Social Entrepreneurship Education: Policy, Core Themes and Developmental Competencies

Elizabeth Chell
Small Business Research Centre, Kingston University

Mine Karata-Özkan and Katerina Nicolopoulou
School of Management, University of Southampton

Abstract. Examining the policy context for social enterprises in the UK, in this paper, we argue for a comprehensive educational approach to meet the needs of social entrepreneurs and other stakeholders associated with social enterprises. We separate out the requirement of business competence and entrepreneurial capability that will enable the social entrepreneur and his team to assure the sustainability of the enterprise. We propose a framework that incorporates - from an education perspective - a number of specific areas in terms of skills and competences that social enterprises and social entrepreneurs should develop in order to tackle the challenges and needs in the domain of their business activity. We highlight that there are specific competencies to be developed in order for social entrepreneurship to be a terrain of more sustainable, innovative and creative venturing. The research discusses the value of developing a layered understanding of an educational approach for social entrepreneurship, whereby the scales of micro/meso/macro are taken into consideration: the individual experience, the relational community experience and the macro level experience with the field of entrepreneurship.

Keywords: social enterprise, social entrepreneurship, education, not-for-profit, sustainability, skills.

1. Introduction

The paper seeks to address critical issues in social entrepreneurship and social enterprises, through relevant literatures that enable a definition of the nature of social entrepreneurship, the identification of apparent characteristics and needs that may be met by finely tuned continual professional development programmes and illustrated by insights from an interview with a social entrepreneur, in order to help the researchers focus their attention on the critical issues involved. The paper puts forward both an educational model as well as a comprehensive educational

1. Acknowledgement: We would like to thank two anonymous reviewers of the BAM conference for their comments on an earlier version of this paper in 2005. We also thank two anonymous reviewers from IJEE for their helpful comments that gave us the opportunity to consider the paper further. As ever we take full responsibility for any remaining errors.
agenda that specifically addresses the organisational characteristics relevant to social enterprises and the process of social entrepreneurship.

2. Background

A crucial part of the UK governmental enterprise policy is to foster social entrepreneurship and to encourage the creation of social enterprises. Social enterprise is defined by the Government as ‘a business with primarily social objectives whose surpluses are principally reinvested for that purpose in the business or in the community, rather than being driven by the need to maximise profit for shareholders’ (DTI, 2002, 2003). According to Defourny (2001: 17-18) social enterprises have the following social dimensions: a) an explicit aim to benefit the community and to promote a sense of social responsibility at the local level, eg in the reintegration of socially excluded groups; b) social enterprises usually result from the collective dynamics involving people belonging to a community that shares a certain aim or ideology; c) social enterprises are characterised by a stakeholder-driven participatory decision-making mode.

The need to know more about social enterprises and the social entrepreneurship process is driven by the following: a) a policy debate, which has led to the need to create an enabling environment in order to support their development; b) the global and national contexts against which social entrepreneurship has developed. This entails the globally-applicable issues related to ‘paradigm of corporate accountability’, and, the national context, the governmental and academic pronouncement of the ‘enterprise culture’ in Britain since the early 1980s. Increased privatisation of public services and government contracting as well as an increased ‘efficiency’ focus of the public sector are some of the enabling conditions for social enterprise. Smallbone and Lyon (2004) argue that relevant concepts are local economic and regional development, particularly in urban areas; inclusion through the development of community-level enterprises, social economy, democratic ownership and control, community empowerment and engagement, social capital, and interpersonal networks. The importance and power of entrepreneurship to transform society, not only in terms of the new business innovations or products, but also in terms of the multiple effects on society and education are increasingly acknowledged (Walstad, 2003). Given the nature of these debates, it is timely to consider the nature of social enterprise and social entrepreneurship, and how capability in social enterprise might be developed.
3. Critical Propositions about the Nature of Social Enterprise and Social Entrepreneurship

1. The nature of ‘social enterprises’ is different to that of ‘enterprises’ and possibly other ‘non-profits’. The same holds also for ‘social entrepreneurship’ versus ‘entrepreneurship’.

