An investigation of emerging signature pedagogy for social entrepreneurship and the sharing of practice

Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of the University of Liverpool for the degree of Doctor of Education by Michelle Lorna Clément

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"Today, economic growth is still necessary, but no longer sufficient. Social entrepreneurship is the engine of positive, systemic change that will alter what we do, how we do it, and why it matters." (Neck, Brush & Allen, 2009, p.13) but "*the idea that we need to be super-human, super-clever or super-innovative is not only wrong, its super unhelpful*" (Lewis, 2017, p.93).

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I dedicate this research and commitment to life-long learning to my father who holds a very special place in my heart.

To the social entrepreneur in all of us striving to make the world a better place.

> *"What you take out of the world…is much less important than what you put into the world. Follow your contribution instead. Find the thing you're great at, put that into the world, contribute to others, help the world be better" (*Horowitz, 2015).

Abstract

Social entrepreneurs and social enterprises play a key role in society as they provide innovative solutions to society's most pressing social, cultural and environmental problems. Social entrepreneurial education is a specialized academic field with a potential to impact community issues through social and economic value creation but the complexities and uncertainties of social entrepreneurial curriculum require academics and students to balance social, environmental, and business goals. The balancing of such diverse goals coupled with the newness of the subject area creates challenges to developing and teaching social entrepreneurship (SE). Unlike entrepreneurial education, SE curriculum should reflect the social entrepreneurial business environment where emotional intelligence, compassion and empathy are skillsets that define social entrepreneurs and social enterprises. It is a complex matter, therefore, to begin teaching SE as an academic, how does one teach this subject especially for faculty used to the more traditional Business School curriculum? This study therefore aimed to elicit elements of emerging signature pedagogy for SE through semi-structured interviews with expert faculty. Signature pedagogies are the "forms of instruction that leap to mind" (Shulman, 2005b, p.52) when thinking about a discipline, are replicated across institutions, and can reveal the core values of a discipline. Social entrepreneurship is a new academic field and this study explored common pedagogical approaches across institutions offering SE programs that may create distinctive practices—signature pedagogies. Shulman's (2005a; 2005b) emphasizes the need for sharing of knowledge across institutions to sustain signature pedagogies but his work does not address how to share knowledge. This study builds on Shulman's work investigating ways of sharing of knowledge practices among academics as a way of building an emergent signature pedagogy. In a design-based research approach, two sets of interviews were conducted in this study with faculty experienced in teaching and those that were not. A Reflection And Service Learning Design (RASL) was created following the first set of interviews and introduced to faculty new to SE in the second set of interviews. Shulman's (2005b) work identifies characteristics of signature pedagogy but does not address how signature pedagogies are formed in emerging disciplines. This design-based research approach helped test the feasibility of sharing emergent signature pedagogy in SE through a learning design which also provided insight on the development of signature pedagogies.

The results of the study indicated there were both barriers to sharing and ways that building resources among faculty members could encourage a culture of sharing with the goal of establishing emergent signature pedagogy. Shulman's (2005b) work focuses on common pedagogical practices observed in the classroom by discipline but it does not address institutional support or barriers to implementation of these pedagogical practices and the findings in this study build on the institutional gap. This study concludes that the biggest influence on building social entrepreneurial pedagogy involve: institutional development of faculty around service learning and the use of student reflections in the classroom, providing administrative support for community engagement, and offering rewards for sharing resources.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION

> "*Social entrepreneurs are not content just to give a fish or teach how to fish. They will not rest until they have revolutionized the fishing industry*" (Drayton, as cited in Moses, 2013).

Bill Drayton founded Ashoka: Innovators for the Public, one of the first non-profit organizations dedicated to finding and fostering social entrepreneurs worldwide (Ashoka leadership, 2016). Drayton has received many awards including recognition as one of America's 25 best leaders in 2005 by U.S. News & World Report and by Harvard's Centre for Public Leadership (thebteam, 2016); the Goi Peace Foundations Peace Award for advancement in world peace and humanity in 2007 (goipeace, 2016); and the World Entrepreneurship Forum's Social Entrepreneur Award in 2011 for contributions to the field of social entrepreneurship (thebteam, 2016). Bill Drayton pioneered the field of social entrepreneurship "growing a global organization of nearly 3000 leading social entrepreneurs who work together to create a "changemaker" world (thebteam, 2016). I met Bill Drayton at a conference three years ago and his quote is symbolic of the work that social entrepreneurs and social enterprises are becoming known for—disrupting the way business operates in their communities and ultimately around the globe. Hoogendoorn, Pennings and Thurik (2011) explain the growth in SE as a "*growing awareness of the persistent social and ecological ills of our time with decreasing funding by the government…and an increasing demand for improved effectiveness and efficiency* " (p.4) The decrease in funding has led to an increased need in innovative approaches to social and environmental issues that can be found within social entrepreneurial strategies whether through enterprising non-profit organizations or for-profit organizations that focus on social purpose (Neck, Brush & Allen, 2009). As well, the growth in social entrepreneur activities has affected education where an increase in research studies in social entrepreneurial education (Worsham, 2012) indicates that social entrepreneurial education is a legitimate academic discipline worthy of investigation. This thesis explores the growth and challenges in emergent signature pedagogical design around social entrepreneurial (SE) undergraduate curriculum in post-secondary education. Signature pedagogy will be explored in detail in the literature review but as an introduction to the definition, signature pedagogy refers to the "*fundamental ways in which future practitioners are educated for their new professions*" (Shulman, 2005b, p.53) ultimately helping students build a "*habit of mind that*

allows them to think and act in the same manner as the experts in their field" (Gurung, Chick, & Haynie, 2012, p.2). From an educator's perspective, signature pedagogy refers to the familiar or common standard of practices or pedagogy used by instructors regardless of what institution they teach at. One key feature of the thesis is the aspect of networking or sharing knowledge as it applies to emergent signature pedagogy. Shulman (2005) says that signature pedagogy is consistent across institutions but also that signature pedagogies should be examined and redesigned to ensure alignment with their professions as professional practice and service change. Yet, Shulman does not outline how or when to collaborate or how to ensure that pedagogies are consistent. Without knowledge sharing across institutions that offer SE curriculum, how can signature pedagogy be established?

Social entrepreneurial classes are a niche area in business education and a relatively new inclusion in entrepreneurship education (Dorado, 2006; Welsh & Krueger, 2012). However, SE courses are increasing across the globe (Worsham, 2012):

> *In 2004, 20 universities in the US had a course in social entrepreneurship. Today, there are nearly 100 academic institutions that offer courses on social entrepreneurship. As a result, colleges and university are serving as incubators for young social entrepreneurs* (AshokaU, 2016, p. 15).

Miller, Wesley and Williams (2012) and Worsham (2012) all show that the increase in demand is due to community requirements for more social venture establishments, business demand through organizations, students demand for more meaningful or significant education and media demand for more information as it becomes mainstream. The increase in demand has created a need for a shared understanding of the field among educators. The actual term, social entrepreneur, has many definitions coined by different scholars since 1991 which has led to confusion about the exact meaning and application in a teaching setting (Abu-Saifan, 2012; Weerawardena and Mort, 2006; Zahra, Gedajilovic, Neubaum, & Shulman, 2009). Cho (2006) also adds to the complexity stating that it is the social component of social entrepreneurship that makes understanding the subject so difficult as social benefits are hard to define— "there is no consensus on which social objectives benefit society" (p. 52). Syllabi reflect the confusion

around the meaning of social entrepreneurship in that there is a "*wide variance of course content and quality. There is a lack of curriculum cohesiveness for social entrepreneurship"* (AshokaU, 2016, p. 16). Adding to the confusion in understanding social entrepreneurship and its application in a teaching setting is the belief that social entrepreneurship is difficult to teach given that the subject stretches across a range of applications in a field that is changing rapidly and teaching practitioners do not have opportunities to share best practices given the lack of topic-specific conferences and peer-reviewed journals (AshokaU, 2016). Waddock and Post (1991) defined social entrepreneurs as entrepreneurs employed in the public or non-profit sectors with social work backgrounds. In 1991, social entrepreneurs were only associated with social work and nonprofit motivators with no inclusion of business principles. Examples of early social entrepreneurs passionate about social work include the Oxford Committee for Famine Relief (OXFAM) set up by social activists, and The Sierra Club set up by John Muir to save the forests in the United States and to establish a national park system (Scheid, 2011). The definition of a social entrepreneur has evolved today to focus on entrepreneurial business skills that apply to social issues (Abu-Saifan, 2012). (Chapter 2 will address how to identify social issues.)

Different geographical origins have also impacted the development of the meaning of SE based on capitalism and the role of government (Bacq & Jenssen, 2011) and are reflected in Hoogendoorn, Pennings, and Thurik's (2011) research of thirty-one SE studies. The authors organized the results into two main approaches: individualistic and organizational which encompass four schools of thought: the Social Innovation School (SIS) and the Social Enterprise School (SES) based on American traditions, and the Emergence of Social Enterprise in Europe (EMES) approach and the UK approach based on European traditions. All four schools of thought share a belief in social value (versus economic value) but differ in how to complete their mission. Social value in this sense, refers to the measurement of citizen and environmental wellbeing that results from strategies implemented through organizations. The following table identifies the similarities and differences between the four approaches to SE:

	SIS	SES	EMES	UK
Format	Individual led	Enterprise led	Enterprise led	Enterprise led

	Example: Bill Drayton-Ashoka. Considered social innovators.	Example: Edward Skloot-consultant for non-profit/3rd sector	Example: Multi-stakeholder--Associations, co-operatives, mutual organisations & foundations.	Example: Government created
Background	Based on commercial entrepreneurship-discovery, evaluation, exploitation of opportunities	Non-profit venture that creates earned-income & has social mission. Initiatives come from a non-profit or the state.	Growth of social enterprises within the EU. Goods or services correlated with mission. Initiatives come from a group-the active citizens.	Profit or non-profit organizations with primarily social objectives. Goods or services not necessarily related to mission.
Funding	Less limited; uses many sources.	Earned income--not grants or subsidies. Profit constraints.	Benefit the community through citizen organizations—some profit redistribution.	Surplus reinvested in business (non-shareholder model).

Table 1: Four approaches to SE (adapted from Bacq & Jenssen, 2011; Hoogendoorn, Pennings, & Thurik, 2010 & 2011)

In looking at the four approaches to SE, Hoogendoorn, Pennings, and Thurik (2011) noted that "*none of the dimensions are underrepresented and that each of them reveals several themes. This indicates that the present body of empirical knowledge on social entrepreneurship covers a broad range of subjects.*" (p.36). All four approaches share the same focus in their emphasis on the creation of social value and the research outlines that there is no one best approach to SE—

but rather it depends on the location, the politics, the culture, and institutional values (Cho, 2006; Hoogendoorn, 2016). For instance, SIS and SES approaches are considered North American while the EMES and UK approaches are considered European. Bacq and Jenssen (2011) surmise that Americans have a more of a "now-nowism where money is the goal" (p. 380) creating the individual approach to SE whereas Europeans have more of a "shared values of equality and collective interest" (p.380) creating the organizational approach. No-nowism refers to a focus on the present and immediate gratification without thought on the impact of the future or others. This seems simplistic as Hoogendoorn (2016) found in her study that looked at the incidences of SE start-ups, that "*public sector expenditures seem to exert the most influence on a country's share of social entrepreneurship*" (p.289) followed by the quality of regulation. Countries where governments provide incentives for SE, provide leadership around social injustice, and laws that support the formation of SE, tend to see more SE activity reducing the impact of geography as the main descriptor between the four schools of thought. It would seem that "*social entrepreneurship means different things to people in different places because of the different geographical and cultural contexts in which it takes place*" (Peris-Ortiz, Teulon, & Bonet-Fernaandez, 2017, p.25).

Although the SIS approach keeps the social entrepreneur as the central focus, that does not mean that the other approaches do not pay attention to the social entrepreneur (Bacq & Jenssen, 2011). Outside of the SIS approach, the social entrepreneur is supported by a group such as an enterprise or a non-profit and it is the collective aspect of the approach that makes the social entrepreneur successful (Bacq & Jenssen, 2011). For instance, the UK approach is dependent on public sector support, in fact, the whole approach is due to the establishment of a Social Enterprise Unit in the 1990's and eventually a Ministry of the Third Sector in 2006. Although Table 1 outlines the differences in thought or motivation between the four approaches, there are no strict boundaries. There is a growing prevalence of business-like approaches (structure, goals, and processes) by non-profit organizations (Maier, Meyer & Steinbereithner, 2016) blurring the lines between for-profit and not-for-profit. The lines are blurring further as SE is becoming less distinct between private and public sectors where funding problems for non-profits lead to social and economic goals (Bacq & Janssen, 2011) and the increase in CSR leads to more social emphasis within for-profit sectors.

The social entrepreneur can also be defined further. Zahra, Gedajilovic, Neubaum, and Shulman (2009) identify three types of social entrepreneurs that fit within the individual SIS approach, but that also take into account the supports for the social entrepreneur themselves. The authors focus on the motivation of individuals or groups who concentrate on either local small-scale problems, or market failures, or systemic failures. As in Hoogendoorn, Bacq and Jenssen (2011) and Hoogendoorn, Pennings, and Thurik's (2010) models, Zahra, Gedajilovic, Neubaum, and Shulman's (2009) research notes that the motivation among the different approaches is all the same—to create social wealth and reduce social injustice.

The complexity of individual versus organizational approach presents challenges on the pedagogical approach to teaching SE—from two different perspectives. What does this mean for my research on SE? Given that the research was conducted in North America and the influence of AshokaU throughout educational institutions in North America, the SIS and SES approach is more prominent in the North American literature. The SIS and SES approach as well as AshokaU provide background to SE in this research especially given that the faculty interviewed were North American. Ashoka U is a non-profit organization aimed at fostering campus-wide social innovation through its global network of 150 colleges and universities (Ashoka U, 2016). Ashoka U offers Changemaker campus designations for post-secondary institutions that "*have embedded social innovation as a core value"*; helps cohorts of schools who want to work together on social innovation education; and hosts an annual conference where discussion around social innovation occurs (Ashoka U, 2015). In 2012, Ashoka U updated their definition of social entrepreneurs. Through Ashoka's extensive background of working on social innovation in education, their 2012 definition identifies social entrepreneurs as "*individuals with innovative solutions to society's most pressing social problems. They are both visionaries and ultimate realists concerned with the practical implementation of their vision above all else*" (Ashoka, 2012). The individual school of thought approach definitely aligns to Ashoka U's definition, but the organization does provide support to organizations for SE start-ups fitting with the SES school of thought as well. The findings in this research consider both the individual and organizational approach to SE.

Welsh and Krueger's (2012) and Hoogedoorn, Pennings, & Thurik's (2011) studies noted that social entrepreneurship programs were housed in many disciplines: business, non-profit

management, public policy, social work, sociology, philanthropy, and health care which results in a complex topic not well understood with limited teaching resources available (AshokaU, 2013; Mair & Marti, 2006). The complexity of the field does makes it difficult to establish and recognize signature pedagogy let alone replicate across institutions that offer SE programs. However, the uniqueness of SE may help define the field separating it from entrepreneurship. Signature pedagogies used in other professional disciplines include case study rounds in medicine, field trips in geography, or studio practice in architecture are easily recognized (Carlton University, 2016):

> *These distinctive practices are intended to do more than inculcate knowledge, they also set out deliberately to teach "habits of mind", the ways of thinking about geography or architecture, doing geography or architecture and being a geographer or architect. They induct students into a "profession" and its traditions, conventions, and mores* (Thomson, Hall, Jones & Green, 2011, p. 8).

Social entrepreneurship can fit within a Business School as a subject matter that developed out of Entrepreneurial studies but rather than a focus on a profit motive, SE focuses on innovation to solve social problems often using inventive and exciting solutions to some of society's more obstinate problems (Kickul, Janssen-Selvadurai & Griffiths, 2012).

> J*ust as entrepreneurs can create and transform whole industries, social entrepreneurs act as change agents for society, seizing opportunities others miss in order to improve systems, inventing and disseminating new approaches, advancing sustainable solutions that address some of society's most pressing problems, and creating long-term systemic change* (Kickul, Janssen-Selvadurai & Griffiths, 2012, p. 481).

As Kickul, Janssen-Selvadurai and Griffiths (2012) note in the quote above, to teach a SE class, an instructor should incorporate the traditional business-focused entrepreneurial curriculum as well as the foundations of social innovation, financial sustainability and growth strategies, scalability, and social impact whether from an individual or organization school of thought. In looking at the complexities in teaching SE curriculum as an academic field, how does one teach this subject? The existing research shows that there is a lack of qualified instructors to teach SE and as a new field of study, it poses some challenges. For instance, in an interview with

Worsham (2012), Greg Dees, the "father of social entrepreneurship education" (p. 440), comments that the creativity and flexibility needed to design and teach social entrepreneurial education from a multi-disciplinary approach is still lacking. Ashoka (2013) notes that despite developments and growth in social entrepreneurial education, teaching resources remain scarce partially due to a lack of qualified teachers who have social entrepreneurial experience. Identifying successful design principles that help educate students as future social entrepreneurs, and provide resources to faculty for instructional design is of essential and underlying importance to this research topic as well as creating a pedagogy that could be considered as emergent signature pedagogy. Shulman (2005) notes the importance of examining and reexamining pedagogy across institutions, Golde (2007) stresses how signature pedagogies are "*widespread across departments within a particular discipline, refined by time and practice, and they meet commonly understood pedagogical purposes*" (p. 345), and Fagerberg and Verspagen (2009) emphasize the need for organizing communication among educators in a field to establish common standards. Addressing the fragmentation and lack of sharing among educators in this field could contribute to developing emergent signature pedagogy.

1.1 Rationale: Practice-based motivation

I teach in a School of Business at a degree-granting community college located in Western Canada. My work role includes Chairing the Marketing Department half time and teaching marketing courses half time. Chairing the department includes curriculum development, scheduling, managing professional development, interviewing, training, and strategic planning. I have a business background working for over fifteen years in the private industry in marketing before completing my graduate work and switching to a post-secondary teaching career. I see the interconnection between business as a profession and educating students for a business profession. In my academic and professional orientation, I see social entrepreneurship as a business profession through academic study that incorporates many disciplines such as business, ethics, philosophy, sociology, and non-profit management.

A theme throughout my work both as Chair and as a faculty member is the incorporation of sustainability through the curriculum and department led activities such as networking events, training, and student events. In the past, the College focused on environmental sustainability

reducing emissions and pollution creating a zero-emission campus and offering academic courses on environmental sustainability. Recognizing environmental sustainability from a business perspective is a learning outcome in all the accredited Business programs. However, strategies around sustainability and its application are changing. For instance, two years ago the learning outcomes in the Marketing program (certificate, diploma, and degree) were updated to include social responsibility as a concept to be woven through all academic courses. At a strategic level, there is growing interest in social sustainability as demonstrated by the inclusion of the College's first annual Sustainability Week in September 2015, showcasing the integration of social responsibility in education and the community (Camosun.ca, 2015). The new definition of sustainability reads:

> *Sustainability is about integration; it recognizes that healthy communities, a thriving economy, and environment are interdependent. The integration of three overarching pillars—environment, social and economic—considers not just profits and the financial bottom line, but also honours the land, air, water, and people both locally and globally. …Sustainability is providing students with the opportunity for life-changing learning while ensuring that our actions benefit the environment and the life it supports, now and for future generations* (Camosun.ca, 2015).

Two years ago, strategies around sustainability focused only on environmental issues while today, strategies are evolving to include concepts of social entrepreneurialism but how the college incorporates the three pillars into education is not addressed in the policies.

