989) defined the differences between

education 'for' enterprise (any educational activity that aims to directly encourage individuals to consider starting their own business), education 'through' enterprise (any educational activity which aims to develop an individuals enterprise competencies), and education 'about' enterprise (any educational activity that seeks to inform individuals about the nature of business, and particularly small business). Similarly, Caird (1989) felt that the rationale and history of the education 'for' enterprise movement was quite distinct from the movements to educate 'through' or 'about' enterprise. The former grew out of concern to develop small business and entrepreneurship for economic reasons, whilst the latter were more related to criticisms of the education system and concerns with school leaver capability, which may have little to do with entrepreneurship.

Despite the reticence of many researchers in confining themselves to one consistent definition of enterprise education, many have put forward their contentions in broad and largely generic terms. To McMahon (1989) enterprise education is "any educational activity intended to stimulate and develop enterprising attributes and competencies in individuals that may be exhibited or exercised in a variety of tasks or environmental contexts" (p.3). Kearney (1996) wrote: "enterprise is the capacity and willingness to initiate and manage creative action in response to opportunities or changes, wherever they appear, in an attempt to achieve outcomes of added value. These outcomes can be personal, social, and cultural" (p.8). To Filion (1994) enterprise education is not about training students to become self-employed, rather "it means training everyone to be able to take charge of themselves in today's world. It means training everyone to be autonomous and resourceful enough to get by on their own, in other words, to be enterprising people" (p.71).

Gibb (1993) raised the point that efforts to formulate consistent definitions of enterprise education are often thwarted, or at least hindered by, the fact that terms like enterprise education and entrepreneurship are as much political terms as they are economic terms. Jack and Anderson (1999) went as far as suggesting that the promotion of enterprise education can be politically expedient as it helps convey the 'friendly face of capitalism'. Johnson (1988) went further, suggesting, "many teachers initially stereotype it [enterprise education] as political indoctrination for rampant capitalism" (p.63). Kearney (1996) also emphasised that the word 'enterprise', and therefore enterprise

education, had value and attitude connotations whether in the private, public or community sectors.

When examining definitions of enterprise education it was not easy to establish how much consideration had gone into context with regard to their formulation. In other words, does enterprise mean the same thing in one country as it does in another? Baker (2000) believed that the delivery of enterprise education would vary from culture to culture, which may suggest that the same individuality may need to be reflected in future definitions of the concept.

ENTREPRENEURSHIP OR ENTERPRISE?

The argument of whether people are 'enterprising' or 'not enterprising' should be replaced with a concern with how individuals could be 'more' or 'less' enterprising, according to Kearney (1996). This would circumvent the need to establish criteria for 'being enterprising' by assuming that each individual possesses some latent ability to be enterprising. This concern with what being enterprising actually is, introduced the issue of semantics which has made any examination of the enterprise education literature complex, and created a need to describe why 'being enterprising' is not the same as 'being entrepreneurial'.

The issue of what constitutes 'enterprising behaviour' compared to 'entrepreneurial behaviour' consumes many of the central discussions of the relevant literature. In general terms, and in all likelihood to the uninitiated, certain characteristics of enterprising behaviour are closely associated with those of the entrepreneur. In fact Young (1983, cited in Johnson, 1988) argued that linguistically and philosophically the essence of entrepreneurship is enterprise, but that enterprise is not restricted to entrepreneurs only. The orientation of this research is not congruent with an in depth examination of the differences between enterprise and entrepreneurship (or indeed enterprise education compared to entrepreneurship education). However, it would be remiss not to make brief reference to some of the dimensions of the discourse that are relevant to this project.

Caird (1990a) based the distinction between enterprise and entrepreneurship around tasks. Accordingly, an entrepreneur is defined as an innovative business/owner manager who takes calculated risks, whereas an enterprising person can be defined as someone

who sets up and runs a project (Johnson, 1983, cited in Caird, 1990a). However, the author conceded that the psychological attributes (said to distinguish entrepreneurs from others) of both might be similar, therefore proving the hypothesis “that entrepreneurs represent a sample of a wider category of enterprising people” (Caird, 1990b, p.138). Baker (2000) appeared to agree with Caird’s (1990b) premise by describing enterprise education as ‘enabling’ the encouragement of the entrepreneur.

Work by Caird and Johnson (1988, cited in Caird, 1990b) sought to establish the perceptions of pupils, parents, and teachers in relation to enterprise. In this study the only group who regarded enterprise as a project (including projects that were not to do with business), rather than a set of psychological attributes were the pupils. The authors concluded that this finding supported the position that enterprise is not just perceived as being associated with business and entrepreneurs.

Arzeni (1998) pointed out that as enterprise is not a construct that is as well developed or measured as entrepreneurship, its presence may be manifested in behaviours which can be taken only as ‘proxies’ of entrepreneurship. The author went on to say that this distinction was further blurred by the fact that entrepreneurship itself is characterised by continuously changing manifestations (and therefore difficult to consistently identify according to set criteria).

An apt summary of the discussion is made by Gibb (1984, in Watts & Moran, 1993) who wrote that enterprise could be considered as a set of attributes that may characterise entrepreneurial behaviour, and the entrepreneur can exemplify those attributes. However, those attributes are not demonstrated exclusively by entrepreneurs so the two are clearly not mutually exclusive concepts.

ENTERPRISE EDUCATION: MODELS, DELIVERY AND BEST PRACTICE

“[Enterprise education] should focus on developing innovation, risk taking, imagination and problem solving; in other words, the decision-making skills...another characteristic that can be developed within the general curriculum is self reliance, the ability not only to face new situations but also to survive in a competitive environment” (Rushing, 1990b, in Kent, 1990b, p.36).

As the quote demonstrates enterprise education can be about developing enterprising attributes in individuals. The formalised process of enterprise education helps to produce the enterprising individual, someone who demonstrates the characteristic known as enterprise (OECD, 1989; Kearney, 1996).

Rushing (1990a, in Kent, 1990b) felt that “if educators are to effectively incorporate entrepreneurship into the curriculum it is necessary, first, to establish a justification for its inclusion and, second, to identify a vehicle or vehicles by which to do it” (p.158). Given that the majority of the literature (as discussed earlier in this chapter) has established the importance of enterprise education to economic development, it was clear that the next question to be raised would be what can society do to enhance the enterprise education process and the potential of its contribution? The role of educational organisations and how they can best implement enterprise education initiatives therefore deserved significant empirical investigation (Rushing, 1990b in Kent, 1990b). This is particularly so given that the personal characteristics that may be considered as contributing to enterprising behaviour (e.g. creativity, risk taking, decision making etc) could be influenced by an enterprise education programme according to Bandura (1986, cited in Gorman et al., 1997).

A large proportion of the literature on enterprise education is devoted to examining existing models of enterprise education, and devising new and better practices. For this research it seemed more appropriate to focus on elements of best practice rather than become embroiled in considering the complex ideological arguments that relate to whether schools should prepare students for work and whether enterprise can be ‘taught’ in schools. However, Rushing (1990b in Kent, 1990b) pointed out that the dominance of the focus on enterprise education at a tertiary level has been at the expense of consideration of the worth of such initiatives at a secondary school level, and how such initiatives could, not should, be delivered. The author articulates clearly the problematic nature of enterprise, namely that entrepreneurial talent cannot be screened for, and therefore programmes must be generic enough so as to attract the greatest possible proportion of young people.

Attention in the literature has also been drawn to the possibility that existing educational systems are biased towards an ‘employee culture’ (Gibb, 1984 in Watts & Moran, 1984). The author suggested that there appears to be a fundamental, underlying bias in

the current education system towards the 'employee culture' that is no longer relevant in today's world. This contributes to the need for adjustments, according to Filion (1994): "to the current culture and content of the existing education system, and also parallel or additional educational activities to compensate for what cannot always be done in the existing system. These activities demand a good deal of flexibility, adaptability and, especially, open-mindedness and generosity on the part of the teacher" (p.76).

A different view is that enterprise is in effect building upon what is seen as good practice in many educational institutions, DUBS (1989, cited in Gorman et al., 1997) emphasised that though enterprise education does not deny the importance of more formal didactic methods in achieving certain well defined educational goals. However, the ability of enterprise education to achieve what more traditional approaches cannot is real, and worthy of careful evaluation.

Another issue commented upon by a number of authors is whether enterprise can be taught. Gorman et al. (1997) concluded that enterprise can be taught, and that teaching methods can be enhanced through active participation. For education to effectively assist in the development of enterprising people it has been recognised that programmes need to be predominantly learner driven. Developing enterprise (and potential entrepreneurs) means primarily working on attitudes, and McLuhan (1964, cited in Filion, 1994) argued that the 'medium is the message', in other words the learning methods are as important, if not more so, than the content. These points raise the issue of the impact of pedagogical theory on the delivery of enterprise education: However, assessing such an impact was beyond the scope of this research, and the researcher's capability to pursue it.

Kearney (1996) concurred with that premise that student-centred learning should form the basis of any enterprise education programme, emphasising that the student needs to be the active agent and that such programmes should explicitly promote transference. Kearney (1996) described this 'transference capacity' as the ability of students to transfer skills they learnt in enterprise education programmes to other settings or contexts.

The 'ownership' of the enterprise education learning experience by the student poses a problem for many teachers who have been trained in more traditionally didactic methods. Johnson (1988) argued that whilst many teachers might be attracted to the

prospect of being involved in enterprise education it often means a commitment that involves the development of new skills, and broadening their conception of what constitutes enterprise education. Essentially the teacher's role is that of guide and partner in the learning process (Cotton, 1991). Work by Iredale (1993) sought to investigate the views and attitudes of some head teachers in England towards enterprise education. Fifty schools participated in the research, and the 46 questionnaires returned represented a 92% response rate. The survey demonstrated that perceptions of enterprise education differed immensely. Those head teachers who had been involved in enterprise education all had a similar understanding of the concept, whilst those with no previous experience tended to base their views on the notion that enterprise was concerned largely with profit making, large organisations and the production of entrepreneurs. Iredale (1993) concluded that staff development was required to understand and develop teachers' perceptions of enterprise education, and help them to translate their abilities into appropriate classroom pedagogy (i.e. teaching methods that are consistent with enterprise education models).

Another complication in delivering enterprise education is that often teachers involved in the same programme or in the same school may perceive the concept of enterprise in different ways (Caird and Johnson, 1988 cited in Caird, 1990b). This may complicate the achievement of programme objectives and the effectiveness of programme delivery. Methods of programme delivery may also vary as content and process will vary according to the student group (Hynes, 1996).

The key components of the enterprise education model according to Gibb (1997, cited in Gorman et al., 1997) included a project task management structure, learning under conditions of uncertainty, and an enterprising teaching mode. The author was of the opinion that a combination of these elements would stimulate enterprising behaviour and the development of associated skills and attributes. Kourilsky and Carlson (1996) emphasised that a crucial part of an enterprise education programme is actual decision making which requires learners to bear the consequences of their decisions. Kourilsky (1995) emphasised that students must personally experience the search for a market opportunity and the generation of a new business idea. They must also personally experience the challenge of securing resources over which they have no control, in a context of uncertainty (i.e. they have no idea whether their idea will be successful). The

other risk that is seen as crucial is of a more personal nature, namely that students must understand what it is like to invest their own resources, time and even reputation in a venture that has no guarantee of success.

Breen (1999) formulated a best practice model for the delivery of enterprise education that stipulated that initiatives should be based on a broad definition of enterprise education (as discussed earlier in the chapter), use role models, have community and business links, involve hands on activities, involve the teacher as a facilitator, and have students learning under conditions of uncertainty. Kent (1990c) also asserted that students need to experience positive, enterprising role models during secondary school as part of their awareness dimension.

Breen (1999) argued that enterprise education initiatives that incorporate this best practice framework were likely to generate the most significant outcomes: enterprising students. After considering models and definitions of enterprise education and finding the majority of them lacking a multi-dimensional quality, Kearney (1996) emphasised the need for enterprise education initiatives to have: an action element; a pro-activity element; a creative element; a risk element; and a generative element (i.e. it is only enterprise if something of value is generated).

One valuable by-product of the focus on establishing best practice in terms of enterprise education is that those models and guidelines can be disseminated to other schools, regions and eventually countries. Several United Kingdom enterprise education initiatives were transferred to a Hungarian context with relative success by the Durham University Business School Enterprise Education Industry Unit (Cotton, 1993). Fifteen months later the enterprise education initiative had spread to over 100 Hungarian secondary schools via the small group of original teachers who assumed the role of trainers.

Similarly, in an attempt to describe the gaps in the provision of enterprise education in an American context, and contribute to the best practice in enterprise education literature, Kourilsky (1995) proposed a triangular model of entrepreneurship education. On the bottom is the constituency (representing 'entrepreneurism'); the second level is the development team (representing entrepreneurial behaviour); and the top is the initiator (representing entrepreneurship). The initiator in this model has the ability to identify opportunities, and has the skills and the passion to lead the pursuit of those

opportunities in the presence of risk. The initiator will recruit a development team (typically a larger population than the initiator level) but the boundary between the initiator and the development team is reasonably porous in terms of attributes and mobility. Both those team levels rest on the support level at the foundation of the pyramid: the constituency. Members of the constituency (which attract the broadest population) will not tend to be initiators (practice entrepreneurship) or be in the development team (exhibiting entrepreneurial behaviours). Instead they are stakeholders in the continued growth of entrepreneurship and its positive effects on economic and personal growth. Kourilsky (1995) referred to the characteristics of the constituency as 'entrepreneurism', deliberately distinguishing it from entrepreneurship. The pyramid served as Kourilsky's (1995) way of organising the accomplishments and shortfalls of enterprise education to date into a framework. The author argued that current enterprise education initiatives make contributions to the constituency level of the pyramid, missing the opportunity to capitalise on the fact that seven out of ten youths are initiator oriented, i.e. they want to start businesses and create jobs (Gallup Poll, 1994, cited in Kourilsky, 1995).

Like any underdeveloped field of inquiry the literature in the area of enterprise education best practice raises many more questions than it provides answers. Does enterprise education delivery depend on the school context in which it is delivered? Is it the content or the processes that make an enterprise education programme successful? What influence does the learning environment have on programme delivery? And therefore, which type of school delivers enterprise education programmes most effectively? As the amount of empirical research in the area increases, and more programme evaluations are carried out, researchers may be in a better position to address such questions.

THE OUTCOMES OF ENTERPRISE EDUCATION: ENTREPRENEURIAL POTENTIAL & CAREER INCLINATIONS

"Evidence suggests that many more people have entrepreneurial potential than ever become entrepreneurs. Education, then, has a central responsibility in identifying and nurturing those who can be change agents in the decades to come, and can make a

profound difference in the future supply of entrepreneurs.” (Kent, 1990a in Kent 1990b, p.1-2).

This quote demonstrates the role enterprise education can play in cultivating and developing entrepreneurial potential that may already exist in students. Before moving on it is important to note that the development of entrepreneurial attributes is a function of time and therefore entrepreneurship (and possibly enterprise) are not static concepts. Individuals may behave more entrepreneurially at different times of their lives, throughout different stages of their career cycle and in response to different kinds of stimuli over time (Gibb, 1984 in Watts & Moran, 1984).

Gasse (1985) proposed a rationale for the strategic promotion of enterprise education at the secondary school level, and stressed the importance of the identification and evaluation of entrepreneurial potential in students. Enterprise education at the secondary school level, and the resultant exposure to self-employment options, was seen as crucial because it would occur at a time when students’ career options were still open. Gasse (1985) also pointed out that the decision to start a business could be influenced by experiences with friends and classmates or work experience in adolescence or youth. In contrast Rabbior (1990 in Kent, 1990b) stressed that entrepreneurial activity was not a compulsory outcome of an enterprise education programme and that the benefits were wide ranging given the non-prescriptive nature of such initiatives.

The OECD (2001) described one of the dominant outcomes of enterprise education as young people moving into self-employment or establishing their own businesses. The report’s author classed enterprise education as a means of expanding the enterprise culture and providing support to potential entrepreneurs. The OECD (2001) report concluded that the delivery of enterprise education could be achieved through the general education system, and that therefore it is an educational policy issue to be addressed by individual countries.

Blackburn (1997) attributed the acceptance of business ownership as a career option for young people in part to the actions of organisations that promote enterprise education. As a result of that conclusion Blackburn (1997) investigated the experiences of young English people (aged between 18 and 30) who had been running a business for a minimum of two years (283 leads were pursued with a 79% response rate). For one in five of the business owners interviewed, being self-employed was not a new experience,

as many were self-employed for short periods either in between jobs or college courses. This raises the issue of whether enterprise education experiences (i.e. running a company with other students) could be a proxy for the type of experience needed to generate the confidence to start a new venture. Young business owners in this survey were highly qualified academically with 37.1% of the sample having a university degree and only one business owner not possessing any qualifications. This may suggest that self-employment is not just an option for those who are not intending to undertake further study when they leave school.

Identifying a lack of research on attitudes of students in England to enterprise Curran and Blackburn (1989) collected the opinions of just over 850 sixth formers aged between 16 and 19. Of the sample 65.5% planned to enter some form of further education, 20.6% planned to get full-time work, and 13.95 were undecided or going to pursue something other than study or work. When asked their views on the likelihood of running their own business eventually 4.7% of the sample said very likely, 20% said likely, 24.1% said unlikely, 10% said not at all likely and 41.2 % said don't know (young men were more likely than young women to think that they would run their own business). The results of Curran and Blackburn's (1989) work demonstrated a healthy level of enterprise awareness among the sample, and a positive relationship between having a self-employment role model in the family and the desire to become self-employed in the. But the authors qualified their findings by pointing out that whatever the attitudes displayed there was no automatic link with future actions or behaviour.

In a similar study Scott and Twomey (1988) sought to identify factors that influence entrepreneurial aspirations by obtaining data on student career aspirations from three countries (America, Ireland and England) and used a model to separate, test and explain the findings. Undergraduate samples from these countries produced 436 usable responses. The respondents whose parents were self-employed full-time showed the highest preference for self-employment and the lowest preference for working in a large business. The research found that those who aspired to self-employment were significantly more likely to have parents as self-employed role models. They were also more likely to have work and hobby experience and entrepreneurial self-perceptions. Scott and Twomey (1988) proposed that the influence of parents could be twofold, first as occupational role models and second as resource providers. Research by Lewis

(2000) reached similar conclusions related to young entrepreneurs in a New Zealand context and the sources of assistance they use.

Scott and Twomey (1988) also advocated that in parallel with enterprise education, career guidance should be provided “that presents all career options including self-employment in a complete and even-handed manner, rather than maintaining the typical large organization orientation” (p.12).

EVALUATING ENTERPRISE EDUCATION IN NEW ZEALAND

In an enterprise education policy context Lane (1999) explored information gaps in the development of youth enterprise and self-employment policy. The author noted that due to the changing skill levels required by young people to enter the labour market, there needs to be a new emphasis on the role and function of secondary education, and the role enterprise education may play. Education needs to shift away from academic content to the process of learning, and needs to be adaptable to apply information in a variety of contexts (McQueen, 1992, cited in Lane, 1999). The challenge is to find a way to fit the promotion of enterprise and entrepreneurship activities, which are congruent with the current labour market needs for flexible work practices, within the formal academic system. Lane (1999) pointed out that the promotion of enterprise for young people can develop two sets of skills necessary for the future of New Zealand’s economy. Firstly, it promotes owning business as a legitimate form of employment and secondly, enterprise can develop work-based skills that are not available in the formal education system. The current focus of secondary schools is tied to the conventional career path that promotes tertiary study, and particularly university study, as the appropriate means to enter the labour force and create enterprise ventures. Enterprise education could be built into the curriculum, but also implemented through the building of meaningful business and education relationships to expose children and young people to enterprise. While tertiary education may provide the technological skills, it is the attitudinal and motivation aspects of entrepreneurship that still need to be developed at primary and secondary school levels in New Zealand. For 16 and 17 year olds any programme or initiative needs to specifically address the attitudinal barriers to establishing enterprises and viewing self-employment as a legitimate career option.

Self-employment as a legitimate work option is being promoted more frequently in schools, in part through increasing participation levels in enterprise education programmes administered by organisations such as the ENZT (Lewis & Massey, 2001). As the leading provider of the type of enterprise education experiences advocated by Lane (1999) the ENZT has instigated various reviews of the YES, and these are discussed in the remainder of this section. The majority were small-scale, or limited to the consideration of the impact of the scheme in one region. In doing so the ENZT has become increasingly aware of the gap that exists between current education system outputs and the work requirements of the future. The Trust sees its role as one of a catalyst; helping to educate the young into business rather than letting them get there by default.

Guest and Keating (1997) evaluated the YES in an attempt to establish why the number of schools participating in the scheme had declined over the previous two years. In doing so they identified a number of barriers to school participation and made recommendations that addressed the identified issues. The evaluation was conducted using a questionnaire and 44 interviews based on a sample of 32 secondary schools (five participating schools, 27 non-participating), eight Regional Coordinators, ENZT staff and a Fletcher Challenge Trust representative. The barriers identified to scheme uptake were numerous, but included the lack of a committed teacher and coordinator, and the increasing demands on the time of students, particularly with more needing to pursue part-time employment. More effective marketing strategies were identified as being crucial to reversing the identified decline in schools participating in the YES. The report suggested that such strategies should capitalise on the fact that YES is the only programme for senior students which offers real experiential learning in operating a company, and therefore has tremendous value in the education of senior New Zealand secondary students. The authors noted that the timing of the research meant that it was not possible to survey YES student participants, something this evaluation has been able to achieve.

In 1998 Harbidge and Morris concluded from their evaluation of the YES Scheme that the experience contributed significantly to the development of enterprising behaviour in students. Many factors were identified as being of influence; some of which were inherent features of the scheme, by contrast with others that were external. Other factors

provided pointers for further development and research. Specifically the authors found that enterprise is a relative concept, which is difficult to pin point precisely. Therefore, measures of success were seen as resting to an extent on what development participants saw in themselves as a result of having participated in YES. Similarly the perceptions from others of how they developed, and why, were identified as important in helping gauge the success of the scheme.

Harbidge and Morris (1998) conducted a focus group with 10 students to explore their perceptions of the YES. In the course of the discussion participants made the following general points about their perceptions of the benefits of the scheme. The students noted that their organisational skills improved, they encountered new people, their ability to tolerate others and to compromise was developed, multi skilling was recognised and developed, a general awareness of business was gained, skills in and excitement for company operations were developed, self motivation and determination / persuasiveness were developed, the dynamics of teams (conflict, delegation etc) were recognised and associated skills were developed.

Further work by Morris (1998) sought to identify the key human resource requirements of New Zealand businesses, and establish the nature of enterprising skills, by examining the skills developed by participants during the YES. Two hundred and fifty four YES participants completed questionnaires, and 126 mentors and teachers were surveyed. The results indicated that the YES helped develop a wide range of characteristics in students that employers were searching for.

Braggins (2000) canvassed YES teachers in the Auckland region to aid in programme delivery in that area. Points made included the value of the contributions made by mentors, and recommendations on how teachers could be better supported by the ENZT and the regional coordinator. A nationwide review conducted by the ENZT (2000) in the same year examined the role of the YES in New Zealand schools by identifying barriers to school and student participation. The review was prompted by the decline in the number of schools taking part in the scheme in 2000 (it was reported that participation had dropped from a high of 216 schools in 1995 to 179 in 2000). The review found that the YES teacher was vital to the success of scheme delivery, but that teachers who were new to facilitating the YES found it difficult despite the training and support offered. Much of this was seen as stemming from poor definitions of their role, and those of the

student and mentor. Numerous recommendations were made as to how the programme could be improved (many of which involved methods for increasing publicity of the scheme), and the future growth of the scheme was seen as being reliant on the development of mechanisms to improve the status of the programme in schools, reduce the time commitment for teachers and further develop the rewards for them.

EVALUATING ENTERPRISE EDUCATION IN AUSTRALIA

The number of evaluations of enterprise education in Australia, and in particular the programmes run by Young Achievement Australia (YAA), are somewhat more comprehensive than those in New Zealand of the YES. This may in part be due to the attention directed towards enterprise education by the Karpin report (1995, cited in Rolland, 2000), which investigated the development of management skills in Australia and made recommendations on the need to develop a positive enterprise culture. A specific recommendation of the report was that enterprise education be introduced and encouraged. The report concluded that enterprise education is about developing enterprising attributes in individuals. It should be directed towards developing a learning culture which will result in greater numbers of students being enthused and equipped to identify, create, initiate and successfully manage personal, business, work, and community opportunities. (Rolland, 2000).

Turner (1988) examined the meaning and application of enterprise skill development in relation to one British and one Australian agency that had an enterprise education focus. In 1987 Australia became part of an international OECD research project that examined the meaning and relevance of enterprise skill development to the social and economic integration of young people. Enterprise skill development was identified as an important ingredient of education and training if Australia was to generate wealth and improve its quality of life by relying on the initiative and quality of thinking of its people. The research pointed out that “enterprise skill development already occurs in schools, colleges and community based training organisations. Sometimes it is called enterprise, on many other occasions it is not given a name or simply noted as good practice” (Turner, 1988, p.5). However, overall the Australian education system was still seen as being designed to develop employees rather than employers. “Enterprise skill development is not the panacea, it is not the only or the best model of education and

training. However, it is a vital and underestimated strategy for preparing young people for the realities of an uncertain labour market and a rapidly changing society” (Turner, 1988, p.5).

Eight years later Turner’s (1988) points were echoed by Kenyon and White (1996) who were of the opinion that enterprise education is a priority in order for Australia to develop an enterprise culture, and promote self-employment as a genuine career option to the young. The drive in the literature for an emphasis on enterprise education has remained compelling though the 1980s, 1990s and into the new decade of the century, both for Australia and other countries.

Patterson, St. Leger and Ward (1997) evaluated enterprise education pilot programmes in four Victorian regions. Face-to-face interviews and questionnaires were used to obtain data from members of regional steering committees and Industry Education Enterprise Programme (IEEP), students, teachers and other stakeholders. Two sets of questionnaires were administered, the first early in the programme and the second later to allow participants to comment on the extent to which the expectations they enunciated in the first questionnaire had been achieved (by the students in particular and the project in general). Responses to questionnaire one were received from 48 students, eight teachers and four IEEP industry representatives, questionnaire two responses were received from 65 students students, 11 teachers and 3 IEEP industry representatives. Student responses to the second questionnaire reflected a deeper understanding of enterprise learning and business skills as a consequence of their programme experience. In terms of enterprise education delivery the evaluation revealed that implementing groups had the freedom to contextualise their methods of delivery and programme content, which facilitated a degree of individualisation if required.

In endeavouring to determine the relationship between key competencies in students and the development of enterprising students, Kearney (1996) attempted to clarify the issue by establishing what enterprise is, what enterprise education is and how it is best delivered. In seeking to contribute to the establishment of a common definition of enterprise education Kearney (1996) emphasised how important it is that stakeholders hold a common definition so as to maintain a common purpose. Kearney (1996) argued that this would better allow enterprise education proponents refute the narrower connotations of the enterprise concept.

In examining enterprise education in an Australian context White (1999) took the position that “youth enterprise should be recognised as a valuable means through which new and better jobs can be created; where more affordable and useful products and services are provided; leading to the formation of a more competitive and diversified economy” (p.14). However, the author also observed that very little attention is given to the presentation of self-employment as an option in secondary school, but that despite that a number of specific programmes had been implemented that achieved that by proxy (i.e. by raising awareness rather than trying to influence the intentions of students). The author noted that the number of programmes of that type was increasing as both Federal and State Governments had begun to pay more attention to the ways in which enterprise education efforts could be enhanced.

In January 1999 the School to Work section of the Quality Schooling branch of the Department of Education Training and Youth Affairs commissioned social research consultants Keys Young to undertake an evaluation of the Enterprise and Education in Schools (EES) element of the school to work programme. The evaluation (Keys Young, 1999) was taken from the perspective of teachers, education policy makers, and school principals. It sought to assess the effectiveness of the programme, to identify barriers to the take up of EES activities by schools, and to ascertain the level of awareness and appreciation of the value of being enterprising by school students, teachers, parents, school principals, careers advisors and business and community stakeholders. Data was gathered by: a national telephone survey of 647 principals; in-depth interviews conducted at 60 different schools; face-to-face interviews with school community members in 15 schools in five locations across Australia; and in-depth interviews with 20 key informants drawn from all states and territories.

The Keys Young (1999) evaluation found that there were significant variations in the way people used and understood the term enterprise education. There appeared to be no consistency in understanding being applied within, or across, the education and business sectors and many people were uncertain of its meaning. The findings emphasise points made earlier in this review pertaining to definitions of enterprise education. There was essentially a dichotomy, with some defining enterprise education in a very broad sense (i.e. the development of enterprising attitudes and skills in students) whilst others adhered to the narrower conceptualisation which sees enterprise education as a means of

preparing students for self employment or work in a small business. Many respondents' definitions fell between these two extremes (which is why some of the definitions in the literature were depicted as continua in Figure 2.1). The lack of a consistent definition was significant because the attitudes to enterprise education of respondents influenced programme delivery, and their judgements of what it had achieved to date, because these things largely depend upon their understanding of the concept.

Schools that were most likely to become involved in EES projects typically had a principal or teacher who was highly committed to the concept of enterprise education and who was willing and able to take responsibility for managing and coordinating the project. In terms of the effectiveness of the EES element in meeting its objectives, there was evidence to suggest that students had acquired competencies, skills and attitudes to help them be enterprising. Several key barriers to enterprise education were identified during the course of the evaluation, with the knowledge and attitudinal barriers among principals and teachers being a prime concern. This was exemplified in the resistance that stemmed from the perception that enterprise education was synonymous with entrepreneurship and therefore was seen as being ideologically, rather than educationally, driven. In terms of the levels of awareness and appreciation of the value of being enterprising, support for the concept was generally high among school principals but a substantial proportion of principals also had little real knowledge or understanding of the concept. This meant that the broad support for enterprise education had not yet been translated into action in many cases. More support and information was seen as possibly being of assistance, as was the fact that many schools were engaging in enterprising activities without defining them as such.

The most important strategy for implementing enterprise education identified through the evaluation was a pressing need for the utilisation of innovative methods of marketing enterprise education to schools. In summarising their work Keys Young (1999) emphasised that the achievements of the EES had to be viewed in the longer term, particularly with regard to the scale and scope of its objectives. The same could be said of enterprise education programmes outside the Australian context, for example the YES in New Zealand.

Cameron and Milstein (1999) specifically investigated the impact of YAA on rural Australia. This piece of work was the first reported review of YAA (a programme for

year 11/6th form students during which they set up and run a business). Prior to this study there was only anecdotal evidence of success (a dilemma similar to that faced by the ENZT and its YES in New Zealand). The study was commissioned by the Rural Industries Research & Development Corporation (RIRDC), and was in part prompted by the Karpin Report's (1995, cited in Cameron & Milstein, 1999) emphasis on the development of an 'enterprising nation'. Two hundred programme graduates (of at least 5 years standing, and who completed the scheme prior to 1992) were selected randomly from those who participated at secondary schools in rural and regional areas of the eastern mainland states. The survey focused on determining the attitudes of students towards the programme, and the type of impact it had on them. A mail survey was utilised, with semi-structured interviews with 10% of respondents who were selected as being representative of the broader sample in terms of background and attitudes. One hundred and five (52.5%) useable responses were received; 63% of those were females and 39% males. Over 80% of participants believed their personal business management and communication skills had been improved, and respondents were generally enthusiastic about the programme. Forty per cent of respondents described YAA as having a very important or important influence on four strategic decisions (where to study, what to do for a career, where to live and whether to start their own venture). The findings of the evaluation supported the expansion of YAA in rural and regional areas. However, the authors pointed out the survey was a pilot study and advocated that a more comprehensive national research project be undertaken to test the results.

YAA was also the focus of work by Peterman (2000). The research investigated whether the attitudes of students in Queensland to running a business were influenced by their participation in the YAA programme. Peterman's (2000) work was in part prompted by an observation that the impact of enterprise education, as distinct from general education, on attitudes has remained largely uninvestigated. Whilst many researchers have proposed that any influence would be positive, there is a lack of empirical testing to support the assertion. Peterman's (2000) work was based on an intentions based model (i.e. was quantitative in nature) and used a pre-test and post-test group to measure changes in respondents' perceptions of the desirability and feasibility of starting a business from the beginning to the end of the programme. The results showed that perceptions of desirability and feasibility increased over the course of the programme.

Whilst the positiveness of any prior entrepreneurial experiences influenced the attitudes of participants, the breadth of their experiences did not. Based on the research results Peterman (2000) argued that enterprise education experiences like YAA can assist in the successful transition from education to further education, and from education to work, because participants become more aware of what type of skills or knowledge they need to acquire. Peterman (2000) emphasised that as enterprise education programmes have different characteristics, and because they differ in terms of content and style due to cultural norms, the research is not generalisable outside of the Australian context.

Rolland (2000) also examined aspects of YAA, and described the programme as leading the way in providing entrepreneurial and business enterprise education for young Australians. Rolland (2000) asserted that the YAA business skills programme had a proven track record as an example of best practice in the delivery of enterprise education. The programme made participants more work ready, as knowledgeable members of the workforce who were equipped and enthused to consider possibilities of self-employment, or make a significant contribution to small and medium enterprises (SMEs).

White (2000) observed that while youth enterprise is presented as an option for the young unemployed “very little attention is given to the presentation of self-employment as an option in high school” (p.11). However, the author noted that there had been a number of programmes developed to promote enterprising ideas among young people, and made the distinction between those that are generic and those that are targeted specifically to meet their needs. The author also expressed the opinion that the promotion of youth enterprise falls into two camps: as a labour market intervention (in which case initiatives run the risk of becoming welfare oriented, or based on a level of disadvantage), or as components of marketing campaigns (e.g. competitions). With the exception of the Business Alive programme run by YAA, White (2000) considered that there were few other Australian programmes that presented self-employment as a career option for students in a regular and consistent manner.