Given the values that social enterprises espouse – enterprise, innovation, competitiveness and social inclusion – (DTI, 2002), social enterprises aim to create social value rather than personal wealth for the leader-manager (Chell, 2004). So to what extent ‘can we differentiate between entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship?’.

Philosophically, social and economic entrepreneurs can be positioned in the same space (Chell, 2007). However, Dees (2000) argues that Not-For-Profit (NFP) businesses occupy a spectrum from grant-dependency, where the beneficiary cannot pay for the service that is being offered to NFPs that operate with a mix of income streams, where the primary source of income is from a surplus created and reinvested to ensure sustainability of the enterprise. The fact that social enterprises are defined around the concept of a ‘multiple’ bottom line (referring to the creation of financial, social and environmental value for the benefit of the community and wider social world) would appear to circumscribe them in a different light. In practice, it suggests greater complexity at the managerial level for ensuring sustainability. Thus, where social enterprises have attracted little grant-aid, the directors of the social enterprise would, presumably, need to be just as, if not more, entrepreneurial and innovative as the economic entrepreneur whose primary goal is wealth creation and capital accumulation (Chell, 2000).

The prevalent concept for social enterprises is that of ‘triple bottom line’ that highlights the ways in which a business model for enterprise could be built to account for those three aspects and thereby create ‘social value’. For example, Boschee and McClurg (2003) argue that the income strategies of social entrepreneurs are tied directly to their mission.

With a growing concern and need for sustainability issues, the nub of our argument is that social enterprises need to make a surplus that will assure their survival, and to do so in the long term they would need to behave entrepreneurially, i.e. to create and pursue opportunities, with a view to both creating wealth that may be reinvested in the business to assure its sustainability, and social value (Chell, 2004, Chell, 2007).

This definition – based on the Harvard definition of entrepreneurial behaviour (Stevenson, 1985; Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990; Hart et al., 1995) – raises some issues in respect of social enterprise: Do social enterprises operate in
a competitive environment and thus do they need to pursue and exploit such opportunities?

Kwiatkowski (2004) argues in respect to economic enterprise activity, that not only should a defining entrepreneurial characteristic be the pursuit of opportunity ‘without regard to alienable resources currently controlled’ but that we should also consider those inalienable resources of the entrepreneur that may be social, personal, and intangible, include tacit knowledge, emotional intelligence, and the use of social networks, in other words, their social capital (Chell, 2007).

Loidl-Keil (2002) sees social enterprise either as a commercial business enterprise with an engagement in social/human aspects or an organisation in social services, e.g. non-profit organisation, where arguably, this term has a lot less negative connotations than non-for-profit (Loidl-Keil, 2002). Thompson, Alvy and Lees (2000) claim that

...we need social entrepreneurs, people who realise where there is an opportunity to satisfy some unmet need that the state welfare system will not or cannot meet, and who gather together the necessary resources (generally people, often volunteers, money and premises) and use them to ‘make a difference’. (p. 328)

The above have the following implications on:

a) The type of people drawn into social enterprises/community businesses that have different aspirations and motivations from the prototypical entrepreneur (Chell et al, 1991); and, b) the different culture and ethos that is present in the socially driven versus the commercially driven enterprise. As Kent and Anderson (2003:28) put it ‘success in business and society requires relationship-based organisations, ‘social communities’, based on trust, and commitment.’

2. Business models and modes of finance for social enterprise need to be rethought.

There seems to be a lack of an overarching and convincing business model accepted in this domain; indeed there appears to be an internal discourse that deters or discourages wealth generation (profit making) activity on principle (Chell, 2004; 2007). In an alternative business model, outcomes are split between ‘not-for-profit’ and wealth generation that is used to invest in the charitable part of the business and assure its sustainability (Tracey et al, 2004). Kingston (2005) has suggested that there are three potential modes of financing a social enterprise, such as social investment (providing loans to charities or taking a share in other not-for-profits); providing patient capital (providing a return well below market rates, or not a full return on an equity investment); investing through ‘venture philanthropy’ (in order to build the core capacity of funded organisations).
In a special issue of this journal, Dees and Anderson (2003) argue that creation and management of social enterprises comprise many challenges, which mainly arise from the complexity of combining two very different kinds of objectives. Macro-contextual factors, such as market pressures to compromise on social value creation or political pressures to compromise on financial performance add to this complexity. The authors maintain that these challenges can be met by a) being clear about the venture’s mission, including both social and economic objectives; b) articulating a comprehensive business model that integrates a plausible social impact theory; and c) recognizing the limits of what can be done for profit and use not-for-profit partners or affiliates to supply complementary services.