There is no clear understanding of social responsibility for SE among faculty as it applies to teaching. The School of Business emphasizes teaching a triple bottom line approach (people, place, and planet) in all business courses but there is very little institutional training or opportunities for development at the College behind this mandate. The lack of opportunity to develop faculty is partly due to limited financial and time resources. Lozano-Garcia, Gandara, Perrni, Manzano, Hernandez and Huisingh (2008) suggest in their research that post-secondary institutions need to create a plan around incorporating sustainable development into professional training such as an "Educate-the-Educators" to help build the capacity of educators to incorporate triple bottom line approaches in their courses (p. 260). In addition, there may be resistance from some faculty to incorporate social issues or causes into a business course given

the inherent conflict in profit motivators to the goals of social entrepreneurs. "Business education prescribes a profit-driven and materialistic world view to students" (Lourenco, 2013, p.297) resulting in social and ethical values playing a subordinate role to profit. Yet, some instructors teach their courses with a triple bottom line approach. A better understanding of SE education, how it is taught, why it is taught and if there is resistance to teaching social entrepreneurship would be of help to the College in learning how to facilitate better development for faculty merging the mandate of triple bottom line with the delivery of academic courses. A better understanding of SE education would also tie to the new definition of sustainability that integrates social sustainability into College practices.

Personally, social and environmental sustainability is one of fascination in my field and prompted the interest in the topic for my thesis. I see business faculty who bring community problems into their classrooms for hands-on learning and practice based solutions. Other faculty in the same discipline do not see the value, being convinced that profit-motivators need to be the emphasis in their course offerings. Austin, Stevenson, and Wei-Skillern (2012) note in their research that entrepreneurship is a continuum "*ranging from purely social to purely economic*" (p. 372) and this reflects what I see as an educator –faculty teaching from within the continuum. Is there a way for business instructors to find synergy between the for-profit motivations of some business studies and the innovative, sustainable approaches to solving social problems found in SE studies?

When I attended Ashoka and Arnova's (Association for fostering research in the non-profit sector as well as SE) international academic conference on social entrepreneurship this year, I met many instructors who truly believe that the concepts of SE and business development can be merged. I also attended a local social entrepreneurial symposium organized by the all three academic institutions in my city. The goal of the symposium was to start a discussion around how to develop social entrepreneurial programs by better understanding the current state of social entrepreneurial education at all three institutions. Faculty who attended were engaged in learning more about the requirements needed to grow social entrepreneurial programs. The symposium did not look at the individual institutions but more at creating synergy among the institutions who all belonged to the same communities and needed to work together to discuss change around curriculum that could help solve social problems. The conferences and

symposium lead me to believe that there is great potential to increase the scope of social entrepreneurial education in business school programs and find a balance between profit and social sustainability.

I also work with many different non-profit associations through volunteering and feel passionate that business studies should be better incorporated into the community for social impact. I merge my association with not for profit corporations into service learning assignments in my classroom. My work history, and my chosen academic discipline have all encouraged my interest in better understanding this academic field with the intent to add value to its place in business studies.

1.2 Rationale: Contribution to knowledge

The literature review will highlight the growth in interest in social entrepreneurial concepts while showing that there is a lack of understanding of the fundamental principles of teaching this discipline. There is an increase in course offerings, but there is a lack of consensus among faculty and researchers as to even a basic definition of the terminology let alone the best practices for teaching. Signature pedagogy is developed through the sharing of resources and ideas among educators replicated across institutions that offer the same programs representing the core values of the discipline. The lack of consensus can impact the ability for pedagogical development, for sharing of practice, and for creating the core values of the discipline. Teachers increasingly face stresses of keeping up with trends despite time and limited financial resources available for training or development. The complexity of the field increases the difficulty of understanding how to develop, share, and teach social entrepreneurial curriculum. The results of my research have the potential to reduce the knowledge gap in understanding the social entrepreneurial discipline and increase the potential for adopting an emergent signature pedagogy.

1.3 Purpose

Educators have a plethora of pedagogical choices in teaching— "*do any of these approaches,*

singly or in combination, qualify as the signature pedagogy" of SE (Schmidt-wilk, 2010, p.492)? The aim of this exploratory research project is to conduct qualitative research as a means to capture teaching practices in SE as possible signature pedagogy (the forms of teaching and learning that characterize a discipline), and to capture practices around sharing resources as potential strategies to build SE curriculum offerings. The results have the potential to reduce the knowledge gap in understanding the social entrepreneurial discipline and increase the potential for adopting an emergent signature pedagogy.

1.4 Overview of chapters and thesis structure

The structure of the thesis evolved into six chapters. Following this chapter which provides the reasons for studying social entrepreneurial curriculum:

Chapter 2 comprises a literature review focusing on social entrepreneurial education. The chapter begins with a look at business education narrowing down to entrepreneurial education and narrowing down further with a review of trends in social entrepreneurial education. The goal in this approach is to better understand how social entrepreneurship evolved from entrepreneurship study and business education. The chapter also looks at methods for sharing knowledge focusing on resource sharing through open source resources and cloud based applications, community of practices, and pedagogical patterns. The literature review also notes the historical development of signature pedagogy as it applies to emergent academic studies in social entrepreneurial curriculum. Finally, Chapter 2 concludes with the introduction of the research questions based on the results of the literature review.

Chapter 3 details the research design, describing the purpose, methods, and samples of each of the research phases in the theoretical framework for the research. The chapter justifies the research process as a means to answer the research questions and incorporates the investigator's background and preferences. The research framework is presented in the chapter using Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase thematic approach as well as Reeve's (2006 as cited in Akker, Bannan, Kelly, Nieveen & Plomp, 2010) model as a guide. The framework forms the chapter headings for the rest of the thesis.

Chapter 4 explores the results of the first phase of research, Stage 1: Analysis. Stage 1 includes Braun and Clarke's thematic approach to the analysis of the six expert faculty interviewed and is presented through three main themes. The interview guide for the first set of interviews is referenced in Appendix 1.

Chapter 5 incorporates the common curriculum from Stage 1: Analysis into a learning design which forms Stage 2: Design. Chapter 5 presents the learning design and how it was developed.

Chapter 6 explores the results from the second set of interviews, Stage 3: Evaluation. Stage 3 examines the understanding of social entrepreneurial curriculum, the application of the learning design and the best methods for sharing knowledge. The chapter also discusses the implications of the results as it relates to potential growth in social entrepreneurial programs. The interview guide for the second set of interviews is referenced in Appendix 2.

Chapter 7 synthesizes the main findings from both Chapter 4 and Chapter 6 providing more depth of the implications into findings. Chapter 7 also includes the conclusion, answers to the research questions, limitations to the research and suggestions for future studies.

My original intention was to study the topic from a student's perspective to examine the key interests and the key factors behind student engagement with social entrepreneurial curriculum. The results could prove to be a starting point to creating a course and eventually a program at my institution. In addition, the results could provide background for understanding the factors to recruiting students interested in this field of study. After an initial investigation into programs, no courses were offered by any of the institutions in my city and by only one institution in the entire province resulting in very little access to the required student population. It became clear that studying the faculty perspective of social entrepreneurial curriculum would be a better starting point in exploring the topic and influencing how to build the discipline within a business school environment. The results could also provide background for understanding the learning outcomes needed in a SE course and recruitment of faculty instead of students interested in SE could be a goal with a study that focused on the faculty perspective.

Chapter 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this section is to examine literature that is relevant to this study, while highlighting the value of my research in developing a means by which social entrepreneurial pedagogy can be designed. This section draws on earlier work around general business education, entrepreneurial education, and social entrepreneurial education, reporting on widely experienced challenges in this area of academic design. Although social entrepreneurial education can be found in non-profit management studies (Maier, Meyer & Steinbereithner, 2016), Dorada (2006) and Welsh & Kroeger (2013) found that SE stems from the field of entrepreneurial education which is typically housed in business education (sixty-nine percent of the time) thus, the literature review will look at trends in business education narrowing down to entrepreneurial education and ending with social entrepreneurial education to better understand the skillsets needed for practicing social entrepreneurs. The last sections of the literature review examine the theory behind signature pedagogy and the connection to sharing of practice methods. The literature review will also inform the development of the research questions outlined at the end of the chapter.

2.1 Business Education

Business education in an undergraduate university program focuses mainly on two degrees in North America, the Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA) and the Bachelor of Commerce (BCom). The two degrees may have specialties such as a BBA in marketing, management, or international business or a BCom in entrepreneurship. Other business degrees include a Bachelor of Economics or a Bachelor of Management. The main differences between a BBA and a BCom is that a BBA tends to offer hands-on and multi-disciplinary approaches to applying theory to real-life businesses while a BCom tends to be more theoretically based with a math and economics focus (University of Toronto, 2010). The two degrees have developed from a long history. Blanchard (2009) found that the first business school was established in France in 1819 by a trader and an economist with a focus on management and global perspectives and in 1881, the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce was founded in the USA with a focus on economic studies (Kaplan, 2014). Bachelor of Commerce degrees were established in the early part of the 20th century in Manchester, Birmingham and London (Mutch, 1997) but did not show up in the Ministry of Education in North America until 1964 (Colby, Ehrich & Sullivan, 2009) after the second World War (Mutch, 1997). The earlier business schools were closely tied to

business and, in fact, were often financially supported and organized by corporations like Nestle and Ford but the lack of legitimacy of a corporate sponsored business school resulted in the development of private (non-corporate) or public schools (David & Schaufelbuehl, 2015). The typical undergraduate business school curriculum design in the 1960's revolved around four main disciplines: accounting, finance, management and marketing and these core subjects still reflect the majority of business program curriculums today (Colby, Ehrich & Sullivan, 2011). In North America, business students take several courses in each of these disciplines and then specialize taking more courses in one of the disciplines with a capstone course often ending their studies and "additional courses in leadership, entrepreneurship, business ethics, business law and other topics are common but are not consistently required across all programs" (Colby, Ehrich & Sullivan, 2011, p. 42).

Even though the core disciplines of a business curriculum have not changed since the 1960's, the popularity of business school education has. In the 1970's, only 14% of students graduated with an undergraduate business school discipline versus 21% in 2009 (Colby, Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009; Wooten & Olabisi, 2014). As well, 68% of all undergraduates combine business studies with other vocations such as engineering, nursing or education and that number is growing (Colby, Ehrlich, & Sullivan, 2009). The popularity may be due to the practical aspect of business education where career based knowledge and transferable skills are the focus (Mutch, 1997; Wooten & Olabisi, 2014). As Colby, Ehrlich and Sullivan (2009, p.2) explain, the discipline of business studies aims:

> *To prepare students directly for entry into the workforce. Business programs, like all forms of professional studies immerse students in the values and mindsets that are particular to the field; in business this means, most prominently, the logic of the marketplace.*

Although the core development of a business curriculum has not changed since its inception in the 1960's, the learning outcomes and method of instruction have evolved. Today's business schools tend to focus on applied learning through imaginative business situations, simulations, case studies or even the development of actual companies focusing on application and experience versus traditional lecture and text-based learning (Colby, Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009,

p.23, Kaplan, 2014). Business education curriculum reflects the need for formal models in finance and economic education, but there is an increase in legitimacy and purpose among stakeholders including the public and among employees which makes running a business very complicated and teaching these complexities even more difficult (Colby Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009). Corporations face value conflicts in the need to compete and earn profit but also to foster cooperation and this includes adding more social capital to innovate further (Landry, Amara, Lamari, 2002) – building relationships with the community and globally to reduce the increasing distrust that society has been building towards corporations (Colby, Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009). The added challenge of "the notion that businesses are about and should be about profit maximization remains embedded in the language, metrics and models in education" (Baden & Higgins, 2015, p.552). The need, however, to understand the ethics in value conflicts has been slowly emerging in business education. "To support innovation, business education will have to nurture mature practical judgment that can guide knowledge-intensive enterprises equitably for social benefit as well as profit" (Colby, Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009, p.47).

As business school education prepares for the 21st century, Colby, Ehrlich and Sullivan (2009) surmise that business students will need to develop thinking skills that explore how problems can be approached from several different perspectives and Martin and Osberg (2007) add that business education curriculum needs to focus on learning activities that use actual practice (p.48). However, the biggest influence on business education is the impact of globalization (Dieck-Assad, 2013; Subotzky, 1998). Today's businesses recognize that "global is the norm" (Koybaeva, 2015) and are rapidly developing globalization strategies (McHann, 2015). Companies are adjusting to new cultures and custom training employees to problem solve within a broad range of diversity yet business school education has not kept pace with the growth of globalization (Koybaeva, 2015). There is an opportunity to educate future leaders with the ability to work across cultures in different countries (Dieck-Assad, 2013). Business schools have the potential to mirror business practices that have "the potential to do worlds of good to the neediest of all, if only they are led with heightened consciousness, creative intelligence…" equipping business school graduates with the ability to cope and adapt with the impact and changes of globalization (McHann, 2015, p. 106). Curriculum that emphasizes cooperation and teamwork in the extensive use of team projects, collaborative assignments, and experiential learning may be the way to mirror actual business practices and equip graduates with the skills

needed in the global workplace bringing classroom knowledge and actual practical business activity closer (Colby, Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009, p. 49; McHann, 2015, p.115).

The history of business education from inception to preparation for the 21st Century shows the close connection between corporations and post-secondary institutions. Skills needed to work in small, medium, or large organizations are the essential backbone to business education—producing graduates who reflect the skill set needed in the workplace (Colby, Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009). For business education overall, this means a firm understanding of the four main disciplines—economics, finance, marketing, and management as well as specialty areas within these four disciplines for a "learning that empowers students and prepares them to deal with complexity, diversity, and change" (Wooten & Olibiski, 2014, p.177) especially in a global context (Koybaeva, 2015). Recognizing value conflicts and the need to balance the social benefit with profits are also identified as key aspects to business education in the 21st century. The push for experiential learning and applied activities including teamwork, cultural identification, problem-solving in diversity and complex decision making in real or simulated businesses is spreading throughout the disciplines in business education and is reflected in the next section on entrepreneurial education.

2.2 Entrepreneurial Education

The first section of the literature review looked at trends in business education while the next section will narrow down the review to look at trends in entrepreneurial education identifying similarities and gaps in development around pedagogical design. Understanding entrepreneurial education as it relates to business education may provide insights into signature pedagogy of business education and its comparison to signature pedagogy of entrepreneurial education building to a better understanding of social entrepreneurial education.

> *"The art and craft of entrepreneurship is a noble endeavor, one worth doing well. We're fortunate, indeed, that we can teach entrepreneurship"* (Mullins, 2006, p.17).

Mullins (2006) expressed this sentiment in his research article on the evolution of teaching entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship is commonly offered as a single course in business

education, but it is not considered one of the main disciplines across all business programs (Colby, Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009). Bachelor of Business degrees that specialize in entrepreneurship are offered in North America but it is a small market with only twenty-five institutions ranked in Entrepreneur magazine last year (Adams, 2015). Entrepreneurship courses are often considered a specialty course within the marketing discipline. To understand the term "entrepreneurship", a standard definition is needed to distinguish its origin and goals from that of social entrepreneurship especially as it applies to education. The term *entrepreneur* is an old one. In the 18th century, it was coined as an economic term to describe the risk-bearing role of entrepreneurs who used resources to establish a new business (Cantillon, 1968). The more current definition by Shane & Venkataraman (2000) define the term by the use of resources and opportunities-- how these opportunities are found or created, the strategic evaluation of the opportunities and the entrepreneurs themselves who have the skills to take advantage of these opportunities. The main qualities used to describe an entrepreneur are risk and resources and how the two ties together to create a profitable endeavor. Entrepreneurs are multi-faceted because they continually search for opportunities obsessing with the possibilities or ventures which distinguishes the entrepreneur with a "relentless pursuit of opportunity" (Breen, 2004, p.23) leading to innovation (Colby, Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009). Famous entrepreneurs include Henry Ford who changed the car industry by creating an affordable vehicle for every driver in the USA; Bill Gates and Steve Jobs who transformed the technology industry in the way computers are designed, developed and used; Richard Branson who changed the entertainment industry, Oprah Winfrey who changed how media was delivered to consumers, Walt Disney who introduced the world to animation and entertainment, and more recently, Robin Chase who founded Zipcar and has changed the way consumers use transportation (Lavinsky, 2014). These famous entrepreneur examples have a similar skill set in that they were risk takers who successfully changed the industry by bringing resources together in an extremely profitable strategy. Mueller, Volery, and von Siemens (2012) indicate that the ability to take the risk and bring resources together successfully is the primary skill set of an entrepreneur.

In the USA, courses on entrepreneurial management are standard:1600 colleges or universities offer entrepreneurial related courses in the USA (Kuckertz, 2013) and 20.9% of all nationally ranked schools teach entrepreneurship (Business school data trends, 2013). In Canada, 98% of institutions surveyed by Small Business Canada (52.2% nationwide response rate) included at

least one undergraduate course in entrepreneurship with 75% rooted in business studies (Business, Branch, Parsley, & Weerasinghe, 2010). Although entrepreneurship is identified as a niche area, there is a growing trend of inclusion in business schools most likely due to the connection between innovation (entrepreneurship) and globalization which as noted in the previous chapter, is an emerging and emphasized trend in business education (Colby, Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009).

In looking at the course content in the standard entrepreneurial course, concepts of finance and venture capital, entrepreneurial strategies, managing growth, and psychological aspects of risk taught using traditional methods such as case studies, lecturing and project teams are commonplace (Business, Branch, Parsley, & Weerasinghe, 2010; Dreisler, 2007; Kuratko, 2003) to better equip students who follow an entrepreneurial path (Mullins, 2006). Studying an entrepreneurial approach to business development using the common course curriculum listed above may be considered signature pedagogy for entrepreneurship pending the acknowledgement by educators. Signature pedagogies are "forms of instruction that leap to mind" (Shulman, 2005b, p. 52) around different academic fields and entrepreneurship still has some challenges.

Gaps have been found in teaching and learning that tie to gaps in business education in general and may affect the development of what could be considered signature pedagogy. There are several studies critiquing the teachings of entrepreneurship. Kuckertz (2013) indicates that entrepreneurial education is lacking in the teachings of negotiation and selling, leadership and managing people as well as creative thinking and creation development**--** most likely because entrepreneurial study is non-linear, disjointed and unique (Pilegard, Moroz, & Neergaard, 2010). The uniqueness of the field could isolate standard curriculum or it could add to the complexity by having little agreement on how best to teach the subject to prepare students for the profession. Balan and Metcalfe (2012) further this argument stating that there is:

> *little agreement, however, in the entrepreneurial education literature regarding specific guidelines for selection teaching methods that might best engage a particular group of students in order to transmit the desired body of entrepreneurship knowledge, and stimulate future learning (p. 369).*

This may be common in all areas of education—finding the best method to engage students but it is further complicated in entrepreneurial curriculum by the fact that there are at least 32 different models of the entrepreneurship process (Balan & Metcalfe, 2012) and there is no clear understanding of the readings of learning activities that might produce the competencies needed by an entrepreneur (Dahlstedt & Hertzberg, 2012). The skills that are specific to entrepreneurship education require hands-on teaching such as project-based learning or an entrepreneurial internship more in the form of a constructivist approach (Dreisler, 2007; Kuckertz, 2013). Further, Business, Branch, Parsley, and Weerasinghe (2010) indicate that a gap exists in liaising with practicing entrepreneurs when developing teaching material which is also supported by Robinson and Shumar (2014) who suggest that entrepreneurial education needs to move from traditional teaching to more personal involvement of the student–introducing tools to increase hands-on application in curriculum would improve student learning. The gap in applied learning reflects the challenges facing general business education as presented in the previous section where experiential learning and applied activities to foster problem-solving in a diverse cultural setting both locally and globally is considered essential development for business education into the 21st century.