EVALUATING ENTERPRISE EDUCATION OUTSIDE AUSTRALASIA

THE UNITED KINGDOM AND IRELAND

The last decade of the twentieth century in the United Kingdom witnessed an acceleration of interest in enterprise education. Various initiatives have helped people to start businesses, promoted awareness of enterprise, and created the educational conditions for people to become more enterprising (Jamieson, 1984 in Caird, 1989).

Even in 1989 Curran and Stanworth pointed out that there had been an influx of secondary education programmes designed to increase the awareness of industry and that they had also become more sensitive to the small firm. The objective of these programmes was to ensure that there are sufficient numbers of people who are knowledgeable of small businesses as an economic activity and to consider running or being employed in a small business as a rational career alternative. Despite an increase in the number of enterprise education initiatives the focus of evaluations has tended to be on programmes that support young people while starting, or once they have started a business (e.g. the evaluation made by Leeds Business School of the Prince's Trust Business Start-Up (Shutt, Sutherland & Koutsoukus, 2001)). As might be expected, most initiatives are of the 'through' and 'about' enterprise variety, following Jamieson's (1984, cited in Caird, 1989) framework for enterprise education mentioned earlier in this chapter.

It has been said that enterprise education in the UK is not aimed directly at stimulating entrepreneurship. Its major objective is to help develop enterprising people and in particular to inculcate an attitude of self-reliance through the process of learning (Cotton, 1991). The author argued that every student has some degree of enterprise that can be developed. The strength and mix of enterprising behaviour skills and attributes in an individual will in part also be a function of what has been acquired by experience and exposure and therefore constitutes learned capability.

Hayward (1996) reviewed the findings from an evaluation of the pilot of the young enterprise initiative Project Business (UK). The evaluation recorded the fact that the programme had benefits for all those involved (students, teachers and business partners) that were both personal and business oriented. Hayward (1996) noted that the evaluation

drew attention to the three main challenges facing any enterprise education programme: content, differentiation and management. The author discussed the problems in managing these types of issues in new programmes to ensure that the goals, ways of working, and outcomes achieved are those designed for the programme rather than those more locally designed, or influenced by local context. Pre course questionnaires were sent to 78 teachers, 73 business partners and 1885 students. The same number of post-course questionnaires was sent to teachers, business partners and 900 students in the second round. The students were overwhelmingly positive about business and expressed strong positive attitudes towards the idea of working in business. What students emphasised about their experience of Project Business was what they had learned rather than how their attitudes or values had changed. Hayward (1996) pointed out that since values are deep-seated characteristics of how we think, it is unlikely that a short programme like Project Business with a limited amount of contact time would affect the student's values anyway.

A lack of academic research into young peoples' attitudes to enterprise prompted Blackburn and Curran (1993) to survey the attitudes of young people to business. The research aimed to establish to what extent the 'enterprise culture' became part of the youth culture in Britain in the 1980s. The authors noted that work to date on the extent of enterprise consciousness suggested that young people were more enterprise minded than their elders. Students (828 aged 16-19) were surveyed to record their attitudes to enterprise in the form of self-employment and small business ownership. While Blackburn and Curran (1993) acknowledged that there was no automatic link between attitudes now and choices and behaviour in the future, they emphasised that the research was still significant in terms of identifying trends, barriers, and perceptions. The findings of this type of research are relevant to those formulating enterprise education programmes in particular, and the results of this survey will be discussed in chapter five (in relation to data collected in this project).

The Shell Technology Enterprise Programme (STEP) is a national initiative that encourages English SME owners to employ graduates for eight weeks during the summer vacation (and usually in the second year of their university course). The scheme started in 1986 as a local initiative between Shell and Durham University Business School. Westhead and Storey (1998) evaluated the STEP by means of a questionnaire.

The first questionnaire collected basic information about the characteristics of the businesses; the second (administered eight weeks after the start of the placements) asked about any immediate benefits from the placements, and the third (12 months after the start of the placements), asked about business development issues. Perceived benefits of STEP involvement for students included the opportunity to apply classroom-based learning to the solution of problems in the world of work, improved employment prospects on graduation, and the contribution the experience would make to their Curriculum Vitae. While the evaluation focused on a tertiary enterprise education scheme, and evaluated it from the perspective of SME owners, there were several issues that were relevant to enterprise education in a secondary school context. Primarily Westhead and Storey (1998) identified that there was a barrier based on ignorance between SME owners and graduates (graduates were unaware of employment opportunities in SMEs, and SME owners did not appreciate the wide range of skills a graduate could bring to their business). Enterprise education initiatives implemented at secondary school level may prevent this type of misconception being transferred to a tertiary education context. Westhead and Story (1998) argued that government policy had attempted to break down the barrier of ignorance between the two groups.

Pratten and Ashford (2000) considered enterprise education in a United Kingdom context and pointed out that there had been a variety of attempts to teach business enterprise. However, Harris (1998, cited in Pratten & Ashford, 2000) suggested that while the students enjoyed such programmes, the approach taken was not as student-centred as the teachers themselves imagined. To achieve this students need to have their business skills tested in the nearest approximation to the work place as possible. In terms of evaluations of enterprise education schemes, Pratten and Ashford (2000) pointed out that there have been a number of independent studies carried out to assess the effectiveness of Junior Achievement, and that these have concluded that students who completed these programmes showed a greater understanding of economic concepts than those who did not. Young Enterprise UK, also commissioned an independent evaluation of its scheme (Pilat, 1994 cited in Pratten & Ashford, 2000) which found that participation improved the business knowledge of students and influenced career and study preferences. Increased future employability, success in the university entrance exams and the development of personal skills such as taking

responsibility, leadership, motivation, entrepreneurship and self-motivation were also benefits identified for participants. The survey was carried out in 1994, and questionnaires were returned by 38 head teachers, 39 link teachers, 374 achievers, 98 past achievers, 69 business advisors, 341 parents, 22 company recruiters and 63 higher level education tutors. The evidence suggested that participants had an immediate advantage over their peers, but the impact over the working lives of the achievers should be investigated before real conclusions can be drawn. Further empirical research must be undertaken to assess the types of business skills that students gain from these types of schemes, and their longevity so as to gauge the permanence of this type of learning.

Scottish Enterprise Renfrewshire (2000) carried out a study on the attitudes and awareness of young people towards entrepreneurship as part of the development of a multi-year strategy to provide enterprise education to the region's young people. The work's findings showed no evidence of cultural antipathy towards entrepreneurship due to any ideological conflict. There was great interest among the region's youth in the possibilities of a business ownership and self-employment. However, the authors noted that despite this general receptiveness the vast majority of the respondents still placed far greater value on the security of a steady job, aspiring to take a place in the traditional vision of a certain and stable labour market that may no longer exist.

Connor (1985) examined programmes designed to stimulate enterprise and encourage young entrepreneurs in Ireland. The author commented that until relatively recently self-employment was not seen by parents and teachers as an option, or a career to be aspired to by their children. Employment by others was seen as the means to achieving status and security. In terms of career guidance promotional material was available on every conceivable career but self-employment, which indicated how often the option might be being overlooked. Cultural norms and attitudes were identified as forces that actively retarded enterprise and took a toll on the spirit of enterprise and innovative energy in the country (Connor, 1985). Therefore, the author asserted that enterprise education initiatives should not be based on the assumption that the learning mind is blank. The programme should be as much about modifying or disposing of old ideas and attitudes as it is about instilling new ones. This research signals how far Ireland has come in terms of an enterprise culture in the last fifteen years, with the country's economy now

being held up as an example of the type of entrepreneurial development that is achievable.

As part of government initiatives to promote enterprise and reduce unemployment in Northern Ireland, Harrison and Hart (1992) investigated the attitudes of 16-18 year old school pupils to self-employment as a career option. The research was part of a series of projects that sought to assess the current attitudes to enterprise of four target groups: graduates, managers in the private sector, owner managers, and youth. Students in their penultimate year of school were surveyed and 1411 usable returns were received from 29 schools throughout Northern Ireland. The sample schools were representative of the full range of environmental and socio-economic conditions in the country. Almost half the students (45.6%) expressed a positive desire to run a business of their own, fewer than 20% rejected the idea, and 35% were uncertain. Over half (54%) of those expressing a desire to run their own business were unsure of what kind of business they would like to run. The average age of intended start-up (28 years) reflected a high degree of realism, and based on this, Harrison and Hart (1992) questioned "the efficiency of targeting initiatives such as the Youth Enterprise Scheme, Livewire and the Enterprising Northern Ireland Campaign at the 16-25 age group as an immediate source of new founders" (p.108). But this type of opinion overlooks the fact that if attitudes to enterprise are to be positively influenced in young people then that must occur prior to any venture start-up (i.e. during secondary school education). Particularly given that almost half the students surveyed by Harrison and Hart (1992) felt that participating in enterprise related schemes would be of help in starting a business. The authors felt the results of this research questioned the validity of prior research that argued that self-employment was not viewed as a valuable or viable option: "If Northern Ireland does have an employee rather than an enterprise culture...this does not reflect underlying attitudes but the process of converting attitudes to action" (Harrison & Hart, 1992, p.115). Emphasis should therefore be given to investigating the barriers between attitudes and actions.

Empirical evidence from schools participating in the Young Enterprise Northern Ireland (YENI) Company Programme was presented by Athayde, Hart, O'Reilly and Costello (2001). (Similar to the YES, YENI allows 15-19 year old student to set up and run their own company during an academic year.) The evaluation was based on the questionnaire

responses of 174 YENI participants and 132 other students who acted as a control group. The sample was representative of schools in Northern Ireland and was stratified according to different factors (including school type). The study found that both school type and gender influence can influence attitudes towards self-employment, and therefore have a moderating influence on the impact on enterprise education. Surprisingly no evidence was found to suggest that family background or economic conditions influenced perceptions of self-employment.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

A strong focus on enterprise education and the provision of entrepreneurship programmes in America has not engendered an attitude of complacency. Rather it has ensured that regular evaluation and investigation continues to justify the expediency of such a focus. Kourilsky and Carlson (1996) described one driving force behind this emphasis as stemming from the fact that “more and more youths will be drawn to the notion of personal entrepreneurship as long-term employment opportunities continue to evaporate in restructured corporate America”(p.108). The fact that educational policy still appears to presume the static existence of jobs that students must prepare for is in part derived from an oversimplification of the business context (i.e. that it is either big business or small business) (Slaughter, 1996). Whilst policy is clearly seen as lagging by stakeholders and researchers in the American context it is advanced compared to many other nations. In tangible terms there are also entrepreneurship education programmes for students of all ages in more than 30 states.

Numerous studies have focused on demonstrating the effectiveness of the ‘Mini-Society’ enterprise education programme, including work by Kourilsky and Carlson (1996). The programme is “an inter-disciplinary instructional system that employs self-organising, experience-based learning conditions” (Kourilsky & Carlson, 1996, p.106). Research affirmed that participation produces outstanding gains in children’s (aged 8-12) economic literacy and reasoning, entrepreneurial awareness and concept acquisition, as well as enhanced mathematics achievements and attitudes towards school and learning (Kourilsky & Carlson, 1996). The programmes are in a variety of schools, with students of varying scholastic levels and from dissimilar ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds. Participating teachers range in expertise from novices to those with many years’ experience. The programmes have been validated by the Programme

Effectiveness Panel of the United States Department of Education and granted eligibility for its National Diffusion Network.

As a result of investigating the levels of entrepreneurship possessed by American youths, and in particular females, Kourilsky and Walstad (1998) concluded that despite a high intention to become involved in self-employment the majority of students surveyed (a national sample of 1000 male and female 14-19 year olds) exhibited a low level of entrepreneurship. The authors of this study used the compelling evidence they found to put forward a case for the improvement of entrepreneurship education provision in the United States.

Walstad and Kourilsky (1998) also investigated the knowledge and attitudes of black youth in relation to entrepreneurship. The authors determined that the way to increase levels of black entrepreneurship was to increase the number of young black people who saw themselves as potential entrepreneurs, and that enterprise education was a vehicle for achieving that. The work stressed that an investment at this young age is relevant, as perceptions about entrepreneurship are extremely important, and set the foundation for entrepreneurial action long before an individual takes any action. Walstad and Kourilsky (1998) emphasised that the supply of potential entrepreneurs can be affected positively by the provision of an environment that encourages positive and self-enabling perceptions of entrepreneurship. Enterprise education could be one dimension of such an environment.

In an attempt to better analyse the demand for enterprise education the Kauffman Centre (one of America's leading enterprise education providers) undertook an analysis of their segment of the enterprise education market (2000). One of their dominant findings was that although students are the "ultimate consumers of entrepreneurship education, the most effective way to reach students is through their teachers and other 'gatekeepers' in education" (e.g. school administrators, school board members, education policy makers and parents) (Kauffman Centre, 2000, p.3). Results from a nationwide poll on entrepreneurship education commissioned by the Kauffman Centre, and conducted by the Gallup Organization in 1994, found that seven out of ten high school students wanted to start their own business. However, those same students didn't think they knew much about entrepreneurship and wanted their school to teach them more about it.

The results indicated clearly the demand for entrepreneurship education, and a market niche the Kauffman Centre could target.

Though many schools in the United States have implemented entrepreneurship education initiatives the authors pointed out that today's schools "largely teach about business in terms of the knowledge of skills necessary for employment ('take a job') rather than entrepreneurship ('make a job') (Kauffman Centre, 2000, p.7). According to Kourilsky (1995, cited in Kauffman Centre, 2000) the general recognition of what content should lie at the core of entrepreneurship education has not kept pace with the compelling and accelerating demand for entrepreneurship education. The Kauffman Centre (2000) also described how the entrepreneurship education market in the United States could be divided into three segments: policy (the formulation of long range policies, and short term strategies to inform policy discussions); education (the delivery of entrepreneurship education for awareness, readiness and application); and information (informing broad audiences of stakeholders of the need for and existence of entrepreneurship). This type of segmentation may prove useful for analysing the New Zealand enterprise education market, both as a means for organisations like the ENZT to more accurately target programmes, and for identifying gaps in the provision of enterprise education to be addressed.

Bradley, Lacho and Rapp (2000) lamented the lack of contributions being made by American colleges and universities to high school level entrepreneurship education programmes. Their research examined exceptions to that assertion, with three entrepreneurship programmes for high schools being conducted by three university based entrepreneurship centres.

OTHER COUNTRIES

In an attempt to establish to what degree the Belgian education system can contribute to entrepreneurship in the country, and what was being done to encourage young students to set up their own businesses, Donckels (1991) surveyed economics teachers in 1300 secondary schools. The research found that on the whole teachers were favourably disposed to industry and entrepreneurship, with 91.5% supporting the idea that schools should encourage young people to consider setting up their own business. However, most felt that the educational system was insufficiently geared towards entrepreneurship. Eighty four per cent felt that schools insufficiently stimulated students' enterprise spirit,

yet 80% said that schools could help to develop entrepreneurial skills. Donckels (1991) also held targeted discussions with 27 business managers and 11 stakeholders to examine the role of education in cultivating an entrepreneurial spirit among young people. The author felt schools play an important role and should be making students acquainted with entrepreneurship: “besides the challenges and their importance to the economy, young people’s attention must also in particular be drawn to the hazards and risks” (Donckels, 1991, p.38) and “schools can and must teach skills and knowledge which help to remove students’ initial hesitation about starting up their own businesses”(p.39).

Kirby (1992) discussed the need to create a good environment for potential entrepreneurship among the black communities of South Africa. The discussion aimed to explore how this may be assisted by the uptake of UK higher education programmes aimed at raising student awareness of small business, and the challenges and opportunities of self-employment. This type of proactive enterprise education intervention was seen as a means of lending support to SMEs and stimulating enterprise among the student population.

The impact of completing a business course on 388 secondary school students (aged 13-16) at a school in Finland was the focus of work by Nevanpera (2000). Twenty-six per cent of girls and 33% of boys thought they had not received enough business education, and 28% of the students wanted to become entrepreneurs after school (23% of girls and 34% of boys). The course was found to have more impact on students who didn’t have any examples of entrepreneurship within their family. The evaluation recommended that there should be more enterprise education programmes delivered in Finnish secondary schools.

Miettinen (2001) used data gathered from a linguistically based investigation of a group (n=46) of Finnish children’s written views (‘microstories’) on entrepreneurial requirements. The author concluded that children aged 16-18 saw multiple abilities as a prerequisite to enterprising behaviour and that further study would probably be necessary. Those students that came from ‘entrepreneurial families’ evaluated the demands of self-employment differently from those that did not; their expectations and understanding were more positive and realistic.

SUMMARY

It can be seen from the literature that much energy has been expended on attempting to pin down enterprise education as a concept in order to better understand how to deliver it. This has resulted in a better understanding of the type of contribution enterprise education can make to economic development and the 'enterprise culture'. However, there appears to be a lack of enterprise education programme evaluations that specifically examine whether or not programmes have met their objectives, and what impact they had on participants in both the short and long term.

After formulating the research objectives and reviewing the literature an evaluation framework was selected and this is described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN

“A knowledge of technique needs to be complemented by an appreciation of the nature of research as a distinctively human process through which researchers make knowledge” (Morgan, 1983, p.7).

This chapter presents the rationale behind the research design and choice of methodological strategies, and outlines how they were executed to meet the research objectives outlined in chapter one. Justification is provided for the choice of research paradigm, evaluation framework, data collection techniques, and methods of analysis.

A RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

All researchers work at the intersection of several different cultures, cultures determined by their inquiry paradigm (the sum of their assumptions about ontology, epistemology, methodology etc), their discipline, institution and society generally (Toma, 2000).

Therefore, how a researcher chooses to execute his or her inquiry must be congruent with how these intersect and interact in order to successfully achieve the research objectives. As such, careful consideration was given to issues of epistemology (how the researcher relates to whom they study), theoretical perspective, methodology and methods (Toma, 2000).

Guba (1987) and Crotty (1998) both emphasised the need to distinguish between matters of technique and epistemology. However, Guba (1987) queries the wisdom of mixing paradigms within a research project. At the level of ‘technique’ there can be no serious objection to the mingling of research strategies. The only requirement is that the user be clear that borrowing a technique from another paradigm does not necessarily mean that one is operating within that paradigm. “The use of humans as instruments, an example of an interpretative methodology, can be a strategy in the empirical analytic paradigm too” (Guba, 1987, p.29). Whether paradigms can be mixed at an epistemological level is a little less clear. Despite the difficulties inherent in attempting to remain absolutely true to one paradigm it appears imperative that researchers keep a clear and present knowledge of which paradigm it is that underpins their endeavours.

NEW PARADIGM RESEARCH

The choice of an evaluation framework (to be discussed later in this chapter), and the investigation of what underpins it, led the researcher to the field of new paradigm research, as it was clear that the choice of framework needed to be grounded in broad paradigmatic terms. It became clear that new paradigm research is not simply a rejection of the traditional in an attempt to devise something better. Instead it is a response to a concern that there was something missing in the research arena, and suggests that researchers synthesise 'naïve thinking', complete with all its flaws, with orthodox research methods (Reason & Rowan, 1981).

Proponents of new paradigm research Reason and Rowan (1981) proposed a series of axioms that describe the underpinning beliefs of new paradigm research. They described research as never being neutral, and that it is always either supporting or questioning social forces, both by its content and its method. New paradigm research also emphasises the relationship between the researcher and research participants as being reciprocal in terms of the ability to generate knowledge. These descriptions of new paradigm research in its broadest sense led the researcher to examine evaluation frameworks that were driven by naturalistic principles, as these were most congruent with new paradigm research.

THE NATURALISTIC PARADIGM

It is the desire of any researcher to achieve the best possible fit between paradigm and research focus and design. The following table (Figure 3.1) adapted from Guba and Lincoln (1981) outlines the axioms that underlie the naturalistic paradigm, and illustrates why it fits within the parameters of new paradigm research. An important part of the choices a researcher makes when building a research framework is determining how well the inquiry paradigm fits with the substantive theory selected to guide the inquiry. However, if the theory is to be grounded in the inquiry at hand (as it predominantly is in a naturalistically based inquiry) this step can be omitted because the theory that emerges will be consistent (necessarily) with the methodological paradigm that produced it (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Figure 3.1: Descriptors of the naturalistic paradigm

Assumptions about	<i>the naturalistic paradigm</i> <i>(based on a phenomenological epistemology)</i>
Reality	Multiple, divergent and inter-related (each layer provides a different perspective of reality, none of these can be considered more true than any other)
Inquirer-subject relationship	Inter-related (the naturalist exploits this as it is the interactivity that allows the inquirer to be a 'smart' instrument)
Nature of truth statements	Working hypotheses (they are context-bound) Focus on differences – thick description over generalisations
General characteristics	<i>of the naturalistic paradigm</i>
Preferred techniques	Qualitative
Quality criterion	Relevance
Source of theory	Grounded
Questions of causality	Does x cause y in a natural setting?
Knowledge types used	Propositional & tacit (intuitions, apprehensions or feelings that cannot be stated in words but are "known" by the subject)
Stance	Expansionist (a perspective that will lead to the description and understanding of phenomena as wholes, reflecting their complexity)
Purpose	Discovery

(Adapted from Guba and Lincoln, 1981).

EVALUATION

When proposing to use a different, or alternative, paradigm or framework it is even more crucial to make the basic assumptions of the traditional paradigm explicit in order to show how and why the framework used differs from the traditional paradigm (Gersick, 1992 in Frost & Stablein, 1992). Therefore, while a full discussion of the historical origins of programme evaluation as a field of inquiry is beyond the scope of the project, it is important to make brief reference to the developments within the field.

Madaus, Stufflebeam and Scriven (1983, in Madaus, Scriven & Stufflebeam, 1983) are of the opinion that people who are concerned with the conceptualisation of evaluation must be aware of the field's roots and origins, and as such proposed six ages of programme evaluation. These are: the age of reform (1800-1900) which was driven by the industrial revolution; the age of efficiency and testing (1900-1930) characterised by scientific management and testing; the Tylerian age (1930-1945) which emphasised learning over inputs; the age of innocence (1946-1957) which saw the development of

the technical aspects of evaluation; the age of expansion (1958-1972) which saw the first calls for large scale, taxpayer funded programme evaluation; and finally the age of professionalisation (1973 to the present) which has seen evaluation develop as a distinct field of endeavour.

Guba and Lincoln (1989) formulated another way of considering developments in the field of evaluation as part of their construction of an alternative evaluation paradigm (naturalistic in nature). They believe the different generations, or 'ages' to use Madaus et al's (1983, in Madaus, Scriven & Stufflebeam, 1983) terminology, have created changing roles for the evaluator. They describe four generations and specific evaluator roles for each: first generation evaluations required a technician (a measurement specialist, a test-maker or statistician), the second generation required a describer (an illuminator or historian), and the third generation needed a judge (a figure to mediate the judgmental process). The fourth generation is a culmination of all that has gone before it, and Guba and Lincoln (1989) described a fourth generation evaluator as needing to be a collaborator (rather than a controller), a learner and teacher (rather than an investigator), a reality shaper (rather than discoverer), and a change agent (not just a passive observer).

Within the literature many authors have taken a pragmatic approach to evaluation, specifically, investigating what is necessary to conduct a 'good' evaluation. Many of these investigations provided the researcher with an initial series of steps around which to construct a cyclic research design. For example, Reinharz (1983) delineated a five step, phenomenologically based process to transform experience into understanding. In this process a person's experience is transformed into actions and language through interaction with a phenomenological researcher. Then the researcher transforms this interaction into understanding. After that the researcher generates conceptual categories and then a written product. Finally, an external audience makes its own understanding of the researcher's work. Whilst a little short on coverage of practical issues this framework was a good fit with the naturalistic paradigm and led the researcher to the literature covering the interpretive paradigm.

Those who engage in interpretive evaluations are said to be primarily concerned with uncovering the relevance and meaning that a programme has for the various groups involved (e.g. students, parents, teachers, administrators etc) (Ryan, 1988). In this

approach the evaluator becomes the interpreter. "The interpretative paradigm holds that in a situation of dialogue, a mutual and dialectical process of understanding is taking place. Not only is the programme evaluator trying to understand the situation being studied, but those in the situation are also trying to understand the logic of the evaluator's activity." (Ryan, 1988, p.35). The parallel nature of learning and understanding fits well within the naturalistic paradigm's descriptions of inquirer-subject relationships (see Figure 3.1). Indeed this aim of mutual understanding is a distinctive characteristic of interpretative evaluation, and contributes to what may be deemed its greatest weakness. In order to address such weaknesses interpretative evaluations must be methodologically sound, must resist substituting commonplace knowledge and personal experience for understanding, and be cautious to make more careful considerations of the ethical dimensions of evaluation (Ryan, 1988).

As with any research endeavour, and particularly those commissioned by a client, there is a great deal of concern that the project will be a success, and the literature on evaluation design and execution is no different in that respect. Berk and Rossi (1990) surmised that all evaluations are flawed if they are compared to a yardstick of abstract perfection, or if they are judged without taking into account constraints. Therefore, a successful evaluation will provide the best information possible under the given circumstances, and its success should be judged on the amount of current knowledge that it gains.

Logically, one of the dominant measures of programme success or effectiveness is assessing the achievement of programme goals. However, in order to assess effectiveness an element of comparison must also be introduced (e.g. effective compared to what?). For example, relative effectiveness is between a programme and the absence of the programme, or between two or more programme options. As the objectives of this evaluation were constructed around an assessment of impact rather than programme effectiveness the researcher did not have to pursue this ultimately complex debate. Nor did she need to design an approach that incorporated a comparative control group, as impact related to only those individuals who had been part of the YES. The design of the YES programme also meant that attributing effectiveness to specific programme components would have been difficult, whereas considering overall impact permits the consideration of the programme in its totality

(Rutman, 1980). This also implied that a study that rated effectiveness could only be carried out if facilitation of the YES conformed to set guidelines. As a strength of the scheme is its regional diversity this type of approach seemed counter-productive.

AN EVALUATION FRAMEWORK

“Evaluators carry an inclination, based on their worldview, to use specific models in their evaluation work. However, the needs of the evaluation will determine the appropriateness and feasibility of using a specific model” (Mertens, 1998, p.237-8).

After considering the historical, general and practical aspects of evaluation, the next step was to devise or adapt an evaluation framework that was congruent with the chosen paradigm of investigation (i.e. naturalistic). As Cronbach (1982) noted, there has not always been explicit recognition of the ideological nature of models of programme evaluation, instead a methods orientation has predominated. The author goes on to emphasise that what actually distinguishes evaluation models is “whose questions are addressed and which values are promoted” (Cronbach, 1982, p.533). Therefore, the choice of evaluation model or framework must be in line with the research objectives and the researcher’s own selected paradigm of inquiry. Stake (1980, in Dockrell & Hamilton, 1980) was of the opinion that each different way of evaluating leaves something de-emphasised.

Naturalistic evaluation models are highly congruent with interpretivist philosophy and qualitative methodology, and such models were the researcher’s dominant area of investigation, as they seemed to align most closely with the parameters of new paradigm research. The researcher’s first concern was to select an appropriate evaluation framework, then to establish with which paradigm/s it was most congruent. Naturalistic models, classed as alternative paradigms within the field (and therefore entirely suited to a project based on the axioms of new paradigm research) are based on interpretivist logic and traced to the work of Guba and Lincoln (leading proponents of alternative paradigms within the field) (Greene, 1994, in Denzin & Lincoln (1994). Interpretivism is about contextualised meaning, assumes that knowledge is socially constructed by people active in the research process, and argues that researchers should attempt to understand the complex world of lived experience from the perspective of those who live it (Mertens, 1998). Proponents of the paradigm reject that proper methods can

insulate from bias, and thereby ensure objectivity and truth, and seek instead to authenticate their interpretations as empirically based representations of programme experiences and meanings by member checks, triangulation etc. (Greene, 1994, in Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

Within the naturalistic approach to evaluation there were several specific models the researcher considered. Scriven (1991) emphasised that naturalistic models of evaluation focus on the use of informal (but valid) inference, vividness of description, interactiveness, meanings, multiple (legitimate) perspectives, and tacit knowledge. Naturalistic models respond to educators, administrators and learners, and account for the different values and perspectives that exist. Such models also stress contextual factors, unstructured interviewing, observation rather than testing, and meanings rather than mere behaviours.

Within the naturalistic models a specific evaluation framework was selected as being most congruent with new paradigm research, the naturalistic paradigm of inquiry and the research objectives: responsive evaluation.

RESPONSIVE EVALUATION

One of the most important developments in the evaluation field of recent times is the acknowledgment that the practice can no longer ignore the kinds of values that are brought to programmes by various stakeholder groups. In this era of evaluation it is recognised that programmes that are evaluated “are social, political, and moral constructions that embody the different (and often conflicting) interests and values of stakeholders” (Schwandt, 1997, in Rog & Fournier, 1997, p.26). Though there may still be contention as to the best way to access and channel the knowledge and interests of stakeholders, the importance of their role is no longer in doubt. Indeed the responsibility to make the final judgement of any programme’s merit lies with the primary stakeholders, and any justification an evaluator makes is interpretative in nature (Schwandt, 1997, in Rog & Fournier, 1997). Stake (1980, in Dockrell & Hamilton, 1980) differentiated between responsive and more conventional evaluation approaches (which he labelled preordinate) in the following table (Figure 3.3).

Figure 3.2: Differences between a preordinate evaluation and a responsive evaluation.

<i>CONCEPT</i>	<i>PREORDINATE EVALUATION</i>	<i>RESPONSIVE EVALUATION</i>
Orientation	Formal	Informal
Value perspective	Singular Consensual	Pluralistic
Basis for design (i.e. the organiser). A responsive evaluation is flexible enough to incorporate other evaluation models because its 'organiser' is the needs of the audience. Therefore, there may be quantitative cycles in a naturalistic model if that is what the audience wanted to see. Other evaluation models can only accommodate the 'organiser' on which they are based.	Programme intents Objectives Goals A priori	Audience concerns and issues Programme activities Reactions Motivations
Evaluation design completed	At the beginning of the evaluation A good evaluation can be judged by whether there is conformity to the a priori design	Evaluation design is emergent, continuously evolving and therefore never completed before the conclusion of the evaluation. The knowledge gained during the evaluation must be used to actively alter and improve evaluation design
Evaluator role	Stimulator of subjects Objective External agent	Stimulated by subjects and activities Interactive
Methods	Typically objective (quantitative)	Typically subjective (qualitative)
Communication	Formal	Informal
Feedback	At discrete intervals	Informal and continuously evolving to meet audience needs
Form of feedback	Written reports	Narrative type depiction Holistic

The work of Stake (1980, in Dockrell & Hamilton, 1980) exemplifies the sentiments of the previous paragraph and indeed his rejection of the early evaluation models he devised illustrates his commitment to formulating an evaluation framework that puts stakeholders first. In 1967 he formulated the highly structured and judgmentally rooted countenance approach to evaluation, yet later he rejected this model as an example of what was inherently wrong in approaches to evaluation (Popham, 1993). "Stake became convinced that a major deficit of conventional approaches to evaluation was that they were not sufficiently attentive to the concerns of the individuals for whom the evaluation was being conducted" (Popham, 1993, p.42). In order to rectify what he saw as major failings in the field of evaluation, Stake formulated the responsive model of

evaluation, which drew upon the tenets of the naturalistic paradigm. Stake contended that to be more responsive to issues that were pivotal to a programme it would be preferable to decrease measurement precision. Therefore, a responsive evaluation is one that responds to audience requirements for information, values different perspectives and refers to them in reporting the success and failure of the programme, and places a high degree of emphasis on ensuring the usefulness of the evaluation's findings (Popham, 1993; Stake, 1980, in Dockrell & Hamilton, 1980).

“Responsive evaluation is an emergent form of evaluation that takes as its organizer the concerns and issues of stakeholding audiences” (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p 23).

Knowing the interests and language of the evaluation audience and participants is what Stake described as an evaluator's most important task. He argued that evaluators' governed by the different purposes and information needs of the evaluation's stakeholding groups. “A stakeholding audience is a group of persons having some common characteristics (for example, administrators, teachers, parents, students, sponsors, clients, and the like) that has some stake in the performance (or outcome or impact) of the evaluand” (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p.304). Stake advocated that all these groups have the right to be consulted, to have their concerns honoured, and to be reported to. To do this he suggested that stakeholding groups be prioritised and responded to in the way most possible within the evaluation constraints. This ensures that more distant stakeholder groups are not disadvantaged, but that resources are not spread too thin in an attempt to speak to everybody. He also warned that the broadest interpretation of ‘stake’ as possible should be taken, and that recognition should be made of the fact that stakeholder interests may not always be tangible in nature. This will ensure that peripheral stakeholders and those with a low profile are not overlooked. “The mere act of investigation gives a special status both to the things that the evaluator chooses to investigate and to those that he chooses not to investigate” (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p.306). The researcher investigated carefully the different stakeholding groups of the YES and was mindful of these groups when carrying out data collection cycles.

Stake suggested a number of steps for carrying out a responsive evaluation, though what is more important than the steps themselves was the assertion that they cannot be carried out in sequence. Instead there is continuing movement back and forth as the evaluation proceeds. Here it is important to note the similarities between Stake's depiction of the

responsive evaluation cycle and the cyclical depiction of new paradigm research by Reason and Rowan (1981). Both models encompass a type of synergistic interaction within the cycles or phases. In Stake's framework the evaluator's attempts to thematise, portray and match issues to audiences may lead to reformulation - specifically a different way to define an issue, formulate information, or report results.