Furthermore, the changing notion of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has brought about new practices in large corporate organisations, which are increasingly engaging with social entrepreneurship activity, e.g. in terms of financing strategically aligned social enterprise ventures. Whilst Tracey et al. (2004) note that some scholars have gone as far as to suggest that corporations are experiencing a ‘crisis of legitimacy’, the existence of social enterprises still offers them an alternative mechanism to act in socially responsible ways along the above lines.

3. The nature of social enterprises is different depending on the socio-economic context in which they belong.

Amin et al (2002) have stressed that international differences in social enterprises reflect differences in welfare systems, in political and institutional contexts in particular, such as lack of a publicly funded welfare system in the US, a strong welfare system in Europe, and the contraction of the welfare system in the UK—the latter having boosted the role of the social economy.

In Austria, for example, social enterprises form part of an active labour market policy, since they provide a means to quality and reinstatement of the long-term unemployed into the labour market and society more generally (Loidl-Keil, 2002). Therefore they maintain a relatively high degree of business-like nature whereas, in other European countries, the term ‘social enterprise’ is less clearly defined. Loidl-Keil (2002) refers to the examples of Finland and Sweden, where, because of socioeconomic conditions, social enterprises are not differentiated to such a large extent from ‘enterprises’ per se. They also refer to the example of the US, where social enterprises are usually run as ‘branches’ of for-profits, financed by the surpluses of the latter. Borzaga and Santuari (2000) refer to the example of Italy, where social enterprises are firmly based in the tradition of co-operatives, which have functioned as providers of employment in an employment market system that needed some form of social solidarity. McConachie and Simpson (2003) describe the role of social enterprise in an
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Australian university, where the focus through a participatory educational programme was on the local community. The extent to which ‘best practices’ from different systems can be studied and emulated has been reported as very limited, not because of its potential usability, but because no existing models and networks for such knowledge sharing yet exist (Laville and Nyssens, 2001).

4. Social enterprise is based on social capital; theory and understanding can be informed by a Social Constructionist research paradigm.

Social capital is defined as ‘the stock of active connections among people, the trust, mutual understanding and the shared values and behaviours that bind the members of human networks and communities and make cooperative action possible’ (Cohen and Prusak, 2001). If this is the case, we would have to rethink how this applies to relationships moderating social enterprises and their stakeholders.

Managing these additional relationships has meant that the process of social enterprise is different from that of a privately owned entrepreneurial venture. The social values entailed in the mission of the enterprise have tended to attract particular types of people that have reinforced the social/community-focused construction. Absorbing volunteer labour, for example, has meant that the enterprises operate differently from economically driven enterprises, with a growth and sustainability agenda. The absence of training or business capability overlain by missionary zeal has given a different complexion and ethos to certain of these social and community enterprises.

Hence, we argue that social enterprises have tended in the past (a) to be grant-dependent (b) to be non-self sustaining and (c) to employ non-entrepreneurial staff. These three characteristics have given them a particular construction, potentially throwing them into jeopardy and (ironically) undermining their social value. Rather, to be sustainable as businesses, social and community businesses should pursue their endeavours in a thoroughly entrepreneurial way.

According to Kent and Anderson (2003) the key to learning is being a member of a social community within which trust and other forms of social capital are prevalent. The authors argue that ‘….from the earliest explorations of entrepreneurial psychology…it has been determined that money was not the ultimate payoff which motivated entrepreneurs… whether self actualisation or the thrill of achievements, social entrepreneurs will work for the common good without the expectation of high salaries bonuses or stock options’ (p.39). Hence it is possible to conceive of entrepreneurs as having social values that they could inject into the further development of social enterprises. This construction would suggest a melding of social and economic enterprise for the benefit of all.