The first section identified gaps and trends in business education while the second section narrowed down the review to look at trends in entrepreneurial education identifying similarities and gaps in development around pedagogical design. Signature pedagogy is reflected in the review and will be discussed in the next section which identifies the trends in social entrepreneurial education as it fits into entrepreneurial education.

2.3 Social Entrepreneurial Education

Current trends in teaching *social* entrepreneurial education suggest there are some similar threads to entrepreneurial curriculum but in addition to these, as a new field, it poses some unique challenges. To begin, it is important to understand how social entrepreneurs differ from other entrepreneurs and thus, what constitutes SE and what does not. Understanding the difference then allows us to see how the pedagogy needs to differ between entrepreneurial courses and social entrepreneurial courses and business education in general.

What is a social entrepreneur? Unfortunately, there is confusion around social entrepreneur terminology and its application to education (Abu-Saifan, 2012; Weerawardena and Mort, 2006)

and similar to the social sciences in general, there is no overarching theoretical framework for the discipline (Hoogendoorn, Pennings & Thurik, 2010; Weerawardena & Mort, 2006). The lack of theoretical framework, unlike a STEM course, is discussed in a later section as it applies to signature pedagogy. Scholars indicate that the definition for SE is too broad (Newbert, 2014) due to the challenge of defining a topic that encompasses too many subjects—business, social work, public administration, health, environment—all lead to different interpretations of the core concepts (Hoogendoorn, Pennings & Thurik, 2011; Newbert, 2014). Singh (2001) suggests that "*defining social entrepreneurship is tricky, because a wide range of opinions exists over the matter. The literature in this area is so new that little consensus has emerged on the topic*" (para 6). For example, social entrepreneurship can include:

> *Non-profit organizations that apply business expertise to become more efficient in providing and delivering their social services; for profit businesses run by non-profits to help offset costs and become independent from grants and subsidies; high donor control philanthropy where donors pursue their own personal social visions; and socially responsible businesses that offer innovative solutions to persistent social, economic and ecological problems using market –based models (Hoogendoorn, Pennings, & Thurik, 2011, p.3).*

Hoogendoorn, Pennings, and Thurik's (2011) definition fits within the four dimensions of SE as outlined in the previous chapter and adds to the complexity of understanding the core concepts of SE. Abu-Saifan (2012) also adds that:

> *While individuals may be publicly recognized as social entrepreneurs for their contributions to improve the welfare of communities, the field of social entrepreneurship continues to struggle to gain academic legitimacy. Social entrepreneurship is a term in search of a good definition. The current use of the term seems vague and limitless; it needs boundaries to demarcate its function. The lack of a common definition hinders research and raises questions about which social or profit-making activities fall within the spectrum of social entrepreneurship. To become an important stream in the entrepreneurship literature, social entrepreneurship needs to be properly defined" (p.23).*

The first definition of the term was developed in 1991 by Waddock and Post who were looking mainly at entrepreneurs in the public sector in hopes of defining the roles and characteristics of social entrepreneurs. Richard Dees furthered the development in SE concepts in 1998 by coining the term "change agent" but the application was still in the social sector. Change agent refers to the concept that "leading social entrepreneurs are mass recruiters of local changemakers— role models proving that citizens who channel their ideas into action can do almost anything." (AshokaU, 2013) which builds onto the concept of visionaries by Waddock and Post (1991). By early 2000, the term was beginning to emerge in the private sector as well as in the for-profit sectors (Smallbone, Evans, Ekanem & Butters, 2001; Thompson, Alvy & Lees, 2000). Social entrepreneurial concepts began to differentiate themselves in the academic world from entrepreneurial concepts with the main understanding that social entrepreneurs "tailor their activities to be directly tied with the ultimate goal of creating social value…. combining the passion of a social mission with an image of business-like discipline" (Abu-Saifan, 2012, p.22) in both the for profit and not-for-profit industries. Common terminology in the literature recently include the terms visionary, innovator, socially alert, and social value creator (Ashoka, 2012; Thompson, Alvy & Lees, 2000; Zahra, Gedajilovic, Newbaum, &Shulman, 2009). Modern social entrepreneurs include:

- Grameen Bank founded by Muhammad Yunus, who changed the world of banking through the introduction of micro-loans in Pakistan and won a Nobel Peace Prize for his work (Nobelpeaceprice, 2017);
- The Sankara Eye Foundation (SEF) founded by Muralidharan, Sridharan and Khushnood where curable eye blindness in India is becoming eradicated through a two-for-one model of payment (gift of vision, 2016);
- Ten Trees co-founded by Dave Luba and Kalen Emsley who are planting trees and raising awareness for global ecological footprints through their organic and recycled clothing sales (Ten Trees, 2016).

The examples above reflect the complexity of SE. Hoogendoorn, Pennings and Thurik (2010) emphasize how SE can be developed through a social enterprise or through the vision of individuals which represent both the enterprise-led school of thought and the individual school of thought outlined in the introduction chapter.

Abu-Saifan (2012) posits that without a consensus on a research or academic topic, faculty, and researchers "work independently and fail to build upon one another's work, therefore knowledge cannot be accumulated" (p. 22). Newbert (2014) also adds to this argument indicating that like-minded scholars should come together to create a research agenda to create a paradigm for SE development (p.3). Hoogendoorn, Pennings and Thurik (2010) stress that social entrepreneurship needs to create the "*development of a testable and valid theory and is indispensable for the evolution of any field of research*" (p.3). The lack of consensus on the meaning of the term poses an immense challenge for academia. Clarity on the meaning of SE is needed as background for this research study. Bacq, Hartog, and Hoogendoorn's (2013) definition is provided to define social entrepreneurship given that the description encompasses both the individual and organizational schools of thought:

> *A type of entrepreneurship that concerns the process of discovering, evaluating, and pursuing opportunities primarily and intentionally aimed at the creation of social value by addressing social needs (p. 4).*

Social value is the fundamental difference from commercial entrepreneurship and is considered the explicit, driving purpose and force for SE (Austin, Stenvenson, & Wei-Skillern, 2006). What are the social problems that need to be addressed? Not understanding what "social" refers to adds to the misunderstanding of social entrepreneurship (Cho, 2006). Reducing social problems is also very difficult to measure unlike evaluating profit indicators, market share, or employee satisfaction. Andersson and Ford (2015) stress the importance of understanding the intended and unintended consequences of a SE initiative as creating social wealth can be risky activities that do not actually create the intended social value. (Zhara, Gedajilovic, Neubaum, & Shulman, 2009). Social problems are considered undesirable conditions that society believes should be corrected (social problem, n.d.). However, there is ambiguity in this definition as social problems will vary across the globe such as extreme poverty to gender inequality to gambling addictions based on cultural and societal views (Cho, 2006). For the purpose of this research, the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are used to help reduce the ambiguity around social problems though their identification of eight global social problems:1) eradicating extreme hunger,2) achieving universal primary education, 3) promoting gender equality, 4) reducing child mortality, 5) improving maternal health, 6) halting the spread of HIV/AIDS and

other diseases, 7) ensuring environmental sustainability and 8) global partnership for development (United Nations, 2015). The eight global social problems are not exhaustive given that certain geographical areas may have very specific needs (homelessness is a very big issue in my community for instance). It is important to recognize that education around the local context to social problems is a necessary part of curriculum development. The research in this project uses The United Nations Millennium Development Goals to provide a background on the social problems that students studying SE could find engaging and establish an understanding around the definition of social problems as it relates to common pedagogical designs outlined next.

To determine common pedagogical design ideas and the basis for this research study, it is important to understand how SE courses are currently being taught. Social entrepreneurship courses are a niche area in business education and a relatively new inclusion in entrepreneurship study (Dorado, 2006; Welsh, 2012). However, SE courses are increasing across the globe (Worsham, 2012) due to community demand through social venture organizations, business demand through organizations and student demand for more meaningful or significant education (Miller, Wesley & Williams, 2012; Worsham 2012). Tracey and Phillips (2007), and Worsham (2012) point out how the demand puts pressure on post-secondary institutions to meet the increasing requests from the community and from the students while still maintaining credibility in the field. If post-secondary institutions want to build their SE educational offerings, it is essential to understand the curriculum and strategy behind SE concepts as well as best teaching practices.

Social entrepreneur education focuses on innovation to solve social problems often using inventive and interesting solutions to some of society's more obstinate problems (Kickul, Janssen-Selvadurai & Griffiths, 2012). SE education is a complicated study as social needs are complex and require students to reflect deeply on the world and the aspects of change (AshokaU, 2012; Peredo & McLean, 2006). In addition, Miller, Grimes, McMullen and Vogus (2012) stress that social entrepreneurs hold compassion as their driving force. Compassion is an emotion that may help condition social entrepreneurial behavior motivating individuals to start social ventures in an "attempt to alleviate others' suffering "(Dees, 2001; Miller, Grimes, McMullen, & Vogus, 2012, p. 617). Emotions such as compassion and love motivate people to help others

giving them a sense of meaning and fulfillment (Cornelius, 2013). Miller, Grimes, McMullen and Vogus (2012) characterize compassion as a prosocial motivator in that compassion creates a desire to help others by contrast with proself motivators that focus on personal gain. Prosocial and proself terminology could be applied to SE and entrepreneurship definitions respectively. Creating curriculum that encourages students to engage in prosocial motivators would align well with social entrepreneurship. Kickul, Janssen-Selvadurai and Griffiths (2012) created a framework for teaching social entrepreneurs that emphasized situated learning using community and interuniversity resources such as site visits, consulting projects, speaker series and social venture competitions (p.489). Situated learning is based on the idea that entrepreneurial knowledge is difficult to understand in a traditional classroom setting and thus, aspects of experiential or service learning has been incorporated in seventy-five percent of 107 SE courses listed in the United States and abroad (Kickul, Janssen-Selvadurai & Griffiths, 2012, p.499). These authors posit that learning social entrepreneurial concepts should be through engagement and participation in the community. My research builds on this earlier work by exploring service learning curriculum in the interviews to solidify the link to potential signature pedagogy. Robinson & Shumar (2014) also found in their Danish study that social entrepreneurial education needs to have real-world problems and situations that draw them into the interests and motivations of their projects set in real-world situations (p.9). Harris (as cited in Plaskoff, 2012) and Tracey and Phillips (2007) indicate that just applying business and entrepreneurial principles to solve social problems is insufficient due to the complex demands social entrepreneurs must juggle suggesting that the curriculum should use "learning by presence" (p. 490) as the cornerstone of social entrepreneurial education. Learning by presence appears to be similar to peer mentoring or action learning and tools that inspire hands-on approaches where the students are directly involved in the community may prove to be a valuable pedagogical tool. In addition, Wu, Kuo and Shen (2013) found in their research that students are asking for a curriculum that addresses the enormity of their local to global problems because they want to give back and be part of a larger solution. What this means is that students studying SE want to be part of the solution and not just learn about the problems as stated in this quote at the University of Maryland's social enterprise symposium: "If we are in the business of letting people know what needs to be fixed, we need to be in the business of letting them know how it can be fixed" (Bornstein as cited in Muraski, 2014, para 3). The research aligns in that social entrepreneurial

education needs to incorporate compassion in lesson plans that use real world problems and hands-on learning in the community.

Ayob, Yap, Sapuan and Rashid (2013) created a framework for finding social entrepreneurial intention among business undergraduates which resulted in a correlation of empathy and exposure to an increased desirability among graduates to create a social enterprise. Exposing students to social enterprises and thus, social problems increase their understanding and their interest in social entrepreneurial study. There may be an opportunity to determine the use of service learning as a teaching method for increasing empathy. "*Service-learning models are increasingly, if not universally, recognized as important in developing the key skills that might enable graduates to become active citizens both locally and globally. The term service-learning is taken to refer to that pedagogy which directs students' classroom learning to address the needs of relevant communities, where reciprocity between the institution and the community partner is essential in formulating "proposals, solutions and strategies for meeting their organizational missions"* (Bamber & Hankin, 2011, p.192). Dees (2001) identified any social problem-solving opportunity in the classroom (such as consulting, serving on a board, volunteering, guest social entrepreneur speakers or working with a corporate employer) as potential tools to help with application of social entrepreneurial curriculum (Worsham, 2012). In looking at criteria for determining social entrepreneurial intent among students, research identifies several required competencies such as emotional intelligence (Worsham, 2012), a sense of moral imperatives/ethics (Miller, Wesley & Williams, 2012) and the "ability to challenge traditional ways of thinking" (Miller, Wesley & Williams, 2012, p.365). Dees stresses emotional intelligence identified as "humility, respect and empathy" (Worsham, 2012, p. 447) that students demonstrate across cultural, class and wealth divides while still understanding their own identity. This research for SE intent among students correlates to Miller, Grimes, McMullen and Vogus' (2012) research on compassion as an emotion that motivates social entrepreneurs. Curriculum that explores emotional intelligence is difficult to teach but essential to creating an environment where the "art of creating social change" can occur (Worsham, 2012, p. 446). Empathy and exposure have been found to be a significant determinant of students' intention to establish a social enterprise as this raises the perceived feasibility of setting up a social enterprise (organizational approach). Additionally, fostering empathy among undergraduate students increases with exposure to social enterprises in the country that they may

have a direct impact on (Ayob, Yap, Sapuan & Rashid, 2013). It has yet to be determined, however; how to integrate emotional intelligence among the skills needed in SE pedagogy.

Ashoka, the largest social entrepreneurial association worldwide, compiled an educational resource guide from a current state of Social Entrepreneurial curriculum in 2011 studying 50 syllabi from over 34 universities around the world resulting in a comprehensive look at teaching SE courses (AshokaU, 2013). The report outlined promising approaches to teaching SE including fostering a personal connection to SE, focusing on one problem area, and connecting the classroom to real world problem-solving (Ashoka, 2013). Interestingly, the study noted that students need to be able to reflect on their own leadership and apply this to the changemaking or visionary process of SE and these concepts are often missing from SE syllabi (p. 21).

The research on social entrepreneurial curriculum in the above section reflect how teaching social entrepreneurial curriculum is similar to entrepreneurial curriculum, and general business education where hands-on applied learning is a recommended application to increase student learning. Unlike entrepreneurial education, though, SE curriculum should reflect the social entrepreneurial business environment where "social entrepreneurs usually have a vision of what they would like to solve in the social sector or a social-moral motivation in their entrepreneurial focus and ambition" (Bacq & Janssen, 2011, p.377). Emotional intelligence, compassion and empathy are skillsets woven into the vision and motivation of social entrepreneurs. Pedagogy that encourages students to reflect on their own leadership (individual SE perspective), connect with their local community (enterprise SE perspective) and apply to a visionary process are concepts the literature identified as key to developing curriculum that best represents social entrepreneur skillsets. Looking at the trends in business education, entrepreneurship courses fit within the general challenge of finding models and teaching methods that best encourage the learning of business skills graduates would need in the workplace. Social entrepreneurship appears to have unique challenges in that this literature review suggests that the skillset needed for graduates in SE programs is just now being developed. Ashoka (2016) states that *"much like entrepreneurship in the early stages, social entrepreneurship has work ahead to bring it into legitimacy as an academic discipline"* (p.15). As a new field of study, the next section of the literature will examine the concept of paradigm shift and signature pedagogy as it applies to social entrepreneurial education. Understanding the possibilities for emergent signature

pedagogy needed in social entrepreneur courses will help decide how to teach it and bring it legitimacy to the course work as an academic discipline.

2.4 SE as an Academic Discipline with a Signature Pedagogy

Academic disciplines can be thought of an underpinned by a common paradigm. In his 1962 book, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, Kuhn identified paradigms as "shared understanding among scientists or scholars working in a discipline regarding the important problems, structures, values and assumptions determining that discipline" (paradigm, n.d.). For instance, a community of biologists or a community of mathematicians will all share a single paradigm around their field of study including specialized vocabulary, experimental techniques, and established theoretical claims (Bird, 2012, p.861). Kuhn (1962) indicated that within a discipline, scientists work rationally on a puzzle or problem recognizing that "progress is an obvious attribute" of moving the field forward (p. 162). For business school education, a paradigm exists where a community of business faculty will recognize "clearly defined laws, rules, and principles" (Kaplan, 2014, p.530) within a business context. For example, faculty in an accounting department operate within the accounting frameworks, rules and standardized assessments well established in the field by their peers and by the accounting accreditation boards (Francisco, 2013).

Today, with the explosion in global reach, scientific fields are being developed by researchers and faculty from different parts of the world contributing to the same field of study. The sharing of practice among faculty and researchers from several institutions around the world can be commonplace in developing pedagogical agreement in a discipline. Shulman (2005) notes that signature pedagogy should not be static-- examining and reexamining pedagogy by educators to reflect changes in professional practice is part of developing a discipline's pedagogical signatures—which is supported by Welsh and Krueger's (2012) findings--that educators need to better understand best practices in SE across institutions. Fagergert and Verspagen (2009) outline that with a new field of study, work is usually being done with a common focus and the "accumulated knowledge that researchers in the field share serves to differentiate the emerging field from other areas of science" (p. 219). Emerging fields develop from existing fields and are what Kuhn termed as paradigm *shifts* (Kuhn, 1962). Paradigm shifts and are created when scientists in the field disagree on the progress of that science or "when the discovery of

anomalies leads scientists to question the paradigm, and this in turn leads to a scientific revolution" (Goldstein, 2012, p. 1473). Kuhn (1962, p.111) argued that paradigm changes "cause scientists to see the world of their research-engagement differently." For example, Darwin's Theory of Evolution created a scientific revolution or paradigm shift in the field of biology (Shermin, 2015). Paradigm shifts are often necessary to move a field of study forward and it is the different viewpoints and agendas that move a topic in new directions, creating a new paradigm. This can happen when a scientific field is in crisis and the scientific community has to consider alternative theories sometimes causing a split where one part of the research community continues with the path as established and the other part of the community moves towards this new paradigm (Wray, 2013, p.77) As "successive stages in that development process are marked by an increase in articulation and specialization", new fields emerge (Kuhn, 1962, p.111) that may or may not be incommensurable (Kindi, 2010).

Much is at stake, however, in making a claim to being an academic discipline. The term *discipline* has evolved over time with its first mention around 1231 when the University of Paris housed four disciplines: theology, medicine, canon law, and arts (History of Education, Encyclopedia Britannica, 1977). The Oxford dictionary defines discipline as "a brand of learning or scholarly instruction" but does not state what elements must be present to constitute a legitimate disciplinary field. Beecher and Trowler (1989) explore the proposition that academics "live in disciplinary tribes with common sets of practice" (as cited in Trowler, 2014, p. 18). Academics do not just work in a field of study but they occupy territories that impact how they behave and their commitments to their field of study. The authors argued that knowledge structures are the core of disciplines and are developed through a cognitive and social dimension matrix where each discipline is categorized based on the various dimensions. The cognitive dimensions are hard and soft; pure and applied. Hard disciplines tend to use quantitative data while soft disciplines are more qualitative in nature. Pure disciplines differ from soft disciplines in their application to the professions—soft disciplines tend to be regulated or influenced by a professional body. *"The hard-pure disciplines have an atomistic approach and rely more on linear logic, facts, and concepts whereas soft-pure disciplines have a holistic approach, and rely more on the breadth of intellectual ideas, creativity and expression." (Goel, 2010).* Biology would be considered a hard-pure discipline while management would be a soft-pure discipline based on cognitive dimensions.