Figure 3.3 depicts the cycles that emerged during this evaluation. As the diagram depicts the researcher (symbolised by rs) and the respondents (symbolised by Rp, with the capital R indicating that the respondents play a more dominant role than the researcher), interacted continuously during each different data collection cycle (FG being focus group, O standing for observation and I for interviews) to form cycles within cycles. The dotted boundary around this grouping of qualitative cycles indicates that the research context permeated the cycles continuously. The other cycle was quantitative (Q symbolising questionnaire) and is bounded by a continuous line indicating that the researcher is unaware of the influence of context due to the nature of the collection instrument. The relationship between the researcher and respondents in this cycle is also more of a one-off exchange than continuous interaction, so is depicted by single arrows.

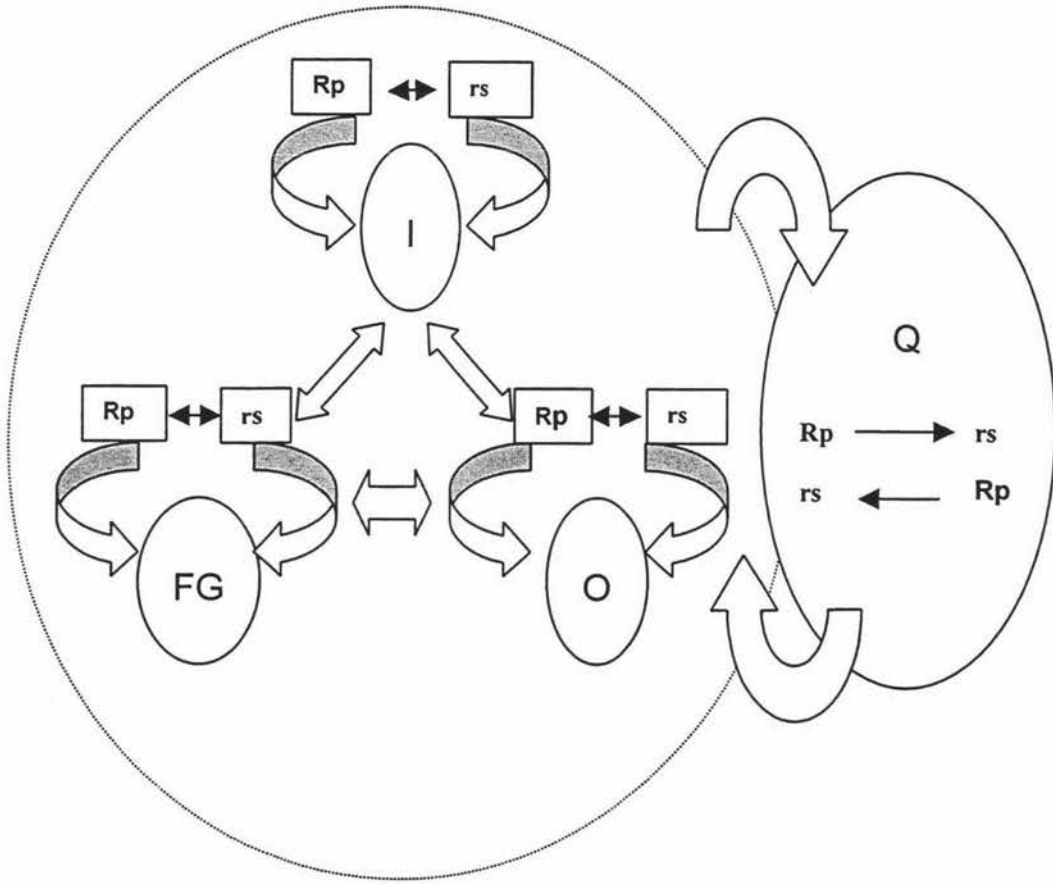
One of the advantages to the evaluation having a cyclical structure was that the cycles accommodated the emergent nature of the evaluation's design and allowed the researcher to essentially be "carrying the evaluation questions around ...opportunistically getting a feel for how you might get answers to them" (Robson, 2000, p.103).

DATA COLLECTION: THE METHODS AND THE CYCLES

"A credible evaluation theory needs a place for multiple methods, and must make explicit the contingencies that guide selection of one method over another when time, circumstances, and resources force the choice" (Shadish, Cook & Leviton, 1991, p.314).

Identifying the paradigmatic and methodological traditions of a field of inquiry (in this case evaluation) enables a researcher to identify appropriate data-collection techniques (Hart, 1998). Careful consideration must also be made of the type of information that needs to be provided at the conclusion of the evaluation in order to make it as useful as it can be.

Figure 3.3: The research cycles



Within these parameters a researcher needs to determine to what extent can information requirements “be met at the desired degree of validity and reliability, considering costs and other types of constraints?” (Rutman, 1980, p.132).

In describing the type of information an evaluation should provide, Wolf (1990) made distinct divisions between the classes of data that can be collected. In the context of an evaluation of an educational programme, these categories included data about the initial status of the learners, learner performance after a period of instruction, execution of the programme, the costs of the programme, supplemental information, and side effects (the attitudes and interests that develop). The relevance of each category will naturally depend on the nature of the evaluation being executed. In this case, for a responsive, stakeholder based evaluation; the most relevant categories to pursue were supplemental information and side effects (to address research objective two). Gathering the reactions, opinions and views of learners and teachers would, according to Wolf (1990), enable the evaluator to understand how the programme is perceived by stakeholders, establish if

there is any discontinuity between reality and perception and whether any learner outcomes are not directly related to programme objectives.

After the types of information that need to be gathered are determined, the next logical phase is selecting data gathering methods and tools that are congruent with the overall research design and evaluation framework. The researcher kept in mind Mertens' (1998) assertion that what distinguishes one evaluation methodology from another is not methods but rather whose questions are being answered. As such, Guba and Lincoln's (1981) work provided a useful summary of the methods and tools that lie within the parameters of the naturalistic paradigm, and therefore a responsive evaluation (see Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4: The methodological characteristics of the naturalistic paradigm

<i>METHODOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS</i>	
<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Naturalistic paradigm</i>
Instrument	Often the inquirer themselves is the instrument as they have the advantage of possessing judgement, and the flexibility to use it – and can improve their skills through the process
Timing of the specification of data collection and analysis rules	During and after inquiry
Design	Emergent, to specify prior to the commencement of inquiry is the antithesis of both this paradigm and the purpose of a naturalistic approach as it may impose unnecessary constraints
Style	Selection (of often naturally occurring events)
Setting	Nature (context bound)
Treatment	Variable
Analytic units	Patterns (spider web)
Contextual elements	Invited interference

Due to the emergent nature of naturalistic inquiries many non-relevant data may be collected in the early stages. Lincoln and Guba (1983) emphasised however that the boundaries are not concrete, and that they will typically be altered in a naturalistic inquiry and so the initial design statement should reflect that.

The 'human as instrument' is the choice for naturalistic evaluations according to proponents of the model. Lincoln and Guba were of the opinion that "when the inquiry

is actually under way, the human instruments, may be improved in competence beyond their initial status” unlike any other data collection instrument (1985, p.238). Despite this adamant contention the authors did feel that others forms of instrumentation have a role within a naturalistic inquiry, and indeed can complement the dominantly ‘human as instrument’ approach. Other forms of instrumentation are only considered of concern to naturalistic purists because: they are typically not grounded approaches and therefore, cannot reveal anything not built into them by the instrument designer; and what is included can only be determined by either a priori theory or personal predilection (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). “But if the human instrument has been used extensively in earlier stages of the inquiry, so that an instrument can be constructed that is grounded in the data that the human instrument has produced, then these objections disappear.” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.239). Therefore, in this evaluation the use of a questionnaire was eminently suitable as the questionnaire was grounded in the data from earlier collection cycles (namely the focus group and observation).

There are many advantages to pursuing the use of human as instrument approach in a naturalistic evaluation. Firstly, it gives the researcher the capability to immediately check, test or expand a participant’s responses. This allows the researcher to maintain a closeness between the data gathering and verification phases, and can prevent the researcher from having to attempt to re-establish a connection with a respondent or ask them to verify data independently which can create a lag that can hamper the efficiency of the process. It also gives the researcher the opportunity to follow their nose and pursue responses that they see as being idiosyncratic, out of line with other data they have gathered, or new and exciting.

Part of the skill in maintaining the advantage of the researcher being the primary instrument of data collection is recognising that the fieldworker is also subject to change and can therefore be both affected and improved by the data they gather. Wax (1971, cited in Guba & Lincoln, 1981,p.363) described that change will not come because of “the things...suffered, enjoyed or endured...nor by the things (one) did....What changed me irrevocably and beyond repair were the things I *learned*”. According to Wax (1971, cited in Guba & Lincoln, 1981) this learning involves a willingness to have your perceptions altered, to talk to all people who may inform the inquiry, not just those who are accessible and willing.

In terms of expediency the use of supplemental data collection instruments is desirable. For utility a questionnaire provides an easy way of checking data by comparing it with gathering more data from a larger number of respondents, in which case a questionnaire becomes information verifying rather than an information-generating device. For this evaluation a questionnaire was both a means of checking and gathering data. To overcome objections to its inclusion in a naturalistic evaluation the researcher formulated the questions using data gathered during earlier phases of the evaluation, therefore ensuring the questionnaire was a grounded rather than a priori instrument. The use of supplementary instruments can also satisfy a client's wish to gather data from a representative group (given that most clients will work from a conventional axiom), and to make possible a transformation of data from qualitative to quantitative formats (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

For the researcher one of the most heartening thing that she read whilst investigating data collection methods was a description of the tension that can occur when lines of inquiry have to be forsaken in the interests of the overall research outcome. Baron, Dobbin and Devereaux Jennings (1992, in Frost & Stablein, 1992) proposed that tenacity needs to be coupled with a willingness to let go if an exemplary standard of research is to be achieved. This means that no matter how appropriate your data collection methods are you still have to give up collecting some data if you are to get a clearer understanding of what you have already collected.

QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE CYCLES

Having established the appropriateness of using a complementary set of data collection instruments, it became necessary to establish how best to combine the use of qualitative and quantitative tools in the evaluation and within the naturalistic paradigm. As a 'new' paradigm, naturalistic evaluations represent the evaluation field's rejection of a prior blanket acceptance of quantitative methods being most appropriate for their purposes (Filstead, 1979, in Cook & Reichardt, 1979). Evaluators now look to devise models that emphasise the incorporation of multiple methods, or a blending of approaches within a single underpinning paradigm.

The relative strengths and weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative data gathering methods also mean that their integration in an evaluative context is ideal. The two have

been combined in this evaluation in three ways. Firstly, through methodological and data triangulation (teachers, students and other stakeholders), so the findings from interviews, observation, and the questionnaire can be checked against one another. Secondly, qualitative data cycles provided the basis for the construction of an instrument that would generate largely quantitative data, a questionnaire. Finally, the qualitative and quantitative data gathered from the evaluation cycles were combined where appropriate during analysis to give a more holistic and wide-ranging picture (Bryman, 1992, in Brannen, 1992).

For Wolf (1990) the question of whether the use of quantitative or qualitative based methods should be used in evaluations was irrelevant unless the purpose for which the tool is going to be used is identified. Qualitative methods were in this project therefore immediately appropriate as the dominant approach because of the evaluation's focus on how the programme participants develop, the diversity within the programme and the intent to understand the programme through the eyes of participants and facilitators (Patton, 1990). After all "qualitative research is about finding patterns of experience in lives" (Dilley, 2000, p.132), or in this case patterns in the experiences of YES participants and those who are responsible for its facilitation.

A specific aspect of qualitative data gathering methods that was particularly congruent with a naturalistic evaluator's desire to understand the language of description applied to the evaluand is its preference for data to be recorded in the language of the respondents. Following this practice during a qualitative interview allowed the researcher to ask respondents exactly what they thought 'being enterprising' meant, and allowed those responses to be combined with those from other respondents to build a true and accurate picture of meaning.

INTERVIEWS

"Good interviewing eludes easy definition or instruction, but we know it when we see it, for it opens new voices, new vistas, new visions to our own". (Dilley, 2000, p.136).

Several stakeholder groups were selected as being appropriate to include in the interviewing cycle of the evaluation. They were ENZT regional co-ordinators, ENZT staff, and ENZT trustees. Within these stakeholding groups purposive and theoretical sampling were the central techniques used to select interviewees (Glaser & Strauss,

1967; Patton, 1990). This ensured maximum variation, and the chance to obtain the broadest range of information. The strategy was also appropriate as it was congruent with the parameters of a naturalistic evaluation (i.e. the central respondent selection technique) (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper & Allen, 1993; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Who is selected to be included in an evaluation is initially guided by the research objectives and undergoes changes within a responsive framework based on the data collected. The new directions the data may raise could necessitate a more theoretical approach to selection. However, initial contacts were made through suggestions provided by knowledgeable informants, gatekeepers, and experts as Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested. Some of the interviewees were what Guba and Lincoln (1981) described as key informants, that is those who are insiders (i.e. in this case work for the ENZT) but who are willing to play roles in the evaluation by explaining many of the norms, attitudes and processes inherent in the programme. Other one-off interviews were carried out with individuals when they were relevant either to another cycle of the evaluation, or who emerged as having relevant knowledge as the evaluation progressed (a naturalistic evaluation's characteristically emergent nature facilitates the pursuit of such opportunities). The variety of interviewees provided a diversity and depth of data and stimulated the researcher's interest, or as Toma (2000) put it "their interest only heightened my own interest" (p.181).

Semi-structured interviews were undertaken as they are especially appropriate when "it is necessary to understand the constructs that the interviewee uses as a basis for her opinions and beliefs about a particular matter or situation" (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Low, 1991, p.74). In this evaluation it meant understanding specifically what respondents meant when they talked about being enterprising, as those opinions underpinned all their other responses in relation to the YES.

The researcher approached interviewees usually by letter or e-mail and attached an information sheet and consent form relating to the project (Appendix A). Specific information sheets were designed for different cycles of the evaluation as the researcher wished to demonstrate exactly why she wished to talk to the specific individual. Establishing the relevance of the evaluation to the different stakeholding groups was seen as increasing their willingness to participate and Easterby-Smith et al (1991)

argued that the perception of relevance held by the interviewee would affect the quality of the data that they provide and their enthusiasm to participate.

“Protocol questions are a guide to the journey we want our respondents to take. They serve as a path we suggest for them to point out landmarks and markers they think are important for us to understand and map the journey” (Dilley, 2000, p.133).

With this in mind the researcher formulated a thematic interview schedule prior to commencing the interviewing cycle. However, this was soon obsolete (as is often typical in a naturalistic approach) and the schedule evolved and expanded after each new interview. The key themes covered remained the same (to ensure a degree of compatibility between respondent responses), but the questions used to address them varied and the schedule didn't constrain the researcher in terms of taking a different approach to following leads or asking questions.

Interviews were carried out with 22 YES stakeholders (including ENZT staff members, trustees, and regional coordinators) over an eight-month period. Initially the researcher attempted to complete the interviewing cycle within a specified time, but as a result encountered one of the pitfalls of conducting a responsive evaluation, that “perhaps the only thing the naturalist can be sure of is that there will be slippage in whatever plans are made” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.225). The experience demonstrated that because naturalistic inquiry diverges rather than converges, the span of an inquiry should not be predetermined by schedule but rather by practical considerations like the amount of data collected and the amount of time available to be allocated to the project (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this instance the researcher had the facility to continue interviewing in parallel with other data collection cycles until virtually the end of the evaluation, or until the need for final data analysis and write up became paramount.

In the researcher's mind a sufficient number of stakeholders would have been spoken to when “redundancy with respect to information is reached...That sample may be large or small, but it is sufficient when the amount of new information provided per unit of added resource expenditure has reached the point of diminishing returns (that is, it would not be profitable to add even one more sample element)” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.233-4). Half of these interviews were carried out in person. Ideally the researcher would have preferred to carry out all the interviews in person but a number of constraints prevented this. Often the interviewees were unable to be interviewed in any

other way due to their own commitments, often the researcher for reasons of time and money could not travel to the locations of interviewees, and the duration of the project was such that an infinite amount of time could not be devoted to tracking down non-responders.

Maruyama (1974, cited by Sims, 1981 in Reason & Rowan, 1981) talked of a 'resonance' between the 'researcher' and the 'researched' and that if there is a resonance of interest (i.e. a significant area of investigation that both find interesting) between the two parties the chances of successful research are significantly enhanced. This is particularly relevant to the interviewing cycle, as if resonance is present then an interviewee is perceived as being more willing to talk. Resonance was not as difficult to establish in this evaluation as it may be in other contexts because those interviewed were often involved in YES in an elective capacity (i.e. they were not employed or compelled to participate) and their interest in the evaluation, and therefore resonance with the researcher, was typically high.

"Interviewing is an interactive art, not a science, and a form of apprenticeship is often the best way to learn it" (Dilley, 2000, p.134).

The interviewing cycle of the evaluation afforded the researcher the opportunity to continue her apprenticeship in the art of interviewing, and in particular establish the different approaches needed to conduct a successful phone interview in comparison to one that occurs face-to-face. Interviewing involves multiple sets of skills and the ability to simultaneously listen, process, and interact with interviewees. When you are in the midst of an interviewing cycle you become attuned to how others interview (and not just in a research context), and instead of listening to interviews for content you begin listening to see how the interview is executed. You start to identify what it is you like about the interviewer's style and which questions elicit the type of information that seems most rewarding both in terms of the discussion and the listener. Talking over interviews with supervisors and reviewing an interviewing experience self-critically, as well as in terms of the data collected, was also an immensely valuable part of the cycle.

OBSERVATION

Responsive evaluations allow a lot of time for observing the programme, and concurrent data collection phases are recommended to accommodate this because according to

Stake (1980, in Dockrell & Hamilton, 1980) observation is as important in the last week of a programme as it is in the first. In terms of naturalistic inquiry observation was also especially appropriate because it let the researcher involve herself in the evaluand in a real life context, and the project parameters afforded the researcher the opportunity to observe the programme through its natural cycle (the YES runs from approximately March to October).

One of the challenges inherent in observing a phenomenon is that “when an event is perceived, it is represented simultaneously at several different levels of precision” (Sparrow, 1998, p.79). So when a student or teacher says they are going to a YES meeting there is undoubtedly, at a basic level, an underpinning understanding of what will probably happen at that meeting. However, when you consider a ‘YES meeting’ at an intermediate and then more specific level of representation, the definition you are able to construct may vary according to who you ask to describe the meeting (e.g. a student cf. a teacher, teacher cf. ENZT staff member) or how much existing knowledge a person has about the programme. These potential differences of representation led the researcher to conclude that observation would provide her with the opportunity to formulate her own understanding of YES meetings, and that it was important to do so as these meetings were the tangible manifestation of the programme in action.

Once the suitability and role of observation in the project was established, the fieldwork parameters needed to be established. Observing one YES team throughout the scheme seemed most appropriate, though the researcher did visit several other schools to observe teams that had different characteristics to the primary observation team. The YES team that participated in this phase of the process was chosen primarily because of the ease with which the researcher could gain access to the site (the researcher was able to utilise existing links to negotiate a research relationship with the school). Entering the field in the least disruptive manner possible was the researcher’s primary concern, as was establishing the type of rapport that would facilitate ongoing involvement. As Marshall and Rossman (1989, cited in Erlandson et al, 1993) phrased it, the researcher needs to select a site in which “the researcher can devise an appropriate role to maintain continuity of presence for as long as necessary” (p.53).

Initial permission was obtained from the principal via a letter and the researcher then met with the teacher in charge of YES to establish how the observation could be

executed with minimum disruption to the students and school. Information sheets were given to the teacher, principal and students who were to be involved, and the teacher or principal also completed a consent form. (Appendix B). After this discussion the researcher concluded that it would be counter-productive to maintain a profile as an observer only, as right from the first meeting questions were addressed to her and the team interacted freely with her. Indeed Wax (1971, cited in Guba & Lincoln, 1981), believed it was necessary to combine participation and observation techniques in order to understand the true meaning of programme activities. In terms of what was observed this meant the evaluation's observation cycle was fully participatory and of an overt nature. The purpose of the evaluation was also fully exposed, and broadly and holistically focused observation occurred on multiple occasions over a long-term period (Patton, 1990).

The team was observed at their regular meetings intermittently throughout the duration of the YES. This equated to the observer being present at 15 of their meetings, and viewing their display at the Trade Fair. Maintaining what Easterby-Smith et al (1991) label interrupted involvement (where the researcher is present sporadically over a period of time) meant that the researcher did not undermine the relationship between the team and their assigned mentor by encouraging an over-reliance on her. This was beginning to be an issue when the researcher was present at meetings where the team's assigned mentor was not.

"An ideal participant observer is able to see himself as an educated and highly intelligent adult, and, simultaneously, as a ludicrous tenderfoot or schlemiel who knows less about what he is doing than a native child" Wax (1971, cited in Guba and Lincoln, 1981, p.370).

The approach Wax (1971, cited in Guba & Lincoln, 1981) advocated that it is easier if your passion for the phenomenon you are studying is so great that you are prepared to listen to anyone's opinion of it in the hope of learning something new. Maintaining both mindsets at the same time also means that the researcher is more likely to collect primary (what happened and what was said), secondary (interpretative statements by the observer of what happened), and experiential (perceptions and feelings of the process) data, as opposed to one class of data being dominant (Delbridge & Kirkpatrick, 1994, cited in Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2000).

One of the primary arguments against observation as a data gathering method is reactivity in the setting, or on the part of those being observed. This involves those being observed behaving in a different way because the researcher is present, and/or the researcher becoming too reliant on personal interpretations of the data. These are seen as stemming directly from the reliance the method has on the personal interpretation of the researcher. However, the threat of reactivity is not as relevant as commonly believed according to Guba and Lincoln (1981). They were of the opinion that natural settings are relatively stable and the observer's presence may rarely, if ever, provoke the massive kind of imbalances proposed in the literature. The authors went on to argue that this viewpoint is rooted in a positivism, which warns against the use of own direct experience and advocates a watching brief rather than an active role. With this in mind the researcher found the advantages of staying very close to the phenomenon rather than trying to keep them at arm's length, or as Hackman (1992, in Frost & Stablein, 1992) put it: the value of 'handling your own rat'.

FOCUS GROUP

A focus group was seen as an appropriate data-gathering tool to make use of in the early stages of this evaluation for a number of reasons. Firstly, a focus group shifts the emphasis away from the data gatherer and onto the respondent, an emphasis entirely congruent with a naturalistic evaluation. Secondly, the researcher wanted ideas to emerge from the group in order to provide information for formulating successive phases of the evaluation. Finally, the natural real life context that a focus group takes place in made it a logical option for a naturalistic evaluation. As Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) described "focus groups tend to be used very early in a research project and are often followed by other types of research that provide more quantifiable data from larger groups of respondents" (p.15). Interestingly Shaw (1999) was of the opinion that focus groups are also "valuable when there is a power differential between participants and decision-makers" (p.156). As this is clearly the case when considering students in relation to those who facilitate YES (teachers and ENZT staff) a focus group was again obviously appropriate.

Often warning is given against convening a focus group in which members already know one another as prior relationships may inhibit the ability of participants to disclose information freely (Krueger, 1994). However, the argument that the technique works

well if participants are on an equal basis and the advantages of pre-established lines of communication (i.e. friendships) was seen as more relevant in this instance (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). Therefore, given that the purpose of the focus group was to gather data in order to formulate a questionnaire for later in the evaluation the researcher felt it appropriate to use the YES team she had been observing since the start of the evaluation. This circumvented issues of access and ethics as approval for her involvement with the team had been given by the school principal. It also provided the researcher with the ideal opportunity to learn how the respondents talk about the phenomenon of interest, (the YES) with their peers.

Given the age of the proposed female participants (16-18), involving students who already knew each other was seen as a way of reducing any involvement anxiety. Scott (2000, cited in Christensen & James, 2000) also advocated that students should be interviewed in restricted age groups so that older children don't dominate, and that boys and girls should be interviewed separately as they have such different communication styles.

Another advantage to using participants with whom the researcher already had a prior relationship with was that it reduced the degree of artificiality that may be created if the students did not know the moderator. To counter any lack of objectivity, and for ethical reasons, the researcher involved a co-moderator (one of her supervisors) to assist in running the focus group. This was beneficial to the data gathering process in a number of ways. It allowed the moderators to adopt quite distinct roles (for example Krueger's (1994) "enlightened novice", "seeker of wisdom", or "writer" (p.105)). For Krueger (1994) complementary moderators represent different levels of expertise with focus groups and the topic of discussion. This was true of this focus group also, whilst the researcher had knowledge of the programme being evaluated this was no substitute for the theoretical and practical knowledge of the focus group technique possessed by the co-moderator.

Involving an experienced moderator also reduced the researcher's anxiety, which was associated with running a focus group for the first time. The characteristics that the literature describe as being necessary for a moderator to be successful are both impressive and daunting, particularly for a novice researcher. Therefore, the presence of a co-moderator with both skills and experience gave the researcher an opportunity to not

only gather data but also strengthen her own skills. Of all the recommended skill sets identified by the researcher the one that heartened her resolve to pursue the use of a focus group was this: that a moderator should possess a curiosity about the topic and the participants, and believe that the participants have wisdom no matter what their age, experience, or background knowledge on the topic (Krueger, 1994). This absolved the researcher of attempting to maintain neutrality or compromise the trust of the participants by not acknowledging that they had participated in previous phases of the project.

Eleven students agreed to participate in the one-off focus group, and their permission was secured via the use of an information sheet and consent form (Appendix C). The size of a focus group “is conditioned by two factors: it must be small enough for everyone to have opportunity to share insights and yet large enough to provide diversity of perceptions” (Krueger, 1994, p.17). During the ninety-minute session all eleven students participated and there were no difficulties in managing the involvement of that number of participants. The use of name tags and the fact that the researcher knew the students appeared to aid the facilitation process.

The focus group was conducted in a setting known to the participants (their school) and was tape-recorded for the purposes of data collection and validity. Studies have shown that the focus group environment can have great influence over the levels of participation, and therefore the nature of the data (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). In this instance the participants seated themselves in a circle on the floor and the moderators then inserted themselves into this arrangement. The age and composition of the group led the researcher to think that allowing the participants to arrange themselves, as opposed to having a seating pattern imposed on them, would help create an environment of equality and therefore greater openness.

The focus group was conducted around a number of key themes that related to the research objectives and the data gathered during the focus group illustrated clearly the advantage of the utilisation of the focus group technique. The data was rich and expressed in the words of the participants, and they were able to clarify or correct themselves as necessary. The researcher was also able to check responses immediately, and follow up on any points that were not immediately seen as relevant to the discussion. Any idiosyncrasies contained within the data challenged the researcher and

were a welcome interest compared to the uniformity of responses that often characterise questionnaire responses.

A single focus group was carried out because of its purpose the reason for its inclusion (to generate data to assist with questionnaire formulation). Krueger (1994) emphasised that a small number of focus groups is acceptable if a focus group topic is narrow and if participants have had the same level of exposure to a programme.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Having established the complementarity of a quantitative data gathering cycle within the evaluation, as discussed earlier in the chapter, the researcher formulated and disseminated a questionnaire in order to address research objectives one, two and three, and supplement the data being gathered in the other qualitatively oriented cycles.

The questionnaire was seen as an opportunity to gather the opinions of the primary stakeholding group: the YES participants. Careful consideration was made of the ethical implications of this cycle (which are discussed later in this chapter) and the initial approach was made to teachers in charge of YES. In 2001 162 New Zealand schools registered YES teams and the researcher sent a letter of approach to every school listed as being involved on the ENZT database. As well as ascertaining whether a teacher would agree to administer a questionnaire to their students who were YES participants, the letter also dealt with pragmatic issues such as how many questionnaires the teacher would need etc. Every school who had students participating in the YES was approached by the researcher, though in the context of a naturalistic evaluation this cannot be described as a population as “sampling serves different purposes for the naturalist than for the conventionalist” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.224). Selecting a sample was not necessary because the purpose of having a questionnaire cycle in the evaluation was not to gain information that was generalisable. It was to complement the qualitative cycles and present a more complete picture of the impact of the programme. This was because a questionnaire can achieve a breadth of data collection that no other instrument could in this instance. Therefore, the researcher did not have to divide all participating YES schools or students into representative groupings in order to construct a good sample.

In September 2001, the researcher sent questionnaires to the schools that indicated they would participate with parental consent forms for those students younger than sixteen. The questionnaires had an information sheet for students attached to the front and were accompanied with a letter of instruction and reply post-paid facility for the teacher to return the documents in (a copy of the questionnaire is attached as Appendix D). An initial two-week period was allocated for questionnaire dissemination and return, a follow up letter was issued and then a four-week extension was made to this timeframe. This was due to the influence of school holidays and exams on the timing of questionnaire administration, and the desire of some teachers to return questionnaires after the deadline. In the pursuit of a comprehensive range of responses the researcher felt extending the timeframe was acceptable as a response to a stakeholder.

The questionnaire was comprised of a combination of open and closed questions, which was consistent with the multiple methods being utilised in other cycles of the evaluation, and was divided into sections to signal a change of question theme to respondents (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). The questions included were designed to elicit answers that demonstrated the respondent's attitudes (how they feel) and beliefs (what they think or believe is true or false, not good or bad) about the YES, about being enterprising and about the impact of the scheme on their career aspirations, following Dillman (1978, cited in Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2000). There were also a few attribute questions (questions of fact as opposed to opinion) in the introductory section to gain background information about respondents. The questions were carefully worded to reflect the age of respondents (typically 16-18 years old). The focus group that the researcher ran with YES participants in an earlier cycle of the evaluation provided valuable examples of authentic language (i.e. terms students were familiar with and how they used them) as Scott (2000, cited in Christensen & James, 2000) suggested.

To ensure that the questions were appropriately worded and to check timing and other administration issues the questionnaire was piloted with the YES team being observed by the researcher. Piloting questionnaires that involve student participants is seen as being even more critical given the wide range of developmental stages of adolescence. It also helps the researcher ensure that the questions have been formulated from a participant-centric rather than researcher-centric perspective and are interpreted the way the researcher intended (Scott, 2000, cited in Christensen & James, 2000). The feedback

indicated that the questions were worded in a manner that would not confuse students and that the questionnaire instructions were clear. The completion times varied but were well within the 30 minutes the researcher had suggested to teachers.

DATA ANALYSIS

The principle of interaction between data collection and analysis is one of the distinguishing features of naturalistic research, so the analysis in this evaluation ranged right from the researcher's first encounters with the data, right through to the more formal activities that were undertaken when more and more data had been collected. Miles and Huberman (1994) were also advocates of early and ongoing data analysis, they believe "it helps the field-worker [to] cycle back and forth between thinking about the existing data and generating strategies for collecting new, often better, data" (p.50).

When considering data analysis the researcher thought early in the evaluation how it was best to record the data gathered in each cycle. Data recording modes can be judged according to fidelity (ability to reproduce later) and structure (ability to focus) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The authors felt there is less fidelity through field notes but that they are less threatening than a recorder, keep the researcher alert, are not subject to technical difficulties, and can be accessed again during the interview quickly for confirmation. In the researcher's mind there were several other advantages in using note taking as the dominant means of recording data within the evaluation. They gave the researcher the ability to record her own thoughts (crucial in a responsive evaluation), meant the researcher operated more informally which often invoked a more relaxed interview context, and could be reviewed and amended with an immediacy that surpassed any other method. Pragmatically tape recording, or any other means of recording, was not practicable with the number of phone interviews that occurred in the interviewing cycle. To circumvent any issues of inaccuracy with regard to note-taking the researcher sent a copy of the notes taken to the interviewee upon completion of the interview. This provided the participant with the opportunity to remove, add or amend responses before the data was analysed. This reinforced the participant's rights in the evaluation process, and ensured the notes were an accurate reflection of the opinions they wished to express. However, for the focus group the tape recording provided the researcher with the opportunity to concentrate on being a moderator, which as a novice was a necessary

emphasis, while the second moderator was therefore free to take notes to supplement the tape. The tape of the group captured the interaction of group members, which no amount of efficient note taking would ever have done justice to. Or as Collin (1981, in Reason & Rowan, 1981) put it “I can draw on my memory which overlays the transcribed tape with the colour of my feelings and tangible experience and can use my intuitive understanding in my analysis” (p.388).

Whilst there were characteristics of data analysis that were particular to certain cycles of the evaluation there were some common themes the researcher used to underpin the process. Firstly, Easterby-Smith et al’s (1991) seven stages of data analysis served as the researcher’s guide during the analysis process. The stages are familiarisation (reread), reflection (does it support existing knowledge? does it challenge it? anything new? Different?), conceptualisation (concepts and variables, coding), cataloguing concepts (labelling language), recoding (redefinition), linking (holistic) and finally re-evaluation. Secondly, continual emphasis was given to maintaining the exact language used by participants as much as was practicable. This was important in conveying the meaning and flavour of the responses (Patton, 1990).

Coding played an important part in data analysis across all cycles of the evaluation. Many of the codes were constructed using the actual words of respondents whilst others were either collapsed into new codes or codes were drawn from the researcher’s preunderstanding (that is her reading and experience). For the interview and observation cycles codes tended to be thematic in nature, whilst coding of questionnaire responses was far more specific (i.e. a codebook was devised with codes for each separate question). For this evaluation codes did not tend to just be straightforward category labels, indeed the researcher followed Miles and Huberman’s (1994) recommendation that “it is not the words themselves but their meaning that matters” (p.56). Therefore, codes needed to reflect the complexity and context of the responses as well as serving as a tool for data analysis. More complex coding led the researcher to themes and patterns that under a more simplistic coding approach may not have been evident in the early cycles of data collection. Codes were also networked, an extension of categorisation that mapped the way in which codes and labels related to one another (Bliss, Monk & Ogborn, 1983, p.8 in Gough & Scott, 2000).