Drawing the threads of the above together, we suggest a model with the following characteristics: Not-for-personal profit enterprises comprise business activity, which generates value for social ends and wealth to enable reinvestment
and sustainability of the business. To achieve this, the enterprise team needs to be entrepreneurially led in the specific sense that it is able to recognise and pursue opportunities; draw upon whatever social, financial and other resources are at its disposal; and to translate these elements into realised opportunities – in other words, practical and actual valued social and economic outcomes. Social entrepreneurs within this model, have the intellectual capacity, the thought processes and the imagination to recognise opportunity based on their technical and/or professional experience; they have the social and personal networks including nonmaterial, human and social capital resources; and they have the personal ability to make judgments about appropriate courses of action that will result in the pursuit of an opportunity of socio-economic value, based on the realisation of a competitive advantage (Chell, 2007). All business opportunities involve customer choice. Competitive advantage confers rarity or some other socio-economic value, which social entrepreneurs could create. In these ways social enterprises could become self-sustainable; indeed they could create social and economic change through the development of a vibrant form of doing business.

Two specific examples that could illustrate the above include:

a) Laville and Nyssens (2001) who claim that the basic difference between social and other types of enterprise lies within its structures, such as the structure of ownership. This suggests the need to understand that property rights lie with workers, consumers, benefactors, investors amongst others and promote collective benefits. It is therefore proposed (Laville and Nyssens, 2001) that the management of such ‘collective externalities’ is best done through charismatic leadership.

b) Borzaga and Santuari (2000), on the other hand, claim that the difference between social and other types of enterprise lies in the former’s ability to attract workers who are ethically motivated, therefore shifting away from traditional employment relationships and traditionally conceived opportunistic management behaviour, but with a need for a specific legal framework that caters for the specificity of their nature.

Both examples highlight the different nature of social enterprises, the need to view them in a collective, ‘network’ light, with implications for the specific management and leadership styles to be employed. Furthermore, these examples suggest that there is no one single model enjoying precisely the same characteristics. Rather, there are different models derived from different socio-economic contexts and perspectives. Notwithstanding such differences, at the heart of any enterprise activity is the need to create a sustainable business, which requires injections of capital, the generation of value and sufficient reinvestment to ensure continuity and development. If our argument is accepted, there are implications for
the continued professional development of various stakeholders in social and community enterprise.

4. Education and Training in Social Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship, or certain facets of it, can be taught (Kuratko, 2005). The enterprise or entrepreneurship education agenda has been a manifestation of the enterprise culture discourse in the UK. Over the last two decades the number of courses and programmes aimed at entrepreneurship and enterprise has increased (Solomon et al., 2005) and more in USA, Europe and the UK (Gibb, 2002; Chell and Allman, 2003; Levie, 1999). Chell and Allman (2003) point out the insufficiency of these programmes to address the need for a cultural shift from a theoretical and analytical education system to a practical and applied one. The authors posit that a balance should be established in which students are given a framework of understanding that is extended to the development of capability at individual and team levels. Gibb (2002) supports this view and argues that there is a need for sound conceptual frameworks to underpin entrepreneurship education programmes. In many of the models a key objective is the development of entrepreneurial attributes and behaviours. However, it is clear that values (Fagenson, 1993) and attitudes (Robinson et al., 1991) are also critical. This is pertinent to the professional development of people with social and not solely economic agenda.