Beecher and Trowler (1989) also looked as social dimensions and identified four: convergent versus divergent; and urban versus rural. A convergent discipline is associated with a strong sense of purpose and community while a divergent discipline is characterized by diversity and a variety of beliefs. The urban and rural aspects of a discipline reflect geography where an urban discipline has many researchers who interact often solving widely recognized problems. A rural discipline, on the other hand, has fewer researchers working on a wider range of problems and communicating less often (Thomas, 2004). For example, physics would be considered hard, pure, convergent, and urban which indicates that the discipline is well-developed, regulated by external bodies, has well established research practices, and academics tend to interact often to solve problems. Social entrepreneurism, on the other hand, is quite different from physics situated more in the soft, applied, divergent and rural dimensions. These dimensions indicate that SE is a discipline that has an unspecified theoretical structure, can be applied to problems in the outside world, is less uniform in research practice, and needs less interaction among faculty. These two examples are overviews of two disciplines for the purpose of demonstrating the various dimensions that disciplines can be measured by Becher and Trowler's original work.

Defining disciplines is complex and boundaries between disciplines can cross (Clegg, 2016, p.271). With the increase in global reach, disciplinary characteristics are more complicated today and the last edition of Becher and Trowler's book highlights disciplines as "being articulated in different ways in different contexts, while retaining recognizable core characteristics" (Trowler, 2014, p.25). The characteristics of a discipline are built on, modified, and should represent the skills a student needs when working in that field (Golde, 2007) answering the key question "what should all students completing their degree program know and be able to do" (Bray, 2007). Trowler (2014) does comment that disciplines are less clearly outlined today with more intra-disciplinary differences but still capture core characteristics which may be similar to what Shuman (2005) describes as the underpinning of signature pedagogy. Shulman (2005) focuses on culture and personality to characterize different fields as well as on "how" disciplines are taught –through their signature pedagogy—as a defining feature for a discipline. Keeping in mind Becher and Trowler's focus on core characteristics and Shulman's disciplinary signature pedagogy, for the purpose of this thesis, discipline will refer to establishing norms and identities that are refined by time and practice and meet commonly understood pedagogical purposes (Golde, 2007, p. 345). The definition highlights the lack of

understanding around SE pedagogy which can "diminish the status of a field of research for the discipline" (Krishan, 2009, p.11) and a lack of theory or specific methodologies can diminish the understanding of the discipline as Shulman (2005) notes in his work. Signature pedagogy is important as an academic in a legitimate discipline receives research funding, teaches students, gets published, graduates students possibly for a recognized profession, and continues to grow the discipline—building on its signature pedagogy.

In looking at the lack of consensus around the term social entrepreneur as well as the lack of standardization in curriculum (syllabi) and resources, there is no established best practice or an agreed upon signature pedagogy for the discipline. Social entrepreneurship is a branch of entrepreneurship as defined in the previous chapter and could be classified as an emerging field of study focused on social impact (Colby, Ehrlich & Sullivan, 2009). Does SE represent a paradigm shift in the entrepreneurship discipline? In 2010, the Journal of Social Entrepreneurship recognized the growth in social entrepreneurial research and its "pre-paradigmatic state of development as a legitimate field of scientific study" (p. 1) and published its first volume stating that its aim was to "take the lead in testing the proposition that social entrepreneurship represents a legitimate academic paradigm that can provide systemic solutions to major global problems and crisis." (Nicholls, 2010, p. 2). This journal hoped to create a repository of perspectives and research around the study of SE. The introduction of a peer-reviewed journal for research publications adds to the advancement of the field of study.

Although the journal has been advancing the research in the field, Newbert and Hill (2014) indicate that there are still no clear boundaries or definition that leads to a strong paradigm. Newbert and Hill (2014) indicate that a shared definition "*gives rise to a community of scholars who are able to pursue similar research interests and who, can in turn, establish a strong paradigm*" (p. 243). There is no doubt that interest in studying SE has increased but without a consensus of what the term means. Short, Moss and Lumpkin (2009) call the lack of consensus a gap *"between our current understanding of social entrepreneurship and an enhanced knowledge that could aid in researching and fostering this emerging field*" (p. 162). Social entrepreneurship needs to establish its own shared understanding of the discipline separate from entrepreneurship—a paradigm shift. Reaching a consensus around how best to teach the tenets of the new discipline could be seen as being part of its establishment, and this could be done

through signature pedagogy to create the foundational practices and values of social entrepreneurial curriculum as reflected by social entrepreneurial practice. Signature pedagogy could be a tool to bring consensus among faculty around definitions and curriculum. For students, signature pedagogy is designed and incorporated by faculty to help them teach students the skills necessary to work in the field of their chosen studies. A signature pedagogy is unique to each discipline. For instance, agriculture studies use a combination of scientific knowledge and hands-on learning through a capstone project while biology tends to use evidence based learning through inquiry labs that teach inductive thinking to better represent jobs in the field (Gurung, Chick, & Haynie, 2009) and inquiry based instruction is considered signature pedagogy for teaching science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) (Crippen & Archambault, 2012). Given that SE is a newer academic discipline, pedagogical development is being done across the globe without an effective way to communicate among faculty. It is essential that a signature pedagogy be established for social entrepreneurial curriculum as without a common standard for pedagogical inclusion, any new field of study will not develop and will not be seen as a legitimate field of study by other academics (Fagergert & Verspagen 2009).

Given the impact of globalization, finding a way in which faculty can best share SE developments in curriculum, may help develop emergent signature pedagogy. When Kuhn wrote about paradigm shifts in 1962, sharing across institutions and around the world was much more limited without the internet connectivity of today. Collaborating on emergent signature pedagogy was mainly done face to face as the options for sharing knowledge would have been limited. Today, faculty are teaching and studying social entrepreneurship around the world and there are many methods to share knowledge increasing the complexity in communication. Signature pedagogies are important as they "implicitly define what counts as knowledge in the field and how things become known. They define how knowledge is analyzed, criticized, accepted or discarded." (Shulman, 2005b, p.55). Shulman (2005a) stresses that signature pedagogy is an ongoing development where pedagogy is examined and reexamined by the educators in a field who share practice and accumulate knowledge across institutions. Shulman (2005b) does not identify how signature pedagogy gets examined and redesigned—the actual sharing of practice—only that signature pedagogies are consistent across institutions and need to reflect professional practice. Jenkins' (2012) study on leadership education supports the idea

that sharing pedagogy among leadership faculty for effective teaching and learning contributes to the development of signature pedagogies and future research in the field but again, there is no indication on how faculty share their pedagogy. My research, therefore, will explore options for sharing knowledge and the next section will explore ways of sharing knowledge given that signature pedagogy relies on educators sharing practice to increase the legitimacy of the field and increase the number of course offerings.

2.5 Sharing of practice

The previous sections identified the growth in business education especially SE courses and the lack of emergent signature pedagogy that may inhibit the growth in this field of study by other academics (Fagerberg & Verspagen, 2009). The more academics acknowledge and share SE pedagogy, the more potential for interest in teaching. Many teachers are not taught how to teach but are considered skilled in a topic that they are then asked to teach it but "knowing a subject matter is very different from knowing how to teach it" (Pedagogical patterns editorial board, 2012, p.132). How does a new SE educator learn about teaching SE? Instructors may ask other instructors for advice but these individuals are not always available (Pedagogical patterns editorial board, 2012) and so this section looks at different ways that knowledge could be shared among academics to help build emergent signature pedagogy.

Different ways of sharing practice can be categorized by the various levels of engagement needed from faculty. For this research, resource sharing and open sources are considered lower engagement as there is no requirement of participants to engage in discussion around the files while pedagogical patterns, and Communities of practice (Cop) are considered higher engagement as faculty discuss, update, and engage in practices to improve curriculum (Wenger, 2006). Although faculty may share knowledge through more than these three methods (resources sharing, pedagogical patterns, and Communities of practice), these three areas became the focus of the study through a literature review on sharing of knowledge among academics. The interview guide asked questions about the three methods but also included open ended questions around any preferred method to increase the breadth of potential methods for sharing. Understanding how faculty share information around teaching, course development, and program advancement may affect and change the slow growth in this field of study by academics.

2.5.1 Resource sharing

Educators near each other could share resources personally—physically sharing curriculum documents or exchanging documents through a flash drive. In looking at knowledge sharing among educators worldwide, resource-sharing refers to the sharing of resources through a cloud-based sharing site. There has been an increase in cloud computing services which is defined as:

> *the practice of using the Internet to process, manage and store data on remote network services—now permits individuals to perform traditionally private activities on the Internet. This computing trend is fueling a mass migration of information, once stored on the hard drives of personal computers, to remote servers in a domain controlled by online service providers* (Office of the information and privacy commissioner, 2012, p.2).

These sites can be internal to an organization such as Microsoft Sharepoint, a content management program, that a team of faculty within one institution can use to share material or it can be external where any number of faculty from many institutions can upload material. The increase in cloud-based sharing sites is due to the increased access of the internet worldwide as well as software programs that are increasingly easy to use over the internet. "Employees will naturally leverage the expertise of peers" (Smith, 2005, p. 539) but management must support and encourage the connectivity.

Within the realm of resource sharing are open educational resources. Open educational resources are defined as:

> *Open educational resources are teaching, learning, and research resources that reside in the public domain or have been released under an intellectual property license that permits their free use and re-purposing by others. Open educational resources include full courses, course materials, modules, open textbooks, streaming videos, tests, software, and any other tools, materials, or techniques used to support access to knowledge (Geser, 2007).*

This definition is quite broad but highlights the idea that open educational resources sources are free and can be reused or repurposed for individual use. Openly sharing and using resources may allow for a "continuum of adaption to develop, ranging from adapting ideas for teachers'

own material to full reversioning of content." (Weller, de los Arcos, Farrow, Pitt & McAndrew, 2015, p.355). The openness of resource sharing and open educational resources may be a key method to sharing SE curriculum where faculty share and repurpose resources contributing to emergent signature pedagogy.

Research shows that there are constraints to using open educational resources. Weller, de los Arcos, Farrow, Pitt, and McAndrew's (2015) research noted that only 14.8% of educators in North America tended to share resources (125 out of 845 participants) and this may be due to institutional and individual barriers (Veletsianos, 2015). Weller, de los Arcos, Farrow, Pitt, and McAndrew (2015) did not study approaches to sharing but Veletsianos (2015) notes that when academics are not rewarded for creating and sharing resources, open educational resources are less used. Ehlers' (2011) study identified low institutional support for sharing and adapting resources as a barrier to faculty adoption of open educational resources. Barriers also stem from an incompatibility in the philosophy of open educational resources and traditional institutional cultures where education is offered through a formal education (Murphy, 2013). Without policies, rewards, or advocacy within the institution, most faculty are not using open educational resources (Veletsianos, 2015). The lack of institutional support may decrease awareness for open educational resources as well as over two-thirds of the participants in Allen and Seaman's (2014) research study were unaware of open educational resources. The low number of faculty aware of open educational resources in Allen and Seaman's (2014) study supports the low number or educators sharing resources in Weller, de los Arcos, Farrow, Pitt, and McAndrew's (2015) study.

Approaches to sharing resources can vary at an individual level as well. Veletsianos' (2015) study found that the faculty that were using open educational resources favored some practices over others. No faculty shared all their course syllabi but some published their research in open space, and others shared their presentation slideshows (Veletsianos, 2015). Mistrust of materials deposited within an open educational resource and perceived lack of credit are also considered individual barriers to sharing (Brent, Gibbs, & Gruszczynska, 2012).

Resource sharing includes cloud-based file sharing and open educational resources. This section highlighted the concept that openness to sharing is diverse on an individual level as well as at an institutional level. Are faculty teaching SE open to sharing their curriculum on a simple site like

Microsoft Sharepoint or Dropbox or are they more willing to explore open educational resources? Understanding how faculty use resource sharing sites will determine the potential for sharing of knowledge around SE curriculum leading to possible emergent signature pedagogy. The process for investigating how SE educators are using resource sharing sites will be outlined in the Methodology chapter.

2.5.2 Pedagogical patterns

Shared resources can become decontextualized and less easy for teachers to pick up and re-use when there is limited faculty engagement. Without communication around the use of the resource among faculty or continual updating of shared resources, faculty new to teaching the subject area may find it challenging to use the shared resources. Another approach may be to share not just resources but an abstracted version of the teaching framework in which the resources are situated. An example of such an approach is the sharing of pedagogical patterns. Pedagogical patterns or pattern-based design was founded in architecture and computer science (Bouz-Asal, 2013; Derntl & Botturi, 2006; Mor & Winters, 2008) and refer to the use of "capturing and reusing effective design practice…that make them appealing for the potential user community" (Derntl & Botturi, 2006, p. 137). Pedagogical patterns are a method of passing on experience or knowledge by skilled faculty to newer teachers (Pedagogical patterns editorial board, 2012). The patterns can provide a foundation for developing curriculum to help create distinctive signature pedagogy. Patterns, however; are not like a recipe with step-by-step instructions as each pattern needs are applied by a variety of different teachers in differing situations (Pedagogical patterns editorial board, 2012). For instance, imagine that you are teaching an English composition course and a colleague teaches a grammar course. She passes on a technique that she uses successfully in her course without specifying the implementation details allowing you to use your own educational creativity to apply the technique to fit your teaching style and your students (Pedagogical patterns, 2012). This is the essence of design patterns— "a format and a process for sharing successful practices in a way that allows each practice to be used by a variety of people in many different ways" (Pedagogical patterns editorial board, 2012, p. 143). One of the goals of a pattern community, then, is to support the culture around design and development and the sharing of practice (Coplien, 2014) leading to educational innovation (Mor, 2013).

In designing and developing a pattern language, the design must capture a real problem, its solution, and a very clearly expressed pedagogical baseline (Derntl & Botturi, 2006; Mor & Winters, 2008). In creating this design, a framework is developed that helps share knowledge (Mor & Winters, 2008) through the creation of patterns in the design features of an instructional design of a course (Bain, Lancaster, & Zundans,2009). Design patterns can be seen as a "way-in for novice users" (Mor & Winters, 2008, p.9) which is especially helpful given the newness of the social entrepreneurial field where novice instructors will be more common than seasoned ones. Derntl and Botturi (2006) stress that pattern design focuses more on the *why* of doing something or the why of the pattern versus solely on the how.

In looking at the why of a design pattern, Derntl & Botturi, (2006) identified two required features to increase the functionality of the design pattern based on Fincher's (1999) proposed set of key features: "a) dedication to a consistent, well defined value system underlying the patterns and b) provision of lively, generative structuring among patterns" (p. 154). Ideally, a design pattern should clearly identify the why of the pattern to help ensure an understanding of the value for the pattern (value-system alignment) which may help increase the engagement or interaction with the pattern design. The focus on the why of the pattern may help increase faculty understanding of the development of the social entrepreneurial field of study. The question remains as to whether a design pattern could be designed for the sharing and growth of emergent social entrepreneurial pedagogy and this question is discussed in the Methodology chapter.

2.5.3 Communities of practice (CoP)

The last two sections looked at resource sharing and pedagogical patterns as potential sharing of practice methods. This section introduces the potential of the last sharing of practice method—communities of practice. A Community of Practice is designed to share and build on information. Communities of Practice involve different roles and processes of collaboration (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 2000). Wenger (2006) describes a community practice as that which:

> *are formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavor: a tribe learning to survive, a band of artists seeking new forms of*

> *expression, a group of engineers working on similar problems, a clique of pupils defining their identity in the school, a network of surgeons exploring novel techniques, a gathering of first-time managers helping each other cope. In a nutshell: Communities of Practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly* (p.2).

Communities of Practice distinguish themselves through mutual engagement where community members share knowledge and practice with intense interaction (Ardichvili, 2008; Tarnaveanu, 2012; Wenger, 1998; 2006). Ideally, the CoP involves individuals who wish to deepen their knowledge and expertise about a shared concern, process, or problem through ongoing interaction (Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002). Communities of practice can be in a face-to-face environment or in a virtual or online community (VCoP). VCop's use online discussions, asynchronous and synchronous social platforms, and other forms of exchange to share pedagogical design (Ardichvili, 2008).

Whether a face to face CoP or in a VCoP, participation can build competences and an increase in practitioner skills or faculty expertise (Bain, Lancaster & Sundans, 2009). To be effective, a Community of Practice must possess a shared repository of communal resources, as well as the routines and shared repertoire that relates to the purpose of the community (Wenger, 2006). The common conceptual framework for action (Marshall, 1995) is shared by all members and defines each member's interaction with the community. The schema represents what the community believes and values about its work (Bain, Lancaster & Sundans, 2009). One goal of a shared CoP is to share and update curriculum as knowledge is acquired about how to teach towards particular learning goals especially given that different faculty collects different knowledge and those varied experiences will create a better curriculum (Morris & Hiebert, 2011, p.6). The small number of faculty teaching social entrepreneurial courses and programs in North America and Europe indicate more of a need for a VCoP versus a face to face practice.

The concept of a Virtual Community of Practice (VCoP) was identified in 1991 by Lave and Wenger as "an activity system about which participants share understandings concerning what they are doing and what that means in their lives and for their community" (Arcichvilli, 2008, p. 542). VCoPs have emerged as a new interactive method to support all the characteristics of a knowledge management system (KMS) which empowers and support knowledge, creation,

sharing and use of practice (Alali & Salim, 2013). Alali and Salim's (2013) study showed that the quality of shared knowledge and the usefulness of the system are indicators of participant satisfaction--high satisfaction may increase use (p.182).

Along with the success factors in VCoP sustainability, there are barriers to the progression or participation in a VCoP that show up in the literature:

- Information hoarding due to organization or professional culture which includes fear of losing competitiveness and confidentiality considerations (Ardichvili, 2008).
- Intrinsic motives that prevent participation such as interpersonal, procedural, technological, cultural barriers and even geographical distance such as time zones (Tarnaveanu, 2012). As well, a lack of knowledge or insecurity around one's own abilities is a barrier (Ozmen, 2013).
- Lack of leadership where security and mistrust among members create a strong barrier (Campbell & Uys, 2007; Ozmen, 2013.). Without a coach or leader, the members may feel less trusting of each other.
- Competing priorities so that time, resources, workload balance and incentives create difficulties to participation (Ozmen 2013).
- Common goals can be a barrier unless all faculty are working to solve the same problems otherwise there is no compelling reason to buy into the model (Campbell & Uys, 2007; Morris & Hiebert, 2011).
- There may be legal issues around data protection, intellectual property, copyright, and confidentiality that create barriers (Tarnaveanu, 2012). Data collected in Canada, for instance, must stay in Canada (Office of the information and privacy commissioner, 2012).
- Reusing material is not a common practice by educators' due to the difficulty in knowing how to share knowledge and due to feeling cautious of sharing (Dulce Mota & Reis, 2011)

The main barrier to the use of this method is the sustained need for intense interaction among the faculty members (Wenger, 2006).

This section examined CoP as a potential sharing of practice method among SE educators. Communities of practice need to encourage teachers to think about what they do and more importantly, why they do it and the challenge with CoP is that "the typical working life of a university teacher does not lend itself to this" (Laurillard, Charlton, Craft, Dimakopoulos, Ljubojevic, Magoulas, Masterman, Pujadas, Whitley & Whittlestone, 2011, p.3). Is a CoP a method that will lend itself for sharing knowledge? Understanding how faculty use Community of Practices will help determine the potential for sharing of knowledge around SE curriculum. The process for investigating how SE educators are using Community of Practices will be outlined in the Methodology chapter.

2.6 Conclusion and Research Questions

This literature review outlined trends in business education, entrepreneurship education and the emergent area of SE education. The need for experiential learning and hands-on applied activities is a common thread in all business education with entrepreneurship courses needing project based learning or an internship as key to developing the required skills in this field. Social entrepreneurship courses identify with experiential learning, hands-on applied activities through projects or internships but also need curriculum that allows students to reflect on their own leadership and to develop empathy or emotional intelligence to emulate the visionary process of practicing social entrepreneurs. The question is asked then, is the current curriculum taught by experts in this field similar to the required pedagogical inclusions outlined in the literature review? Are there any commonalities in the SE pedagogy that could be considered emergent signature pedagogy? (These two questions are answered in the last chapter.)