Whatever methods are used to make sense of the data in the end it turns out to be a very personal and individual process (Marshall, 1981 in Reason & Rowan, 1981). The researcher found that because of the nature of a responsive evaluation it was impossible to set aside a set time period for data analysis, or predetermine what tools could be used in the analysis process. Intuition instead became crucial, and getting a feel for the data. Marshall (1981, in Reason & Rowan, 1981) described this as a feeling of rightness, coming to understand when analysis was needed, and what would work best. For the cyclical nature of this evaluation diagrams became a crucial part of data analysis and were used to develop concepts, link cycles and test ideas.

PROJECT INTEGRITY

The traditional criteria for judging the trustworthiness of research inquiry are internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity. It was clear given the nature of the naturalistic paradigm and the type of evaluation it necessitates that these terms would not be applicable. However, Guba and Lincoln (1981) proposed four analogous terms within the naturalistic paradigm to supplant these rationalistic terms (credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability). Whilst the authors concede that meeting the aforementioned criteria would not guarantee evaluation integrity, it would contribute greatly towards persuading a reader, stakeholder and client of the data's meaningfulness. These criteria and the means by which the researcher addressed them during the course of this evaluation are presented in Figure 3.5.

Triangulation was the main structural measure of integrity that was used in the evaluation. For this project the researcher undertook data and methodological triangulation (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). Data was collected from different sources (within each stakeholding group) and different data collection cycles over different time periods (some data collection was serial in nature whilst other cycles occurred simultaneously). Methodological triangulation was achieved through the use of multiple data collection methods, qualitative (interviews, observation and a focus group) and quantitative (a questionnaire).

Figure 3.5: Achievement criteria for evaluation integrity

CRITERIA	WAS ACHIEVED BY
Credibility (Internal validity)	Asking whether a respondent's realities have been accurately represented in the data, and whether the respondents find the researcher's analysis and interpretations to be credible (member checks). A prolonged engagement at the research site (and involvement with the phenomenon under study) to overcome any distortions that may have been introduced by the researcher's presence. Persistent observation Triangulation
Transferability (External validity)	Purposive theoretical sampling Thick description available about the research context
Dependability (Reliability and being replicable)	An emergent design that built in changes with conscious intent. This prevents exact replication so the naturalist therefore defines the concept to mean stability after discounting any conscious and unpredictable (but logical) changes. The use of multiple methods and overlapping data collection cycles
Confirmability (Objectivity)	Triangulation Practicing reflexivity by keeping a research diary. It allowed the researcher to develop an awareness of her underlying epistemological assumptions, and her reasons for formulating the study in a particular way (which represented implicit assumptions and biases about the research context).

(Adapted from Guba & Lincoln, 1983, in Maduas, Scriven & Stufflebeam, 1983).

ETHICAL ISSUES

Examining ethical questions about practice can make evaluators more critical of what they are doing and give them a better understanding of what it takes to be a good evaluator (i.e. considering in whose interests an evaluator should be acting and for what purpose) (Schwandt, 1997 in Rog & Fournier, 1997). With this evaluation also being a research project (i.e. being undertaken for the purpose of a course of study for the researcher) consideration of the ethical implications of the researcher's actions was doubly important. The ethical considerations made in this evaluation occurred at the research design phases and therefore informed research practice (Mowday, 1992, in Frost & Stablein, 1992).

The dominant ethical issue related to the informed consent of participants in the evaluation: this was of particular importance given the involvement of those in the 16-18 year old age bracket. For the interviews, focus group and observation each participant

was provided with an information sheet prior to their involvement in the evaluation. It outlined the purpose of the research and provided the contact details of the researcher and research supervisors. A consent form was then completed by the participant prior to the researcher collecting any data from them. The completion of the consent form ensured that every individual participated in the evaluation on the basis of informed consent. For the questionnaire cycle of the evaluation an information sheet was attached to the front of the questionnaire. Completion and return of the questionnaire then implied the participant's consent to participate in the evaluation. For Students who were younger than sixteen were asked to have a parental consent form filled in before they completed the questionnaire.

In the interests of participant confidentiality the information in this final report is a synthesis of the data collected, and the data in its original format has not been included. Any quotes or examples that are attributed are done so with the express permission of the evaluation participant.

The Massey University Human Ethics Committee approved all the data collection cycles of the evaluation.

LIMITATIONS AND CONSTRAINTS OF THE EVALUATION

This evaluation was constrained by the time in which it had to be completed (in time to submit a thesis for examination), but was free of monetary constraint thanks to the financial support of the ENZT and the New Zealand Centre for SME Research. The scope of the evaluation was limited by the involvement of only one researcher (though the involvement of research supervisors, including one from the ENZT, provided some researcher triangulation).

Another potential limitation was the considerable debate that has occurred over the most appropriate methodology for evaluating training or educational programmes. This is still relevant because many of the competencies and skills that the programmes are designed to impart are hard to quantify as measurable outcomes. Researchers who are therefore charged with evaluating such programmes typically have to rely on asking participants for their views. This evaluation was no different in that respect. Clearly that approach has a number of inherent risks. Those who are approached for their opinion may be unrepresentative of the total number of programme participants, or respondents may be

tempted to give the answers they think the evaluator expects to hear. There may also be a failure by the researcher to take sufficient account of the influence of participant personal characteristics on programme outcomes, or the fact that as the programme is optional there may be a set of predisposing factors of participation that have not been described Westhead and Storey (1998).

SUMMARY

In summary this responsive evaluation of the YES was grounded in the axioms of the naturalistic paradigm. It was based on parallel cycles of data collection that involved observation, interviewing and the dissemination of a questionnaire. The rationale behind the epistemological and methodological choices has been given in this chapter, and the data collected during the evaluation is presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

This chapter presents the data collected in a combination of text, tables and diagrammatic forms. These results are a synthesis of the data collected, and not the data in its original form, though where appropriate quotations have been used (these are in italics).

The first section of the chapter summarises the methods and timing of qualitative data collection; the subsequent sections are then arranged by topic. Some of the topics emerged from the literature review; however, the majority are grounded in the data themselves. Often the topics can be clearly linked to the research objectives, and this linking has been identified. The final section of the chapter is the questionnaire results; these are presented in tables and are also arranged and discussed by topic.

THE QUALITATIVE COLLECTION CYCLE

THE INTERVIEW PHASE

Various members of stakeholder groups (including ENZT staff, YES regional coordinators, and ENZT trustees) were interviewed during this phase. In total 22 interviews were carried out with: two ENZT trustees, two ENZT staff members, 16 regional coordinators (all but one), and two teachers. Half (11) of these interviews were carried out in person and eight by phone. The remaining three interviewees elected to respond to the researcher in writing. One of the limitations of this phase was the researcher's inability to carry out all the interviews in person, but as the previous chapter outlined time and financial constraints made this impossible. The mixing of interview methods was seen as less of an issue than missing the opportunity to collect valuable data.

Some basic information was obtained about the regional coordinators who were interviewed and it is appropriate to present that data here. The average length of service of the 16 coordinators interviewed was 3.5 years. The longest duration of service was 8 years (by two coordinators), while 3 had only become involved in the last year. Four of the coordinators treated the role as a job (e.g. were employed by the ENZT or a Chamber of Commerce that was involved with YES) while the remainder were involved voluntarily. The regions for which coordinators were responsible varied geographically

and in YES participation levels. The numbers of schools, teams and students that coordinators were responsible for ranged from 3 – 45 schools, 4 – 55 teams, and 25 – 550 students. Five coordinators reported that participation in their region was up on last year, four reported it was down, and three said it was the same.

THE OBSERVATION PHASE

One team was observed intermittently during the duration of the YES. The team came from a single sex, girl's school in the Wellington region and comprised 12 students. The researcher was present at 15 of their meetings (approximately half of those held) and observed their display at the Wellington Trade Fair. Being present at meetings allowed the researcher to observe various aspects of the scheme in action, including the team's: decision about a product, production of that product, marketing of the product, discussion about the roles of director, teacher and mentor, and the planning of YES activities.

Several other YES teams in the Wellington region were observed on a less regular basis. They included one team of four students from a co-educational school and a team of five boys from a single-sex school. A team in the Northland region was also visited (11 girls from a single sex school). These one-off observations occurred principally to provide contrast to the team being regularly observed, and ensure that the researcher had a wide understanding of how the YES is facilitated.

The role of the observation phase was to assist in the formulation of the questionnaire, identify concepts for a focus group, and contribute to the researcher's tacit knowledge of the YES. Therefore, the observation did not produce the type of 'results' that are suitable for inclusion in this type of chapter. By contrast, in this type of evaluation what the researcher learned is implicit in the execution and results of later data collection phases. Also the observations made of several YES teams are not generalisable as typical representations of how the YES is implemented in each school or region.

THE FOCUS GROUP PHASE

One focus group was carried out for the purpose outlined in the previous chapter on research design. Eleven students from the YES team which was the primary research partner in the observation phase participated in the one-off focus group.

The results to report from the observation (as mentioned earlier) and focus group phases of the project are somewhat different in nature to the data gathered from other phases. This is because their main purpose was to ensure that the questionnaire was grounded in the experience of the research participants and formulated using ‘authentic’ language so as to gather the highest quality data. The issues discussed with focus group members have been incorporated into the following results write-up, which is arranged by topic. For the sake of consistency those interviewed and those involved in the focus group (participants in a ‘group interview’) are both referred to as interviewees.

RESULTS FROM THE QUALITATIVE CYCLE

WHAT IT MEANS TO ‘BE ENTERPRISING’

Interviewees were asked to describe what it meant to them to ‘be enterprising’. These descriptions were then grouped and the frequency that each was mentioned was recorded. Figure 4.1, on the following page, displays the descriptors and the frequency of their use. The results are displayed so as to show the differences between the perceptions of students (focus group members) and adult stakeholders (interviewees) as to what ‘being enterprising’ means.

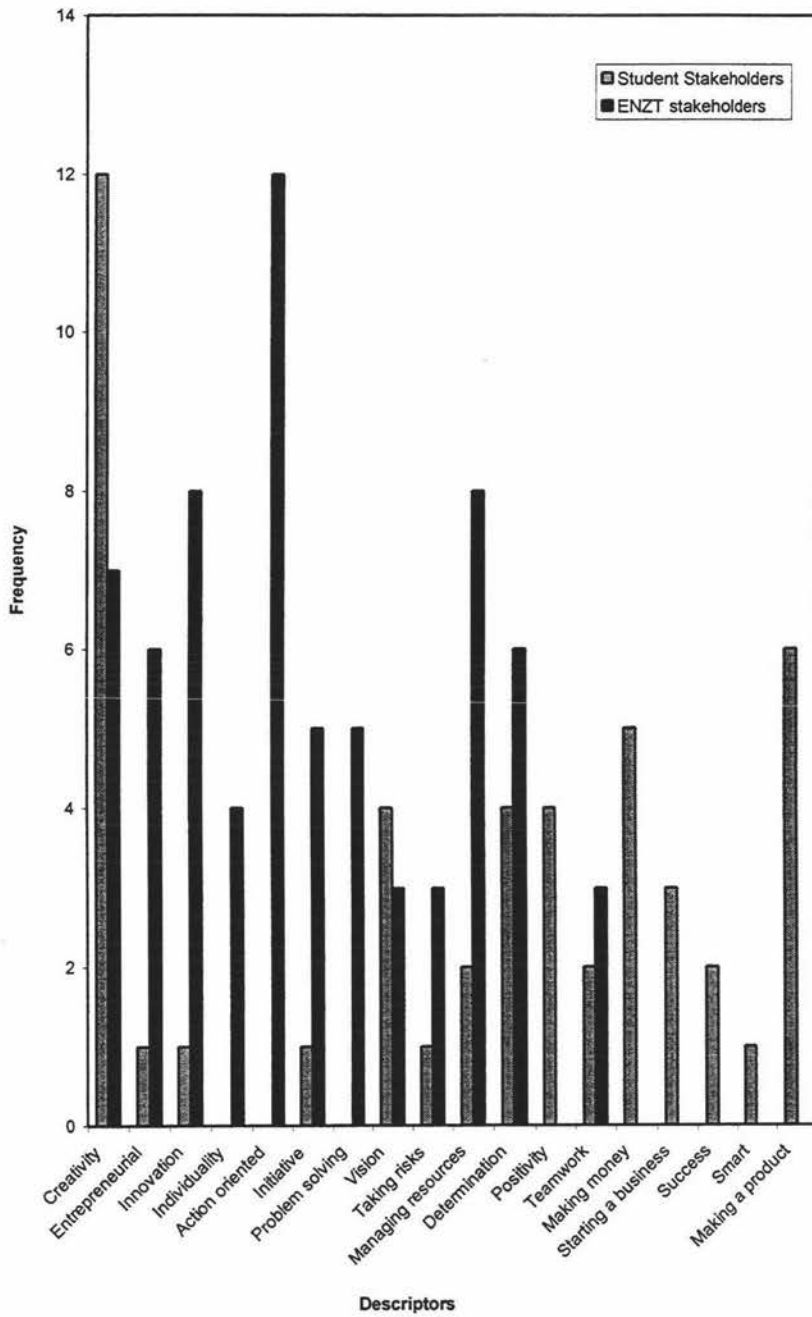
‘IDEAL’ YES TEACHERS, MENTORS & REGIONAL COORDINATORS

Interviewees were asked to describe the skills and knowledge that would be ‘ideal’ for the roles of YES mentor, teacher in charge of YES, and ENZT regional coordinator. One interviewee felt that one quality that was common to all roles was belief: “*you can’t motivate people to do anything if you don’t believe in it*”.

Another expressed the opinion that:

“Sometimes I think people make the YES too complex, it is really simple. Kids come together, they make a product and then they get out and sell it. Everything else is just fluff. We need to retain the focus on what the programme is really all about. We don’t have to teach the kids, they will teach themselves”.

Figure 4.1: Perceptions of what it means to ‘be enterprising’



REGIONAL COORDINATORS

Some interviewees were very specific in what they described as being ‘ideal’ in terms of a regional coordinator, whilst others took a more general approach. There was also a great deal of diversity in the responses. Several interviewees felt that their perceptions of the role of regional coordinators differed from those of the ENZT management. One

interviewee said that while she saw the role of a coordinator as being predominantly concerned with liaison and motivation, the ENZT staff in contrast saw it as being administrative in nature.

The majority of interviewees stressed that with the present level of resources, and the fact the ENZT is based in Wellington, the local coordinator role is essential. This was seen as especially critical while the YES is centrally administered. Many of those interviewed described the value of the role of regional coordinators in building relationships within the regions, which also contributes to regional diversity

Communication skills were seen by half the interviewees as crucial for a regional coordinator, and a similar number felt 'people skills' were important, particularly the ability to relate to young people.

Almost half the interviewees felt that a regional coordinator should come from a business background, and two people emphasised that it should be a small business background. Time management and organisational skills were described as vital for an effective regional coordinator by over half the interviewees. Interviewees also mentioned the need for professionalism, problem solving skills and patience. One interviewee described a regional coordinator as needing to take an 'enterprising' rather than 'managerial' approach

A number of interviewees felt that experience in the education sector would serve a coordinator well. However, a corresponding number did not see this as being a necessary strength.

Passion was described as crucial in assisting a regional coordinator to be effective. This was described by many interviewees as a belief in the YES scheme and what it can do for participants, whilst for others it was enthusiasm (for four interviewees), the ability to motivate (for four interviewees), positivity, the ability to sell an idea, and a willingness to offer beyond what is expected of you. While the majority of interviewees described 'the ideal regional coordinator' in terms of a set of skills, one interviewee felt there was little merit in standardising the skills that a coordinator should have "*as coordinators have different backgrounds anyway*". For some attitude was "*more important than skills or background*".

TEACHERS

The dominant topic relating to what is 'ideal' for teachers in charge of YES expressed by nearly all interviewees was that teachers involved in YES do not have to be teachers of economics or other business related subjects (*"a teacher in any subject can be a YES teacher"*). Several interviewees felt that two teachers from different subject areas working together may be effective.

As with coordinators, enthusiasm and the ability to motivate were viewed by a large number of interviewees as crucial for YES teachers. *"They [teachers] need to be passionate about their involvement, and see the YES as an opportunity to add value to the curriculum"*.

A belief in student-centred learning was described as vital for teachers by a number of interviewees, and nearly half the interviewees specifically said that it included letting students take the responsibility and the risk. *"In some cases teachers aren't prepared to do that so the students don't get all they can out of it"*. Several participants also described this as teachers maintaining a balance between *"running it and staying out of it"*. This included working with, rather than against, the YES mentor involved with their team.

A number of interviewees were of the opinion that YES teachers need business experience in order to be effective, need to be practical and use common sense, and have the time to commit to the scheme. A similar number of interviewees felt that teachers new to YES need an 'operating rationale', so they can establish how to facilitate YES effectively in their environment. Some interviewees also felt that it was important that teachers took the time to find out what it was the students wanted to get out of their YES experience, instead of assuming that all students were oriented toward profit-making and winning.

MENTORS

There were many similarities between the qualities described as 'ideal' for regional coordinators and those that were raised when mentors were discussed with interviewees.

Interviewees most frequently mentioned empathy and an interest in working with young people when ‘ideal’ YES mentors were discussed. Over half the interviewees felt these qualities were what would help make a mentor most effective.

A business background was also described as important, and a small business background was seen as most relevant by numerous interviewees. Specialty or professional skills were also seen as an asset. One interviewee described the role of a YES mentor as “*addressing the knowledge needs of the teacher and students*”.

Enthusiasm and passion for the YES scheme was also seen as vital by several interviewees. For one interviewee this was “*more important than business experience because they [mentors] can always access extra advice in a specialist area for their YES team*”.

Having the time to commit and behaving ethically were the other most dominant responses made by interviewees (a third) in relation to what was ‘ideal’ for mentors. Several interviewees also felt communication skills were essential, as was the ability to stand back and respond positively if the students failed.

BARRIERS FACED BY REGIONAL COORDINATORS

Interviewees were asked to describe the barriers they perceived regional coordinators face in their role. The barriers that were described centred around four topics (sourcing mentors, coordinator remuneration, ENZT support and training, and relationships with principals and teachers) and these are discussed in the following section of the chapter.

SOURCING MENTORS

The issues surrounding the sourcing of mentors were described by interviewees as the primary barrier for regional coordinators. Over half the interviewees expressed concern at the amount of time and effort that has to be put into sourcing and retaining good mentors. Several interviewees felt the current business climate was exerting an influence on the willingness of people to volunteer to be mentors. The frequency of instances of teams operating without mentors is also increasing, according to anecdotal accounts from interviewees (data from the questionnaire that is presented later in the chapter will support this).

A number of interviewees who were regional coordinators felt that they needed to start getting together a “*pool of contingency mentors*”, as every year more and more mentors were pulling out during the YES. Some interviewees felt that whether a team operated with a mentor or not could be influenced by the attitude of the teacher and how they run the YES in their school. Some interviewees felt that some teachers were not happy with the involvement of mentors.

A number of regional coordinators (four) who were interviewed described how their local Chamber of Commerce provided assistance in sourcing mentors, while another mentioned a link to Business in the Community (BITC) mentoring services. One interviewee felt that there was an advantage to a number of mentors being sourced from one organisation as they could support each other.

A difficulty that was mentioned by a number of regional coordinators in relation to mentors was the fact that mentor retention rates are not high, and according to interviewees the average length of service for a mentor was 2-3 years. A number of regional coordinators described how they have overcome struggling to source mentors by devolving the responsibility for this task. In several regions YES participants sourced their own mentors using their own personal networks. These networks were typically contacts of a parent who was in business or in a managerial role (“*often the students have access to people I would never have known, or thought of, as mentors*”). This strategy was seen by the regional coordinator concerned as a way of allowing the students to identify what they wanted in a mentor and then find the most appropriate person with the right skills (“*they don't tend to go for motivators they are more interested in practical skills*”). Several interviewees also said that schools in their region ‘self-selected’ their own mentors, and that this was a very effective approach. The only disadvantage voiced by interviewees regarding these types of mentor selection processes was the inability of the regional coordinator to maintain any ‘quality control’. Half a dozen regional coordinators said that they used their personal networks to source mentors for YES teams in their region.

One interviewee felt that the role of mentors should be examined more closely: “*I don't see a real need for business mentors*”. Instead this interviewee thought a database of experts who could be called on at appropriate times might be more effective, acting more like a referral service.

While the majority of interviewees raised sourcing mentors as a barrier faced by regional coordinators, three coordinators themselves said they had no trouble sourcing mentors.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

Another topic that was consistently raised by interviewees regarding barriers faced by regional coordinators was the challenge in building relationships with teachers and principals. Just under half the interviewees described teachers as *“inaccessible”* and *“difficult to deal with”*. Whilst some interviewees acknowledged this was due to time pressures and heavy curriculum loads, several felt that it was related to the intense competition between schools participating in the YES.

When dealing with principals a number of interviewees commented on the ‘politics’ involved in building such relationships. Several felt that getting ‘buy in’ to YES from schools was hampered by *“school principals having an ambivalent attitude to YES”*, and the fact they see it *“as just another add on”*. One interviewee commented that this would be an ongoing barrier as teachers and principals are the ‘gatekeepers’ to the students. Another interviewee felt that perhaps it was time to consider finding another ‘point of contact’ within a school instead of the Head of the Commerce department, economics teacher, or principal.

One interviewee felt that the difficulty in establishing relationships with some principals and teachers was due to a misunderstanding about the purpose of the YES. This interviewee felt that some schools and staff see the role of the YES as teaching students to make money, rather than showing them how to exercise economic choice.

COORDINATOR REMUNERATION

The issue of coordinator remuneration as a barrier to effective regional coordination provided divided responses among interviewees. For just under half it was described as not being an issue. However, the remaining interviewees felt that remuneration should increase, and that it was an issue both for them as individuals and in relation to the success of the YES in their region.

A number of interviewees discussed the influence coordinator remuneration might play in terms of coordinator succession. Many coordinators felt that there would be a lack of

suitable replacements if they were to leave their position (*“when I hand the job on it will be hard to find someone of ‘quality’ to carry on”*), and that this is influenced by inadequate remuneration. The question of whether remuneration influences coordinator retention was also raised.

However, it is noteworthy that a number of coordinators said that whilst they were pleased to have an opportunity to express their concerns about remuneration, the level of remuneration would not stop them from wanting to be involved in the YES.

“As long as I can keep making a difference I’ll continue my involvement. I don’t need the ENZT to validate the role I play but other coordinators might”.

One coordinator expressed concern that an increase in coordinator remuneration would mean that other aspects of the YES might receive less financial resources (*“if the coordinators are getting more money I guess it is being taken away from somewhere else”*).

One interviewee specifically said that remuneration should not be calculated on a per school basis (*“the number of schools does not necessarily affect the amount of work you [a regional coordinator] have to do”*). Another interviewee felt there was merit in considering dropping the number of regions, and therefore having fewer coordinators who were better remunerated.

ENZT SUPPORT AND TRAINING

A large number of interviewees commented on the isolated context that regional coordinators work in, and that coordinators as a group only had one opportunity during the year to get together (after the National Awards at the end of the year). Many interviewees felt that the benefits of more contact between coordinators could outweigh the costs in time and resources that may be needed to facilitate such contact. One interviewee also felt that more opportunities for coordinators to communicate and exchange ideas would *“reinforce the whole concept of best practice”*, as coordinators could share strategies *“instead of feeling like they were competing against one another”*.

The majority of regional coordinators who were interviewed said they received a good level of support from the ENZT. However, three interviewees felt that the support was

only really forthcoming if there was a problem or issue to deal with. One interviewee described ENZT support as diminishing, and lamented the lack of feedback from the ENZT to coordinators (*“if the ENZT were in touch with coordinators more then the success of YES would be more self-sustaining”*).

Several interviewees felt that although the communication channels between the ENZT and coordinators were sound, they should be used more frequently, and that coordinators should take some responsibility for initiating communication. The feeling of some interviewees was that there was too much reliance on the ENZT to broker communication between coordinators and between regions. One interviewee believed that the distribution of a newsletter to coordinators from the ENZT would be useful.

Several coordinators who were interviewed felt there is no great need for coordinators to receive training from the ENZT, and one specifically felt that there is too much regional differentiation for standardised coordinator training to be of much use. However, in contrast some coordinators felt they were ‘thrown in at the deep end’ when they started and would have liked to have received more training or assistance from the ENZT. One interviewee commented, *“as a new coordinator your lack of tacit knowledge is your biggest barrier”*. Another interviewee suggested that a new coordinator could be paired with an existing coordinator for their first year so they had some support from another coordinator. Several interviewees mentioned the support they received from the Chamber of Commerce in their region, and how this supplements the support they receive from the ENZT.

INFLUENCES ON WHETHER THE YES IS SUCCESSFULLY DELIVERED

The majority of the interviewees felt that the teachers involved in YES are the biggest influence on the success of the YES. A number of interviewees felt this was because the teachers have the most contact with the students. One interviewee felt that *“there is a gap between what the ENZT feels it is giving teachers and what they are actually receiving”*. The level of support a teacher receives from their school (both tangible and intangible) was also seen as an important influence by one interviewee.

A number of interviewees commented on the importance of the contribution of regional coordinators to YES success. One interviewee also described the influence the *“factors*

inherent in a region” can have on YES success (such as the economic climate, size of the region etc.). Only one interviewee mentioned the ENZT or mentors as a significant influence on YES success.

Several interviewees felt that it is the independent commitment that the students make (when it is an extracurricular activity) that contributes significantly to the success of the YES (*“ultimately the team itself is responsible for whether they succeed in meeting their goals”*). These same interviewees felt that it would be a mistake to make YES compulsory in any way. One interviewee commented that the calibre of students involved influences the success of the YES.

BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATION FOR STUDENTS

Some interviewees were very specific in describing the benefits of participating in the YES for students, whilst others were much more general.

“The sophistication of the products we offer means the skills they can develop are complex and so not always easily measurable. But when I see kids presenting at the oral competitions, being comfortable with technology, having a sense of teamwork then I intuitively sense that the YES is successful – those feelings are most important to me”.

The dominant benefit described by interviewees (three-quarters) was the practical experience that the YES gave to students. This was seen as the primary benefit of participating in the scheme, and was amplified by the fact that the YES is not a simulation (*“exposure to real business experiences in real time”, “learning in a dynamic fashion”, and “not just paper learning”* were typical comments). *“It [the YES] offers a high quality experience that doesn’t just equate to profit, the kids learn to see the value in the disasters”*. Seeing failures as opportunities was also a benefit of YES participation that a number of interviewees mentioned.

Gaining confidence and an understanding of what it takes to work in a team were the other benefits most frequently described by interviewees. A third of interviewees also felt that students who participated in the YES benefited by learning communication skills (including public speaking skills), time management, and to take responsibility. A number of interviewees also felt students gained leadership skills, benefited from competing with other teams, learnt life skills, learnt how to make money, and how to deal with challenges positively. Several interviewees also described how the YES

showed participants how to be proactive rather than just reactive, and therefore how to be 'job creators' rather than just 'job seekers'.

A quarter of interviewees felt that students benefited from learning business skills and developing a basic understanding of what it takes to run a business (*"in formal terms that is the procedural aspects, and in informal terms it means self-discipline, how to liaise and network with others etc."*). A similar number of interviewees commented on the connections the YES allows students to make between school and real life (*"they are learning a lot that can be put into practice for the rest of their life – unlike most of what else they are learning at school"*).

A number of interviewees commented that the benefits of participating in the YES for students were more about personal development (*"the self-worth it [the YES] engenders*) than acquiring business skills. One interviewee felt that the biggest benefit of participating in the YES would be if students were stimulated by YES to go away and do further study and then *"bring knowledge and enthusiasm back to their region"*.

"Many kids start the scheme with the idea that they can become a millionaire by the time they are 21, the scheme shows them that the reality is that it might take them until they are 61! They rethink the scale of their ambition, it is better that they learn to be realistic and settle on achievable goals".

THE YES AND THE CAREER INTENTIONS AND EMPLOYABILITY OF PARTICIPANTS

"I've heard through other coordinators that the scheme can improve their [the students'] employability. I guess their participation shows a 'can do' attitude and that they are keen to learn, from their mistakes as well as their successes".

A third of interviewees felt that the YES experience could influence what students choose to do later in life. Several felt that participating in the YES can help students narrow or broaden their study and career options by helping them establish what they do and don't like, and what they can and can't do (particularly by giving them the chance to try out different functional roles - e.g. marketing).

Half a dozen interviewees also commented that detailing participation in the YES on a student's Curriculum Vitae might also assist him or her in demonstrating to employers

the range of their skills and experience, and that they he or she has related their learning to something practical.

Several interviewees felt that YES participation makes students more receptive to self-employment as an option (*“realistically students don’t leave school to go straight into self-employment but if it is something they choose to do later then they have a base of experience”*). One interviewee felt that YES helps instil in students a work ethic that makes them more employable and an awareness of the importance of profit.

One interviewee felt there was *“no evidence that the YES directly influences the career intentions of student participants – though I would hope that it does”*, and a couple did not know what influence the YES may have on the career intentions and employability of students.

THE PROFILE OF THE YES

Half the interviewees perceived the YES as having a good profile in their community or region. Good media coverage was a contributing factor, and a number of interviewees described how a positive profile assisted the sourcing of mentors. Several interviewees commented that the perceptions of the merit of the scheme seemed to influence the level of acceptance it has in the community.

Several interviewees said that the profile of the YES could be improved by changing the way the scheme is marketed (*“the ENZT ask the kids to market their products but it doesn’t seem to market itself”*). One interviewee felt it would be better if the scheme was marketed directly to the students, while another said that involving New Zealand icons may help boost the YES’s profile. Several coordinators felt they had inadequate marketing tools to help boost the profile of the scheme in their region. Others suggested that if they had more vivid marketing tools they could demonstrate YES success stories more successfully, and compete with other schemes for young people that market themselves more effectively than the YES.

One interviewee thought that the YES needs to be marketed with a rationale that focuses on the reciprocity angle of the scheme - what students, schools, businesses, and communities can do for each other by being involved in the YES (*“we can’t expect people to be involved for no return, or just the intrinsic value of it [the YES]”*).

THE FUTURE OF THE YES

"It [the YES] is a wonderful scheme and it is only in its infancy. If we go about it in the right way and nurture it I believe it will grow."

The majority of interviewees felt that the YES has a positive future, but that some changes may make it more appealing.

"In 20 years time the YES concept will be just as valuable. But it will need to evolve to recognise the different learning and communication processes kids use today".

Several interviewees felt that having mixed age level teams was something to be encouraged, particularly as it gives many of the younger students a chance to participate in the scheme again (*"which can give a degree of continuity that is positive"*). Opinion over the most suitable age to participate in the YES varied. One interviewee felt that involving students in the third or fourth form was too early while another felt that currently YES comes *"a bit late in school life"*.

"Government support, not necessarily involvement, is crucial for the future of the YES".

This quote from one interviewee illustrates a topic that was raised often by interviewees: the involvement of government in the future of the YES. The majority of interviewees who raised the issue felt that government involvement might threaten the individuality that the YES is built on by regulating the scheme (i.e. *"may curtail the enterprising nature of the programme"*), and threaten the ENZT's position of independence. However, several interviewees felt that endorsement of the YES by the Ministry of Education would be advantageous and the aim should be for the YES to be brought in as part of the curriculum.

One interviewee also felt that government involvement in the YES may compromise the involvement of businesses: *"If the government moves in the sponsors will move out, businesses will not want to be involved in something that is the realm of the government. To them [business] enterprise and the government are not necessarily congruent ideas"*. Another interviewee felt that including the YES in the curriculum would not strengthen its position; instead it would ensure the loss of the scheme's 'point of difference'. Several interviewees also felt that sponsors would not remain involved in the scheme if the government took some role in funding the YES (*"they would no longer see the same need for their sponsorship dollars"*) and that the viability of the

YES may be threatened with every change of government. One interviewee felt that the amount of sponsorship the ENZT currently received was hampered by a lack of awareness of the role of the ENZT, both as a charitable trust and as a provider of enterprise education. The role of the ENZT was also blurred because of the perception society has of education being the role of the state.

Numerous interviewees commented that the future of the YES will be under threat if it is not promoted more effectively. While the content of the scheme itself was not an issue for interviewees, the lack of recognition it gets certainly was. This concern with YES promotion and marketing extended to how schools were approached as well (*“sending a batch of paper out puts it in the category of junk mail”*). Several interviewees also felt that maintaining and encouraging regional diversity in terms of YES facilitation was important for the future of the YES. One interviewee also felt that the ENZT lacked a vision, and that affected its ability to market itself, and therefore the YES, effectively.

A number of interviewees commented that the changing education environment presents new challenges for promoting the YES, particularly with schools in many regions competing to attract students. One interviewee expressed concern at instances where schools were picking their ‘best’ students to make up YES teams: *“it should be the experience that is important, not the school winning prizes”*. The origins of the scheme were not seen as being congruent with the current attitudes of some teachers and schools.

Several interviewees brought up the issue of sponsorship in relation to the future of the YES. One interviewee felt that sponsorship within the regions, or closer links with existing sponsors in the regions, might be more effective than centralised, or overall, sponsorship. Another interviewee questioned the relevance of many of the current sponsors, and what the ENZT actually got out of those partnerships. However, one interviewee was against introducing any more regionally oriented initiatives (*“I think the bigger picture should always take precedence over achieving regional excellence”*) and was instead in favour of the ENZT focusing on how to ensure that the success of the YES is self-sustaining.

IDEAS FOR THE ENZT

“It would be useful if there was information disseminated about a top team, a model of excellence to benchmark against”.

As the quote above illustrates, the interviews provided an opportunity for many of the stakeholders to express ideas that they felt might be relevant for their region, other regions, or for the ENZT. The best way to deal with these seemed to be to group them as a topic and include them in this results chapter.