Entrepreneurship education differs from business education in the sense that the entrepreneurial process of new business creation is a different activity than managing an established business (Solomon et al., 2002). However, many models of entrepreneurship education narrowly conceive of the entrepreneurial process as linear and do not integrate contextual factors (Laukkanen, 2000). The degree of uncertainty and complexity in the context, task and process environment in which the entrepreneur operates, are missing in such models. Thus, it is argued, entrepreneurship education should address a number of areas such as the Cognitive, as exemplified in creative thinking and developing imagined futures, exposure to risk and its management, skill-building courses in negotiation, leadership, new product development and innovation (McMullan & Long, 1987; Vesper and MacMullen, 1998; Solomon et al., 2002); and the Affective – instanced in how it feels to be self-employed, take on responsibilities for others, manage risk and their implications. The development of such capabilities would appear to be desirable characteristics of social entrepreneurs, based on the above analysis (critical propositions). Kourilsky and Hentschke (2003) support this view by highlighting the notion of ‘entrepreneurial thinking’ for economic and social entrepreneurs, which entails a rich framework of skills, intellectual attributes, and innovative approaches.
Kuratko (2003) argues that we should be clear that the notion of entrepreneurship is more than the creation of a business. Rather, the characteristics of seeking opportunities, taking risk beyond security, and having the tenacity to push an idea through to reality, combine into a special perspective that permeates entrepreneurs. This ‘entrepreneurial perspective’ can be developed in individuals and yet can be exhibited in profit or not-for-profit enterprises and in business or non-business activities for the purpose of bringing forth creative ideas (Kuratko, 2005). Chell (2004) associates some of these with ‘enterprising qualities’ that refer to resourcefulness, initiative and drive.

Many British universities are moving towards more applied and integrative approaches where they can facilitate technology transfer within a comprehensive framework of enterprise and entrepreneurship education. In the light of the above, we argue for the need to develop capacity and capability to deliver all forms of enterprise education and training to support enterprise activity in its various forms, from the social enterprise to the highly profitable, spin out company. The following diagram summarises this approach with a view to equipping potential entrepreneurs with knowledge, understanding, capability and access to resources pertaining to the form of entrepreneurial activity that they engage with:

Figure 1: A model of an integrated approach to entrepreneurship education

Activity: Self-employment Commercially/ growth oriented High growth/High tech
Social considerations entrepreneurial activity Commercial considerations

Form of enterprise
Self-employed Small and medium
Social enterprise sized enterprises Spin-out company
low growth moderate growth high growth

Being an entrepreneur is rather like being a doctor, an artist or a musician in one crucial respect – all improve their capability through practice. Hence within an entrepreneurship education programme, it is important to include techniques such as live case studies, heuristic methods, such as learning sets, simulations of an enterprise environment and projects in which the student can apply their knowledge and understanding. Nascent entrepreneurs tend to have a specific
focus and reason for learning. They usually learn on a ‘need-to-know’ basis. Therefore, using heuristic, project-based and experiential learning methods, educators can cater for the differing needs of nascent entrepreneurs at various stages of their learning process (Kolb, 1984). Mentoring of student projects by practitioners increases the likelihood of absorption of tacit knowledge and understanding honed from experience. Learning may be enhanced by enabling students to practice entrepreneurship through fieldwork and venture capitalist placements (Burke, 2003). This project-based heuristic method of ‘learning by doing’ facilitates melding concept and practice and results in a range of learning (Gibb, 1997; Chell and Allman, 2003; Cope, 2003, 2005). Based on their practice-based experience, nascent entrepreneurs develop the ability to abstract and generalise across contexts, to recognise patterns and build relationships between different situations and events, including theoretical situations and practice, what has been called ‘generative learning’ (Cope, 2005), a style that involves developing insights from past and present events and applying them to future actions (Boud et al., 1985; Daudelin, 1996; Cope, 2005). Through such project work, placements or other types of exposure to the practice of entrepreneurship, nascent entrepreneurs are able to make sense of critical aspects of business venturing, such as funding, intellectual property rights issues, leadership and team management, by developing a ‘stock of knowledge’ (Minniti and Bygrave, 2001) or ‘experiential stock’ (Reuber and Fischer, 1999) that will accumulate over time and be utilised in pertinent contexts.

A social constructionist approach (Chell, 2000; Steyaert and Katz, 2004; Downing, 2005; Anderson, 2005; Karatas-Ozkan, 2006) enables us to take into consideration different stakeholders during the business venturing process and address their needs more effectively, as it would help us conceive of ways in which social order and transformation are rooted in joint-sense making and identity-construction. These social processes precede and underpin accounts of organizational development and changing business models as the results of the interplay of markets, culture, large institutionalizing forces or networking, relationships and personal entrepreneurial learning and managing (Downing, 2005: 188). Therefore, they should be examined at these different levels – micro, meso and macro (Karatas-Ozkan et al, 2006).