For SE pedagogy to emerge as signatory, the characteristics that set SE apart from business education and entrepreneurship education need to be acknowledged and shared (Shulman, 2005a). "*Signature pedagogies are not just intriguing oddities. They are widespread across departments within a particular discipline, refined by time and practice, and they meet commonly understood pedagogical purposes*" (Golde, 2007, p. 345). Golde's (2007) reference to commonly understood pedagogical purposes is what Shulman (2005) calls "habits of mind"—that which distinguishes each discipline. Thus, a cornerstone to developing emergent signature pedagogy is the sharing of practice to ensure that habits of mind become widespread across

institutions around commonly understood pedagogical purposes. The literature review examined different methods for the sharing of practice such as file sharing and open educational resources along with pedagogical patterns and Community of Practices. These methods have potential for sharing pedagogy among educators and will be addressed in the methodology chapter.

The literature review provided background to the research questions for this study which proposes to examine the complexity of social entrepreneurial curriculum in a post-secondary institution. The first question aimed to advance the theoretical discussion by inquiring into the best practices in teaching and sharing social entrepreneurial curriculum.

> RQ1: Are there common elements observable in Faculty's experience of teaching social entrepreneurship that could indicate an emergent signature pedagogy?

Once this question is answered, and common elements of potential emergent signature pedagogy are captured, the following question around sharing of practice can be answered in a more profound way:

> RQ2: Which sharing of practice approaches are potentially viable for disseminating elements of emergent signature pedagogy among faculty?

The study focused on collecting narratives from experts in teaching SE to answer the first research question around capturing curriculum design elements for possible emergent signature pedagogy. Welsh and Kreuger's (2012) study that surveyed 145 faculty worldwide who taught in a SE program, resulted in an unclear sense of best practices in SE pedagogy. My research looks at a learning design developed from the narratives of the expert interviews and then shared with teachers who had not taught SE before. The learning design provides a concrete model to capture common elements or best practices to answer the first research question and a concrete model to explore in the second set of interviews. Interviews were conducted to answer the second research question around ascertaining the potential of the learning design as well as different approaches for building and sharing emergent signature pedagogy for SE. The next chapter will consider and outline the appropriate methodological framework for conducting the study.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter looked at how the research questions were developed out of the literature review as well as from my personal and professional journey. This chapter will focus on how the research questions drove the choice of methodology. The chapter addresses my role as a researcher and provides a rationale for using a qualitative methodology in the form of design based research using interviews. An overview of the research design, data collection, participant selection, and analytical method follows the overview and the chapter finishes with a look at ethical considerations.

3.2 Rationale for a Qualitative Research Design

The research design focused on the research questions –what I really wanted to know (Cohen et al., 2011). My two research questions focused on exploring common elements in social entrepreneurship that could indicate an emergent signature pedagogy and as well, if those common elements could be shared. To do this, I needed to ask faculty teaching social entrepreneurship about their experiences with social entrepreneurship pedagogy and with their sharing of knowledge practices. Hence, I needed a research method that validated the thoughts and practices of the participants. I also brought my own thoughts and perspectives into the research design.

My undergraduate and graduate degrees were completed within a positivist paradigm—statistics and surveys looking at several "how to" or "how many" research questions. Examples included how many citizens participated in an event, how many males versus females, and how to engage with stakeholders with an outcome that was statistically significant for the population studied. At the time of completing my graduate degree, I also worked for a large global corporation that focused primarily on quantitative studies in medicine where I continued working within a positivist paradigm. I worked with statistically significant data results on different medications within targeted populations—all strongly skewed towards numbers. I took my first qualitative research course when I started my post-graduate degree and conducted a couple of interviews as a deliverable in one of the courses; it felt like I had come home. I felt like I was reading a story or painting a picture that outlined the different perspectives of the characters or subjects in the study. These interviewees were not just numbers; they had a voice that allowed me to better

understand behavior and to capture more "why" questions such as why faculty do not engage in department meetings and events or why faculty do not apply for middle management positions. A few months later, I attended a large national qualitative research workshop and found myself drawn to research that focused on the human experience such as narrative inquiry and photoenthnography–the naturalist model found predominately in qualitative research.

When it came to my research topic, I was not drawn to the "how many?", "where?", or "when?" questions about the faculty who were teaching SE but more to the "why?" of teaching this pedagogy—what is it like to design and teach this curriculum? Why are faculty not teaching it? Can the values of SE align with the values of a for-profit business curriculum? Although the focus became the underlying interpersonal dynamics between the pedagogy, the faculty and traditional business orientation around profit, it is important to note that "it is the researcher's voice that explains the research" (Drake, 2011, p.33). I am a researcher who is looking to inform practice through a better understanding of human experience and this makes me more aligned with the social sciences than with the natural sciences which tend to align within a positivist framework using structured experiments to predict and explain quantifiable results (Guba & Lincoln, 2008; Moses & Knutsen, 2007; Thomas 2014).

A positivist viewpoint outlines laws and truths that can be applied while studying society such as the idea that a chair is solid and will stay solid within the laws of the natural world whether the researcher is present to observe it or not (Moses & Knutsen, 2007). From a constructivist viewpoint, it is difficult to believe that a chair is not solid but the chair can be different things to different people at different times—the chair being used as a table; the chair being used as a footstool; or even an abstract social representation such as a religious pew (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The constructivist researcher often uses open-ended questions to encourage participants to share focusing on the "specific contexts in which people live and work in order to understand the historical can cultural setting of the participants" (Creswell, 2014, p. 8). This research focuses on the details in the voices of the participants—their cultural and organizational contexts-- to better understand their motivation and values which reduced the alignment to a quantitative approach (Gray, 2014). AshokaU (2011), Dorado (2006) and more recently, Welsh and Kroeger (2013) studied SE from a quantitative perspective examining syllabi and collecting survey data that looked at the number of SE courses, the textbooks used, the course composition,

the length of the courses and other quantifiable characteristics. The results added to the field and are applied through this thesis but the voices of the instructors—their backgrounds, their passion for the topic, and their value for their work has not been captured.

Another reason the research used a constructivist approach was due to the challenges of articulating a teaching style and the various approaches used in sharing knowledge within an emerging field of study that has no common language to describe the pedagogy--a qualitative approach to draw out these exploratory concepts was a better match. Robinson and Shumar (2014) emphasize how a constructivist approach is well suited for social entrepreneurial education to "explore the parameters of a new discipline" (p.423) examining concepts for deeper learning that is needed when understanding entrepreneurial concepts (Silverman, 2013). Furthermore, the constructionist paradigm honours both the voice of the participant and the voice of the researcher that fits with the ethnographic methodological approach of interviews. With this in mind, qualitative research was chosen due to the need for an in-depth understanding of values and learning and given the capacity of qualitative research to working in natural settings and the holistic study of community and social interactions (Marshall & Rossman, 2006, p.4). The research questions explore faculty values and their sharing of knowledge as well as curriculum design and for these reasons; a constructivist approach was a better match to the research questions.

3.3 Research Methodology Overview

3.3.1 Design-based research

Choosing a method depends on what you are trying to find out (Silverman, 2013). Therefore, it is important to show that I have not just picked a random method but one that aligns well with the research questions. From the literature review and the research questions, I was trying to find a pedagogic design with elements of an emergent 'signature' for SE and the potential for transferability of teaching practice. The following section will demonstrate why a design based research method (and its correlation to grounded theory) using interviews was a good match to the research questions.

Design-based research "seeks to increase the impact, transfer, and translation of education research into improved practice" (Anderson & Shattuck, 2012, p.16) through design stages or cycles—design, analysis and redesign (design-based research collective, 2002, p.5). Design-based research explores real world situations such as capturing common elements of pedagogy currently used in the classroom (Davey, 2007). Capturing common elements is the focus of the first research question aligning design-based research to the question. Further, design-based research is "research on designs that must lead to sharable theories that help communicate relevant implications to practitioners and other educational designers" (Davey, 2007, p.3) and this tie to both research questions around sharing theories or knowledge for SE pedagogy.

Design-based research can fit within a quantitative or qualitative research paradigm depending on the needs of the research (Wang & Hannafin, 2005) and given that this research focused on the what, how, and why questions—a qualitative focus (interviews) within the design-based approach aligned.

Design-based research is consistent with aspects of grounded theory where researchers build their theories based on successive levels of data analysis (Charmaz, 2005; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Grounded theory is considered pragmatic used to refine both theory and practice and fits within design-based research as it is collaborative where researchers collaborate with practitioners for design and implementation (Reigeluth & Carr-Chellan, 2009). The development of a learning design for practical application through design-based research fits within the purpose of grounded theory especially as *"grounded theory consists of simultaneous data collection and analysis, with each informing and focusing the other throughout the research process"* (Charmaz, 2003, p.507). Grounded theory has specific procedures and coding methods similar to the methods used in design-based research.

Although grounded theory could have been used for the analysis, design-based research has been developed specifically to build and test educational prototypes such as a learning design which is the focus of this applied research study. The design-based research process for this research was broken down into three steps in order to answer the research questions: Analysis, Design and Evaluation.

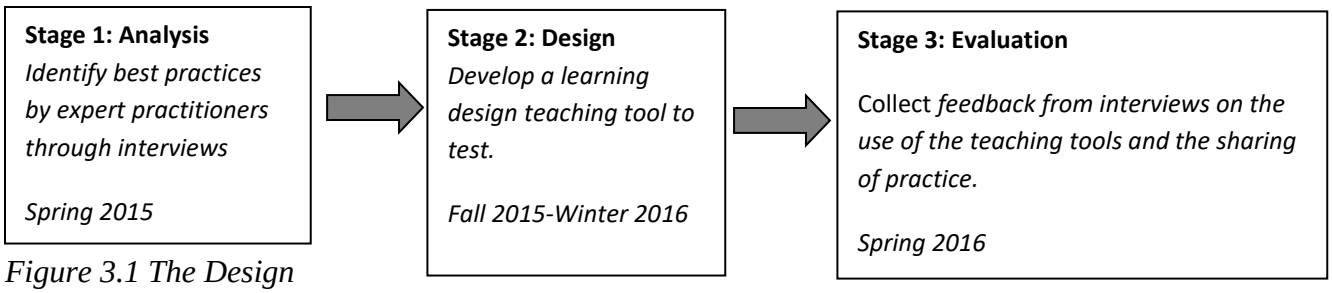


Figure 3.1 The Design

Adapted from Reeves, 2006, as cited in Akker, Bannan, Kelly, Nieveen & Plomp, 2010

The research was done in three stages: Analysis, Design, and Evaluation. The stages aligned to the research questions in that the analysis stage determined the best practices of faculty teaching SE to help answer research question 1 while the Design and Evaluation stages focuses on the sharing of knowledge which helped answer research question 2. In the first stage, Analysis, interviews were conducted with faculty experienced in teaching SE with the goal of learning more about their pedagogy choices around SE curriculum, if and how they share resources, and their interest or background in teaching this curriculum. The interview results and the literature review formed the basis for the second stage, Design. (Rationale for using interviews will be provided in the next section.) In this stage, I assembled a learning design teaching tool for testing with faculty who have never taught social entrepreneurial subject matter. A teaching tool is defined as a resource that can be used to enrich the classroom experience for both the student and teacher, and can be as simple as a worksheet or as complicated as a simulation (Yale University, 2015). The learning design teaching tool was based on common best practices from the expert interviews. In the last stage, Evaluation, I tested the learning design for SE curriculum inclusion to understand better the potential for distribution and the barriers to using the learning design ultimately looking at whether sharing of practice would increase the inclusion of these topics in business curriculum. The goals from the second set of interviews were to also explore institutional support among the participants in terms of the viability of offering SE courses, the connection between faculty willingness to engage with SE curriculum and their community and faith backgrounds, and their inclination to participate in a sharing practice to create a network for social entrepreneurial curriculum as the bases for emergent signature pedagogy process. I chose these identified concentrations based on the findings from the first set of expert interviews.

3.4 Data Sources

This section outlines how the data was collected, the selection of participants for both sets of interviews, as well as curriculum documents that were shared.

3.4.1 Interviews

Interviews are flexible and can be combined with other methods (Guthrie, 2010) but are useful for "examining the social world from the points of view of research participants" (Miller & Glassner, 2011, p.137). In looking at the interview questions and design, "*asking questions and getting answers is a much harder task than it may seem at first… but it is the most common and powerful ways in which we try to understand our fellow humans"* (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.698). For these reasons, a decision to use interviews to collect the data as part of the qualitative research study was made.

The interviews conducted were semi-structured formatted to create an informal conversation with the participants (Fontana & Frey, 2005). The interview questions started out more as topics of inquiry (Gillham, 2000) stemming from the literature review and narrowed down and prioritized as the research questions were developed. The interview questions were designed to be as neutral as possible beginning with general background questions on their institution and moving onto questions around SE and then sharing of practice. The intention was to offer some structure to the interviews and to allow the freedom of the interview process to influence the agenda. A pilot interview was conducted with a colleague who teaches in a business school and has some interest in SE but would be considered neutral as my school was not part of this research (Gillham, 2000). Piloting helped me get a feel for the interview and made me rethink the order of the questions –I moved the sharing of practice questions to the end as it made more sense to talk about how the participants share knowledge once they have talked about their curriculum choices first. The other insight from piloting was to determine how long the interview would take to ensure that I was within the range I indicated on the invitation to participate email.

The second set of interview questions was developed from the first set of interviews. As this research project is based on design-based research, the first set of interviews were thematically analyzed and the findings outlined into a learning design before the second set of interviews were completed. The first three questions on both sets of interviews asked the same questions—topics of inquiry about their background and their institution. These questions helped look at the

similarity and difference between the twelve different participants as well as the institutional support for SE and sharing practice. The concept of faith and community as faculty backgrounds emerged from the very first interview where the participant shared in detail the relationship of faith and SE as motivation to teach the subject. I added this question in for the other five interviewees and included it into the second set of interviews. As the study emerged, it also became clear that terminology around Community of Practice was cloudy and this increased the questions on the Interview Guides to include more clarification around Community of Practice concepts.

The main difference between the two sets of interviews was the learning design as well as the participant recruitment. In the first set of interviews, the focus was on best practices as it related to teaching SE by faculty with experience teaching SE (experts). The questions explored how and why the expert faculty were teaching SE. The results from this section of the interviews were used to create the learning design (supported through the literature review). The first set of interviews and the learning design were created to answer Research Question 1. The second set of interviews explored the potential use of the learning design as well as sharing of practice. Faculty who had never taught a SE course were recruited to understand any resistance to instructing SE from business faculty given that SE goes against the grain of teaching in a for profit program. Building emergent signature pedagogy for SE within a business school relies on faculty within business disciplines to accept and share SE concepts as part of business studies. The second set of interviews was created to answer Research Question 2.

It was essential that I recognized my own assumptions on the research topic as no interviewer is neutral (Ezzy, 2010, p. 168). I was engaged in learning more about the relationship between social entrepreneurial pedagogy and business faculty given that I am a faculty member in a School of Business and have a strong desire to see more students graduate with social entrepreneurial mindsets. In this sense, I easily formed a relationship with the expert faculty participants given our shared interest in developing the pedagogy of the field (Ezzy 2010 p. 163).

3.4.1a The Selection Process

Different participants were needed for each set of interviews in the research design. In the first stage, in-depth interviews with experts--faculty who teach social entrepreneurial education—were used to gather trends and information around best practices in social entrepreneurial

curriculum and how they shared knowledge in their course development. The first set of interviews were recruited through Ashoka as the organization had already filtered 50 social entrepreneurial course syllabi from 34 institutions around North America. The review of the course syllabi was completed through a panel of professors, a university provost and president, funders of early stage social entrepreneurs, social entrepreneur practitioners and students (11 people on the panel). The review panel narrowed the 50 syllabi down to 12 exemplary syllabi based on having at least 60% of the following criteria (criteria was created from the panel themselves) (Ashoka, 2011):

1. Fostering a personal connection to social entrepreneurship
2. Depth over breath: focusing on only one problem area
3. Moving beyond idea creation
4. Connection the classroom to the real world
5. Introducing advanced concepts in SE

Given the diversity and experience of the group that reviewed the syllabi. I was comfortable referring to the potential faculty participants of my research as "experts" as recruited participants for the first set of interviews from the 12 exemplary syllabi. I approached all twelve of the faculty and secured six for the interviews.

The second set of interviews were more complicated for recruitment. The Research Ethics Board (REB) approved recruitment only through associations to avoid having to complete an ethical review from each institution that I interviewed faculty from—contact was only made through the membership list of each association where participants allowed their contact information to be published. This took time. I attended five business conferences over six months to recruit faculty not currently teaching SE: The American Marketing Association. BC Campus Open Education, Canadian Marketing Association, the Canadian Public Relations Society and Arnova.

The participants came from a variety of business backgrounds and teaching disciplines. The chart below captures each of the participant's teaching discipline based on how their institution set up academic divisions. For instance, economics is sometimes found in a School of Business

(BBA in Economics) or sometimes it has its own School (Bachelor of Economics). Table 3.1 gives an overview of the twelve participants.

Interviews 1-6 (expert) Teaching Discipline	**Gender**
International Business	Male
Economics	Female
Nonprofit management	Male
Economics	Female
Business –marketing	Female
Planning, Public Policy, and Management	Male
Interviews 7-12 (non-expert) Teaching Discipline	**Gender**
Entrepreneurship	Male
Business-marketing	Female
Management	Male
Management	Female
Business-marketing	Male
Business-Tourism	Female

Fig 3.1 Overview of participants' background

The diversity in the disciplines from the expert interviews reflects the literature review in how SE is being taught from a variety of disciplinary backgrounds (Newbert, 2014; Tracey & Phillips, 2007). Outside of gender, no other demographic information was captured (age, income, etc.). The backgrounds of the participants as it applies to the data collection will be addressed in the findings chapters.

3.4.2 Data source: Curriculum documents

In the first set of interviews, the focus was on best practices as it related to teaching SE by faculty with experience teaching SE (experts). The questions explored how and why the expert faculty were teaching SE. The results from this section of the interviews were used to create the learning design (supported through the literature review). As part of the process, some of the participants in the "expert" interviews gave me curriculum documents for analysis. I had all six

of their syllabi from Ashoka U; two participants gave me their assignment handouts; one participant gave me their reading list; and one participant shared their complete Dropbox with all their course materials. Reviewing the curriculum documents along with the interview transcripts and literature review provided best practices in which to construct the Learning Design. Best practices are considered superior to any alternatives (Bretschneider, Marc-Aurele & Wu, 2005) and tie to signature pedagogy as commonly understood pedagogical purposes across a discipline (Shulman, 2005). The analysis of the curriculum documents will be discussed in more detail as they relate to the construction of the RASL learning design in Chapter 5.

3.5 Sample size

In looking at the two phases of interviews, twelve participants in total were interviewed. It is difficult in qualitative studies to determine the ideal number of interviews. Ideally, interviews would be conducted until the point of "data saturation" (Francis, Johnston, Robertson, Glidewell, Entwistle, Eccles, & Grimshaw, 2010, p.1229) where further interviews would reveal no further new data. It is hard to determine the saturation point, and practical constraints of ongoing interviews with faculty across North America restricted the number of participants. In the collection and analysis of the data, if a saturation point were noticed regarding repeating themes, this would be noted in the results.