Many ideas were centred on the issue of YES mentors (*“I would like some new ideas on how to source and keep mentors”*). Several interviewees felt that involving more retired people as mentors could be worthwhile, but one interviewee commented that this may *“turn the kids off”*. Conversely one interviewee felt that trying to involve graduates from the ‘big corporates’ could be an effective strategy. Sending mentors to different schools (rather than just using their talents in one school environment only) was an idea raised by another interviewee

Communication between stakeholding groups was another topic raised by interviewees, both in relation to different methods (using electronic communication more) and frequency (there was a feeling that there is a lack of regular feedback from the ENZT). One interviewee thought it would be worthwhile to investigate how regional coordinators could communicate directly with the student Managing Directors. The interviewee felt the main advantage of this type of approach was that it would circumvent the involvement of teachers in that communication loop. Publicising the YES in *“the sorts of media that the age group they are targeting are exposed to”* was also seen as a worthwhile idea. A number of interviewees also felt that an overhaul of the ENZT website may have benefits for YES promotion and uptake. While the website was seen as adequate one interviewee gave this description: *“the ENZT website is pretty ordinary, there are no moving bits, no music, nothing to draw people in – but it is better than it was”*.

Throughout discussions of the topics described in the results chapter the majority of interviewees have described aspects of regional diversity positively. However, a number of interviewees did feel that there is too much regional individuality. One interviewee saw this diversity as hampering the ENZT’s ability to run and market the YES effectively. The current regional approach to YES facilitation was described by the same

interviewee as being similar to a franchise approach to business, but without the “*benchmarks or bases of comparison*”. As the product (the YES) varies from region to region the interviewee felt that the ENZT were not able to market a ‘single product’. The development of a comprehensive set of YES facilitation guidelines was described as one way of addressing this issue.

Following what past YES participants were doing was also seen as a valuable activity for the ENZT to undertake by a number of interviewees. This was seen as a potentially effective way of monitoring the impact of the YES, and in communicating success stories to promote the scheme (“*especially if they [past participants] say their starting point was the YES!*”). However, one interviewee felt there was little merit in this idea (“*We’ll never know how successful we have been because it [YES success] is impossible to measure*”).

Several interviewees felt that the ENZT could ‘free up’ the YES to make participation “*less onerous*”. Having “*levels of participation*” was seen by some interviewees as a way of encouraging students and schools in lower socio-economic areas to participate in the YES (“*giving options gives [the students] chances for an experience rather than the probability of not having any experience at all*”. “*Let’s focus on entirely on the middle word of YES – it is enterprising not winning*”). YES books and materials were also seen by a number of interviewees as being “*imposing and not user-friendly*”. One interviewee thought a brightly coloured binder with practical dividers etc. would be more useful and stimulating.

Making links with other educational institutions in the regions was an idea put forward by one interviewee. This interviewee, with the help of the ENZT, has made a link with a tertiary institution in his region, which is proving very useful. All the YES teams within that region are involved in seminars facilitated by an academic at a tertiary institution. This gives the teams a chance to interact and network, instead of being competitively isolated.

THE QUANTITATIVE COLLECTION CYCLE

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

As outlined in the previous chapter teachers at all 162 schools listed on the ENZT database as registered YES participants in 2001 were sent an invitation to participate in

this phase of the project. The preliminary form that was distributed asked teachers to indicate how many questionnaires they would like to receive on behalf of their students. Eighty-five teachers responded to the form (a 52% response rate) and indicated that they would receive questionnaires on behalf of 1,016 students, this represented 57% of the total number of students participating in the YES in 2001. Of the 85 teachers 55 returned questionnaires, which equated to 517 responses from the 1,016 questionnaires that were distributed (a 51% response rate) which represents 29% of all 2001 YES participants. Responses were received from all of the 17 regions defined by the ENZT, as Figure 4.2 depicts.

The drop between the number of teachers who agreed to distribute questionnaires (85) and the number who actually did so (55) was attributed to a number of circumstances. Firstly, a number of teachers indicated via the preliminary form that their YES teams had ‘folded’ during the year, or since the preliminary form had been distributed. Secondly, some teachers indicated that they had had trouble getting questionnaires back from students (ethically the researcher could not approach students directly so the effect of this on response rates had been considered). Thirdly, the timing of internal examinations also meant some teachers were unable to distribute questionnaires to students. As the timing of such exams is particular to each school the researcher had a limited ability to predict this, and avoid it.

Figure 4.2: Responding schools categorised by region.

Region	Schools who returned questionnaires	Schools involved
Auckland	12	41
Otago	6	10
Bay of Plenty	5	7
Hawkes Bay	5	10
Waikato	4	11
Nelson	4	5
Manawatu/Horowhenua/Wanganui	4	11
Canterbury/	4	8
Wellington	2	17
Wairarapa	2	4
Northland	2	14
South Canterbury	1	3
Rotorua	1	2
Gisborne	1	3
Southland	1	6
Taranaki	1	7
Whakatane	1	3
Total	56	162

As Figure 4.3 illustrates teachers at 14 schools (25.5% of the 55 who returned questionnaires) indicated that they had a YES team or teams operating without a mentor.

Figure 4.3: Teams operating without a YES mentor

Team/s operating without a mentor	Frequency
No	37
Yes	14
NR	4
Total	55

RESULTS FROM THE QUANTITATIVE CYCLE

The questionnaire was divided into 5 sections and the section headings that were used in the questionnaire are also used here. A copy of the questionnaire is attached as Appendix D. Where appropriate quotes from questionnaire respondents have been included (these are presented in italics).

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The first section of the questionnaire asked respondents to state their age, their year at school, and whether they had taken part in the YES before.

Figure 4.4: The age of YES respondents

Age	Frequency	Year	Frequency
15	4	10	1
16	219	11	18
17	224	12	347
18	67	13	142
Adult	1		
NR	2	NR	9
Total	517		517

Figure 4.4 shows that the majority of respondents were aged 16 (219) or 17 (224), this equated to a mean age of 16.7 years. Three hundred and forty-seven respondents (61%) were in Year 12 (6th form).

Figure 4.5: Previous participation in the YES

Previous Participant	Frequency	Percentage
No	453	88%
Yes	64	12%
Total	517	100%

Respondents were also asked if they had ever had participated in the YES before. As Figure 4.5 illustrates, of the 517 respondents 64 (12%) had participated before.

ENTERPRISING ROLE MODELS

In this section of the questionnaire respondents were asked whether they knew anyone who runs their own business.

As Figure 4.6 illustrates 431 (83%) indicated that they did. Those that indicated that they did know someone who ran their own business were then asked to identify their relationship to that person, or persons.

Figure 4.6: Knowledge of people who run their own business by YES participants

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	431	83%
No	85	16%
NR	1	0%
Total	517	100%

As Figure 4.7 shows 219 respondents said it was a parent, 218 said it was a family friend, while 221 said it was a relative who was not a parent. Ninety-six respondents said they had a personal friend who ran their own business, and 11 had a self-employed sibling. Respondents were asked to describe their relationships in terms of the five categories provided, and could tick as many categories as were applicable, which means the total in Figure 4.7 exceeds 517.

Figure 4.7: Relationships with people who run their own business

Response	Frequency
Other relative	221
Parent	219
Family friend	218
Personal friend	96
Sibling	11
Total	765

YOUR YES EXPERIENCE

In the third section of the questionnaire respondents were asked questions specifically about their YES experience. This section aimed to find out whether students were participating voluntarily or as an in-class activity, how they thought the YES had affected their chances of getting a job, what they liked least and most about participating in the scheme, and whether they would like to have had the opportunity to continue running their YES company after the scheme's conclusion.

Figure 4.8 shows that 284 (55%) of students take part in the YES as an elective activity, while 221 respondents (43%) participate as part of a class they take (typically accounting or economics). Twelve students (2%) did not respond to this question.

When asked if they felt the YES had improved their chances of getting a job 73% of respondents (378) said they felt it had, as Figure 4.9 illustrates. Only 137 respondents (27%) felt that their YES experience had not enhanced their chances of getting a job. Two students did not respond to this question.

Figure 4.8: The nature of YES participation

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Elective	284	55%
In class activity	221	43%
NR	12	2%
Total	517	100%

Figure 4.9: Student perceptions of the impact of the YES on their employment chances

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	378	73%
No	137	26%
NR	2	0%
Total	517	100%

Those 378 students who indicated that they felt the YES had enhanced their employability were then asked to select from a list of seven statements those that most accurately reflected how they thought their employment chances had specifically been improved by YES participation. These statements were derived from data gathered in the focus group and observation phases of the qualitative data gathering cycle, described earlier in the chapter.

Learning business related skills was how 250 students felt the YES had enhanced their employment chances. Two hundred and forty-nine students also felt that including their YES participation on their Curriculum Vitae would also boost their chances of securing a job. The development of personal skills (175 responses), the opportunity to put learning into practice (146 responses), and proof of the ability to interact with adults outside the school environment (130 responses) were also seen by respondents as ways in which the YES had impacted on their employability. A number of students also indicated that the YES had broadened their employment horizons by allowing them to

try new things and consider different career options (124 responses), including heightening their awareness of employment opportunities in the self-employment sector (99 responses).

Figure 4.10: Specific student perceptions of the impact of YES on their employability

Response	Frequency
I have learnt business related skills	250
It will look good on my CV	249
I have developed personal skills	175
I have put learning into practice	146
I can show employers that I have interacted with adults outside the school environment	130
By trying new things I have broadened my career options	124
I am more aware of opportunities in the self-employment sector	99

Respondents were also asked to describe in their own words what they liked most and least about participating in the YES. These responses were grouped into the categories illustrated in Figures 4.11 and 4.12.

Figure 4.11: What respondents described liking most about participating in the YES

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Group interaction/often with new people	127	25%
The chance to see what being in business is like for real	109	21%
The 'doing' side of things (making & selling the product)	77	15%
Learning business skills	54	10%
Making money	36	7%
Doing things that adults do	20	4%
The opportunity to try something new	18	3%
It was fun	15	3%
Other	13	3%
Interacting with other teams	12	2%
Nothing	5	1%
Everything	3	1%
NR	28	5%
Total	517	100%

A significant number of respondents (127, or 25%) liked the group interaction aspect of YES participation the most, particularly as being in a YES team often gave them the chance to interact with people they might not have otherwise met. One hundred and nine respondents (21%) described 'the chance to see what being in business is like for real' as what they enjoyed most about participating in the YES. Many respondents 77 (15%) described various aspects of making and selling the product as the part of the YES they enjoyed the most, several described this as 'the doing side of things'. *"I liked watching*

the product develop – from the market research to revealing our product at the school launch”.

The opportunity to learn business skills (54 responses) (“it [the YES] teaches you life-long, valuable business skills that you don’t really learn from other subjects”), and the opportunity to make money (36 responses) were also enjoyable aspects of the scheme mentioned by respondents.

Having the chance to do things that adults do (without the risks) (20 responses), the opportunity to try something new (18 responses), having fun (15), and meeting members of YES teams from other schools and regions (12) were other likable aspects of the YES described by respondents. Thirteen respondents described aspects of YES that did not fit the dominant categories, these were classed as ‘other’ and included: the competitive nature of the YES, learning what not to do in business situations, and getting feedback from the public on their product.

Five respondents said there was nothing they enjoyed about their YES experience, while three respondents said they enjoyed everything about participating in the YES. Twenty-eight students did not respond to this question.

Figure 4.12: What respondents described liking least about participating in the YES

Response	Frequency	Percentage
It takes up too much time	141	27%
Dysfunctional group dynamics	138	27%
YES administration issues	59	11%
Stress	27	5%
Nothing	20	4%
Making our own product	17	3%
When the company fails	13	3%
We were still treated as kids	7	1%
Public speaking	7	1%
Everything	7	1%
Other	13	3%
NR	68	13%
Total	517	100%

Just over a quarter of participants (27%, 141 respondents) described the amount of time the YES took up as the thing they liked least about participating in the scheme. Some students felt the amount of time required to participate effectively meant they had too much time away from their other hobbies and schoolwork. There were also some students who felt that as an in-class activity the YES required too much ‘out of class

time' commitment. A similar number (27%, 138 respondents) described varying situations within their YES teams as negative. These were grouped into the category of dysfunctional group dynamics and included: unfair division of work (some team members not doing their fair share), conflict, poor communication between team members, and having to motivate other team members. Another category that emerged from respondents' descriptions of what they liked least about YES participation related to aspects of the YES regulated by the ENZT. These types of YES 'administration issues' were mentioned by 59 students (11%) and included: poor communication between the ENZT and directors, poor attendance by team mentors, the frequency and inappropriate timing of deadlines, the poor definition of the role of directors by the ENZT, and the type of assessments required.

Other negative aspects of YES participation described by students included: stress (20 responses), having to make your own product (17 responses), the consequences of your company failing (13 responses), having to speak in public (7 responses), and still being treated like kids (7 responses). A number of responses did not fit within the categories that emerged and were grouped as 'other'. These 13 responses included: having to rely on other people and having to take direction from peers. Seven students said they disliked everything about participating in the YES scheme, whilst 20 disliked nothing about their YES experience (*"Nothing because even the bad things have been great learning experiences"*). Sixty-eight students did not respond to this question.

The final question in this section of the questionnaire asked students whether they would like the opportunity to continue running their YES company when the scheme concluded or when they left school. As Figure 4.13 illustrates 66% (339 students) said they would not wish to continue running their YES team outside the confines of the scheme. However, 33% (172 students) said they would like that opportunity.

Figure 4.13: Whether students wished to continue running their YES company

Response	Frequency	Percentage
No	339	66%
Yes	172	33%
NR	6	1%
Total	517	100%

WHAT IT MEANS TO BE ENTERPRISING

The next section of the questionnaire asked respondents a number of questions about what they thought it meant to 'be enterprising' and how the YES may have shown students how to be enterprising.

Figure 4.14: Students' perceptions of what it means to be enterprising

Response	Frequency
Being innovative	203
Turning an idea into a business	108
Being committed	88
Making money	87
Executing business processes	87
Running your own business	87
Taking risks	86
Managing	54
Teamwork	51
Being smart	45
Having fun and being adventurous	31
Taking responsibility for decisions	29
Being entrepreneurial	19
Being successful	17
Being independent	15
Looking to the future	14
Other	37
NR	78
Total	1136

Students were asked to use three words or phrases to describe what 'being enterprising' meant to them. Figure 4.14 depicts the grouping of these responses. 'Being innovative' was the most popular description used by respondents (203) to express what it means to be enterprising (responses of 'being original', 'being creative' and 'using your imagination' were also included in this grouping). Turning an idea into a business venture was the next most popular description of what it meant to be enterprising with 108 responses. The next most popular description of what it meant to be enterprising was being committed (88 responses). Making money, executing business processes (including marketing, production and selling) and running your own businesses were all used by 87 respondents. Eighty-six respondents thought being enterprising involved taking risks. The remaining descriptions of what it was to be enterprising were: managing (54 responses), teamwork (51 responses), being smart (45 responses), having fun and being adventurous (31 responses), taking responsibility for making decisions

(29 responses), being entrepreneurial (19 responses), being successful (17 responses), being independent (15 responses) and being oriented to the future (14 responses).

Thirty-seven students responded with descriptions that were grouped in the 'other' category. These included: learning from your mistakes, putting theory into practice, solving problems, doing what is right, being dedicated and hard working, being a leader, being confident and being competitive. This question had a high non-response rate (78); which could be attributed to students not being inclined to complete open-ended questions.

As Figure 4.15 illustrates 63% (325) of respondents felt the YES had shown them how to be more enterprising, only 34% (177) felt that the scheme had not done so. The 325 students who felt the YES had taught them how to be more enterprising were then asked to describe *how* they thought the scheme had done so.

“No co-operation, it falls apart. No commitment, it falls apart. No initiative, it falls apart”.

Figure 4.15: Whether students felt the YES showed them how to be more enterprising

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	325	63%
No	177	34%
NR	15	3%
Total	517	100%

Figure 4.16 shows the responses made (most students made multiple responses to this question).

“Going out into the real business world has made all of us realise how much we didn't know.

Teaching them business skills and knowledge was how 146 students felt the YES had shown them how to be more enterprising. (*“It [the YES] has made me more aware of different business opportunities and also how to meet the demands of the consumer in an innovative way”.*) Specific skills and knowledge mentioned included handling money, preparing budgets, marketing, dealing with customers, writing business documents, and running meetings.

Seventy students felt they had become more enterprising by being shown how to turn an idea into a viable business venture, whilst 51 students felt the YES had helped them develop personal skills that made them more enterprising. (*“I have discovered an inner confidence I did not know I had”.*)

Demonstrating that taking a risk was not always negative (26 responses), the opportunity to be creative (22 responses), that problems can be advantages (18 responses), that running a business is not always easy (13 responses) and by showing how to apply theory to action (12 responses) (*“learning whilst doing and practising – which is better than paper learning”*) were also how students felt that the YES had helped them be more enterprising.

Figure 4.16: How the YES showed students how to be more enterprising

Response	Frequency
By teaching me business skills & knowledge	146
By showing me how an idea can be turned into a successful business	70
By helping me develop my personal skills	51
By giving me the opportunity to work in a group	49
By showing me that taking a risk is not always a bad thing	26
By giving me the chance to be creative	22
By showing me that problems can be advantages	18
By showing me that running a business is not easy	13
By showing me how to apply theory to action	12
Other	18
NA	180
NR	76
Total	681

A number of descriptions of how the YES had shown students how to be more enterprising made up the ‘other’ category (18 responses). These included: teaching goal setting (*“It [the YES] has taught me how to use steps to get to my dreams”*), showing students how to work effectively as a group, showing how actions have consequences, that it is not always good to rely on others to get things done, and that the YES has prompted me to consider self-employment career options (i.e. being enterprising as a career).

There were an extremely high number of responses (178) that were not directly relevant to the question asked. This may indicate a poorly worded question, but this was not picked up when the questionnaire was piloted with students. There was also a high non-

response rate (76), which appeared typical of the open-ended questions included in the questionnaire.

The final question in this section of the questionnaire asked students whether they thought it was important to encourage students to be enterprising. As Figure 4.17 illustrates 454 students (88%) felt that it was important to encourage students to be enterprising. Only 44 students (9%) felt it was not important to do so.

Figure 4.17: Should students be encouraged to be enterprising

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	454	88%
No	44	9%
NR	19	4%
Total	517	100%

YOUR FUTURE

The final section of the questionnaire asked students about their plans for the future. They were also asked to describe what impact, if any, the YES may have had on their ambitions and how likely it was that they might start their own business.

Students were asked to select the one descriptor (out of four) that most accurately reflected what they intended to do upon leaving school.

Figure 4.18: What students intended to do upon leaving school

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Undertake further study at a tertiary institution	366	71%
Travel overseas	52	10%
Look for a full time job	33	6%
Other	30	6%
NA	29	6%
NR	7	1%
Total	517	100%

As Figure 4.18 illustrates 366 students (71%) intend to undertake further study at a tertiary institution. Fifty-two students (10%) intend to travel overseas and 33 students (6%) will look for a full-time job. Thirty students ticked the 'other' category, and seven did not respond. The 29 'not applicable' responses indicate questionnaires in which respondents ticked more than one category, thereby invalidating their response to this question (as they were asked to select only one category).

Students were then asked to indicate whether the decision about what to do when they left school had been influenced at all by their YES experiences.

Figure 4.19: The influence of the YES on post school plans

Response	Frequency	Percentage
No	390	75%
Yes	119	23%
NR	8	2%
Total	517	100%

As Figure 4.19 illustrates 390 students (75%) felt their YES participation had not influenced their decision about what to do upon leaving school. The 119 students (23%) who did feel participating in the YES had influenced their plans were asked to specify *how* the experience influenced their choices. These responses are depicted in Figure 4.20.

Figure 4.20: How the YES influenced some students' post school plans

Response	Frequency
It has helped me define what I do and don't want to do (in terms of jobs & further study)	24
Opened my eyes to other career paths, especially business and self-employment	22
It has given me knowledge of what it takes to run a business	20
I want to go on and study business further	20
I now want to run my own business one day	15
Other	6
NR	12
Total	119

Twenty-four students felt their YES experience influence their choices about what to do when they finish school by helping them define what they do and don't want to do (i.e. provided them with greater clarity). *"It [the YES] has helped me define exactly what I want and can do"*.

A number of students (22) felt participating in the YES had made them more aware about opportunities for careers in business or self-employment. Being more aware of what it takes to run a business was described by 20 students as being an influence of participating in the YES. The same number of students (20) said that participating in the YES had made them want to do further study in the business or commerce area. Fifteen students said that participating in the YES scheme had definitely made them want to run their own business one day. The six responses in the 'other' category included the drive to find a way to make a lot of money, that YES skills will be relevant for any career and

therefore are influential, and that the YES had shown me how irrelevant most other aspects of school are.

All respondents were then asked to indicate, through selecting one of the options provided, how likely it was that they would want to run their own business in the future. As Figure 4.21 illustrates 88 students (17%) said ‘very likely’, 174 students (34%) thought it ‘likely’, 93 students (18%) ‘unlikely’, 30 students (6%) said ‘not at all likely’, and 120 students indicated that they ‘didn’t know’.

Figure 4.21: The likelihood of YES participants starting their own business in the future

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Very likely	88	17%
Likely	174	34%
Unlikely	93	18%
Not at all likely	30	6%
Don't know	120	23%
NR	12	2%
Total	517	100%

Respondents were then asked to describe what type of business they would run in the future if they had the opportunity, and also at what age they would like to start that venture. These results are displayed in Figures 4.22 and 4.23. The categories for the type of business were derived from ANZSIC codes (Statistics NZ, 1999).

Figure 4.22: The types of business students thought they would like to start

Business type	Frequency	Percentage
Property & business services	97	19%
Retail trade	70	14%
Accommodation, cafes & restaurants, & tourism	64	12%
Cultural & recreational services	26	5%
Health & community services	19	4%
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	10	2%
Education	8	2%
Personal & other services	7	1%
Transport & storage	6	1%
Construction	5	1%
Manufacturing	3	1%
Communication services	2	0%
NR	200	39%
Total	517	100%

In the property and business services category (including business, computing, accounting and other professional services) 97 students (19%) indicated that they would start businesses of this nature if they had the chance. Seventy students (14%) said they would start ventures in the retail trade, while 64 (12%) said they would run cafes, restaurants, accommodation or tourism businesses. Twenty-six students described wanting to start businesses in the area of cultural and recreational services (this category includes performing arts, radio and television services, sports services and facilities, and sound recording studios), 19 in the health and community services area, and 10 in either agriculture, forestry or fishing. It was expected that there would be a high non-response rate (200) to a question of this nature given the age and stage of the students completing the survey.

Students were then asked to state an age at which they would like to start their own business. As Figure 4.23 illustrates these were then grouped into age bands for the purpose of displaying the results.

Figure 4.23: The age at which students thought they would like to start a business

Age range	Frequency
15-19	12
20-24	65
25-29	177
30-34	91
35-39	53
>40	19
Total	417
Average age	28.45
NR	100

The 25-29 age band was the one that the most students (177) wanted to start a business in. The 30-34 (91 responses) and 20-24 (65) were the next most frequently cited bands. Twelve students wished to start a business before they turned 20, and 100 students did not respond to the question. The respondents gave specific ages in their questionnaire responses which the researcher then grouped into 'age bands'. Therefore, it was possible to calculate the average age at which students wanted to start a business, which was 28.45 years of age.

SUMMARY

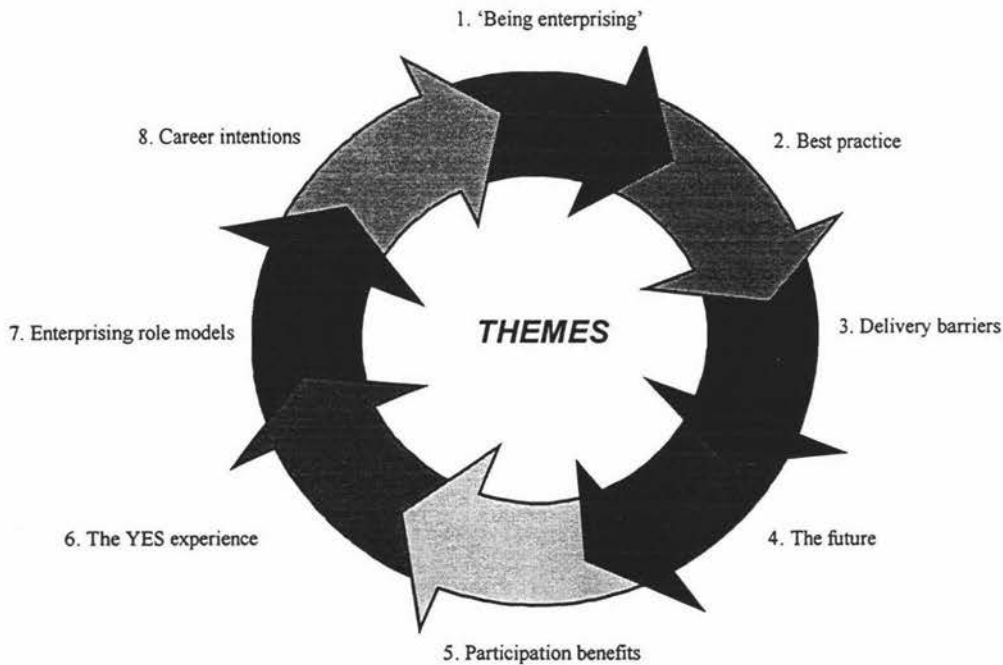
This chapter focused on presenting the results of both the qualitative and quantitative research cycles. The results were grouped by topic and were presented in both text and tabular format. The next chapter discusses these results in a thematic fashion and evaluates them in terms of the literature.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

“The evaluator should not presume that only measurable outcomes testify to the worth of the program” (Stake, 1980 in Dockrell & Hamilton, 1980, p.78).

This chapter discusses the findings of the evaluation, presented in the previous chapter, thematically and in terms of the literature. A summary of the themes, their importance and relationships is presented in Figure 5.1. Each section of this chapter is dedicated to the discussion of a theme that emerged during the data collection cycles. A theme in this chapter may incorporate a number of topics discussed in the results chapter, though some of those topics are now themes in their own right. The distinction between data collected in the qualitative or quantitative cycle has been maintained only where the cycle identified an independent theme. Where a similar topic has been brought up in each cycle the data is discussed in parallel but under the one thematic heading.

Figure 5.1: A summary of the themes that emerged from the evaluation results



THEME ONE: 'BEING ENTERPRISING': PERCEPTIONS AND IMPORTANCE

WHAT IT MEANS TO 'BE ENTERPRISING'

As the literature review illustrated (chapter two) considerable attention has been devoted to defining enterprise education. However, what it means to 'be enterprising' can

depend to a large extent on personal context and worldview. Therefore, whilst not a primary research objective, the researcher felt it was important to define what 'being enterprising' meant specifically to YES stakeholders. This allowed her to form a localised frame of reference and establish a commonality of language and definition. It also ensured that any contradictions of perspective between the literature and field definitions would be identified.

Becker (1998) described a similar endeavour (establishing what constituted 'a crock' in a medical research context) as a matter of unravelling the multiple meanings built into an apparently simple word, whilst working out the logic of what was being told to him (i.e. checking what was heard with what was seen). The researcher was able to achieve this in the evaluation by comparing what was being defined with what she saw in the observation cycle of the project. "Exchanging the conventional contents of a concept for a sense of its meaning as a form of collective action enlarges its reach and our knowledge" (Becker, 1998, p.145).

As already described in chapter four, the researcher asked stakeholders what it meant to be enterprising during the different cycles and phases of the evaluation. Whilst the answers to these questions are not directly comparable (because of the different means by which they were collected and the difference in stakeholder group size) they are discussed within the same section of this chapter as their interrelatedness is evident. The researcher found that many participants found defining what it is to 'be enterprising' difficult. Gordon McVie's (G. McVie, presentation, July 12, 2001) assertion that "defining enterprise is difficult, but that you will know it when you see it" was borne out by many of the responses. When many stakeholders were interviewed they struggled to describe what being enterprising was, but were very sure about what it was not. For example, for the respondents being enterprising is not: following a formula; being stuck in a mold; or just doing what others think you should.

As Figure 4.1 illustrated there were noticeable differences between the responses of the adult and adolescent interviewees when they were asked to describe what being enterprising meant. Interestingly the emphasis placed on an action orientation by adult stakeholders (mentioned by 12 individuals) echoes Turner's (1988) description of enterprise as a "project, undertaking or venture that requires boldness of action" (p.2).

Both groups divided their focus evenly between tangible (i.e. measurable behaviours) and intangible outcomes (i.e. beliefs). This differs from Caird and Johnson's (1988, cited in Caird, 1990b) results when they asked pupils, parents and teachers their perceptions of what constituted enterprise. The students were the ones who considered it related to a project rather than being a set of psychological attributes. In mitigation the ENZT stakeholders should be in a better position to describe 'being enterprising' in the context of their knowledge of the desired outcomes of the project. Interestingly the students have also identified both 'broad' and 'narrow' (Kenyon & White, 1996) descriptors of being enterprising

Becker (1998) argued that all terms are relational, that is, they only have meaning when they are considered as part of a system of terms. Therefore, all terms are related to other terms in the system in some way. The reason "quarrels over definition are important is that the descriptive titles that embody these concepts are seldom neutral, but rather are terms of praise or blame" (Becker, 1998, p129). Using this position it is possible to state that not one of the descriptors used by any of the stakeholders involved was directly 'negative'. However, the respondents could be inherently biased by their very involvement in the project.

Students who completed the questionnaire as part of the quantitative phase of the evaluation were also asked to describe what it meant to them to 'be enterprising' (see Figure 4.14). This data complements that gathered in other cycles, but is not directly comparable due to the different methods of collection (written cf. oral) and the size of the respondent groups (22 cf. 517). As the figure illustrated students described a wide range of attitudes and skills as constituting being enterprising for them.

Given the current heightened awareness of the role of entrepreneurship and innovation in New Zealand and internationally (as described in the introductory chapter) it is interesting to note that innovation ("being innovative") was the descriptor used most by students (203) to describe 'being enterprising'. Clearly students felt the links between enterprise and innovation were not all that tenuous. However, interestingly 'being entrepreneurial' as a proxy for being enterprising was only used by 19 students.

"Turning an idea into a business" was the next most popular phrase used to describe 'being enterprising'. Again the link between ideas (innovation) and enterprise is established. This ranked higher than "running your own business" as a descriptor, which

is noteworthy. The responses of students clearly demonstrate that their perceptions of 'being enterprising' are far more diverse than merely self-employment. They also contradict Turner's (1988) assertion that enterprise has tended to be equated with making money and developing a business in the Western economic system (i.e. in accordance with a narrow definition of enterprise education).

In the context of previous work in the area of definitions of enterprise, few investigations have provided students with an opportunity to attempt to define the concept for themselves. However, work by Henderson and Robertson (2000) that asked 19-25 year olds to define the term 'entrepreneur' are worth mentioning (and relevant given that the literature review established that the essence of entrepreneurship is enterprise). The similarities in responses between these results and the views of YES participants were few, perhaps indicative of a difference in age between the groups of respondents (19-25 years old cf. 15-18 years old) and a different national context. However, in both sets of responses taking risks, being successful, being ambitious ("looking to the future") and making money were frequently mentioned.

Apart from commenting on the nature of the questionnaire responses of YES participants, another way of looking at the results was to divide them into two groups: those that were attitudes or behaviours and those that were functional tasks (in accordance with Johnson's (1988) definitional distinction between attribute and project dimensions of enterprise education). This also gave an indication of which 'being enterprising' descriptors might be tangible. Of the 16 descriptors used by questionnaire respondents (see Figure 4.14) seven were task based, which suggests a stronger awareness of the attributes needed to be enterprising.

When analysing the descriptors used by students regarding 'being enterprising' certain patterns (i.e. groupings of respondents who used the same pairings of descriptors) began to emerge from the data. These are illustrated in Figure 5.2.

'Being innovative' was one half of all the pairs that emerged as being most popular in the data. It is interesting to note that all but one of the pairs combine being innovative with another tangible manifestation of 'being enterprising' (i.e. orientated around business processes or activities). However, the most popular combination described combining being innovative with an attitude (being committed). It would appear from the responses that students recognised the importance of innovation. If this emphasis

had emerged from the focus group the researcher would have pursued it more specifically in the questionnaire (nonetheless further investigation of what students mean by being innovative would be worthwhile).

Figure 5.2: Patterns of ‘being enterprising’ descriptors

Pattern	Frequency
Being innovative & being committed	31
Being innovative & turning an idea into a business	29
Being innovative & taking risks	29
Being innovative & executing business processes	24
Making money & being innovative	20

Becker (1998) wrote that another way to attempt to define a concept was to collect examples that we recognise as embodying what the concept refers to, and looking for commonality. Therefore, within this chapter the researcher has included three small case studies that appear to exemplify enterprising behaviour within the YES context. These cases are located in the sections of the chapter where they are most relevant and are labelled accordingly.

HOW TO BE ENTERPRISING, AND ITS IMPORTANCE

As well as defining what ‘being enterprising’ meant to them, students were asked to express whether they felt encouraging students to be enterprising was important. As Figure 4.17 illustrated 88% of students felt that being enterprising should be encouraged. The attitude this result represents is congruent with the overall nature of student descriptions of what it meant to be enterprising. While the responses were diverse they focused on identifying what could be described as the positive aspects of being enterprising, rather than expressing dislike of the concept or what it stands for. It may also suggest that students have an awareness of the connection between ‘being enterprising’ and future phases of their life. These results parallel Walstad and Kourilsky’s (1999) work (detailed in the literature review) that found that eight out of ten students surveyed thought that it was important that schools teach students about entrepreneurship and starting a business.