A multidimensional approach to studying organisational phenomena has been advocated by a number of scholars (e.g. Bourdieu, 1998, 1999; Nicolopoulou, 2001; Ozbilgin, 2005; Ozbilgin and Tatli, 2005). The nature of social entrepreneurship makes this need more prominent because social entrepreneurship involves a process that is driven by personal (i.e. economic value creation) and social (i.e. social value creation) objectives and is embedded in a broader field of relationships constructed between social entrepreneurs and members of the community they are serving; funding bodies; and governmental institutions. We are thus, aiming to develop a framework that would facilitate a change in the way that social entrepreneurship is being addressed from such a
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multi-dimensional perspective in educational settings. The above has been identified as a need both in terms of a pedagogical approach (Neary and Parker, 2004) as well as from an identity creation perspective (Diaz and Rodriguez 2003).

5. An Educational Framework for Social Entrepreneurship

From the above analysis we suggest that an educational framework for social entrepreneurship should focus on the following aspects:

a) The notion of Sustainability, as a prerequisite of entrepreneurial venturing success for the social enterprise. This notion would address the need of the social enterprise to move beyond ‘grant dependency’ into ‘creating and pursuing opportunities relentlessly, with a view to both creating wealth which might be reinvested in the business to assure its sustainability and social value’ (Chell, 2004, Chell, 2007). It would be necessary to add that ‘alternative’ business models should address such a need, like the one developed by the ‘Social Enterprise Coalition’ (Bland 2004), whereby the social enterprise would include the imperative to i) Create wealth and employment, ii) help develop sustainable communities, and, iii) develop new ways to deliver public services.

b) The notion of ‘social value’ (expressed as either ‘double’ or ‘triple bottom line’) is defined by Bland (2004) to include financial profit, social benefit and environmentally responsible production. ‘Value’ would then be conceptualised in a much more holistic and all-encompassing way than in purely financial terms. This logic corresponds to sound economic understanding of the issue of ownership (Laville and Nyssens, 2001). Instead of shareholders, to whom, in the case of ‘for-profit’ enterprises are accountable, social entrepreneurs would be accountable to ‘stakeholders’, that form a ‘social capital based on reciprocal relations in the public sphere’ (Laville and Nyssens, 2001).

c) The above suggest the necessity to explore further and share best practices within international/cross cultural approaches to social entrepreneurship. Depending on the socio-economic context, the concept of social entrepreneurship highlights a different (more holistic) understanding of entrepreneurship, which corresponds to the reality of some ‘developing’ economies in particular, where corporatism, capitalism, business and entrepreneurial activity involve a wider network of external stakeholders that are culturally perceived in an array of different ways. The purpose of such a comparative analysis could result in ‘benchmarking’ that would create a basis of comparison and integration of best practices from around the world. Since the generation of innovation from social enterprise usually is difficult to emulate and transfer because of scale and resources (Borzaga and Santuari, 2000) and also because of the difficulty of
capturing cultural meanings, practices and values, comparative analysis could help generate wider conceptualisations, innovative solutions to problems and the basis for elevating social enterprise to a different level both in terms of professional capability and effective and efficient organisation. Holden (2002: 59) introduces the cross-cultural perspective as ‘a synergistic action and learning at interfaces where knowledge, values and experience are transferred into multicultural domains of implementation’. This fits the strong focus on values that social enterprises embrace.

d) Finally, taking into consideration the need to acquire and exhibit entrepreneurial skills during the early stages of the business venture, individual as well as team and organisational competences are important. It is through acquiring such a skill set that the social entrepreneur will master his/her competence as a business founder and agent of change (Chell et al., 1991).