Purposive sampling was used through Ashoka for the first set of interviews (Silverman, 2013). Access to eligible participants in the second set of interviews was challenging due to faculty time commitments and interest in the topic and so snowball sampling within these organizations was also used (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2011). Newington and Metcalfe (2014) noted in their research that altruism is the main factor that motivates participants to take part in a study—their desire to give back through research and advance a topic. For the second set of interviews, the participants did not have a vested interest in the topic given it was not their area of instruction or research and so there was less of a connection to SE than the first set of participants recruited for interviews. If the participants think the research is prestigious and will get published, they are more inclined to participate (Smyth, Jocoby, Gamble, & Williamson, 2015). The lack of connection to SE and competing time commitments may have increased the difficulty in recruiting.

3.5 Analysis Procedure

Corbin and Strauss (1990) recommend that the researcher should discuss their "procedural operations" (p. 20) listing all of the steps in the research procedure to help the reader assess the research, and to help the researcher themselves become more aware of their work. For my research, the results of the interviews produced transcripts that were identified into themes using research from Braun and Clarke (2006), Ryan and Bernard (2003), and Silverman (2013). The literature review drove the research questions (gap in the literature, which then drove the research design as well as the choice in data analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006) emphasize that thematic analysis can be seen as a "foundational method for qualitative analysis "(p.78) reducing the data into a number of themes in which to focus (Creswell, 2003; Silverman, 2013). My theoretical sensitivity to the topic contributed to the thematic analysis given I had background on SE concepts through the literature review that formed the research questions as well as a personal interest in understanding the topic better.

Using Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase thematic analysis process to complete the analysis of the collected data as well as applying Ryan and Bernard's (2003) techniques to looking for themes helped increase theoretical soundness of the results because the method of analysis was applied rigorously to the data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 95) and not just simply carried out without critical thought to the process. The research from the first set of interviews informed the development of the RASL learning design and the interview guide in the second set of interviews. Making explicit the techniques used for discovering themes is important as it helps show the reader how the method was analyzed (Ryan & Bernard, 2003).

The first phase looked at transcribing the interviews which allows the researcher to get very familiar with the data (Silverman, 2013) and "the process of identifying themes probably begins with the act of transcribing the tapes" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.89). The transcriptions were read and re-read and initial ideas were noted down. It was helpful to use different colored pens to mark up the transcriptions simply underlining key phrases that related to SE pedagogy and sharing of practice. During the second and third phase, repeated statements were placed onto coloured paper and the process of clustering the data into potential themes began at this point.

To assist in the development of any emerging themes, a word repeat search using the search function in Word was completed looking to see if the repeated words represented any of the emerging themes (see figure 4.2 & 6.2). The emerging themes were then used to create a mind-map of the analysis (see Figure 4.1 and 6.1). In the last phase, a review of the themes was done putting the themes into a logical order that would tell the story of the analysis for each set of interviews. A more detailed account of the process is given in Chapters 4 and 6 which looks at the findings and discussion of each set of interviews.

Phase	**Description**
1.Become familiar with the data	• Personally transcribe data for better familiarity • Read and re-read data • Note down initial ideas
2. Generate initial codes	• Code interesting features across entire data set. • Look for repeated statements. • Collect data relevant to each code
3. Searching for themes	• Collate codes into potential themes • Cluster data extracts into each of the potential themes • Conduct a word repeat.
4. Reviewing the themes	• Create thematic map of analysis
5. Defining and naming themes	• Ongoing analysis to refine specifics of each theme. • Identify the overall story the analysis tells • Generate clear names and definitions for each theme
6. Producing the report	• Final review of the entire data set • Select vivid, compelling extract examples • Relate the analysis back to the research questions and literature

	• Produce report of analysis

3.6 Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was obtained prior to commencing the study. The biggest concern was in the actual recruitment. Recruiting directly through twelve institutions for ethical approval to interview a faculty member was impractical, thus, the use of membership associations as the recruitment tool was chosen. I designed the research to mitigate specific ethical issues and risks as identified in my ethical approval application and in the literature:

- The research was not deceptive, did not involve vulnerable populations, and presented no conflict of interests. Given that I did not know any of the participants before recruiting, my role as researcher did not conflict with a trusted or authoritative role to the participant.
- The research guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality to participants, reducing the risk of participant recognition. Two of the participants asked to see any quotes from their transcripts before use in the analysis and two participants did not want their geographical location mentioned (any information that would identify their institution). No information about the participants' roles within their organization was provided in the results, and the use of pseudonyms was used to avoid identification. The participants were given numbers from 1-12 such as IP1, IP2, IP3 and so on.
- Permission to perform the study was freely given and informed consent from each participant was obtained. See Appendix 4 for the PIS.

3.7 Methodological limitations

One of the main issues around the methodological choice was in regard to the data collection. Securing faculty to interview proved more difficult and more time consuming than anticipated. Finding the time to attend the different association conferences where potential faculty could be recruited was timely and added to the costs of the data collection. Not knowing the participants in advance aided in the anonymity and confidentiality of the ethical considerations but increased the challenge in recruiting. The first six respondents were recruited quickly from one conference as the respondents were invested in social entrepreneurial curriculum development. Using Ashoka U's fifty course syllabi as a base helped with the recruitment narrowing down faculty

who were teaching SE and who belonged to the association. The first set of interviews were completed within two months as the interviewees were already teaching social entrepreneurial classes and cared about their curriculum and the growth in the pedagogy. Newington and Metcalfe (2014) note in their research that altruism is the main reason participants take part in research. Recruiting the second set of respondents took three times as long and involved attending three different academic conferences. Part of the difficulty lay in that the potential interviewees were not as invested in social entrepreneurial curriculum having not taught in the subject area as per the recruitment parameters. Faculty often feel time constrained and committing time to an interview on a subject that they were not familiar with, had many potential participants declining to help. Newington and Metcalfe (2014) found in their study on recruitment factors in research that one reason participants decline to take part in a study is because they believe that the burden is too much—too big of a time commitment. Competing commitments and a perception of the benefits to participation is also noted in other studies (Adams, Caffrey & McKevitt, 2015; Taylor, Dawson, Robers, Sridhar, & Partridge, 2007). Other potential participants expressed interest but then declined later resulting in three conferences over five months to recruit all six participants. Pulling respondents from six different institutions would have added more information to the findings but with the difficulty in recruiting the second set of interviewees, only five institutions were used (two respondents were from the same institution).

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the rationale for choosing a qualitative based research design that stemmed from the research questions based on the gap in the literature review. The chapter also outlined my research journey and how that aligned with the methodological approach. I presented the reasons behind a design-based research model as a framework for answering the research questions. Interviews were also justified as a method that fits within design-based research and in this research, to the exploratory nature of the research questions. The chapter examined how the data collected was analyzed—through the application of Braun and Clarke's (2006) 6 stage thematic analysis along with Ryan and Bernard's (2003) processes and identified the connection to grounded theory. Ethical considerations and limitations were addressed at the end of the chapter as it related to the data collection methods. The next chapter will look at the results of the data collection from the first set of interviews during phase 1 of the research model.

Chapter 4: Stage 1-- Interviews with expert faculty

4.1 Introduction

The research project follows a design based approach using three stages: Analysis (interviews with expert faculty), Design (creating the learning design), and Evaluation (interviews with business faculty) as outlined in Chapter 3. This chapter focuses on Stage 1: Analysis of the expert faculty interviews where I report the findings and discuss the results from the six semi-structured interviews with faculty across six different post-secondary institutions across North America.

4.2 Analysis

The analysis was based upon Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-stage analysis as outlined in the Methodology chapter (see Table 3.1). The transcripts were transcribed in Phase 1 and then re-read making notes around initial thoughts and the potential significance. This was an exciting phase to see the ideas emerging and correlates with Guest, MacQueen, and Namey (2012) who write about making "*a few excited notes about the potential significance of the text. But, we do not linger, we do not elaborate…and we do not code. We keep reading*" (p.53). The first step in grounded theory is also data collection where the data collection at the start is used to guide the next interview or in this case, the next set of interviews and is a method of "*discovery and one which grounds a theory in reality* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967 as cited in Corbin & Strauss, 1990, p.6). The initial read and re-read of the transcripts gave me the opportunity to hear the voices of the participants, think about their contribution in the interviews and just get a big picture of their thoughts. I believe this helped reduce any pre-conceived ideas or notions that I already had from the literature review and the interview questions.

For Phase 2, I re-read the data now looking to code the interesting features, looking for repeated statements and putting those on coloured tabs. Corbin and Strauss (1990) identify this stage as determining concepts for the basic unit of analysis. Grounded theory identifies this stage as open coding where the transcripts are read and re-read looking for different categories while constantly comparing the data to the categories (Bryant, 2009; Charmaz, 2015; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). I was purposeful in looking for comments that captured ideas relative to the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006) –common understanding of pedagogy, deliverable ideas, and

background as it tied to the deliverables or the sharing of knowledge. The common statements and interesting features were then put into groups (see Appendix 3) and in Phase 3, the codes were populated into potential themes—concepts that are related are grouped to form categories (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Corbin and Strauss (1990) point out that not all concepts become themes. For example, textbooks were a category originally but then moved in with overall deliverables including case studies, discussions and guest speakers which then became a category for inconsistent deliverables among the participants pulling out the two consistent ones for a theme later—reflection and service-learning. As Corbin and Strauss (1990, p. 8) point out "*over time, categories can become related to one another to form a theory* ". Phase 4 allowed me to review the themes, move the tabs around physically seeing how the common codes could be connected to more than one theme and then create a thematic map of the analysis (see Figure 4.1). Creating a visual model like a thematic map showing how the categories related to each other is considered axial coding in grounded theory (Bryant, 2009; Charmaz, 2015; Corbin & Strauss, 1990).

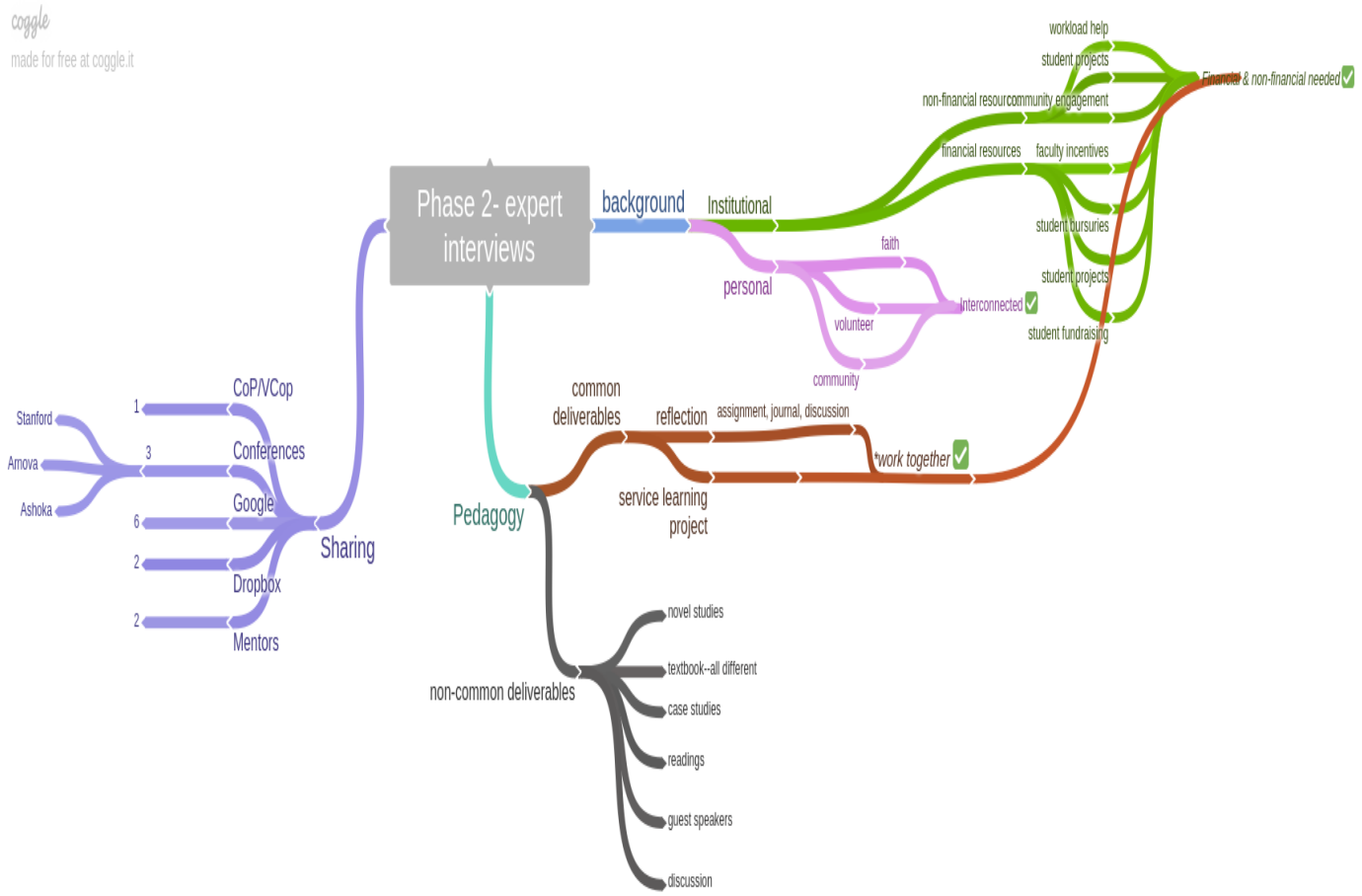


Figure 4.1 Thematic Map of Interviews 1-6

The themes became the cornerstone to the developing theory (Corbin & Strauss, 1990, p. 7) During this process, I went back to the original transcripts to ensure that the extracts, words or expressions were captured correctly (Braun & Clark, 2006 2001, Silverman, 2013) Once the thematic map of the analysis was created, it became clear that there were several themes emerging that provided a "rich thematic description" of the entire data set with interwoven themes that framed a complete picture (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 83). With only six transcriptions to analyze, the reading and review of the data set, clustering of the data extracts and design of the thematic map analysis as laid out by Braun and Clarke (2006) could be done manually. I did use Word to search for common words as laid out in Phase 2 after the common statements and ideas were captured. The word search provided an opportunity to notice if any

"*previously unidentified event might prove more important for the evolving theory*" (Corbin & Strauss, 1990, p.9). Although I did not find any unidentified themes in the word count, it can be helpful to the overall qualitative analysis.

During Phase 5, I refined each theme reviewing how the themes did or did not fit with other looking for an overall story (Bryant, 2009; Charmaz, 2003) renaming themes that better fit the analysis or the "why" of their inclusion in the analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 92). Grounded theory refers to this stage as selective coding where the overall theory is explained (Bryant, 2009; Charmaz, 2015; Corbin & Strauss, 1990) For instance, faith was initially a theme all on its own but then with further revision it tied to volunteering and to community changing the name of the theme to the personal background of the participants using faith, community and volunteering as sub-themes and their interconnectedness created an overall story for the personal background theme.

The next section will present the findings of each of the themes as laid out in the thematic map analysis.

4.3 Interview findings and discussion

The first set of interviews targeted faculty considered experts in social entrepreneurial curriculum. An expert was characterized by faculty who deliver a course that contains at least 60% of social entrepreneurial concepts (AshokaU, 2013). The goal for these first six interviews was to explore the commonality of curriculum among faculty teaching SE as well as how they researched and shared their curriculum with others, and any relevant background information. Three main areas were investigated in these interviews: the content of their social entrepreneurial courses and how they teach; the way in which each participant researched curriculum for inclusion in their courses; and if or how they share their pedagogy with other faculty. The interview questions were used to provide some structure but to also allow the participants some flexibility in their answers. The interview areas are reflected in the Interview Guide (Appendix 1). I asked participants to explain their relationship to SE curriculum in terms of how they got started in the discipline, how long they had been teaching, and what types of support they received from their institutions. I then asked them about the curriculum itself—how they structured their course, the learning outcomes and how the learning outcomes tied to the

assignments, and how they determined student engagement. Lastly, I asked them how they created their curriculum in terms of research and knowledge sharing. The interviews were semi-structured and in that, if an impulsively added question produced useful information, it was added to the Interview Guide questions (Witschey, Murphy-Hill, & Xiao, 2013) and this is noted in the findings and discussion in this chapter.

The interviews in the first phase of research lasted between 40 and 65 minutes with an average of 46 minutes and an average word count of 3000 for each transcription. The thematic analysis led to the identification of three themes as noted in the Thematic Map (see figure 4.1): 1. Faculty and institutional experience, 2. Common deliverables, and 3. Networking and sharing of practice. The following section will describe in more detail the three themes through the participants' voices.

4.3.1 Faculty and Institutional experience theme

Faculty experience

The theme of faculty and institutional experience captures the background experience of the participants—their experience with SE and their motivation to teach SE—as well as the support of their institution as it applies to their teaching of SE courses. The faculty and institutional experience theme provides insight into why the participants teach SE helping to understand the motivation for developing and teaching SE courses as it applies to emergent signature pedagogy. All the faculty interviewed teach at least one undergraduate course on SE and have been teaching this curriculum for several years. It is possible that faculty teach some subjects as part of their work load—they are fulfilling their teaching contracts and are not always enthralled with what they teach. In particular, many of the seasoned faculty at my institution are less enthusiastic about their teaching load and subject matter the longer they have been teaching resulting in low energy and motivation (Cavner, 2015). Cavner (2015) describes this as teacher vitality– in his research, which correlated high vitality with teachers who are true to their inner, personal values–the teachers who are teaching topics that align with their interests and beliefs will have more energy and motivation. Teacher vitality supports the six faculty interviewed who were very passionate about the topic and their curriculum and were all keen to impact the lives of their students through teaching SE curriculum. In addition, they each expressed a strong desire to make a difference in global issues, which transferred into their interest in SE and teaching. The

passion was evident in their expressions such as "*teaching social entrepreneurship is a vocation and a love of developing our professional lives*" (IP3) and "t*he focus is on making change for those students—and they can make change wherever they end up working*" (IP4) and "*I get paid to do good*" (IP5). The participants had the ability to think big which resulted in expressions of high motivation, energy and passion which had strong ties to their personal values which I will discuss next.

The personal interest in the academic topic of SE and the passion to teach it also stemmed from either the respondent's faith or their community based involvement (associations, boards, or volunteering). Taylor (2007) identifies faith in his book, *A Secular Age*, as a belief "in or adherence to God, or some notion of ultimate reality" (p. 4). Taylor's definition is broad enough to encompass different faiths (Jewish versus Muslim for instance) as well as different denominations within a faith (Anglican versus Catholic for instance). One participant mentioned their Jewish faith and four of the participants mentioned the Christian faith which is not surprising given that North America is home to more Christians than any other country in the world—about seven in ten citizens identify with the Christian faith (Pew Centre, 2015). The connection to faith by the participants was unexpected. Taylor (2007) writes how people choose what to believe in and what it is to believe, and the connection to social entrepreneurship may be an insight to help understand faculty who align with teaching SE or at the core of signature pedagogy especially "for some, faith and work is a seamless web, richly and creatively connected" (Krieger, 1994 as cited in Lynn, Naughton, & Veen, 2010, p.677). There is little research on academics teaching SE let alone on their connection to faith. Lynn, Naughton, and Veen's (2010) study suggests that work and faith are not disconnected for Christians (the only religion discussed in their study) which supports the results from the six interviews in this study. For instance, five of the six participants associated with a faith based identity and preferred to work in faith-based universities making explicit references to their own or their students' faith:

> *I would say that the students who are really committed to this are faith based and it is their faith that drives them to this area. Faculty too. I have my own faith-based background which I guess has led me in this direction (IP5).*

> *I definitely think the SE faculty are faith based, not necessarily Christian but faith-based. I would love to write a paper as I think there is a correlation between faith based and social entrepreneurism* (IP6).