Sixty three percent of students felt the YES had shown them how to be more enterprising (Figure 4.15). To contribute to an understanding of *how* the process of YES participation engenders more enterprising attitudes these students were asked to go on

and describe (in their own words) how they felt the scheme had achieved that. The general character of the responses suggests a strong awareness on the part of students of *how* they had learnt what they had, and the potential impact that knowledge might have. The responses often involved complex description and were therefore not brief, which suggested that students were confident about what they had learnt and how they had received that knowledge. This awareness was valuable as many of the attitudes and skills the programme aims to foster are difficult, if not impossible, to measure. The responses also illustrate the type of positive perception of self-efficacy that Krueger and Brazeal (1994) argued enables individuals to better execute target behaviours.

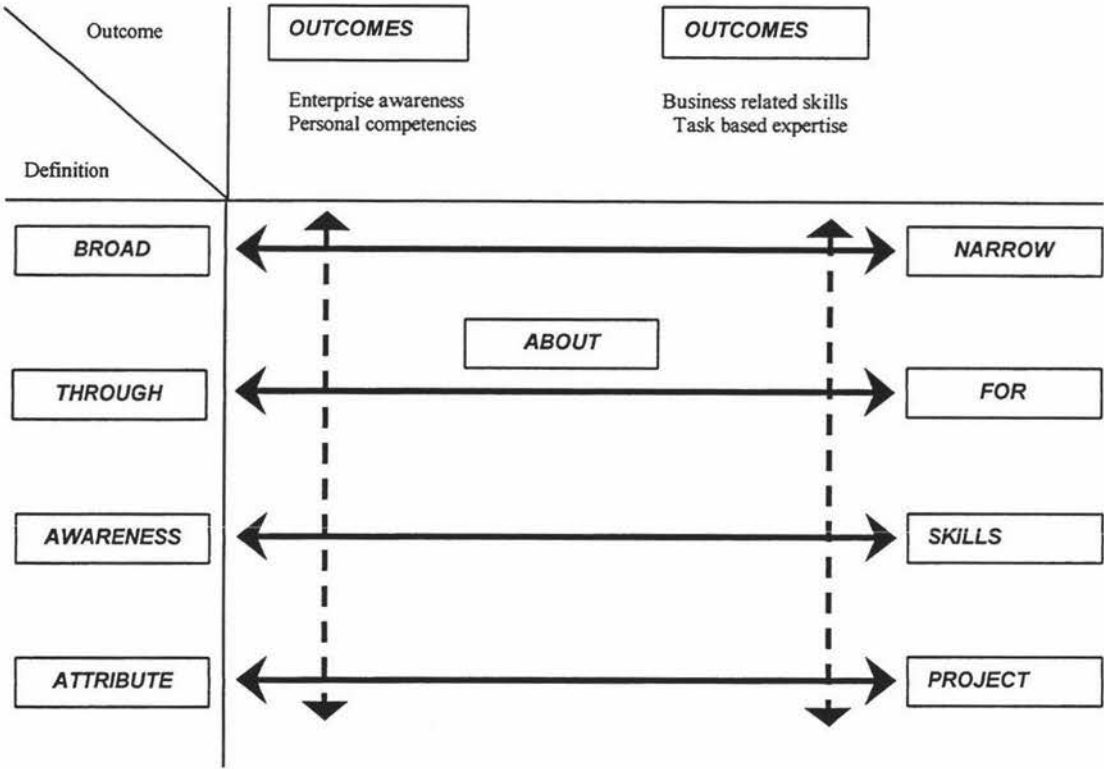
As Figure 4.16 illustrated the two primary ways students felt the YES taught them to be more enterprising was by teaching them specific, business related skills and showing them how to turn an idea into a business venture. Both of these responses relate to a narrow definition of enterprise (as discussed in the literature review chapter), but are aligned closely to the primary goals of the YES outlined by the ENZT. However, of note are the next five responses most frequently made by respondents, these were: that the YES had shown them how to be more enterprising by: helping develop their personal skills; by giving them the opportunity to work in a group, by showing them that risk is not always a bad thing, by giving them a chance to be creative, and by showing them that problems can be advantages. These responses all relate to the broad definition of enterprise education referred to in the literature review (chapter two) and illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Figure 5.3 depicts how the outcomes of enterprise education programmes can be related to the definitions that are applied to them. Clearly many programmes fall between the extremes of both definitions and outcomes but the diagram seeks to build a framework for classifying enterprise education programmes by their definition (often evident in their objectives) and the resulting outcomes. By providing a framework for classification, programme facilitators could use it as a tool to plot their own programme on the various continua, develop their own continuum that defines their programme, identify gaps in their provision, or see how balanced their objectives appear.

Kearney (1996) emphasised that the student needs to be the active agent in an enterprise education programme, which may naturally lead to a heightened awareness of the 'what' and 'how' of their own learning. This primacy of the student in the learning experience,

and resulting awareness of the personal learning process, is congruent with the experiential learning models that underpin the majority of enterprise education programmes (which will be discussed later in this chapter).

Figure 5.3: A diagrammatic classification framework for enterprise education initiatives



THEME TWO: BEST PRACTICE YES DELIVERY: INFLUENCES AND IDEALS

INFLUENCES ON YES SUCCESS

Gordon McVie (G. McVie, presentation, July 12, 2001) from Scottish Enterprise expressed the opinion that the primary goal of those delivering enterprise education should be to provide an ‘enterprise experience’, and that any emphasis on the length or quality of the experience should come later. (As an expert on Scottish enterprise education, in both theoretical and practical terms, Gordon McVie regularly shares knowledge of best practice in Scottish enterprise education with his New Zealand counterparts at the ENZT).

What emerged from the results of this research was that interviewees felt there were certain components or groups whose contributions to providing a YES experience directly contributed to its success. Interviewees saw teachers as the primary influence on whether the YES was successfully delivered. This finding parallels prior investigation into the YES by Braggins (2000) and work by Peterman (2000) on YAA in Australia. The strength of the influence could logically be a result of the fact that teachers have the most 'contact' with students and typically have established relationships with those students (giving them the capacity to provide individualised assistance). In turn the amount of tangible and intangible support a teacher receives from their school can often affect the level of influence they have.

The case study in Figure 5.4 illustrates the type of impact teachers can have on YES delivery, and is indicative of the commitments they make to the programme.

A number of interviewees also commented on the contribution made by regional coordinators and the ENZT. Interestingly a number of interviewees described "the factors inherent in a region" as influencing the success of the YES. Whilst an in-depth investigation of the differences between regions was outside the parameters of this evaluation the point is worthy of comment, and further research. Clearly the most obvious differences between regions are of a socio-economic and geographic nature. For example, a region may have a relatively small number of schools geographically dispersed in a way that makes contact from regional coordinators irregular and impedes their ability to interact with other YES teams and schools.

The individuality and commitment of the students participating in the YES was also seen as a contributor to the programme's success. This point is valid and also worthy of further investigation given the current focus in the literature on nascent entrepreneurs. Building a profile of YES participants (past and present) in terms of their extra-curricular activities, academic ability, work history, ethnicity, age, family background etc. would help the ENZT gain a better understanding of trends in participation, how to improve the programme to make it more attractive and increase uptake, and provide information that may assist drives for funding and sponsorship. Whilst the questionnaire completed by YES participants for this research addressed a number of these issues, a more in-depth focus could yield data that would make a significant contribution to the enterprise education body of knowledge in New Zealand.

Figure 5.4: Suzanne and Ken Bishop

Suzanne and Ken Bishop are two teachers whose innovative approach to facilitating the YES scheme has resulted in a joint venture between students at Columba College and King's High School in Dunedin. KABL AD-Ventures is the byproduct of Suzanne and Ken's enthusiasm for the YES scheme and their belief in what it can empower students to achieve.

With independent track records as YES teachers at their respective schools the pair decided to set in place a unique plan. With no team from their region having won an award since 1990 their goal was to create an award winning team at the end of a two-year period, the difference with this team would be that the four students and mentor would be specially selected. The criteria for inclusion in the joint venture were skill based so as to ensure the broadest range of expertise within the team as a unit. Coupled with this, the students selected needed to demonstrate a level of commitment that surpassed what may be considered the norm for the YES (i.e. commit for 2 years).

Four Year 12 students consequently committed to the joint venture concept at the end of 2000 and formed the YES company KABL AD-Ventures in 2001: Katie Lewis, Joanna Bishop, Graham Kilpatrick and Christopher Ashton. The product they are producing is a set of playing cards, with the advertising on each card having been sold to a tourist attraction in Dunedin. The Dunedin City Council has bought naming rights for the reverse side of the cards for their "I am Dunedin" campaign.

The team's mentor, Malcolm Hendry, from publishing company Wickliffe Ltd, was also invited to join the team and has contributed in a way that has exceeded the expectations of both Suzanne and Ken and the company directors. He came to mind as a suitable mentor when the Bishops heard him giving a lecture at the SCAF Forum in Dunedin and he was clearly qualified (the Business Development manager of a large organisation and with an MBA) and committed to the concept of a joint team with a clear goal.

From the early idea formulation phases through to the culmination of their year (ranking high enough to compete for National Awards) the team has worked efficiently and effectively. The hours put in by the team are anywhere between 5-20 hours a week, but no coercion is needed - everyone contributes their time because of their belief in the team and what they can achieve. Suzanne and Ken feel the KABL experience will serve the students well both in the short and long term. This is demonstrated in the skills the team has learnt this year (how to give presentations, prepare proposals and brief prospective clients) and in influencing their long-term ambitions.

With prospects of another advertising project for next year in place already, KABL looks set to maintain their momentum and their enthusiasm. The example set by Suzanne and Ken Bishop and KABL demonstrates what can be achieved when YES teachers are as enterprising as the students, and when students believe that creating a successful business will help them have an outstanding educational experience.

'IDEALS'

In order to address the research objective regarding effective delivery of YES the researcher asked interviewees to describe the 'ideal' regional coordinator, YES teacher and mentor. Typically respondents described the type of skills, attitudes and behaviours that they thought would make each individual most effective in their role. Therefore the focus within in this section is on the skills and knowledge needed for best practice, rather than best practice in terms of actually 'doing the job'.

Some described specific ideas or initiatives they had implemented so all these responses have been grouped under the heading of best practice. One interviewee specifically felt that if there were more opportunities for regional coordinators to communicate then the whole concept of best practice would be reinforced. This would also mean that the responsibility of monitoring and disseminating 'best practice' would also lie with the regional coordinators rather than the ENZT.

Whilst the ENZT disseminates guidelines for teachers, mentors and regional coordinators, assessing these was beyond the scope of this evaluation. In addition the researcher did not make reference to these when asking interviewees to describe the 'ideal' for each role, this was also seen as a way of ensuring the independence of the responses. Future research may examine the guidelines distributed to those involved in YES delivery and their effectiveness in relation to the opinions expressed in this research.

YES TEACHERS

The environment that the YES exists in within a school comprises both the physical and learning conditions that exist internally, and the greater general environment which can impact on career choices in a positive or negative manner (Hynes, 1996). Therefore, teachers have the primary role of determining the characteristics of 'the learning environment'. This environment needs to be conducive to the delivery of an enterprise experience that will have the maximum impact (i.e. be student-centred). Clearly the different schools that participate in the YES have characteristics that ensure that the learning environments of students will not be the same. However, certain action from teachers can ensure a certain consistency of experience for students.

A number of interviewees thought an important part of the role is ensuring the YES is a 'student centred' experience and that teachers let the students take the responsibility and the risk. In Cotton's (1990) vocabulary this is maintaining the role of guide and partner in the learning process rather than instructor. Enthusiasm and the ability to motivate students were also described as crucial for YES teachers for obvious reasons. The attitudes of teachers are important because they are the person in the YES delivery process who has the most contact with the students. Therefore, they have the ability to shape students' perceptions by their actions (i.e. in essence they too are role models).

A prominent opinion on the part of interviewees was that teachers who facilitate the YES do not have to be a teacher involved in either the commerce department (i.e. they don't have to be teachers of economics, business studies etc). Anecdotal evidence would suggest that the majority of teachers involved in YES delivery in New Zealand are teachers of those subjects. Some further investigation into this may be of merit to establish whether this trend is influenced by programme content or context. Work by Peterman (2000) in Australia found that teachers involved in delivering an enterprise education programme were drawn from a range of subject backgrounds.

A 'team teaching' approach to YES facilitation may be effective, particularly if the teachers came from different subject areas. The researcher makes this suggestion in response to interviewee opinions that a greater range of skills may contribute better to building an enterprise experience than an 'expert' who may feel they can take a more dominant role in the experience. This idea of two teachers working together echoes work by Keys Young (1999) in Australia that found that the awareness and attitudes of teachers were enhanced when they drew on the skills and resources of the whole school (i.e. a team teaching approach that draws on the largest possible pool of resources).

Whether teachers are delivering YES in the spirit of a narrow (business skills only) or broad (personal and enterprise skills development) fashion (as discussed in chapter two) was a concern evident in the responses of interviewees. Many felt that teachers were delivering the YES with a narrow focus on profit making and winning. The goals of students should be taken into account by teachers according to interviewees. This would represent a truly student centred approach to scheme delivery and underpins the broad approach to enterprise education delivery.

YES MENTORS

Many of the points made by interviewees regarding the 'ideal' attributes of mentors are similar to those of teachers and regional coordinators. This suggests that many of the aspects of the roles of teacher and mentor complement each other and that both exist to support and offer advice rather than instruct. They are partners in the enterprise education experience with the students. The traditional hierarchy of authority that exists in a classroom does not appear to contribute to the delivery of an effective enterprise education experience. However, to what degree mentors and teachers take this on board is debatable. It would seem mentors ('business partners') too often cast themselves in the role of teacher or instructor (Hayward, 1986 cited in Peterman, 2000).

Interviewee responses were divided relatively evenly between describing attitudes that were not related to the business involvement of the mentor and skills that were directly business related. Mentors were seen to have the best chance of being effective if they had empathy for working with young people. This suggests that the type of people who become involved in this kind of mentoring should do so of their own volition, rather than through any obligation. Enthusiasm and passion were also seen as superseding the need for a business background, which raises issue of role definition that should be addressed by the ENZT.

Surprisingly, describing the type of business background most effective for mentors was not a priority for interviewees. A business background was seen as important, though a small business background was seen as being of more significance by interviewees. Given the differences that arose in discussing the attributes of an 'ideal' mentor it seems there may be merit in a closer investigation of the backgrounds of mentors involved in the YES, and the particular types of businesses they are involved with. There also appears to be a need for some re-evaluation of the role of mentors (are they motivators or are they 'business consultants'?). This may allow the ENZT to develop a new strategy for sourcing mentors and find a better way for delivering mentor assistance to students that may cross geographical boundaries. Work by Peterman (2000) on Young Achievement Australia (YAA) found that mentors involved in the scheme came overwhelmingly from the retail sector (62 %), with the next largest group coming from financial services (29).

YES REGIONAL COORDINATORS

The researcher also asked interviewees to describe what they saw as 'ideal' for regional coordinators. Whilst many of the interviewees were regional coordinators (and therefore received specific guidance from the ENZT on how best to fulfil their roles) the researcher felt the opportunity would allow regional coordinators to either provide responses with objectivity (describing qualities they either didn't have or would like to have) or at least translate the guidelines into their own words.

This revealed a number of gaps in perception relating to the role of regional coordinators between the ENZT and the regional coordinators themselves. One of these 'gaps' was the opinion that whilst the ENZT does not dispute the validity and importance of the role of regional coordinators it sees the role as being predominantly administrative in nature. In reality regional coordinators see their role as mainly involving liaison, motivation and relationship building. The emphasis among responses on the need for communication and 'people' skills reinforced this.

The majority of responses focused on describing skills or attitudes rather than formulating a job description for a regional coordinator. However, there was a strong emphasis placed on the need for a regional coordinator to come from a business background – stronger than the need for a mentor to have a business background. This was important in terms of the functions of each role. More typical was the recommendation that a regional coordinator should come from an education background, though an equal number felt this was not a prerequisite characteristic. It would appear that 'business skills' were seen as being more advantageous than knowledge or experience in the education sector. It could be surmised that this is because of the nature of the job the coordinator has to do, rather than the content of the programme they are helping to deliver. The comment by one interviewee that regional coordinators need to be 'enterprising' rather than just 'managerial' shows that regional coordinators feel the contribution they have to make can contribute to the future of the scheme, and its evolution, not just delivering the current product.

Whether an interviewee perceived being a regional coordinator as essentially a voluntary role or whether they saw themselves (or in actual fact were) an employee of the ENZT appeared to influence the focus of their responses. Those who perceived themselves as volunteers in essence described the need for passion, enthusiasm, a positive attitude and

a willingness to offer beyond what was expected of them, whilst those who saw themselves as employees focused more on the professional skills required.

THEME THREE: REGIONAL COORDINATORS: THE BARRIERS TO YES DELIVERY THEY FACE

ENZT regional coordinators were asked to describe barriers that existed that they perceive as preventing them from delivering YES as effectively as they could within their region. By asking coordinators to describe some of the factors that impeded them the researcher aimed to identify issues that could be addressed, or solutions that could be disseminated to other regions via the ENZT. Whilst many coordinators spoke in general terms about delivery and role issues the ENZT was clearly already aware of, there were four issues that dominated responses and are worthy of discussion: sourcing mentors, relationships with principals and teachers, regional coordinator remuneration, and support received from the ENZT.

SOURCING MENTORS

In a number of regions the sourcing of mentors was not a challenge for regional coordinators, thanks to the involvement of sponsors or the involvement of other stakeholder networks. However, where the regional coordinators were involved with this task, difficulty with sourcing mentors was described as the dominant barrier. The level of difficulty in sourcing mentors can be attributed to a number of factors, not all of which were revealed during this evaluation. However, a number of factors can be surmised as potentially being of influence: the geographic characteristics of a region (i.e. affecting distances mentors have to travel etc); the level of participation in regions (i.e. affecting the number of mentors required); and the different strategies used by mentors (i.e. some may be more effective than others, and some mentors may have more networks to rely on – many of which often seemed to be of a personal nature).

Over half the regional coordinators described the amount of time and effort they had to expend to attract mentors as being excessive. This drain on their resources appears to the researcher to be disproportionate to the involvement of mentors in the scheme, and the emphasis placed on sourcing mentors as part of a regional coordinator's role. Whilst clearly there is no optimum retention period for mentors, it is easier for regional coordinators if they have a number of mentors who stay longer than one year. This

lessens the burden of sourcing mentors from year to year. In a suitable regional coordinator forum it may be interesting to initiate discussion about possible strategies for retaining mentors, or the role the ENZT could play in this.

The different channels through which regional coordinators sourced mentors were interesting, and worthy of closer examination. (Several points in relation to this are made later in this chapter and in the final chapter of the report). Traditional sources of mentors for the ENZT have included the Chambers of Commerce, sponsors, and Business in the Community (a national, non-profit making organisation which aims to promote the growth of exiting businesses and enhance employment). However, many regional coordinators addressed their own challenge by devolving their responsibility for sourcing mentors (in many regions YES participants source their own mentors). What is not clear is where the driver for this behaviour is initiated - in the regional coordinator's inability to source mentors or in a desire on the part of students or teachers to source their own. The only apparent drawbacks to these types of approach are the lack of quality control and student safety issues. A number of regional coordinators also felt that as part of their drive to recruit mentors they also needed to secure the services of 'contingency mentors'. This was due to the increasing number of mentors who were pulling out during the course of the YES.

Another issue pertaining to mentors, and obviously a result of the inability of regional coordinators to source sufficient mentors, is the number of YES teams operating without mentors. Though there is no data on which to compare statistics gathered during this evaluation, data gathered via the preliminary questionnaire form indicated that of the 55 schools who returned a preliminary form 14 operated without a mentor. Several interviewees also described other instances of teams operating without mentors. Whilst the number is not hugely significant it does demonstrate either a departure by a number of schools from the YES model or a natural evolution that has occurred in relation to changes in the YES environmental context. Some of these teams are operating due to an unavailability of mentors, whilst others are choosing to operate without a mentor.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

Another issue perceived by regional coordinators as affecting their ability to deliver YES effectively was relationship building with school officials. Principals and teachers are the 'gatekeepers' through which regional coordinators 'access' students. Whilst this

approach is considered effective in much of the literature regarding overseas enterprise education, the results of this evaluation suggest that this effectiveness does not necessarily translate to a New Zealand context. However, comparison should take account of the fact that the relationships may not be based on either the same model of facilitation or programme content.

The difficulty regional coordinators have with principals and teachers was expressed clearly to the researcher, however the reasons for the difficulty were not as clear. Some respondents felt that increasing time pressures on teachers had an impact, particularly with the preparatory work required in 2001 by teachers in advance of the introduction of the new qualifications framework (the National Certificate of Educational Attainment (NCEA)). Though interviewees did not raise the potential influence of the new framework on YES uptake, the perception of YES as an 'add-on' does nothing to enhance the nature of the relationship between the regional coordinator and the principal or teacher.

Without a teacher or principal who is receptive to the concept of enterprise education, many of the activities of regional coordinators can be ineffective, no matter how much effort is expended. In an Australian context Keys Young (1999) described a similar concern - that the attitudinal barriers occurring in schools can forestall the efforts of enterprise education proponents. This is of even greater concern if a demand from the students is going unrecognised or unanswered because school bureaucracies are blocking the take-up or provision of enterprise education opportunities. Whilst regional coordinators did not describe ideological differences as the reason schools were not becoming involved in the YES, several felt that principals and teachers saw the YES as primarily a money making exercise, rather than a lesson in exercising economic choice or an opportunity for personal development.

Interestingly the difficulties regional coordinators described were not confined to attempting to establish relationships with schools that had never taken part in YES before. Most regional coordinators felt that maintaining existing relationships was as difficult, if not more difficult, than establishing new ones.

Several regional coordinators expressed concern that heightened levels of competition *between* schools was compromising communication with schools. Despite the neutrality of the regional coordinator (i.e. not favouring one school over another), it would appear

that some teachers seem to perceive the regional coordinator as a threat to the security of their team's ideas and therefore, competitive chances. Whilst the independence of teachers to run the YES in their schools is a crucial advantage of the YES model, it will become an issue if teachers or principals are impeding the involvement of regional coordinators in YES facilitation.

COORDINATOR REMUNERATION

The matter of coordinator remuneration was not an issue pursued by the researcher with interviewees; rather it emerged in relation to the discussion of barriers for regional coordinators. However, it was an area of concern that was raised by regional coordinators in relation to the sustained success of YES in their region. Many expressed their concern that remuneration may affect regional coordinator succession, and that was their primary reason for raising the issue. From the responses made by participants the loyalty of the regional coordinators to the ENZT and the effective delivery of YES was far greater than their desire to cease involvement on the basis of inadequate remuneration. This suggests that most regional coordinators strongly recognise their role as being largely voluntary, apart from those who carry out YES coordination as part of their job (e.g. regions where a coordinator is employed by the ENZT, or individuals who work at a Chamber of Commerce and facilitate YES as part of their role).

SUPPORT FROM THE ENZT

The level of support the ENZT afforded regional coordinators was another theme to emerge from questioning that was related more specifically to the research objectives. The level of support offered by the ENZT and its staff to regional coordinators was generally described as good by interviewees. However, its type and frequency was not so positively described. Interestingly the support of an intangible nature was described as being excellent by interviewees. Many regional coordinators also described how other ENZT stakeholder groups (e.g. Chambers of Commerce) offered them support that supplemented what they received from the ENZT. Many of the regional coordinators felt that they operate in an isolated context, both geographically and in terms of their relationship with the ENZT. The infrequent opportunities for regional coordinators to get together was a specific concern that many interviewees raised. Clearly they felt that this was something that should be facilitated by the ENZT, though a number did qualify

this by saying that as a non-profit organisation they recognised the importance of keeping costs down.

The nature of training offered by the ENZT to various stakeholders (teachers, regional coordinators, and mentors) was beyond the scope of this research. However, the comments of several regional coordinators are worth reporting. They specifically felt the amount of regional differentiation meant that training from the ENZT was not of much use, apart from when a new coordinator assumes the role. One of the points of difference of the YES is the diversity among regions of uptake, delivery, and achievement. While a degree of differentiation is to be expected, the ENZT has to a large extent fostered this by being flexible in their application of the YES model, rather than demanding any formulaic adherence to the YES model by regional coordinators or schools. This type of foresight has ensured that the maximum numbers of students have the chance of being exposed to an enterprise education experience, but does make delivering any type of generic training difficult.

THEME FOUR: THE YES: VISIONS FOR THE FUTURE AND INNOVATIONS

THE FUTURE

A new \$3.4 million initiative announced by Economic Development Minister Jim Anderton in December 2001 demonstrates the increasing emphasis being placed on enterprise and enterprise education in New Zealand. The aims of the new programme include fostering “a culture in education where business is seen as a positive contributor to society and a worthwhile career aspiration for students”, “students developing enterprising attitudes, and business relevant skills”, and “a social culture which positively supports entrepreneurial activity and business success”. (Ministerial announcement, December 19, 2001) As a means of achieving these aims, part of the strategy includes contestable funding for enterprising initiatives in school and communities. This indicates that the role of enterprise education in the future in New Zealand may be considerably greater than it is now.

Like any organisation with a vision, the ENZT is concerned with the future of the YES, and as a charitable trust this focus is often a necessity in terms of obtaining sufficient funding and sponsorship to remain viable. Therefore it was not surprising that the future

of the YES was uppermost in the minds of the ENZT stakeholders who were interviewed. Whilst the enthusiasm and awareness of the benefits of YES participation shown by students (via the questionnaire) demonstrate a demand for an enterprise education initiative such as YES, stakeholders were concerned about how the ENZT will meet that demand in the future.

Stakeholders were enthusiastic about the prospects of the YES, but recognised that it may need to evolve to match the changing skills bases and attitudes of students. The nature of YES participation (i.e. whether it be as a voluntary or compulsory activity) was seen by interviewees as having an impact on the scheme's future. The opportunity for students to participate more than once, due to the ENZT abstaining from placing age level restrictions on participation, was seen as positive (19 YES participants who completed questionnaires were in Year 10 or 11 at school). Whether this means contemplating introducing any new dimensions or progressions to the scheme to account for this cumulative exposure was not raised. The fact that of the 517 YES participants who completed the questionnaire 64 (12%) had participated before, supports the comments made by interviewees.

Fayolle (2000) made the point that entrepreneurship (and by proxy enterprise education) can be seen as a pedagogical instrument (a different way to learn), a political instrument (a contributor to economic growth) or an academic instrument (the means of developing new knowledge). These different orientations were illustrated amply in the responses made by stakeholders, who described how they feel the influence of the education system and government could be felt in terms of the future of YES. Government support, rather than direct involvement (i.e. funding or policy), was preferred as an option by interviewees. The expediency of involving the government in order to secure the scheme's future was not seen as worth sacrificing the scheme's independence and points of difference for. As a non-governmental organisation the ENZT currently has the advantage of being able to approach schools without them feeling like they are being instructed or influenced by government policy.

The regulation that might result from any endorsement by the Ministry of Education was also not viewed all that positively by the majority of interviewees. Given the platform of regional diversity that the YES exists on, regulation may also undermine many of the localised aspects of delivery developed by regional coordinators. The contribution made

by sponsors being compromised by government involvement was also a concern voiced by a number of interviewees. Ideologically this would depend on individual sponsors, but in general terms the link is not all that tenuous.

The positive promotion of the YES to schools and communities is crucial to its future. Numerous interviews feel that the current levels of promotion will not sustain the scheme in the years to come. An interviewee commented that the perceived merit of the scheme in a community bore a distinct relationship to the level of acceptance it received in that community. Acceptance tends to be derived from an understanding of a concept or construct. If people are not aware can they accept? Given that the ENZT is defining the young in terms of their *potential*, rather than their problems or differences, it is logical to assume that the greater the publicity they create the greater the levels of acceptance and interest.

Although stakeholders perceived the profile of the YES to be good across communities, the methods and channels through which it is marketed are not satisfactory to the majority of stakeholders interviewed. Many regional coordinators lamented the lack of 'tools' with which to market 'their product' and felt that the ENZT was not enterprising enough in that area. Who the scheme is marketed to is a logical question that arises from this issue. Ethically the ENZT is to a degree bound to contacting students through teachers and principals (i.e. a top down approach), but how effective such traditional means are is not clear. One interviewee felt that sending out 'batches of paper' to schools as 'marketing' was not at all effective. Work by Keys Young (1999) reached a similar conclusion, emphasising that because of a lack of understanding of the enterprise education construct by principals, and the vast amount of printed material that is now sent to schools, mailing out enterprise education resources or promotional material is not particularly effective.

Perhaps an assessment of methods for targeting students directly is called for, to create a drive for enterprise education and the YES from the bottom up. If students in a school 'demand' an enterprise experience then schools will respond by going out and finding one in the current education market of competition for students. The channels of marketing to students could then become more innovative and age appropriate (e.g. the use of television and websites). In Australia Keys Young (1999) found that in many schools students had been the catalyst for a growth in the uptake of enterprise education

initiatives, not teachers. The flow on from word of mouth amongst students was also seen as having a crucial role in engendering enthusiasm for enterprise education amongst students (other ideas are raised regarding this in the next section of the chapter).

POTENTIAL YES INNOVATIONS

“An organisation is a barometer of what it is trying to achieve” (Gordon McVie, presentation, July 12, 2001).

So how enterprising can the ENZT be? It became clear to the researcher throughout the course of this evaluation that the process was seen by some stakeholders as an opportunity for them to communicate ideas about the YES to the ENZT. In accordance with the axioms of a responsive evaluation it became the researcher’s responsibility to report the ideas in relation to the research objective pertaining to effective scheme delivery (many of the ideas emerged when interviewees talked about the future of the YES). Consideration of this as a theme also stimulated the researcher to respond with her own ideas in response to the issues raised by stakeholders. Therefore, this section is a combination of ideas from both sources, their origin is attributed clearly in each instance. Whether the ideas are practical or not is a matter for the ENZT to determine, particularly as the majority of them will have funding implications.

The diversity and enterprising nature of many of the ideas demonstrated to the researcher that the value of the potential contribution stakeholders can make to the YES, now and in the future. It may be worthwhile for the ENZT to consider forming a reference group of stakeholders to assist it in regularly evaluating aspects of YES content and delivery. The group may comprise a variety of stakeholders, or various groups may be utilised (for example a school team could be used as a regular source of feedback on innovations or ideas, test new applications, or assist in the creation of programme benchmarks).

Many interviewees raised or requested ideas to assist with the source of mentors, a barrier to effective YES delivery described by regional coordinators. Whether mentors are actually what the YES requires is another issue worthy of consideration. The term mentor implies ongoing support that is not always of a technical nature. Given that both the teacher and regional coordinator support the team, one of the primary roles of a

mentor under the scheme is to provide technical or business knowledge. (i.e. more of a 'business consultant' than mentor). If the ENZT was more clearly able to define what teams wanted a mentor's role to be (by a process of consultation) it may be in a position to offer alternatives that may reduce the stress relating to mentors that many regional coordinators seem to experience. For example in France a national public enterprise education programme (Graines d'Entrepreneurs/'Seeds of entrepreneurship') for junior high school students receives no formal technical support. Instead students are given an address book of professionals available for counselling when they require it (i.e. involvement is optional) (OECD, 2001).

The role of technology in relation to the YES was on the minds of many interviewees. Many felt that the ENZT website and tools such as e-mail were being under-utilised. Suggestions for their utilisation were varied, but largely based around communication and marketing. Some felt the use of e-mail or web-based tools to communicate with students was a valuable innovation to be considered. In terms of timeliness this initiative appears to have merit, but the impact on the experiential model of learning and the costs of implementation and maintenance would need to be considered carefully. One of the main motivations of suggestions relating to direct communication with students relates to the difficulties expressed by regional coordinators in communicating with teachers and principals.

An alumni of past YES participants was also seen by a number of interviewees as a valuable exercise, both in tracking the activities of those who have been through the scheme and generating publicity through the dissemination of YES success stories. The researcher felt the database could also be a useful tool for the ENZT to use to build up a profile of YES participation and therefore generate accurate information on which to base YES developments, and contribute to the body of enterprise education knowledge in this country (see the section on areas for future research in the final chapter of the report). With the current drive for regional development that underpins many economic initiatives a database such as this could also target regional initiatives of an entrepreneurial nature more effectively.

An example of the calibre of YES alumni, who may have some contribution to make to the YES if approached or whose knowledge and career path should be tracked is Tony Musson (see Figure 5.5).

THEME FIVE: YES PARTICIPATION: THE BENEFITS FOR STUDENTS

There has been considerable debate over the most appropriate methodology for evaluating training programmes, and under that banner enterprise education programmes (Westhead & Storey, 1998). Evaluating enterprise education programmes outcomes is a challenge, particularly when the focus is on the acquisition of competencies that may be largely intangible. Evaluators are left to ask participants to assess their own learning outcomes, or ask programme stakeholders for their perceptions. This approach obviously can have limitations (and some of these are outlined in the final chapter of this report). However, in accordance with the parameters of a responsive evaluation, and in relation to the challenges inherent in evaluating enterprise education programmes, the researcher asked interviewees to describe the benefits they perceived students as receiving. Responses ranged from specific to general, and were focused both on current and future benefits.

The dominant benefit for YES participants described by interviewees is the practical experience it gives them. This relates both to the comments made earlier in this chapter by Gordon McVie about creating an 'enterprise experience', the impact of an experiential learning experience within the enterprise education model. For education to effectively assist in the development of enterprising people it has been recognised that programmes need to be predominantly learner driven (Gorman et al, 1997). So while an investigation of the theoretical underpinnings of the experiential learning model were beyond the parameters of this research, the ENZT does run the YES in relation to that type of learning model. The experiential learning model conceptualised by Kolb (1984) is depicted in Figure 5.6. The diagram illustrates that students learn by experience, and that that experience and learning occurs within the context of personal development, education, and work. This means that any outcomes of their learning experience may also impact on all those spheres of their life (how they develop as people, and the choices they make about work and study).