6. ‘New Resource Skills’ in the Social Enterprise

An exploratory interview took place with a founder of an established social enterprise in the UK. This stimulated our thinking further about the skill requirement of the social entrepreneur. In order to achieve a sustainable enterprise, the nascent enterprise would need a set of skills that includes both managerial and organizational competencies. In particular, the founder stressed that the development of the appropriate entrepreneurial competences would have to focus on the following issues:

…maintaining and managing the vision through everyday practice…. (congruence) should exist between the main ‘cultural values’ of the social enterprise and the cultural values of the employees…. along the lines of vision, structure and style in the social enterprise……. An internal rule exists, whereby a statement of faith is necessary for employment in those aspects of the enterprise where this played a critical role ….. This had to adhere to the policy making rules of non-discrimination, and so, for example, administrative staff or the accountant there is no such requirement….. currently the organization is expanding and there is a need to employ a board of managers, who will have to go through the everyday motions of managing the enterprise….. (The challenge is therefore now) how to achieve this while at the same time remaining true to the initial founding values of the enterprise?’. (Founder of the social enterprise explored for this study)

Thompson, Alvy and Lees (2000) support this in terms of education, training and development needs for the sector. According to the authors,

...they need to include a focus on confidence-building and leadership skills, using people who have already achieved in the field and who are happy and
willing to share their learning….they must be willing to ‘sell the vision’ and get hold of the resources through networking’. (ibid: 337)

This ability to envision opportunities and capability in garnering resources are what social entrepreneurs have in common with economic entrepreneurs. This capability has been termed ‘new resource skills’ introduced by Baum and Locke (2004) in their study examining the relationship of entrepreneurial traits, skill, and motivation to subsequent venture growth. The authors define it as ‘the ability to acquire and systematise the operating resources needed to start and grow an organization’ (p. 589). Entrepreneurs’ new resource skill applies to finding capital and human resources in developing a new enterprise with its new operations and systems (Stevenson, 1985; Bhide, 2000). This should go beyond Baum et al.’s (2001) concept of ‘organisational skill’ that represents general management skill, involving communication capability, use of power diagnosis and decision making. It involves managing established resources in established settings (Baum and Locke, 2004) and relating to the capabilities that are required by the nascent entrepreneur and the organisation that he or she creates. In the context of social enterprises, it gains an additional dimension of developing the ability for building social capital, business and entrepreneurial capability. To achieve this, the enterprise team needs to be entrepreneurially led in a way that enables it to recognise and pursue opportunities; draw upon whatever social, financial and other resources are at its disposal; and translate these elements into realised opportunities, in other words practical and actual valued social and economic outcomes – the latter for reinvestment and sustainability of the enterprise.

Leadbeater (1997, as found in Conway, 2004), has indicated that a basic social entrepreneurship programme should build the following competences:

1. Raise funds
2. Recruit, Motivate and Manage People
3. Manage Budgets & Finance
4. Network and Work with Stakeholders
5. Carry out Marketing and Public Relations
6. Be cognizant of legal and organisational issues
7. Identify and utilize efficiently and effectively scarce resource

‘New resources skills’ would add to the above by building effective entrepreneurial behaviour, in particular, opportunity creation, the garnering of resources, and the understanding of the particularities of the market sector where
it is proposed to do business, as well as an understanding of the social environment and context of the enterprise, including best practices from an international and cross-cultural perspective.

Finally, these themes are reflected in Fig. 2, which encapsulates the logic of development of such an educational approach to social entrepreneurship. Words around the arrow in bold highlight the main conceptual pillars of the educational process, whilst the units described underneath each correspond to the proposed units that ‘flesh out’ these themes:

*Figure 2: The conceptual framework for the IfE/UoS educational model for social entrepreneurship*
The need for skills and competence development for the social enterprise and the social entrepreneurs highlights an approach to leadership development that will be conducive to building organisational and individual competences, which would, in turn, activate success and sustainability in a social enterprise. Social enterprise practitioners and social entrepreneurs require managerial knowledge, entrepreneurial capability and business venturing skills in order to be effective in making their social enterprises sustainable, as these grow, change and develop.

7. Conclusions

We have examined what is different between entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship, which can guide the educational approach suggested above. Moreover we have developed a clear and nuanced logic of what we mean by social enterprise and social entrepreneurship. We have argued that social enterprises require a business approach that acknowledges the importance of the economics of value creation – a surplus that can be reinvested in the business to enable business survival. But we also recognise that stakeholders in social enterprises have other agendas, additional perspectives and social values that mean that these enterprises have developed ‘triple bottom line’ logic. This suggests that the management and development of social capital for social enterprise is demanding and complex. Thus, on the one hand, such enterprises need to develop their thinking and acting in entrepreneurial ways; on the other hand, they should be true to their mission. This suggests at the very least a layer of stakeholder management that may be sophisticated as it is demanding.