Both of the comments above reflect participants who had been teaching SE for several years and who believe that their work in SE is supported by and through their faith. There is a growing trend where workers are bringing theology into their work environments (Separation of church and cubicle: religion in the workplace, 2015) and this was noted in the participants choosing to work at faith-based universities versus a secular university. Based on the participants' expression of faith in the first set of interviews, the second set of interviews explored faith-based connections to determine if a religious association from faculty increased the likelihood of teaching a social entrepreneurial class and the implications for management in developing faculty to teach a social entrepreneurial class. The results from the second set of interviews is presented in Chapter 6.

There is a connection, however between faith and community—people "exhibit the ideals of their faith through action, and having a feeling of usefulness" (Park, Helm, Kipley, Hacock, 2008, p.61) in their community. All six of the participants were active participants in their community either through sitting on association boards, or volunteering regularly within a non-profit or at community events. The association between being active in the community stemming from faith is supported in the interviews:

> *And that makes me think that we have a huge responsibility in this world—and at the very least we have to try to make the world a better place than when we found it and how we found it*. (IP1)

This is common as Garland (2003) and Sherwood (2003) note that volunteers motivated by faith believe that is it something they "ought" to do, learning about community volunteer programs through their religious associations.

The participant who did not identify with a faith based background was still very active in the community volunteering for global non-profit associations around the world in hopes of "*making the world a better place" as its "not what you say, but what you do*" (IP5). Thoits and Hewitt's (2001) research found that volunteering provides a greater sense of wellbeing independent of

religious affiliation. The authors examined the impact of volunteering on personal wellbeing (happiness, life satisfaction, self-esteem, depression, and physical health) but they did not define religion outside of capturing the frequency of attending church. With a narrow definition of religion—attending church—it is unclear if religious beliefs create more of a connection to volunteering (a connection between volunteering and service learning as it relates to SE will be made in Chapter 6.) People who volunteer are seeking psychological benefits in terms of intrinsic rewards for meaningfulness work (Rodell, 2013). The faculty all volunteered with the consistent motivator to make a difference in their communities whether that was for environmental causes such as greenhouse gas reduction or social causes such as poverty reduction or women's rights (causes mentioned in the interviews). The interest in community involvement tied to their curriculum and in their energy to deliver SE content may be a springboard for making a difference within their communities and within a global context.

Understanding the background of the faculty experienced in teaching SE could help institutions in their faculty development. A commitment to volunteer work in the community possibly faith-based could be a key to understanding faculty candidates best suited for teaching SE and it may be part of the "disciplinary norms and identities" as outlined in Shulman's (2005) work. Social entrepreneurs developed from the non-profit sectors (Waddock & Post, 1991), and from volunteering in their communities (AshokaU, 2013). Volunteering, possibly faith-based could reflect a core value or "implicit structure" of the SE discipline (Shulman, 2005a). As well, the experience of volunteering within the community for non-profit organizations ties to the service learning aspect of SE curriculum discussed later in this chapter.

The findings indicate that a connection may exist within faculty teaching SE to the community and to a faith. Spirituality embedded in business practices can provide an intrinsic reward (Brophy,2015) which was expressed by the five participants who identified that they taught SE because it aligned with their goals of making the world a better place—reducing social or environmental injustices. Garland (2003) and Sherwood (2003) found in their research that faith motivates volunteers because volunteering is believed to be something that they ought to do. This is an important point because service learning, as a cornerstone to emergent signature pedagogy, can be tied to faith. Gavin, VanderWaal and Ellis (2014), and Park, Helm, Kipley, and Hancock (2009) found that the feelings of usefulness and perceived effectiveness of service-

learning projects corresponded with faith ideals. The connection existed with both faculty and students involved in service-learning projects which may indicate that students who identify with a faith may also be more connected to the SE service-learning project and its outcomes. Moreover, five of the six participants have strong faith backgrounds that motivated them to deliver SE curriculum within institutions that were also faith based. The passion connected to their faith may be a factor behind the passion the participants felt for social entrepreneurial curriculum. It is important to note that the sample size is small and to better understand the connection between faith and faculty, the concept was further explored in the second set of

Finally, the results highlight the fact that all the participants in the interviews were involved with community groups either locally or around the globe and this helped drive their connection to service learning and SE. Service-learning is the integration of academic study with community service (Felten & Clayton, 2011) and given that the faculty were driven to connect with their community already, they easily integrating a service-learning project into their SE curriculum. Educators who use service-learning in their classroom are looking to contribute to a healthier society as well as transforming student perspectives around diversity, social justice, or discipline-specific knowledge (O'Byrne, 2001). O'Byrne's research (2001) ties to Shulman's (2013) thoughts around signature pedagogy in identifying service-learning as a fundamental way in which future graduates of SE may need to be educated. The service-learning aspect of the pedagogy is what Shulman (2005) identifies as a "deep structure" in that the service-learning is helping students think like a social entrepreneur.

Institutional background

Five of the six faculty worked at institutions where there was a Centre for Research, a Transformative Learning Centre or a Social Education Centre that provided grant money to help support the curriculum for SE courses or programs. The participants expressed the importance of these centers as intuitional support for their SE classes. These centers provided resources for "capstone apprenticeships" so often needed in studies of professional skills such as business studies and are often a part of the "deep structure" of signature pedagogies that help students think and act like a professional in the field that they are studying (Shulman, 2005b). For instance, students needing funding to support a project or go to Africa to work in a village can be secured through these Centers.

> *The program has from the beginning had to raise funds for the creation of two activities—revolving funds which try to help our field partners in the different locations where we operate but also what is important in the end as we are not a bank, we are not a micro-finance, but an academic institution and so it's really important to raise funds for the students who are involved in the program so they can travel and meet the field partners and collaborate and meet the staff for the solutions they come up with. So, we raise money to fund student travel and we raise money to fund projects* (IP1).

The quote identifies how faculty value institutional support for their SE curriculum. Applied learning or "learn by presence" as identified by Tracey and Phillips (2007, p.490) is considered a cornerstone of SE education where students want to be directly involved in the solution (Wu, Kuo & Shen, 2013). Institutional support for the projects locally or globally draws students into their projects directly increasing compassion for the social cause and the people affected which was identified as an emotion key to the motivations of social entrepreneurs (Miller, Grimes, McMullen & Vogus, 2012).

The students themselves were also given the time to fundraise or collect seed money to start their project pitching their ideas to angel investors or social entrepreneurs.

> *We eliminate barriers for students who have social entrepreneurship ideas. We are really an incubator as they figure out if their idea is going to work. We support them with all of the business services—accountability, payroll, accounting. We are committing a lot of resources such as a 50-million-dollar donation for ten years to increase the transformation of education with the intent that every student will have the opportunity to be in an engaged university. My hope is that the university will be showcasing and fostering social innovation and those students can take advantage of us as an incubator. In this sense, the institutions themselves were very supportive of the social entrepreneurship curriculum and the student projects* (IP2).

This quote identifies the importance of institutional support and the significance of student involvement in their projects as part of SE curriculum. Working with the community on projects also develops employability skills for graduates which can also help the institution be more competitive as a university (Qualter & Willis, 2012).

The findings indicate that institutional support was a key to teaching successful SE courses through seed money, student support or an institutional belief in the value of SE curriculum. All six interviewed participants worked in institutions that provided some funding or support for their social entrepreneurial curriculum. Kales and Ryan (2015) emphasize the need for designated resources for service-learning implementation in the classroom with "faculty buy-in, commitment of institutional systems including departmental as well as high level administration" (Curwood et al, 2011 as cited in Kales & Ryan, 2015, p.143). Faculty who feel supported by their employers and feel trust are willing to put more effort into participating (Buckley, 2012). "*Institutions that provide for the development of faculty regarding their knowledge and skill surrounding service-learning are more effective in achieving service-learning outcomes.* "(Kales & Ryan, 2-15, p. 144). Qualter and Willis (2012) and Shulman (2013) suggest that educators define themselves from their disciplinary culture and as SE becomes more distinct as a discipline, a culture of service-learning application reinforced with institutional support aligns with the findings in the first six interviews. The application and support of service learning in SE pedagogy becomes a pattern of commonality across institutions (Welsh & Krueger, 2012).

To sum up the background and experiences of these six participants: all were very passionate about their communities, seek to use their professional and personal ideals in making the world a better place through teaching SE, had institutional support for SE curriculum through their Centres for Learning or Research, had a strong tie to faith based ideals and brought this passion to their reflection on SE curriculum which is discussed in the next section.

4.3.2 Common deliverables theme

The participants discussed their curriculum in the interviews—what assignments they used, why they used their assignment in terms of learning outcomes, and how they introduced and evaluated the assignments. The purpose of including questions around curriculum in the interviews was to explore any common curriculum as best practice for potential emergent signature pedagogy. Best practices are considered superior to any alternatives (Bretschneider, Marc-Aurele & Wu, 2005) and tie to signature pedagogy as commonly understood pedagogical purposes across a discipline (Shulman, 2005a). Examining the best practices of experts could lead to common pedagogy as emergent signature pedagogy and so it is essential to understand

best practices in SE education. Pulling the common curriculum together is outlined in this section –the deliverable theme. A deliverable refers to "*something that is to be delivered according to agreement; by extension, a task that one is responsible for delivering*" (deliverable, n.d.). Deliverable is a common term used in business studies in North America equivalent to assignments used to test student learning based on the learning outcomes of the course. Examples of deliverables include essays, exams, team projects, or lab reports. There were two common deliverables that all of the respondents used that had the same learning outcome—to increase the reflection and attachment to community issues for students to encourage them towards transformation of "*wanting to change the world for the better*" (IP 3). This quote reflects the participants' belief around reducing the impact of social problems or undesired conditions that society believes should be corrected (social problem, n.d.) in that a better world would be one with fewer social problems. The background of the interviewed faculty showed a personal interest in community and global issues which aligned with curricular learning outcomes where students explore community issues and personal development as a global citizen. The faculty's passion resonated in their curriculum.

Reflection Assignment

The first common deliverable was a reflection assignment in which students captured their personal thoughts on community issues and what they cared about. The meaning of reflection as outlined by the participants in their interviews refers to "*thinking about past or ongoing experience of events, situations or actions so at to make sense of them, potentially with a view to informing future choices, decisions or actions.*" (Reynolds, 2011, p. 7). The reflection deliverable was used to help students better understand themselves, the world around them and the skills that they can bring to a project to make a difference. The students often shared their reflections in assigned reflection groups because "*stereotypes and preconceived notions start to fade and change*" (IP4) allowing students to see the world in a bigger picture that helps them with understanding the concepts of social entrepreneurship—bettering the world through application of business concepts. For instance:

> *On one team was a quarterback and a first-generation Muslim, who each had these ideas about each other such as what an athlete would be like but they were nothing like they thought each would be. This is one of the most important learning outcomes for the*

*class-transformative piece where they learn how to listen to each other and hear what each person is saying (*IP4).

Reflective practice is used to "stimulate focused, thoughtful and reasoned reflections that show evidence of new ways of thinking and doing" (Reynolds, 2011, p. 144). The quote from one of the participants above demonstrates reflective practice in noting the change in thinking achieved through observations and communicating with other class mates as reflection should be identified "in such a way as to offer ways of questioning taken-for-granted assumptions and encouraging one to see his or her practice through other's eyes" (Loughran, 2002, p. 33; Stover, 2016). Each of the faculty used a reflection assignment to encourage reflective practice to deepen the students' understanding of themselves which is supported in Harvey, Coulson and McMaugh's (2016) look at reflection as a supportive practice to learning. The authors describe how reflection can build "cognitive capacity that includes self-awareness, critical thinking" (p. 12) as long as the purpose of the reflection is defined. Stover (2016) also identifies in her study that reflection helps students explore assumptions, challenge assumptions, and see how different perspectives can help solve problems. The reflective purpose is captured as faculty outline the complexities of SE curriculum using the reflection assignment to help students try to understand themselves and their role as a "changemaker" in the problems facing the world. Reflection is considered a key part of experiential learning, project-based learning, and action learning (Reynolds, 2013) and should be rooted in service learning (Stover, 2016) which ties into the second common deliverable: a service-learning project.

Service-learning project

The second common deliverable used by all six faculty included a service-learning project. The project revolves around connecting students with a non-profit in need of help. The application of service-learning in SE differs from entrepreneurship which separates the two disciplines. Pedagogical inclusion in entrepreneurship studies should include hands-on teaching such as project-based learning or an entrepreneurial internship (Dreisler, 2007; Kuckertz, 2013) but not from a service-learning perspective. Service-learning originated in the early part of the 20th Century as part of the University of Cincinnati's Cooperative Education Movement (Cashman, Sarena, & Seifer, 2008) along with pedagogy research from James and Dewey in 1905 (History of CSL, 2017). Service-learning developed out of volunteerism and later internships into a

pedagogical strategy: "*Service learning is a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful service in a community with instruction and reflection to enrich that learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen community.*" (Stover, 2016, p.27). Service-learning is traditionally taught in public health or social service courses (Cashman, Sarena, & Seifer, 2008; Stover, 2016) and so it is interesting to see it being used by the experts in SE. The participants used service learning to help students learn about themselves and their relationship with their community—local or global to help students apply the business concepts of SE. The pedagogical reasons for service-learning inclusion in a SE fits with the findings from service-learning research where service learning draws students to their community, engages them in their own personal commitment, helps them better understand social issues, and allows them to problem-solve in complex environments (Bamber & Hankin, 2011; Eyler, 2002; Giles & Eyler, 1998). It is also interesting to note that Cashman, Serena and Seifer (2008) note that service-learning increases volunteerism and that Lambright and Alden (2012) remark that faith based institutions provide more support and encouragement for service-learning in the classroom. In my research, I note that faculty who volunteer in the community use service-learning as part of their best practices in teaching SE. It is important to note that the findings in this research project do not indicate that SE should be a service-learning only course but that service-learning is one aspect of SE curriculum—the use of a service-learning project is a pedagogical tool to apply SE business practices.

The ideas for a service-learning project often came from the students' reflection assignment where they:

> *decide who they are, what are their values, what are they interested in, and more and more they focus on an issue, and they want to do something about it. They go from a problem they are interested in to an idea on how to address the problem* (IP6).

The students work in teams to apply their skills around either assigned topics or self-determined ones such as creating a marketing plan for a social venture or a for-profit venture whose mission may be to reduce or solve a community issue such as making a community garden profitable. All of the projects focus on the:

> *transferability of skills and knowhow. Which is a lot as we work with very small organizations and we bring in students in marketing or finance or business. It's a big deal. The students get to administer their own projects a lot better. It's a win-win for everybody* (IP1).

The projects are tangible in that the students work on and finish them in the term. In this hands-on approach, the goal is to help the students "*go out in the world as a citizen and make a difference*" (IP2). The service learning project ties to the motivation of the faculty interviewed in hoping to "*spark that seed*" (IP3) among students to want to do more in their community and more in the world.

Examples of projects include "*creating a marketing plan for a social venture or a new social innovation model* (IP2), "*helping low income women in Costa Rica start a massage centre*" (IP1), or "*addressing the loss of water in the South West"* (IP4). In all of the project work, the students "*go from a problem they are interested in to an idea on how to address the problem all the way to launching the idea on how to address it. They come up with a good design or proto-type with some ideas"* (IP4). The projects are very hands-on and specific to the student's interests and "*although not all students will end up with an SE focus, we focus on making change for those students who will end up making change wherever they end up working"* (IP4).

The two deliverables were used by all of the participants based on learning objectives of demonstrating self-awareness for social or environmental causes and the application of strategic business designs to those causes. Self-awareness was described as identifying with compassion and empathy for a social cause based on reflection of experience and interaction with others. Miller, Grimes, McMullen and Vogus (2014) posit that social entrepreneurs hold compassion as their driving force and the learning outcome for the reflection assignment imitates actual SE practice. However, Arend (2014) criticizes the use of compassion as a term to describe social entrepreneurs as given that it is hard to measure and it would be better to study what drives the emotion and not just identifying the emotion itself. The participants interviewed were very passionate about their curriculum and the inclusion of their service-learning project especially as it applied to helping communities. The passion emulated compassion but the sample size was small and difficult to make a blanket statement whether the service-learning project would emulate compassion for students as a skillset needed for SE.

The application of strategic business designs through a service-learning project incorporated models such as marketing plans, business plans, communication designs, volunteer training programs, or product development. The goal of the service-learning plan was to integrate meaningful community service—meaningful based on the student's reflections as well as meaningful help to the community. Kales and Ryan (2015) emphasize how service-learning and reflection need to be integrated into the curriculum as "a powerful pedagogical strategy that encourages students to make meaningful connection between content in the classroom and real-life experiences" (Engstrom & Tinto, 1997, as cited in Kales & Ryan, 2015, p. 135).

Kickul, Janssen-Selvadurai and Griffiths (2012) and Robinson and Shumar (2014) posit that service-learning projects draw students into real-world problems and this was noted in this research as all of the participants commented how the students were absorbed into their projects. The participants also used a variety of other deliverables to help meet learning outcomes of demonstrating self-awareness for social or environmental causes and the application of strategic business designs to those causes and these included case studies, guest speakers, exam writing, essays, book reviews, interviews, and oral presentations. The other assignments were used to build onto the service-learning project as well as reflection (book reviews, oral presentations and interviews) and increase the understanding of SE concepts. There was no consistent use of the other assignments by all of the participants and were treated as supplements. The reflection assignment and the service learning project together tie to the results of the literature review in this study that identified pedagogy that allows students to reflect on their own leadership, connect with their local community and be part of a visionary process as being critical to SE curriculum. Kales and Ryan (2015) emphasize the connection between service-learning and reflection citing journal writing as key to students connecting their knowledge to the service-learning experience. The two identified common deliverables may lay the foundation towards a base of social entrepreneur curriculum (signature pedagogy) pending the adoption and consensus among faculty. Shulman's (2013) work on signature pedagogy uses observations to better understand signature pedagogy. He observes faculty teaching different subjects in the classroom and he coins their teaching as the surface structure of signature pedagogy— "concrete, operational acts of teaching and learning" (p.54). No observation was done in this research but the common deliverables determined from the interviews could be considered the deep structure of Shulman's signature pedagogy- "a set of assumptions about how best to impart a certain body

of knowledge and know-how" (p.55). The two common deliverables were used to meet learning outcomes around applying business practices to SE.

It was noted in the literature review that social entrepreneurial curriculum should encourage students to "reflect on their own leadership, connect with their local community and apply to a visionary process". The literature also highlighted the need for exposure to empathy, and emotional intelligence so that they develop the "ability to challenge traditional ways of thinking" (Miller, Wesley & Williams, 2012, p. 365). The results from the first phase of the research indicated two standard curricular deliverables essential to teaching SE: a reflection assignment and a service-learning project. A reflection assignment that builds into a service learning project aligns with the literature review of reflection and connection with the community as well as developing empathy through community work and emotional intelligence through their reflections. The reflection assignment and the project tie together in that the student's reflection on their place in the community determines their passion and interest in the service learning project.

If there is signature pedagogy according to Shulman (2013), it would be "*teaching and learning that are not unique to individual teachers, programs, or institutions"* (p. 54). The six participants worked around North America in very diverse settings, yet every participant incorporated a reflection assignment and service learning in their syllabi for a SE class. This is one aspect of signature pedagogy—replication across institutions that teach the discipline (Shulman, 2005b) and may form the bases of emergent signature pedagogy. The purpose of the two common deliverables could form what Shulman (2005b) coins the "habits of mind" as instructions that leap to mind when thinking and preparing for SE.