The benefits of the YES experience were amplified, according to interviewees, by the fact that YES is not a simulation. The risks students take are real, the reputations they are upholding are their own and they are making profits for themselves and their shareholders.

Figure 5.5: Tony Musson

Tony Musson is a YES exemplar, successfully managing to complete a tertiary qualification and commence his career as an architect whilst also still running the YES company he was part of at school. Quietly spoken, Tony is enthusiastic about describing this 'balancing act', and does so with a sense of purpose that illustrates how enterprise and endeavour can in combination create success.

Tony did not originally set out to participate in YES at school. He was called in during his 6th form year at Havelock North High School as a 'consultant artist' by friends who were part of a team producing place mats and coasters with scenes of New Zealand. However, this involvement grew and he became the company's artistic director, creating the images that adorned the place mats. After a successful year Tony and a fellow director (Nic Wilson) thought they would like to carry the company on, buying the other directors out, and forming the partnership Nouveau. Tony and Nic operated the company successfully again during their seventh form year and built up a solid customer base based mainly in the Hawkes Bay.

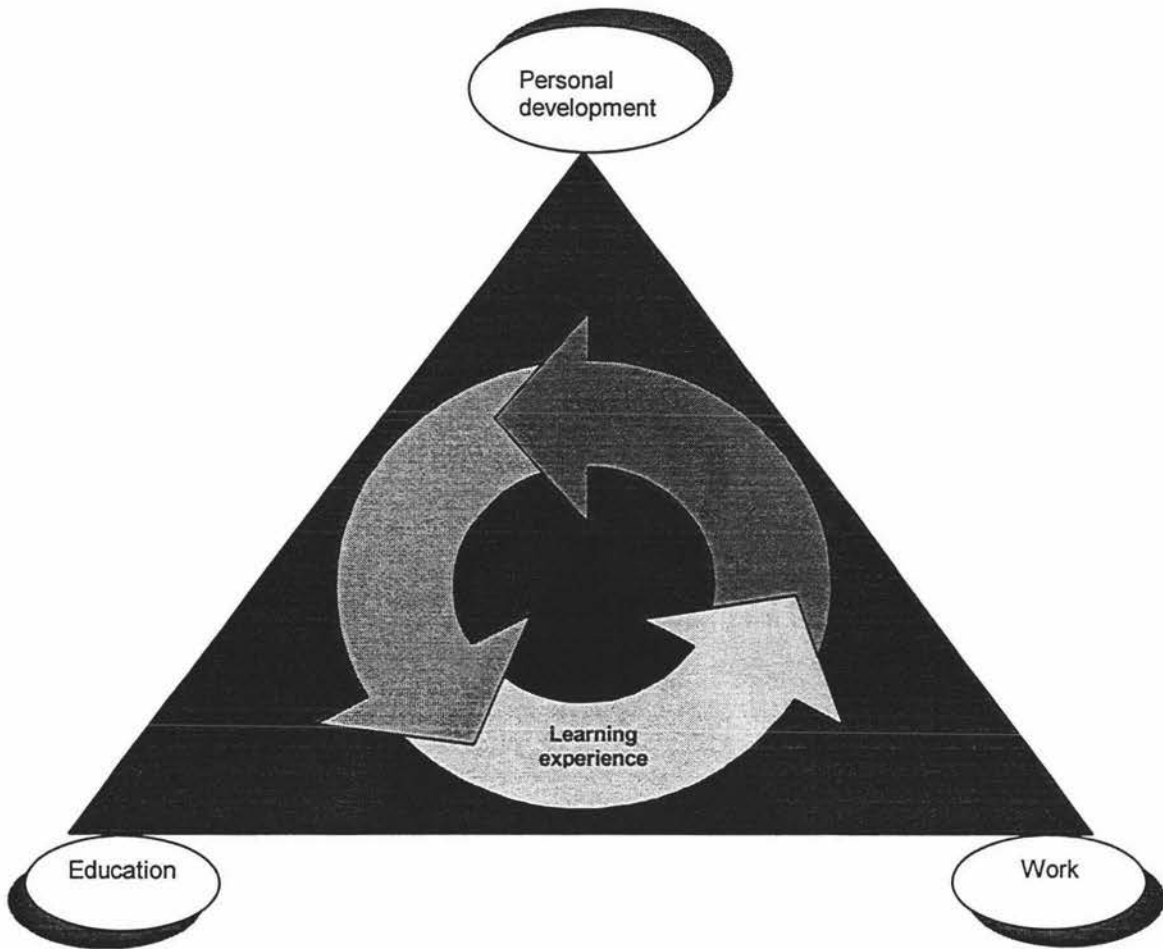
When Tony moved to Wellington to start his architecture studies at Victoria University he and Nic elected to continue the company. Since then Tony has bought Nic out and now runs the company on his own. Tony says the company does not require much 'hands on' involvement; he describes it as "low maintenance" particularly as "the objective is not growth". Companies in the Hawkes Bay produce and distribute the product and Tony manages other aspects of the business from Wellington.

Tony thinks YES is a great opportunity for students to develop an idea "within a structure that is already in place" - he feels this reduces the risk and helps maximise the chances of success. Tony admits to always looking for opportunities, and jokes that his friends have always kidded him about having "multiple income streams". Tony feels that it is pragmatism and an enterprising nature that have seen him make the most of his opportunities rather than any cut-throat business mentality.

After eight years in business Tony doesn't see an end to Nouveau yet, but admits that if he travels overseas to undertake postgraduate study he would consider winding the business up. After all, for a YES company that technically only had a lifecycle of twelve months, Nouveau and Tony Musson have exceeded everyone's expectations.

The YES also gives students the opportunity to make connections between school and work, and school and life; both of which introduce a degree of reality into the school learning environment and echo the tenets of the experiential learning model depicted in Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.6: Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model



Fishbien and Ajzen (1975, cited in Boyd & Vozikis, 1994) described a model of the relationship between the factors that influence entrepreneurial intentionality, and therefore in accordance with the arguments put forward in the literature review chapter enterprise intentionality, by proxy (depicted in Figure 5.7). The model presents the argument that beliefs *yield* attitudes, which *yield* intentions, which *yield* behaviour.

Figure 5.7: Fishbien and Ajzen's (1975) model

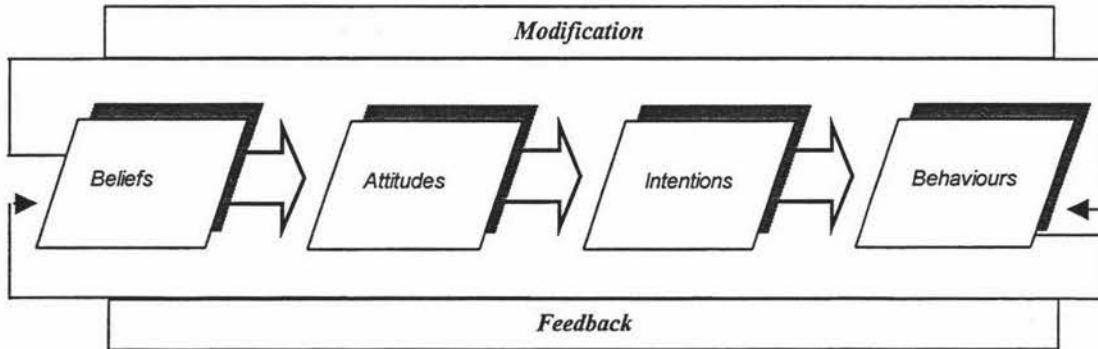


The relationship between intention and behaviour is influenced by personal factors (e.g. skills, abilities and will power) and environmental factors (e.g. time limits, task difficulty and the influence of other people through social pressure). Self-efficacy was

also identified as an influence on entrepreneurial intentionality. Individuals develop and strengthen beliefs about their efficacy in four ways: through mastery experiences, modelling (observational learning), social persuasion, and judgments of their own physiological states (Bandura, 1982, and Wood & Bandura, 1989, cited in Boyd & Vozikis, 1994). An individual's ability to judge his or her own potential performance then results as an assimilation of efficacy information from all four of these sources.

The YES appears to provide students with the opportunity to gain proficiency through all four channels of efficacy perception, and therefore influence their own entrepreneurial intentionality (i.e. beliefs). On this basis the researcher felt that two components could be added to the existing intentionality model: a feedback loop that links behaviours back to beliefs (because the researcher believes the outcomes of behaviour can influence beliefs positively or negatively) and a modification loop to indicate that if beliefs are modified then behaviours can also be modified directly (these are depicted in Figure 5.8).

Figure 5.8: Modifications to Fishbien and Ajzen's (1975) model



Work by Rae and Carswell (2000) also found that 'known capabilities' were important in terms of entrepreneurship, and therefore enterprise. In the earlier parts of their careers entrepreneurs developed a set of skills and knowledge about which they were confident and which were essential to their careers. As their careers progressed and their self-awareness grew they also appreciated their limitations and weaknesses. Participation in the YES gives students the ability to become aware of their strengths and weaknesses (as people and as potential entrepreneurs) a lot earlier in their life than many other people. This can influence their own perceptions of self-efficacy, their ability to more

accurately define their career aspirations, and in turn their ability to confidently present themselves to prospective employers

Many of the benefits for students of participating in YES relate to personal development (i.e. to both the broad definition of enterprise education raised in the literature review chapter and the experiential learning model outlined above). These skills gained through participating in the YES are also highly transferable to other dimensions of the students' lives, and illustrate that the benefits of enterprise education programmes are not just confined to the duration of the scheme. The fact that students appear aware of the long-term benefits and transferability of the skills, as the questionnaire results demonstrate, illustrates their awareness of the benefits of the scheme, and is consistent with findings by Patterson et al (1997) in Australia.

The observation of the activities at one of the Trade Fairs participated in by YES teams was a tangible manifestation of many of the benefits of YES participation described by many stakeholders (see Figure 5.9).

Figure 5.9: Trade Fair

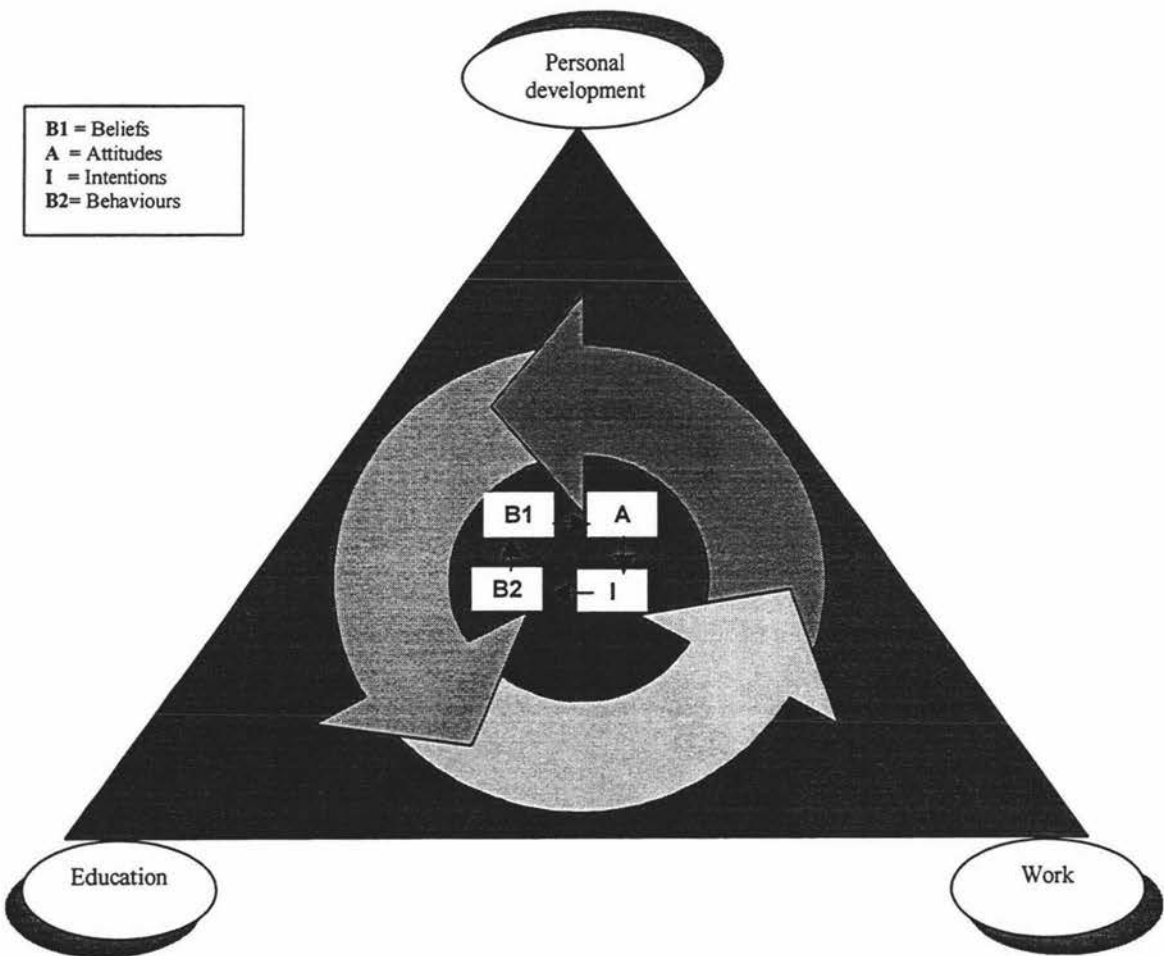
One weekend in June a suburban shopping mall was transformed for a day into an example of what young people can produce when they are given the opportunity to be enterprising. The space was filled with stalls, dynamically presented and professionally staffed by members of 17 YES teams. The diversity of products was impressive and included: PolaRugs (for "keeping you snug"); personalised pillow cases ("turn your design, drawing, or favourite photograph into a pillow case you'll treasure forever"); Thermos mugs; Mini digital radios; branded cell-phone face plates ("you choose your design and we screen-print the design onto the face-plate"); Pro-Note Notepads ("Making the world a notable place"); Emages ("store all your favourite images easily with the convenience of digital technology"); and Bear Necessities ("herbal remedy teddy bears").

As a member of the public I approached a number of these stalls for a closer look at the variety of products on display. What struck me, and a number of other people I observed, was the manner in which students treated the public: not just as potential customers but also as an audience to whom they could demonstrate their products and ideas with pride. The personal approach of the students was supplemented with a range of marketing tools. One team made public announcements, many had business cards and pamphlets to distribute, and some invited members of the public to contact them via e-mail. Sales at stalls appeared steady, with several teams unable to meet the demand on the day but securing orders instead. As a forum for enterprise, Trade Fairs provide the public with an opportunity to interact with the entrepreneurs of the future, and in turn those entrepreneurs have the chance to test their wares in a marketplace wider than that of their peers and parents.

The research results led the researcher to devise a combined model of entrepreneurial intentionality within an experiential learning framework (i.e. a combination of Figures 5.6 and 5.8). The result is depicted in Figure 5.10. The diagram illustrates that the

modifications she made as a result of the evaluation to Fishbien and Ajzen's (1975) model are enacted within the YES learning experience, which occurs within the context of the student's personal development, and work and education choices. Therefore, the YES experience can impact not only on the choices made by students in the three aforementioned areas, it can also influence the components of the intentionality model depicted and modified in Figures 5.7 and 5.8.

Figure 5.10: The combined impact of experience and learning on entrepreneurial intentionality



One of the primary ways to establish what impact the YES had on students was to ask them to describe simply what they liked and disliked about their participation in the programme (these results were depicted in Figures 4.11 and 4.12).

THEME SIX: THE YES EXPERIENCE: THE PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENTS

The opportunity to interact with new people in the context of a team was the primary impact of the YES on the participants surveyed. As with work by Cameron and Milstein (1999) in Australia, significant numbers of YES participants also felt that they had enjoyed developing business skills. The social and team dynamic development encouraged by the YES experience was specifically described as enjoyable by 127 students. Experiencing this type of group dynamic can also impact on a group member's attitude towards starting a business according to Bandura (1997, cited in Peterman, 2000). The author theorised that the higher a group's collective efficacy the more positive the individual's perceptions of self-efficacy, and vice versa (a point relevant to a later point in this chapter that notes how many YES participants found the dynamics of their team had a negative impact on them).

Kourilsky and Carlson (1995) emphasised that a crucial part of an enterprise education programme is the actual decision making which requires learners to bear the consequences of their decisions. Interestingly while this 'taking responsibility' could be perceived as a negative aspect of enterprise education participation, 109 student participants in the YES described it as the thing they enjoyed most. The student centred, experiential learning experience that afforded them the opportunity to take risks and bear the consequences of their own decisions will not be typical of their other school experiences, but does prepare them for the work dimension of their life. Findings by Kearney (1996) in an Australian enterprise education context also found that students enjoyed making 'real' decisions to do with a 'real' project.

The impact of creating a YES team was so positive for 33% of the students who were surveyed, that they said that they would like to have the opportunity to continue running the team once the YES finished. Of the 172 students who responded 'YES' (see Figure 4.13), 102 students also described it as being likely or very likely that they would start their own business. This was 43 of the total 88 students who responded 'very likely' (49%), and 59 of the 174 who responded very likely (34%).

In terms of the negative impact of YES participation, just over a quarter of participants (27.3%) described the time demands it placed on them as excessive. Their concerns regarding time related specifically to the amount of time outside of school they needed

to commit, their inability to manage their school work with YES commitments and for some, YES participation represented too much time away from class. These comments may reflect the fact that 55% of students who completed the questionnaire participated in YES as an elective activity (i.e. that as an in-class activity YES has time set aside regularly in the student's schedule for participation). The differences in demands on students and teachers in relation to whether the YES is delivered in or out of class may be worthy of closer investigation, as would whether the demands of the YES have increased over the years since its inception. The increasing demands of schools and examinations may also placed increased pressures on students, as may a greater need to work part-time whilst at school (perhaps to avoid having to get a student loan in order to undertake tertiary study). The type of stress time management issues obviously caused students may seem negative to them now but in the future may represent a valuable learning experience. White (1999) described one of the specific needs of any young entrepreneur as the ability to cope with stress, especially as many young people in the self-employment sector are without friends who understand the self-employment experience. Therefore, the negative as well as positives dimensions of YES participation may equip participants with skills and experiences that may help them overcome those barriers if they were to become self-employed, or at any other stage in their life.

The category of dysfunctional group dynamics incorporated the responses of 138 students (27%) who felt this was the most negative part of participating in the YES (Figure 4.12). This included the unfair division of work in teams, poor communication, and conflict with other team members. The interesting parallel is that almost an equal number of participants (25%) described the group and teamwork aspects of the YES as the most positive thing they experienced. Therefore, further work could explore what factors the teams who had difficulty with team dynamics had in common, and the same for teams who were successful (a type of best practice or benchmarking guideline for excellence in YES team dynamics). The age of students (and resulting lack of maturity in some) may also explain the depth of negative experience present, but a closer examination of the nature of guidance given to students about such issues by teachers, mentors and the ENZT may also be of merit.

A number of students specifically mentioned aspects of YES administration or regulation as contributing negatively to their experience. While not an especially

significant number of responses did so (11%) they do suggest that certain aspects of scheme delivery could be altered or examined for potential modification. Deadlines and the nature of outputs required by the ENZT were commented on, although this might appear unjustified to the ENZT and regional coordinators given the amount of notice and support given to YES teams and teachers to meet those deadlines. Some students felt the communication channels between their team and the ENZT were poor. This suggests that the teacher or regional coordinator could be inhibiting the flow of information to the students. The development of methods of communication that would allow the students to source the information for themselves (i.e. via website) may be worthy of consideration along with the other ideas relating to communication presented in this chapter. Concerns relating to the poor attendance of mentors may also flag an issue the ENZT may wish to pursue, and the merit of considering alternative dimensions of support and assistance that could be offered to students, or a change in the channels of mentoring delivery (see the earlier section of this chapter on potential YES innovations).

THEME SEVEN: YES PARTICIPANTS AND THEIR ENTERPRISING ROLE MODELS

The importance of self-employment role models, and particularly parents, in the development of young entrepreneurs is well established in the literature (including Rae & Carswell, 2000; Scott & Twomey 1988). Scott and Twomey (1988) depicted the relationship in the diagram depicted in Figure 5.11.

The contribution of experiential learning and self-employment role models to entrepreneurial self-efficacy is supported by numerous research findings that have shown that entrepreneurs tend to have parents who are also self-employed (Athayde, Hart, O'Reilly and Costello, 2001; Boyd & Vozikis, 1994). As being enterprising can be a precursor or accompaniment to being entrepreneurial (as established in the literature review), the researcher asked YES participants whether they knew anyone among their family, relatives or friends who runs their own business. The researcher theorised that students who participate in the YES and who are also in contact with self-employment role models may have different YES experiences, or the impact of YES on them may be amplified. This is signified in the modification made by the researcher to Scott and Twomey's (1988) model in Figure 5.11.

Figure 5.11: Scott and Twomey's (1988) model of factors affecting career aspirations

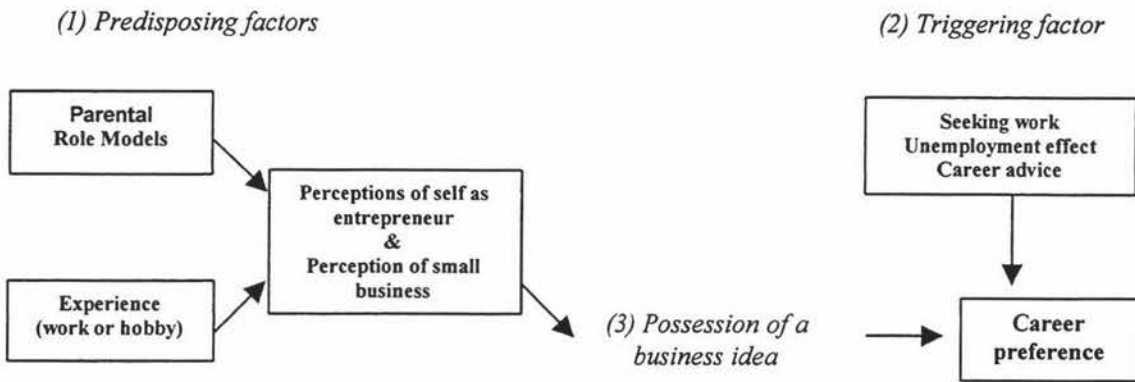
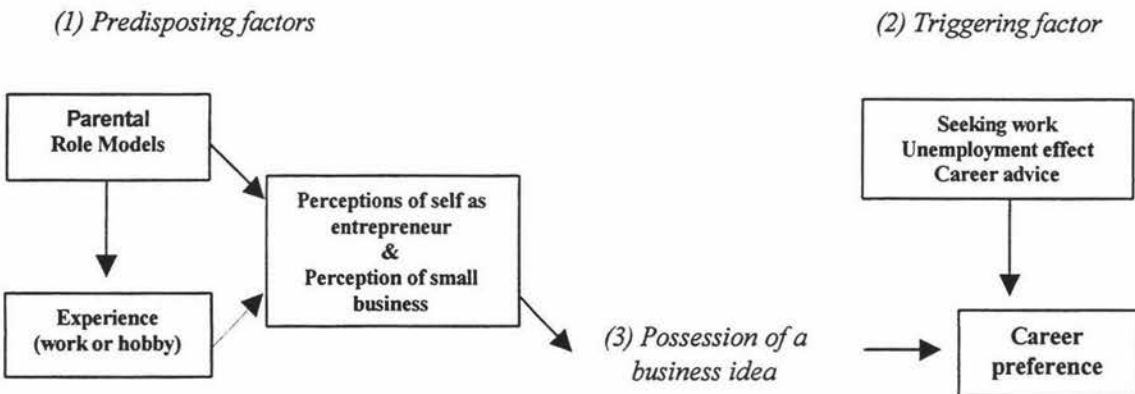


Figure 5.12: Modification of Scott and Twomey's (1988) model



As Figure 5.12 illustrates an arrow has been added (pointing from parental role models to experience) that indicates that the results of this evaluation would suggest that parental role models influence the types of experiences their children have. This means that the influence of parents is now doubled in the model under discussion.

Figure 4.6 showed that a significant number (83%) of the YES participants surveyed knew at least one person who ran their own business. When those students were then asked to select a category that described their relationship to that individual or individuals 51% indicated that it was a parent. Significantly, 51% had a relative (other than a parent) who was self-employed (perhaps indicating a familial trend in self-employment as that individual would be related to their parent). Self-employed family friends were also known by 50% (a logical assumption being that self-employed parents would know, through business dealings or networking, other self-employed people). The

low number of students who said they had a self-employed sibling was not surprising given the age of the students surveyed and therefore the relative age of their siblings. The distinction between personal and family friends was at the discretion of the questionnaire respondent. In the researcher's mind a family friend was someone the student had come to know through their parents, and a personal friend was someone they had met in their own right. It is therefore plausible that of the 22% who indicated they had a personal friend who ran their own business, some students chose to legitimately describe their fellow YES participants as being in that category. The similarity in the numbers between parents, family friends and relatives indicated that there may be patterns emerging from the data amongst the relationships between the people the students knew who were self-employed. From the data analysis the patterns in Figure 5.13 emerged.

Figure 5.13: Patterns of enterprising role models known by YES participants

Pattern	Frequency
Parent only	90
Other relative only	70
Family friend only	57
Parent, other relative & family friend	52
Other relative & family friend	30
Parent, Other relative, personal friend & family friend	27

In terms of the students who said they only knew one person who ran their own business a parent, relative or family friend were the most prevalent. The most dominant pattern in the role models described by students was that they had a parent, relative and family friend (52 students). Twenty-seven students knew somebody in all categories except sibling.

Parents who are self-employed help transmit different work values to students, therefore it is logical that the children of self-employed parents may have different attitudes to enterprise. The tacit knowledge and attitudes that students may absorb from their parents can complement their YES experience and may help their enterprise skills and behaviours develop more quickly. Cotton (1991) described this as learned capability (i.e. the strength and mix of enterprising behaviour skills will in part be a function of what the student has acquired by experience and exposure). Therefore, the students who are

exposed to both a YES experience and enterprising, familial, role models may have a significantly enhanced learned enterprise capability.

The primary manifestation of enhanced enterprise capability that is measurable at this stage of a student's life, is their inclination to become self-employed in the future. As the discussion earlier in this chapter illustrated, 51% of the YES participants surveyed did express such an inclination (Figure 4.21). Of the 262 students who indicated a motivation to become self-employed in the future 137 (52%) had parental self-employment models, and this meant that (63%) of the total number of students (219) with parental self-employment role models indicated that it was very likely or likely that they would start their own business in the future. This was 52 (59%) of the total 88 who responded 'very likely', and 85 (49%) of the total 174 who responded 'likely'. This suggests a very strong link between exposure to parental role models and a desire to be self-employed; a YES experience on top of this may also enhance the learned capabilities of the students.

These results parallel Scott and Twomey's (1988) findings in relation to the factors that influence entrepreneurial aspirations. Data on student career aspirations from America, Ireland and England showed that the respondents whose parents were self-employed full-time showed the highest preference for self-employment. Work by Scottish Enterprise Renfrewshire (2000) also indicated a correlation between knowing entrepreneurs personally (including parents) and the desire to start a business that extended beyond chance. Scott and Twomey (1988) proposed that the influence of parents could be twofold, first as occupational role models and second as resource providers. Research by Lewis (2000) reached similar conclusions relating to young entrepreneurs in a New Zealand context.

A significant number of those with parental self-employment role models also appeared to contemplate starting a business at an earlier age. Of the 219 students with parents who run their own business 114 (52%) stated that they would aim to start their own business under 30 years of age (this was 45% of the total 254 who indicated they wished to start a business under 30).

Of the 219 students who indicated they had a parent who runs their own business (see Figure 4.7) 192 (88%) also responded 'yes' when asked whether they thought it was

important to encourage students to be enterprising. This represented 42% of the 454 students who responded 'yes' to the question.

The mentors that the students are exposed to through the YES scheme also have the potential to influence them. According to Boyd and Vozikis (1994) the effects of modelling are enhanced when there is perceived similarity between the subject and model in terms of personal characteristics and capabilities, and when the model behaviour produces obvious consequences or results. This work has a number of implications in relation to this research. Firstly, it appears that the mentors that the ENZT typically attract are those with experience (and who therefore are logically older) or who are retired (and therefore have the time to commit to the scheme). If the ENZT was able to involve younger mentors in the scheme they may have more of an impact on the students involved. Describing the nature of that impact and investigating the idea may be an area for consideration, especially given the difficulty expressed by regional coordinators in sourcing mentors. Perhaps it is time for the ENZT to move away from traditional sources and access younger people (for example postgraduate business students as action research projects, members of young entrepreneurs' networks, school or YES scheme alumni or are involved in business and want to make a contribution etc). In relation to the other point made by Boyd and Vozikis (1994), mentors involved in the YES may be perceived by students as being more effective if they have a proven 'track record' in running their own business.

THEME EIGHT: THE YES EXPERIENCE: ITS INFLUENCE ON THE CAREER INTENTIONS AND EMPLOYABILITY OF STUDENTS

The influence of the YES on the career intentions and employability of students were discussed with both adult stakeholders and student participants.

PERCEPTIONS OF ADULT STAKEHOLDERS

There was minimal consensus amongst adult stakeholders as to the potential influence of the YES on the career intentions of students. This was in part recognition of the fact that any comment would be grounded in anecdotal evidence or opinion. Interviewees tended to describe the YES's ability to provide an opportunity for students to clarify their options, rather than its influence on their decisions. In other words, YES appears to

offer students the opportunity to broaden (raise new subject or job areas) or narrow (provide an experience that encourages specialisation or confirmation) their lens for examining what they wanted to do in the future. The type of 'real-life' experience offered by the YES is akin to work experience in the sense of real life connections, but places on students similar responsibilities that they may face later in life. A higher awareness of, and greater receptiveness to, self-employment as a career option was also a significant influence of YES.

More interviewees commented on the ability of the YES to make students more employable by giving students a taste of the benefits of hard work and a degree of risk-taking. The contribution to a student's Curriculum Vitae was seen as influential, particularly as YES demonstrates community and school links, and a type of work experience. In some communities the profile of YES also means that having that the positive associations may enhance a student's employment prospects.

PERCEPTIONS OF YES PARTICIPANTS

As Figure 4.19 indicated the majority of students (75%) felt that participating in the YES had not influenced their post-school plans. This is a contrast to work in Australia by Cameron and Milstein that found that 40% of YAA participants felt their enterprise education had a very important or important influence on four strategic decisions (where to study, what career to pursue, where to live and whether to start their own venture). Whilst the content, and therefore influence, of the programmes may differ the difference still exists.

Of the 23% who did feel that their YES experience had influenced their choices about the future most said that it had done so by exposing them to new experiences and broadening their horizons in terms of both subjects to study and careers to pursue. This type of information is typically only available through career advice and university liaison offices. The opportunity to have an attitudinal change based on experience rather than merely advice was obviously a significant by-product of YES experiences for some students. The importance of this dimension of the impact of the YES should not be underestimated, particularly given Gasse's (1985) assertion that enterprise education at the secondary school level, and the resultant exposure to self-employment options, is most influential because it occurs when those students' career options are still open. The results of this evaluation also parallel work by Patterson et al. (1997) that found that an

enterprise education experience broadened students' perceptions of career paths and study options.

An explicit demonstration of the influence of the YES on the career intentions of 15 students was their assertion that as a result of their participation they now wanted to run their own business in the future. As this was an open-ended question the responses represent entirely unprompted responses on the part of participants.

In a question unlinked to the previous one discussed, students were asked to rank the likelihood of their starting their own business in the future. The number who replied very likely (88 students, 17%) or likely (174 students, 34%) represented just over half (262 students, 51%) the total number of students who completed questionnaires. Whilst this question is in no way a guarantee of future action it does demonstrate that participating in the YES may have contributed to the enterprising inclinations inherent in the responses. This was consistent with Gasse (1985) who pointed out that the decision to start a business can be influenced by experiences with friends and classmates or work experience in adolescence or youth. Walstad and Kourilsky (1999) used similar figures regarding the desire to be self-employed (65% of a sample of 1008 American youths indicating they wished to start their own business) to show that those youths had a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship; the same conclusion could be made about YES participants who responded similarly. A similar number of students in Harrison and Hart's (1992) work (45.6%) also expressed a positive desire to run a business of their own. This suggests New Zealand students are not lagging behind their overseas counterparts in expressing a desire to be part of the 'enterprise revolution'.

The fact that just under half the students did not indicate a desire to be self-employed in the future is not necessarily a negative impact of their YES experience. Cameron and Milstein (1999) felt that similar results in their evaluative work indicated that participants had gained an understanding of the time and complexity involved. The same may be said of responses in this evaluation: many students may have had their assumptions about self-employment proved or disproved, therefore giving them more information to make choices about their future and a heightened awareness of what being self-employed means in terms of resources.

Of the 262 students who indicated as strong desire to start their own business (see Figure 4.21), 137 (52%) of those had a parent or parents who were self-employed. This

is congruent with the influence played by parental role models proposed in the literature and indicates a positive relationship between enterprising inclination and self-employed parents (further discussion of this will be made later in the chapter).

In terms of an age to start a business, students selected the 25-29 age bracket most often (177 times). The ages either side of this were the next most popular choices (20-24 & 30-34) as Figure 4.23 demonstrated. The optimal age at which to commence venture start-up has been patchily covered in the entrepreneurship literature with few applicable conclusions. Whilst older founders were once seen as being more likely to be successful than younger founders, that has been disputed by a number of researchers (including Lorrain & Raymond, 1990; Birley & Westhead, 1993; and Alsos & Kolvereid, 1998). A number of researchers (including Manusco, 1973) observed that numerous entrepreneurs are active in business during their childhood. This suggests that alertness to enterprise opportunities is not necessarily relative to age or experience.