Furthermore, our research shows that there are many types of social enterprise and no one model. Social entrepreneurship, and entrepreneurship in general should not be seen narrowly as a ‘start up’ activity, but a process in which quality should be permeating all its aspects and phases, highlighting issues of high growth, sustainability and variety. Table I shows the key themes that should be included in a social entrepreneurship programme that aims to address such processual aspects of social entrepreneurship in a holistic manner.

In order to achieve this, we considered the issues around achieving sustainability and growth in social enterprises, and a conceptual framework that would enable us to develop the logic for education and professional development of social entrepreneurs and, indeed, other stakeholders within this widely cast social network. We therefore would like to propose a layered understanding of such an educational approach whereby the scales of micro/meso/macro are taken into consideration: the individual entrepreneurial experience, the relational community experience and the macro-level experience with the field of entrepreneurship and the socioeconomic environment in which the social enterprise is located. A richer understanding of individual entrepreneurial learning experience, social processes that underpin the co-construction of the
entrepreneurial identities and social enterprises and the macro-level forces that impact upon these individual and relational processes can manifest itself in the form of more authoritative, accessible and differentiated educational programmes in social entrepreneurship in the context of higher education. These should assume heuristic methods of teaching and learning that would include live case studies and project-based learning by doing. Clearly there is a need for a longitudinal analysis of the outcomes of such programmes of study. This will be the subject of a future paper. In the meantime we append a table that summarises an educational agenda, which can be taken forward in research as well as practice.

Table I: The following table highlights the main themes that should be reflected in a curriculum of social entrepreneurship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme Versus/ Course units</th>
<th>Relationship to Societal &amp; Environmental issues (double/triple bottom line)</th>
<th>Skills that reflect the social entrepreneur as a change agent</th>
<th>Innovative aspects of social entrepreneurship internationally</th>
<th>Funding/grant writing/finance/sustainability</th>
<th>Stakeholder management</th>
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<td>Leadership for the Social Entrepreneur</td>
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<tr>
<td>Finance, sustainability and alternative business models</td>
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</table>
Table II: A proposed educational agenda for social entrepreneurship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‡ What are the particular skills that need to be applied for networking</td>
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<td>with social actors and long-term stakeholder relationship management</td>
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<tr>
<td>in the context of ‘collective externalities’?</td>
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<tr>
<td>‡ Which are the particular psychological and organisational conditions</td>
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<td>that can foster commitment and continuous development in a social</td>
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<td>enterprise?</td>
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<tr>
<td>‡ How can a social constructionist approach be used in order to study the</td>
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<td>network perspective crucial to the social enterprise?</td>
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<tr>
<td>‡ How can the main pillars of social entrepreneurship (i.e. double/triple</td>
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<td>bottom line approach) be translated to education programmes that would</td>
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<td>enable financial sustainability while at the same time retaining the</td>
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<td>social and environmental underpinnings of social enterprises?</td>
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<tr>
<td>‡ Employing an international and cross-cultural outlook, how can we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>design such education and training programmes that would appeal to</td>
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<tr>
<td>different cohorts with different characteristics and needs?</td>
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<td>And in terms of practical, competence-driven considerations:</td>
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<tr>
<td>‡ Which is the most appropriate organisational form for social enterprises?</td>
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<tr>
<td>‡ What kind of leadership can foster the sharing and enactment of the</td>
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<tr>
<td>ethics of the double/triple bottom line for social enterprises?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‡ How can long term network alliances foster the logic and ethics of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double/triple bottom line?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‡ What are the particular organizational policies that can foster sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of best practices on a national and international (global) level?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References:


Kingston, J. (2005), New approaches to funding not-for-profit organisations, revised edition of New approaches to funding charities and other social enterprises, May 2003 original edition, at http://www.venturesome.org