The fact that YES participants can specify at what age they feel they would like (i.e. obviously be capable of starting a business) indicates an awareness of their own self-efficacy and ideas for enterprise opportunities. Self-efficacy has been found to be significantly related to stated occupational interests and occupational choice among college students regardless of gender (Betz & Hackett, 1981 and Lent & Hackett, 1987 cited in Boyd & Vozikis, 1994). Therefore career self-efficacy maybe an important variable in determining whether or not entrepreneurial intentions are formed in the early stages of a person's career, or in this case before the commencement of that career.

When the ages suggested by respondents were averaged, the result was a desired start-up age of 28 years old. This is not remarkable in any way, and certainly not unrealistic (research by Lewis, 2000, on young entrepreneurs in New Zealand found an average age across nine cases of 23 years of age). Interestingly 28 was also the desired age for start-up expressed by respondents of a similar age in Curran and Blackburn's (1989) research in England, and Harrison and Hart's (1992) sample (n=1411 16-18 year olds) in Northern Ireland. Harrison and Hart (1992) felt this age demonstrated a high degree of realism on the part of students.

Three hundred and seventeen students described what type of business they would like to start if the opportunity arose. This figure is significantly higher than the number of students who indicated that it would be likely or very likely that they would become

self-employed in the future. This is because one question asked students to rank the likelihood of them becoming self-employed and was therefore reality based. However, the questions about the type of business and age of start up were phrased differently (“if the opportunity arose would you...”) and were therefore designed to capture the ideas rather than future plans of students. The responses of students to the latter questions were diverse and suggested that students were open to a variety of industries and business types. As the results chapter and Figure 4.22 showed the responses were classed according to ANZSIC code. Interestingly retail businesses were not the most popular business type to start, though they did rate second. Instead the area of property or business services was the choice of 97 students (19%). According to the codes this category included enterprises involved in the provision of business, computer, accounting and legal services. These results echo work by Curran and Blackburn (1989). Hospitality and tourism businesses were also extremely popular which may indicate the influence of New Zealand’s environment, or the particular locations of students.

While the high non-response rate for this question was expected given the age of the students involved some students may have felt unable to describe their idea for a business according to a type of business (which was the way the question was phrased). Indeed a couple of students responded ‘partnership’ to this question, which demonstrates either an advanced understanding of economic terminology or a misinterpretation of the question. Harrison and Hart (1992) also had a high non-response rate (54%) to a similar question posed to students in their research. Therefore, the high non-response rate may illustrate an inability to categorise an idea rather than a lack of desire on the part of students to indicate a preference for self-employment in the future. Curran and Blackburn (1989) found through informal discussions with their questionnaire respondents that in areas such as entertainment and the arts students had not considered the option of becoming a freelance rather than working for somebody else.

In terms of employability students were asked whether they felt participating in the YES had improved their chances of getting a job (i.e. made them more employable). As Figure 4.9 illustrated 73% replied that it had. The statements those 378 students selected from to then describe how YES had improved their employability, were derived from the data gathered in the focus group phase of the research and were depicted in Figure

4.10. Learning business related skills (one of the primary objectives of the YES outlined by the ENZT) was the primary way in which students felt the YES made them more employable. A similar number of students also felt that their YES experience would be a valued addition to their Curriculum Vitae. This shows an awareness on the part of students of the types of attributes they might need to be competitive in the job market, and that their Curriculum Vitae is the best way to express this experience. The statements selected by students demonstrated that students felt their YES experience had impacted on their awareness of a number of different dimensions of their life: their own personal development, career options and opportunities in the self-employment sector. The YES also gave students the opportunity to demonstrate tangible manifestations of learning (putting what they have learnt into practice) and the ability to communicate and network effectively with adults outside the school environment. This may suggest that some students feel there are few other opportunities or experiences at school, outside of examinations, that provide students with the opportunity to prove or disprove their own abilities.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS

“Thus when we come to judge the goals and outcomes of a programme we must avoid falling into the position of judging the success of any programme by the extent to which it duplicates the values and characteristics of the older generation in those who will be responsible for the future” (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1974, p.26).

This chapter makes conclusions based on the results presented in chapter four, and the subsequent discussion of those results in chapter five. These conclusions are described in relation to the research objectives outlined in chapter one. The limitations of the evaluation are also discussed, as are areas for future research and specific recommendations for the ENZT.

IN TERMS OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The first research objective was to describe the benefits of YES participation for students. The results indicate that the benefits of such an experiential learning opportunity are wide-ranging. They vary from the development of personal qualities to accumulating a portfolio of enterprising skills (not all of which are strictly business related). The perceptions of YES stakeholders of what ‘being enterprising’ means are congruent with the broad definition of enterprise education that drives the way in which the ENZT delivers the YES. The absence of any significant gap between the perceptions of stakeholder groups means that the outcomes and benefits of participation align closely with the overall objectives of the YES.

The second objective involved gaining an understanding of the influence of the YES on the career intentions and employability of students. It appears that to a degree the YES does influence the choices students make about further study and future work opportunities. The impact of the YES appears more influential on those students who are exposed to enterprising role models through their family and friends. Students perceived themselves to be more employable because of their YES participation because it had enhanced their business and personal capabilities. They also have the ability to demonstrate this tangibly on Curriculum Vitae, and therefore demonstrate their capacity to be successful in linking their learning with businesses and individuals outside the school environment.

The final research objective addressed the influences on the effective delivery of the YES. The evaluation revealed that stakeholders felt teachers were the primary influence on how successfully YES was facilitated. The role of regional coordinators was also demonstrated to be crucial and the barriers they described in their role raised issues that are all potentially resolvable. There was a strong level of consensus about the skills and knowledge needed to be successful as a mentor, teacher or regional coordinator involved with YES, and these all relate closely to the broad objectives of the YES.

As is typical of a responsive evaluation, the research process raised many issues that were not directly related to the research objectives. Many of these are expanded on in the sections of this chapter that make recommendations and suggest future areas for research.

LIMITATIONS OF THE EVALUATION

There are a number of limitations associated with this evaluation, as well as the methodological limitations mentioned in chapter three.

The first limitation relates to the difficulty in achieving generalisable results when evaluating enterprise education programmes. All enterprise education programmes have different characteristics and are delivered in a variety of different contexts (cultural and educational). Therefore, the majority of the results from this evaluation are not generalisable outside New Zealand, or the context of the YES. This was expected, as the objective of a naturalistic evaluation is not to accumulate findings that are generalisable outside the individual research context.

The timeframe of the project was the other limitation associated with this evaluation. The evaluation was conducted over a relatively short time period, and consequently respondents were generally asked to comment on their experiences 'after the event'. Though this was the best way to ensure that the primary YES stakeholders (students) could participate in the evaluation, greater accuracy could be achieved in any future work by evaluating at discrete stages (for example at the end of each term or after certain YES milestones).

AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

“Most evaluators can be faulted for an over-reliance on preconceived notions of success...it is not always best to think of the instrumental value of education as a basis for evaluating it. The ‘payoff’ may be diffuse: or it may be even beyond the scrutiny of evaluators” (Stake, 1980, in Dockrell & Hamilton, 1980, p.78).

Throughout this project areas that were beyond this evaluation, but worthy of future research, have emerged from the data collection cycles. A number of these are discussed in this section, and they have been grouped according to topic.

THE YES

The differences in demands on students and teachers in relation to whether the YES is delivered in or out of class may be worthy of closer investigation. As would an examination of whether the demands of the YES have increased over the years since its inception. The increasing requirements of schools and examinations may also place increased pressures on students, as may a greater need to work part-time whilst at school (perhaps to avoid having to get a student loan in order to undertake tertiary study).

A number of interviewees described “the factors inherent in a region” as influencing the success of the YES. An in-depth investigation of the differences between regions may be a worthy exercise, particularly if such work goes beyond just the socio-economic and geographical differences.

MENTORS

Given the differences that arose in discussing the attributes of an ‘ideal’ mentor, it appears there may be merit in a closer investigation of the backgrounds of mentors involved in the YES, and the particular types of businesses they are involved with. There also appears to be a need for some re-evaluation of the role of mentors (are they ‘motivators’ or are they ‘business consultants’?). This might allow the ENZT to develop a new strategy for sourcing mentors and find a better way to deliver mentoring assistance to students that could cross geographical boundaries.

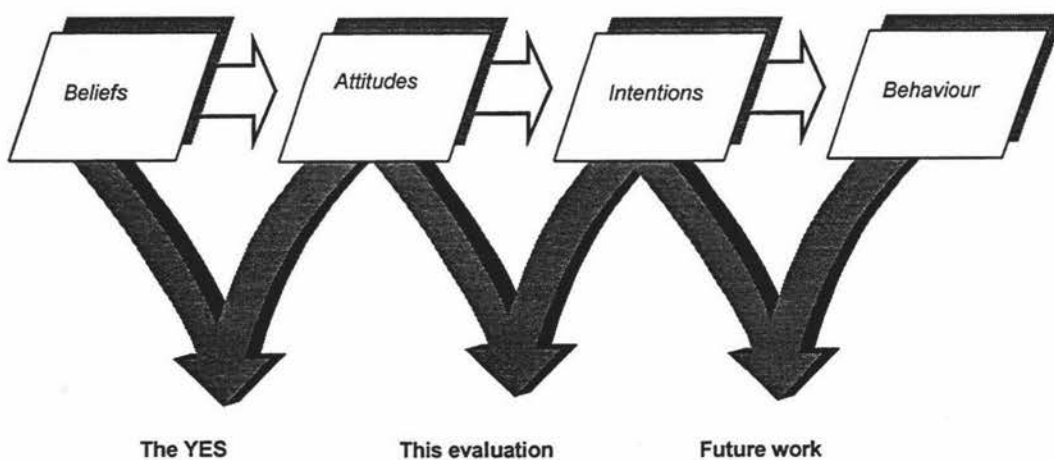
YES PARTICIPANTS

The individuality and commitment of the students participating in the YES was also seen as a contributor to the programme’s success. This point is valid and also worthy of

further investigation given the current focus in the literature on nascent entrepreneurs. Building a profile of YES participants (past and present) in terms of their extra-curricular activities, academic ability, work history, ethnicity, age, family background etc would help the ENZT gain a better understanding of trends in participation, how to improve the programme to make it more attractive and increase uptake, and provide information that may assist drives for funding and sponsorship. By tracking the activities of those who have been through the scheme the ENZT may also be able to generate publicity through the dissemination of YES success stories. Whilst the questionnaire completed by YES participants in this evaluation addressed a number of these issues, a more in-depth focus could yield data that would make a significant contribution to the body of enterprise education knowledge in New Zealand. This may also facilitate more comparative work between YES participants and non-participants in terms of enterprising activity and entrepreneurial ambitions.

As Figure 6.1 illustrates (using Fishbien and Ajzen's model (1975, cited in Boyd & Vozikis, 1994)) influencing beliefs and attitudes is the prime concern of the YES. By contrast attitudes and intentions became the focus of this evaluation. Clearly it would be beneficial to building a complete picture if a focus on intentions and behaviours formed the basis of any future work (many of the ideas and recommendations in this chapter are therefore associated with that focus).

Figure 6.1: The context for further work



RECOMMENDATIONS

Many of the recommendations in this section are related to the previously outlined areas for future research (therefore similar topic headings have been used in this section). However, due to their specificity and their ‘action orientation’ they have been described separately.

REFERENCE GROUP

The enterprising nature of the YES stakeholders involved in this evaluation demonstrated to the researcher how worthwhile it would be for the ENZT to consider forming a reference group of stakeholders to assist it in regularly evaluating aspects of YES content and delivery. The group may comprise a variety of stakeholders, or various different groups may be used (for example a school team could be used as a regular source of feedback on innovations or ideas, test new applications, or assist in the creation of programme benchmarks).

An example of the potential contribution such a group could make is inherent in the examples of initiatives implemented by regional coordinators (i.e. best practice) that could be shared with other regional coordinators. There are many examples of the differences in what coordinators do in the various regions, and how that can affect the type of experience the students have. The trade-off between the costs and benefit of facilitating more get togethers for regional coordinators is something that the ENZT should consider. A forum or meeting of regional coordinators provides them with the opportunity to network and share ideas and experiences, and gives the ENZT the opportunity to get feedback and disseminate information. In terms of regional coordinator effectiveness and retention these types of opportunities may be valuable. However, there may be other alternatives that regional coordinators could take the initiative to carry out (for example contacting other regional coordinators independently, e-mailing or setting up some type of web based information exchange). Whether the responsibility lies with the regional coordinators or the ENZT is debatable.

MENTORS

Whether mentors are actually what the YES requires is another issue worthy of consideration. The term ‘mentor’ implies ongoing support that is not always of a technical nature. Given that both the teacher and regional coordinator support the team,

one of the primary roles of a mentor in the scheme is to provide technical or business knowledge. As suggested earlier in this chapter if the ENZT were more clearly able to define what *students* wanted a mentor's role to be (by a process of consultation) it may be in a position to offer alternatives that may reduce the stress relating to sourcing mentors that many regional coordinators seem to experience.

For example, the creation of a national or regional database of YES mentors and their areas of expertise may have a number of advantages for the ENZT to consider. The difficulty of attracting and retaining mentors would be removed from the regional coordinator role. The database could be maintained centrally, regionally, or mentors could update their own information or indicate their interest via e-mail. Given the involvement of the Chambers of Commerce in the scheme in many regions already, and the fact that many of them have websites, involving more members of such networks may be easier with such a database. A database would allow teams to access the type of information they needed at the time they needed it, therefore potentially requiring the input of less time on the part of the mentor. Although the irregularity of this type of contact may be inconvenient it suggests that not all mentoring may need to be done in person. If the 'mentor' instead became a 'business consultant', and the requirement was for information rather than support, then that information could be disseminated through e-mail, phone or fax rather than in person, thereby giving mentors a greater flexibility of involvement in the scheme. Teams would also be able to access a greater variety of mentors, and the skills of one mentor would be accessible to more than one school.

It may also be time for the ENZT to consider moving away from their traditional sources of mentors and consider involving younger people (for example postgraduate business students as action research projects, members of young entrepreneurs' networks, school or YES scheme alumni who are involved in business and want to make a contribution etc.).

MARKETING

An assessment of methods for targeting students directly is also called for. The channels used for marketing the YES to students need to be reassessed and perhaps redirected to bypass 'gatekeepers'. The channels need to be more innovative, age appropriate and competitive. The ENZT needs to create a drive for enterprise education and the YES from the bottom up (i.e. bypass the 'gatekeepers'). If students in a school 'demand' an

enterprise experience then schools will respond by going out and finding a response to that demand in the enterprise education market.

TECHNOLOGY

In relation to the previous recommendation, the under-utilisation of technology in terms of YES delivery may need to be addressed in the future. The use of e-mail or web-based tools to communicate with students is a valuable innovation to be considered. In terms of timeliness this initiative appears to have merit, but the impact on the experiential model of learning and the costs of implementation and maintenance would need to be considered carefully.

EVALUATION FRAMEWORK

Finally, to assist in future evaluative work the ENZT should consider investing resources into developing an evaluation framework (perhaps given the research it has already undertaken it could perhaps be competency or attribute related). The development of this type of framework may be expedient given the Ministry of Economic Development's announcement of further funding for enterprise education (mentioned in chapter five), and the typical need for government funded initiatives to have a degree of in-built evaluation, and therefore accountability.

IN CONCLUSION

"For myself and my readers, then, I am not so much concerned with finishing up with a set of 'findings' about what really happened in the situation where I did research, but rather with developing a way of understanding a situation which can be applied to other situations" (Sims, 1981, in Reason & Rowan, 1981, p.381-382).

In parallel with conducting this evaluation the researcher kept uppermost in her mind this transferability of understanding described by Sims (1981, in Reason & Rowan, 1981). Though the evaluation results are not generalisable the researcher has translated the knowledge gained into the development of a framework that may cross the boundaries of enterprise education content and context.

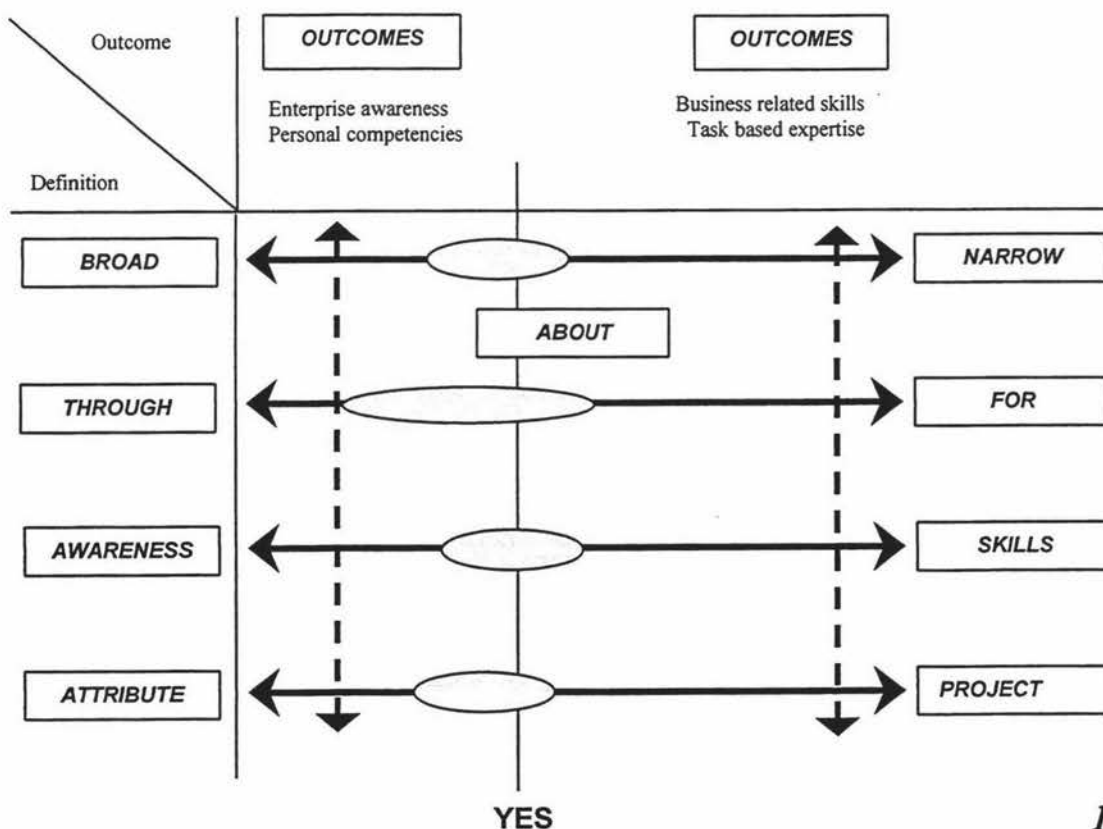
This framework, which is depicted in Figure 6.1, builds on the diagrammatic classification tool for defining enterprise education programmes portrayed in Figure 5.3. It demonstrates how the knowledge about the characteristics of a programme can be

translated into a diagrammatic representation that indicates where the programme lies in terms of the key definitional continua.

A programme is defined along each definitional continuum and then a line of ‘best fit’ is plotted to give an overall picture. The width of the oval used to define a programme on each continuum represents how a programme can be defined in relation to the constructs located on that continuum (i.e does it focus on one of the ‘extremes’ of the continuum or are its objectives a combination of both). For example, in Figure 6.1 the oval on the ‘through’, ‘about’ or ‘for’ continuum is wider than the other ovals. This indicates that the YES educates both ‘through’ and ‘about’ enterprise.

When plotted, the line of ‘best fit’ also indicates which types of outcomes the programme will most dominantly be focused on achieving. The framework is transferable to other situational contexts because the definitional continua can be adapted or updated if necessary, as can the outcomes. This model reflects what *this* responsive evaluation revealed about the YES from the perspective of the current stakeholders and this individual researcher. However, any future work could be plotted using the same framework, but additions could be made to assess the programme’s evolution or the need to address new outcomes or definitions.

Figure 6.1: An example of the diagrammatic classification applied to the YES



This evaluation aimed to contribute to the enterprise education field by amassing current knowledge, and by giving the reader a greater understanding of the YES and its context. The intrinsic merit of the YES has emerged unequivocally from this evaluation, and the potential of the scheme to contribute to the supply of those entering enterprise-oriented activities is significant. Stakeholders have described how the YES endows students with skills and strategies that will allow their natural talents to emerge to greater effect, both in the short and long term.

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APPENDIX A: INFORMATION SHEET & CONSENT
FORM FOR THE INTERVIEW PHASE

Creating the enterprise generation: Evaluating the impact of The Fletcher Challenge Trust Young Enterprise Scheme

Information Sheet

This project seeks to evaluate the impact of The Fletcher Challenge Trust Young Enterprise Scheme (YES) run by the Enterprise New Zealand Zealand Trust (ENZT). Phase one of the project involves interviews, discussion groups, and observation. The participants will be students, teachers, ENZT staff and other stakeholders. From this phase of the project the researcher hopes to understand what stakeholders perceive the benefits of the programme to be, how the programme might influence the career intentions and employability of student participants, and what it is about the programme that makes it so successful.

Stakeholder Interviews

You have been invited to participate in this project because as a teacher, ENZT staff member, YES sponsor or YES Regional coordinator you have been identified by the researcher as a key stakeholder. The researcher wishes to talk to you about what you see as being the potential benefits of the scheme, the factors that contribute to the programme's success, and aspects of best practice in terms of programme implementation.

The researcher will carry out the one-off interviews at a time and place suitable to the interviewee. It is anticipated these will take approximately ninety minutes. Each interviewee will receive a copy of the notes made by the researcher during the interview and you have the right to amend these. Participation in the interviewing process is voluntary. You are free to ask questions at any stage, and may discontinue participation at any time. Your name will not be attributed to any comment you make unless your permission is given to the researcher to do so.

If you have any questions please contact either the researcher, or supervisors, by phone or e-mail.

Researcher: Kate Lewis
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This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, WGTON Protocol 01/102.

**Creating the enterprise generation:
Evaluating the impact of The Fletcher Challenge
Trust Young Enterprise Scheme**

Consent form

I have read the information sheet provided and have had the details of the project explained to me.

I understand that I may ask further questions at any time, and am aware of the contact details of the researcher and supervisors.

I understand that I may choose not to participate at any time during the project, and not to answer a specific question.

I understand that my name will not be attributed to any statement I make without my consent.

I understand that my details will be retained by the researcher for a possible extension to the project that may be carried out in 2001.

I agree to participate in this project in accordance with the details provided in the information sheet.

I consent to my name being used in any published works: YES / NO

Signed:

Name:

Date:

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, WGTON
Protocol 01/102.

APPENDIX B: INFORMATION SHEETS & CONSENT
FORM FOR THE OBSERVATION PHASE

Creating the enterprise generation: Evaluating the impact of The Fletcher Challenge Trust Young Enterprise Scheme

Information Sheet

This project seeks to evaluate the impact of The Fletcher Challenge Trust Young Enterprise Scheme (YES) run by the Enterprise New Zealand Zealand Trust (ENZT). Phase one of the project involves interviews, discussion groups, and observation. The participants will be students, teachers, ENZT staff and other stakeholders. From this phase of the project the researcher hopes to understand what stakeholders perceive the benefits of the programme to be, how the programme might influence the career intentions and employability of student participants, and what it is about the programme that makes it so successful.

Principals & teachers

Your school, or class, has been invited to participate in this project because you currently facilitate the YES within your school environment. Your name has been provided to the researcher by the ENZT, who have asked the researcher to carry this project out. Your participation in the project could be through a variety of means including: teacher interviews, student discussion groups, or allowing the researcher to observe the YES in action. The purpose of these activities is to allow the researcher to understand what the perceived benefits of the scheme are, the factors that contribute to the programme's success, and aspects of best practice in terms of programme implementation.

The researcher will provide participants with more specific information sheets according to the type of activity they will be involved in. Participation in the project is voluntary. You are free to ask questions at any stage, and may discontinue your individual participation at any time. The names of schools, principals, and teachers will not be revealed, or attributed to any statement, unless permission is given to do so.

If you have any questions please contact either the researcher, or supervisors, by phone or e-mail.

Researcher: Kate Lewis
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This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, WGTON Protocol 01/102.

Creating the enterprise generation: Evaluating the impact of The Fletcher Challenge Trust Young Enterprise Scheme

Information Sheet

This project seeks to evaluate the impact of The Fletcher Challenge Trust Young Enterprise Scheme (YES) run by the Enterprise New Zealand Zealand Trust (ENZT). Phase one of the project involves interviews, discussion groups, and observation. The participants will be students, teachers, ENZT staff and other stakeholders. From this phase of the project the researcher hopes to understand what stakeholders perceive the benefits of the programme to be, how the programme might influence the career intentions and employability of student participants, and what it is about the programme that makes it so successful.

Student participants

You have been asked to participate in this project because you are a current YES participant, and therefore a relevant person for the researcher to talk to. You are being asked to participate in this project in two ways. Firstly, the researcher is asking you if you consent to being observed during your participation within the YES at your school. Secondly, you are being asked if you would participate in a discussion group led by the researcher. This would involve you being asked your opinions on what you think the benefits of the programme are and how you think the scheme has impacted on you as an individual.

Your participation in either of these activities will have no bearing on any of your school-based assessment. Participation is voluntary, you may ask any questions you like, and may stop participating at any time. The discussion group will be approximately two hours long and will be tape-recorded. However, your name will not be used to identify you, or attributed to any statements you make unless your permission is given to do so. As a participant you have the right to ask to see any of the notes I make when I am observing you or during the discussion group. You also have the right to ask for any of your individual contributions to be deleted from the tape made of the discussion group. These tape recordings will be destroyed at the conclusion of this project.

If you have any questions please contact either the researcher, or supervisors, by phone or e-mail.

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This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, WGTON Protocol 01/102.

**Creating the enterprise generation:
Evaluating the impact of The Fletcher Challenge
Trust Young Enterprise Scheme**

Consent form

I have read the information sheet provided on behalf of my school or class, and have had the details of the project explained to me. I have passed this information on to my students.

I understand that my students, or I, may ask further questions at any time. I am aware of the contact details of the researcher and supervisors.

I understand that I may revoke the right of my class, or school, to participate at any time during the project.

I understand that the names of the students, teachers, or school will not be attributed to any statement without their consent being sought.

I understand that contact details will be retained by the researcher for a possible extension to the project that may be carried out in 2001.

I consent to my class, or school, participating in this project in accordance with the details provided in the information sheet.

I consent to names being used in any published works: YES / NO

Signed:

Name:

Date:

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, WGTON
Protocol 01/102.

APPENDIX C: INFORMATION SHEET & CONSENT
FORM FOR THE FOCUS GROUP PHASE

Creating the enterprise generation: Evaluating the impact of The Fletcher Challenge Trust Young Enterprise Scheme

Information Sheet

This project seeks to evaluate the impact of The Fletcher Challenge Trust Young Enterprise Scheme (YES) run by the Enterprise New Zealand Zealand Trust (ENZT). Phase one of the project involves interviews, discussion groups, and observation. The participants will be students, teachers, ENZT staff and other stakeholders. From this phase of the project the researcher hopes to understand what stakeholders perceive the benefits of the programme to be, how the programme might influence the career intentions and employability of student participants, and what it is about the programme that makes it so successful.

Discussion group

You have been asked to participate in this project because you are a past participant of the YES, and therefore a relevant person for the researcher to talk to. During the discussion group you will be asked your opinions on what you think the benefits of the programme are and how you think the scheme has impacted on you as an individual.

Participation is voluntary, you may ask any questions you like, and may stop participating at any time. The discussion group will be approximately two hours long and will be tape-recorded. However, your name will not be used to identify you, or attributed to any statements you make unless your permission is given to do so. As a participant you have the right to request to see any notes made about the discussions. You also have the right to ask to have any of your individual contributions to be deleted. These tape recordings will be destroyed at the conclusion of this project.

If you have any questions please contact either the researcher, or supervisors, by phone or e-mail.

Researcher: Kate Lewis
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This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, WGTON Protocol 01/102.

**Creating the enterprise generation:
Evaluating the impact of The Fletcher Challenge
Trust Young Enterprise Scheme**

Consent form

I have read the information sheet provided and have had the details of the project explained to me.

I understand that I may ask further questions at any time, and am aware of the contact details of the researcher and supervisors.

I understand that I may choose not to participate at any time during the project, not to answer a specific question.

I understand that group discussions will be tape-recorded, and that I have the right to request to have any of my individual contributions deleted.

I understand that my name will not be attributed to any statement I make without my consent.

I understand that my details will be retained by the researcher for a possible extension to the project that may be carried out in 2001.

I agree to participate in this project in accordance with the details provided in the information sheet.

I consent to my name being used in any published works: YES / NO

Signed:

Name:

Date:

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, WGTON
Protocol 01/102.

APPENDIX D: QUESTIONNAIRE

**Creating the enterprise generation:
Evaluating the impact of The Fletcher Challenge Trust
Young Enterprise Scheme**

Questionnaire Information Sheet

Dear Student,

I am asking you to complete this questionnaire because you are a current Young Enterprise Scheme (YES) participant. The scheme is run by the Enterprise New Zealand Trust (ENZT) and it has asked me to do an evaluation of the scheme.

My name is Kate Lewis (021 477086, K.V.Lewis@xtra.co.nz) the questionnaire is also part of my Masterate studies at Massey University. The project is being run through the New Zealand Centre for SME Research, part of Massey University.

If you are a student who is under 16 years of age and who wants to fill in a questionnaire you will need to ask your teacher for a parental consent form. You will need to take it home and have your parent or guardian sign it before you can fill in the questionnaire. If you are 16 or over you are free to decide whether you wish to fill in the questionnaire.

If you read this information and choose to complete the questionnaire you are consenting to participate in this research project. As such you have the following rights:

- You will not be asked for your name on the questionnaire, so all your responses will be anonymous.
- To decline to participate (by handing this questionnaire back blank to your teacher).
- To choose not to answer any question you do not wish to.
- To ask your teacher any questions you have about the questionnaire, or to contact me.

The questionnaire will take you approximately 30 minutes to complete. When you have finished please hand it back to your teacher and they will send it back to me.

Thanks for your help.

(My research supervisors are Dr Claire Massey (04 8012794 x6508, C.L.Massey@massey.ac.nz) & Dr Andrea McIlroy (04 8012794 x6631, A.McIlroy@massey.ac.nz).

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, WGTON, Protocol 01/122.

INSTRUCTIONS

This questionnaire is divided into 5 sections. The answers to the questions are either YES or NO (requiring you to tick the circle next to the most appropriate answer) or short answer (requiring you to write in the space provided). All questions are optional. The first section asks some general questions about you.

Section One: Background information

1. How old are you?
2. What year are you in at school?
3. What is the name of the school you attend?
4. Have you taken part in the Young Enterprise Scheme before this year?

 YES
 NO

Section Two: Enterprising role models

Section two asks you about people you know who run their own business.

5. Do you know anyone among your family, relatives, or friends who runs their own business?

 YES
 NO

If you answered YES please also answer Question 6, if you answered NO move to question 7.
6. Please select the description/s that describe your relationship/s to the people you know who run their own business.

 Parent
 Brother/Sister
 Other relative
 Personal friend
 Family friend

Section Three: Your Young Enterprise Scheme Experience

This section asks you to describe your Young Enterprise Scheme experience.

7. Which of the statements below MOST accurately describes why you chose to participate in the Young Enterprise Scheme.

Because it is an activity that is run during the classes I take.

Because I chose to do it as an activity outside of class time.

8. Do you think participating in the Young Enterprise Scheme has improved your chances of getting a job?

YES

NO

If you answered YES please also answer Question 9, if you answered NO move to question 10.

9. Which of the following statements describe how you think your employment chances have been improved by your participation in the Young Enterprise Scheme.

It will look good on my Curriculum Vitae or resume.

YES has taught me skills that are related to running a business.

YES has let me try different activities that I might not have considered as a career (e.g. marketing).

YES has given me the chance to show prospective employers that I have interacted with people outside the school environment (e.g. other adults and business people)

YES has given me an opportunity to put learning into practice.

Participating in the YES has helped me develop my personal skills (e.g. time management, being responsible, being co-operative, communicating with others, public speaking).

YES has made me more aware of employment opportunities in the self-employment sector.

10. In your own words please describe what you liked most about participating in the Young Enterprise Scheme.

11. In your own words please describe what you liked least about participating in the Young Enterprise Scheme.

12. If you had the opportunity would you like to continue running your Young Enterprise company when the scheme has finished, or when you leave school?

YES

NO

Section Four: What it means to you to be enterprising

This section asks you to describe what you think being 'enterprising' means.

13. Please list 3 words or phrases that describe what you think it means to be enterprising.

14. Do you think participating in the Young Enterprise Scheme has shown you how to be more enterprising?

YES

NO

If you answered YES please also answer Question 15, if you answered NO move to question 16.

15. Please describe how you think the Young Enterprise Scheme has shown you how to be more enterprising.

16. Do you think encouraging students to be enterprising is important?

YES

NO

Section Five: Your future

This section asks you some questions about the influence the Young Enterprise Scheme might have had on your choices about the future.

17. Please select the ONE statement that most accurately describes what you intend to do when you leave school.
- Undertake further study at a tertiary institution.
 - Look for a full-time job.
 - Travel overseas.
 - Other
18. Have your decisions about what you want to do when you leave school been influenced at all by your participation in the Young Enterprise Scheme?
- YES
 - NO
- If you answered YES please also answer Question 19, if you answered NO move to question 20.
19. In your own words please describe how you think participating in the Young Enterprise Scheme has influenced your choices.

20. Please select the ONE phrase that describes how likely it is that you will start your own business in the future.
- Very likely
 - Likely
 - Unlikely
 - Not at all likely
 - Don't know
21. If in the future you had the opportunity to start your own business, what type of business would it be?

How old would you like to be when you started it?

Thank you for your time – please hand this questionnaire back to your teacher