4.3.3. Networking and Sharing of practice theme

The second research question looked at how faculty shared curriculum because the sharing of knowledge ties to emergent signature pedagogy in that educators teaching SE need to acknowledge and share curriculum in order for signature pedagogy to emerge. With the second research question as background, the last theme identified through the thematic analysis was the participants sharing of knowledge practices. The interview questions focused on how the faculty found their information or conducted research when developing their curriculum. For instance,

where did they go to find sources and help when putting together their assignments? Did they have a network that they could use to answer questions or confer on topics around SE? These questions focused on the sharing of practice that is often used to establish emergent signature pedagogy as identified in the literature review in Chapter 2. There were several methods for networking and sharing practice gathered from the interviews: search engine use and file sharing; mentors and associations; and Community of Practice.

Search engine use and file sharing

There was a lack of commonality among the participants in how they shared knowledge. Outside of a "random search on Google", no other method was common among all of the participants. "*I guess I find part of it online and sometimes from colleagues who have good ideas. I try and get the word out when I hear about good ideas*" (IP2). This participant recognized that sharing ideas and practice is valuable but had no real idea on how best to share. A lack of understanding on how to share reflects the literature review where instructors are not always sure who to ask for help (Pedagogical patterns editorial board, 2012) or faculty are not sure who might be interested in sharing (Campbell & Uvs, 2007; Morris & Heibert, 2011).

One participant belonged to a wide network of faculty across the United States who have been using a common dropbox:

> *When I started building curriculum, I realized that I could share my dropbox. All these years later, all these people are sharing this dropbox. Although, I can't figure out how to get others to share their content. My goal was to share as scaling the social entrepreneurship model is really bad and needs updating, but no one has* (IP3).

In this case, the faculty are pulling from the dropbox but not necessarily sharing. Dropbox software fits into a more limited resource sharing where the use of the files was growing among invited faculty to the site but members were not engaging each other on any updates.

Community of Practice

One participant had heard of the term "Community of Practice" but had never participated in one. The concept of a Community of Practice was not well understood with only participant recognizing the term who could explain the purpose of a Community of Practice in the interview:

I don't know anything about Community of Practice or virtual Community of Practice (IP1)

I don't belong to any online communities or sharing sites but there are some great websites that you can google and find information from (IP4).

In looking at how the six participants share knowledge, a very scattered process for researching new curriculum, sharing of curriculum or basic approaches to collaboration are reported in this section. There was no consensus on how to share or collaborate with faculty and the issue of development time was outlined as "*The problem is always time. It is a lot of work to connect with instructors' (IP3)*.

One point to note is that all the participants were agreeable to sharing their curriculum which is a cornerstone to developing emergent signature pedagogy--the sharing of practice. Shulman (2005) notes the importance of examining and reexamining pedagogy across institutions, Golde (2007) stresses how signature pedagogies are "*widespread across departments within a particular discipline, refined by time and practice, and they meet commonly understood pedagogical purposes*" (p. 345), and Fagerberg and Verspagen (2009) emphasize the need for organizing communication among educators in a field to establish common standards. The research does not, however, identify the importance of institutional support for pedagogical practices. *People are happy to share but where to find and who to go to*? (IP2)

It is very open and sharing among faculty. I share my syllabi for all of my classes. This is very similar in the SE community. Most SE are copy less and will share everything and then if you improve on it; you must share it back (IP4).

I like to share my resources to faculty to teach applied learning if they want it. We should share everyone and anything (IP6).

The two quotes above show how the faculty in the interviews shared their knowledge within their field in a variety of different practices without one common method between all six of them. There was no apparent structured method for sharing knowledge among faculty developing social entrepreneurial curriculum. Although all the participants understood the concept behind the resource sharing options: file sharing sites, open education resources, communities of practice, and pedagogical designs, none of the participants recognized the value that an interactive site such as a CoP could bring in terms of increasing their skills and expertise through collaboration with other experts (Bain, Lancaster & Sundans, 2009). No participant mentioned institutional direction for sharing knowledge—how their organization encouraged sharing of practice methods. The participants identified more with the barriers outlined in the literature review of competing priorities such as time and workload balance that created difficulties in participation (Ozmen, 2013), lack of leadership and mistrust with members not knowing each other (Campbell & Uys, 2007; Ozmen, 2013) and the perceived lack of value for the required and sustained effort among members (Wenger, 2006). Although one participant used a dropbox to share with other members as a repository of documents, no interaction occurred between the members. The participant also felt an imbalance between the dropbox members where only a few were adding and many were using which was identified in the literature review as information hoarding (Ardichvili, 2008). Information hoarding creates concerns of trust when faculty feel that they are doing the most work creating material for others to use with no reciprocal exchange of information. When it comes to the best sharing of practice to increase the knowledge and skillset of non-expert faculty, no definitive answer was discovered in the first set of interviews.

The results from the first six expert interviews indicate that there is a variety of sharing of practice occurring around faculty teaching SE. Understanding how the participants share knowledge across institutions and the organizational support to enable knowledge sharing is indicative of the potential for emergent signature pedagogy. Emerging fields are done with a common focus and the "accumulated knowledge that researchers in the field share serves to differentiate the emerging field from other areas of science" (Fagergert & Verspagen, 2009, p. 219) "*so that good ideas can travel and ineffective pedagogies can be avoided*" (Golde, 2007, p.350).

The results from the six expert interviews indicated that none of the participants were familiar with the four VCop knowledge management systems described in the Methodology chapter. The question on how effective sharing practice can be has no definite answer from the results in the first set of interviews. Given that all of the faculty belong to one of three associations, is this the connection for new faculty researching SE curriculum?

Associations and mentors

Mentors were mentioned by two of the participants who had a mentor who shared their curriculum or books or their ideas with them:

> *When I first started out was that I met a social entrepreneur in Africa, and he would send me lists of books and resources to help with my curriculum—he was my mentor* (IP3).

The key with mentors is in finding someone who has the time and interest to mentor new faculty. The participant who had the mentor moved through the development of their SE curriculum quickly due to the access to a mentor who was experienced in SE. As well, two of the participants were strong believers in attending conferences to network and grow the research needed for curriculum development:

> *But when I started out in this field, I made a connection at a conference, and he connected me and got me started* (IP4)

Making connections at conference, similar to having a mentor, also helped the participants develop their SE curriculum. However, one participant strongly voiced that conferences were not an effective means of sharing information as the cost of conferences prohibited many instructors from attending:

> *It is hard to find. In my own research, I know there are so many faculty out there doing amazing things, and it would be amazing if everyone could share their ideas and their works so that we have a network of ideas. Wouldn't that be great?* (IP1).

The participant in the quote above identifies an interesting obstacle around sharing of knowledge through conferences—cost or lack of institutional support. This was also noted earlier in the chapter when the participants highlighted the importance of institutional support as part of their experience teaching SE. Providing funding and time for faculty to attend conferences allows for

networking and sharing of knowledge—essential components to building emergent signature pedagogy.

All of the participants used associations to find information and network naming Ashoka, Arnova, and Stanford Social innovation although obtaining material through these associations is mostly fee-based. The commonality of using an association to network is not surprising given that the participants for the expert interviews were recruited through associations. These associations bring together scholars, teachers, and practice leaders interested in research. Arnova has a non-profit focus connecting members in the United States and operates out of Indiana. Ashoka focuses on connecting people so that they can share ideas and problem solve issues in the communities around the world. Ashoka is located in Virginia but has a satellite office in Canada. Stanford Social Innovation publishes a magazine and offers educational sessions through webinars, conferences, online articles, and podcasts that focus on inspiring leaders in nonprofits, business, and government to be change leaders for global issues. Stanford Social Innovation is run through Stanford University in California. The three associations host annual conferences in the USA and charge a fee for most of their services and the membership but pull people together to learn about social innovation and social entrepreneurship. Each of the participants had attended at least one conference with one of these three associations making conference attendance a more common strategy for networking and knowledge finding around curriculum. Associations add value through their networking potential with like-minded academics, access to current industry information, and they provide an opportunity to give back through volunteering on boards and committees (Rampton, 2015).

4.4 Summary

There was no correlation between the participants' background and their connection to faith and the community (the one participant who did not identify with a faith taught in Public Policy), they all used reflection and service-learning projects; and they all struggled with sharing of knowledge. The different academic schools from which the participants' teaching areas were centered reflects the literature that notes that SE resonates within many academic disciplines (Hoogedoorn, Pennings, & Thurik, 2011; Welsh & Krueger, 2012). (See Table 3.1 for the different backgrounds). The interview guide provided a framework for the interviews but the

findings produced results outside of this framework. Faith, cultural beliefs around sharing of practice, and the passion for the participants' own SE pedagogy emerged from the findings as well.

Stage 1 of the research design as outlined in the Methodology chapter included six semi-structured interviews with faculty experienced in teaching SE. The findings and the discussion from this section provided background for Stage 2: Design which is outlined in the next chapter. The findings and discussion from Stage 1 also provided insight into the interview guide for Stage 3: Evaluation particularly around the inclusion of faith and sharing of knowledge practices and is discussed in Chapter 6.

Chapter 5: Stage 2- Constructing the Learning Design

5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on Stage 2—the learning design. Two common deliverables emerged from the previous chapter that looked at Stage 1: Analysis. Chapter 5 explains the process of abstracting the common elements into a RASL (Reflection and Service Learning) Learning Design that could be shared with faculty. The chapter will also examine how the RASL learning design reflects the possibility of emergent signature pedagogy based on Shulman's (2005) research.

A 'learning design' has been defined as:

> *the description of the teaching-learning process that takes place in a unit of learning (e.g., a course, a lesson or any other designed learning event). The key principle in a learning design is that it represents the learning activities and the support activities that are performed by different persons (learners, teachers) in the context of a unit of learning* (Koper, 2006, p.13).

Using learning design principles as a method of describing the "teaching-learning process that takes place in the unit of learning (Koper, 2006, p.13), and the structured approach of pedagogical patterns, a learning design was created. The design for this study was named RASL (reflection and service learning) incorporating the design concepts of completeness yet reusability (Koper, 2006). Completeness refers to the goals and objectives of the design for both the learner and the instructor as well as activities and resources needed. Following the lead of pedagogical patterns, I wanted the design to be reusable or adaptable in that the faculty could adjust the questions or the project outline based on their needs in their course learning outcomes. For instance, if an instructor wanted to focus on a particular local community versus a global situation, they could adapt the learning design either way. The learning design considered the teaching practices of the six interviewees creating learning activities "(what needs to be done) including the learning objectives and the intended knowledge level and the recommended educational resources" (Marjanovic, 2006, p.381). The learning activities were based on each of the participants' description of the assignments used in their SE class as well as on the

curriculum and syllabi themselves in which three of the six participants shared with me. The two common curricular elements were interesting in that the participants came from five different States in the USA and one province in Canada, they worked equally in private and public institutions, and the participants represented both genders. Having two common deliverables in the curriculum for all of the participants supports the development of a pedagogical pattern in that a framework was designed to help share knowledge (Mor & Winters, 2008). Pedagogical patterns are a method to bring novice users into a subject (Mor & Winters, 2008) and the learning design created from the results of the first set of interviews aligns with the goal of "capturing and reusing effective design practice" (Derntl & Botturi, 2006, p.137). The learning design is presented below incorporating the findings from the first set of interviews and was also adapted from Marjovic's 2010 study. Marjovic's (2010) design provided the framework headings: knowledge level, learning objectives, instructional design pattern options, additional resources, instructions, educational benefits, and instructional sequence whereas the information in the interviews filled in the second column in the framework with information specific to a SE class. The framework is tested in the second set of interviews where the participants were asked about the sharing potential of the Reflection and Service Learning (RASL) teaching tool. The next section outlines the development of RASL learning tool.

5.2 Analysis of the Findings into the RASL design

5.2.1 Analysis process

The RASL learning design was created from the findings in the first set of interviews, from the literature review on learning designs and from the curriculum shared from three of the participants. During the first set of interviews, three of the participants offered to share assignment details with me and followed-up by emailing some of their curriculum documents to me. One participant gave me access to the Dropbox for her SE course.

To create the actual learning design, I looked through the curriculum documents that the participants shared with me looking for common elements between them. I then looked through the transcriptions again focusing on the questions that explored SE curriculum in the classroom checking to see if any further information on common elements was missed. Finally, I compared those common elements to the literature review on SE, learning designs, reflection, and service learning. From all that information, a thematic map was created (see Figure 5.2) to find the

common elements in the two deliverables, as well as pedagogical design elements. The last step was to create the learning design itself based on the information collected. The process was adapted from Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase analysis:

Figure 5.1 Analysis of the findings from Phase 1to RASL design

5.2.2 RASL design

The actual RASL design was based on pedagogical pattern design strategies with the goal of helping skilled faculty pass on experience or knowledge to newer teachers (Mor & Winters, 2008; Pedagogical patterns editorial board, 2012). Derntl & Botturi (2006) suggest that design patterns should clearly outline the purpose or the *why* of the design which is why I incorporated knowledge, learning objectives, and educational benefits in the design (see Table 5.3).

Two key aspects of a learning design include creativity and flexibility. The curriculum documents and the transcripts aligned with the literature review where flexibility and creativity are needed components to a social entrepreneurial learning design (Dees, as cited in Worsham, 2012, p. 440). Flexibility was considered essential to a learning design so that instructors can tailor the design to their situation. The RASL learning design provides flexibility in that it can be tailored by the instructor to different class sizes and different assignments, and focused on different social problems. Creativity was also considered in the design phase as a learning design strategy should help support a culture of design and development and the sharing of practice (Coplien, 2014) as users of the design can collaborate on design features. The reflection questions, the project ideas and the use of the design would be tested in the last phase of the research where creativity and flexibility would be discussed with the interview participants.

I started with the first common deliverable found in the interview results --the reflection assignment. All the participants used a reflection assignment to help work towards a learning objective for prosocial awareness and community engagement. Looking at the transcriptions, the participants discussed using the reflective assignment as a tool for student reflection about themselves, their community, and their place in the globe. The participants shared their belief that for students to better understand global issues, they should shed some of their pre-conceived ideas or notions about the world and open up to learning what they may be passionate about regarding their community or global injustices. The reflection aspect of the participant's curriculum was used to encourage students to reflect on their own leadership and this aligns with Ashoka's (2013) changemaking or visionary process of SE where students build on a service-learning project where business skills are applied to a social problem they identify. The reflection assignment tied well to the second common deliverable—a service learning project—

where “reflection is the hyphen in service-learning” (Eyler as cited in Kalles & Ryan, 2015, p. 134) because the students focus on “exploring what you are doing, why you decided to do it and what its effects have been” (Mertler, 2009, p. 247). Learning and experience is captured in the reflection before, during and after a service-learning project (Kalles & Ryan, 2015). Figure 5.2 shows how the learning design was created in Phase 2 (see Figure5.1) pulling in the curriculum documents, the literature review, and the transcripts.

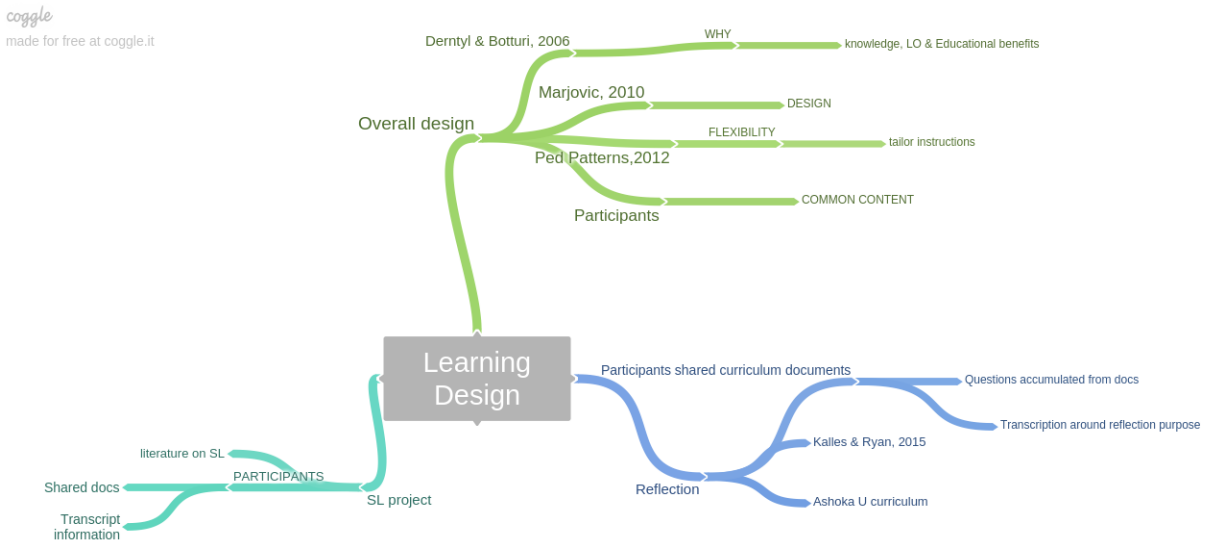


Figure 5.2 Mindmap of the Learning Design

5.3 RASL learning design

The RASL learning design was a result of the process described above and is shown in Table 5.1 below.

Journal Learning design	
Knowledge level	Analyze (Bloom’s Taxonomy)
Learning Objectives	Self-awareness to discover and relate to social or environmental causes explored in social entrepreneurship. Increase in empathy and compassion.
Instructional Design Pattern options	Options include: individual journal entries, peer discussion, whiteboard class discussion, online discussion in small groups, blogs, video blogs, one-on-one teacher/student meetings are some of the possible patterns.
Additional Resources	A notebook/electronic file or blogging software.

Instructions	Students are required to answer a set number of reflection questions in the first third of the term around "where do I fit into the world". The questions can be revised pending on the focus of environmental or social causes or specific local issues.
Educational Benefits	This tool allows students to reflect on their personal attitudes, culture, passions and beliefs about their community and the world and then share and learn from their peer's reflections on the same concepts.
Instructional Sequence	
Teacher –sequence of learning design. Questions can be adjusted for specific problem area, culture, or community.	Students-individually reflect over a period of time depending on the course length, class meeting times, class size, or individual instructor preference.

Reflection 1: What matters most to you? What are the things and people that you value more than anything else? Are you living consistently with these values? Are you spending most of your time on the things that really matter deeply to you? If not, how can you change your life to reflect what matters most? Make your responses true to your specific experience – something that nobody else in the world could say. Tell stories that illustrate what you mean or provide examples of how you are or are not living consistently with the identified values.

Learning goal: to discover personal values- what they do, how they do it, why they do it-- to relate how their values tie to social or environmental injustices in reflection 2.

Reflection 2 What social or environmental problem is of most concern to you? Why? Have you personally experienced this problem or known others who have? Discuss the importance of the problem you selected especially as it relates to what matters most to you in reflection 1. Provide examples or tell stories that illustrate how the importance of the problem you have identified affects your life.

Learning goal: to determine alignment of values with community or global issues that matter the most to the individual student.

Reflection 3: Who has provided you with encouragement and support in your life? Write a letter of gratitude to a person whose encouragement and support has had a profound influence on your life, but whom you have never fully acknowledged. Thank them for the powerful, positive impact that they made in your life. Give an example of how their support has made a difference in your life.

Learning objective: to relate to the impact of helping others

Reflection 4: What are some creative things you have done in your life? Please include a few examples…Have you created art? Written poetry or articles or stories or music? Have you created a Pinterest page or blogged on a topic? Have you brought attention to an issue in a way that makes people look at things in a different way? What creative activities have made you happiest? Provide examples or tell stories of how creativity has impacted how you view the world and its problems.

Learning goal: to discover the individual creativity the student may bring to problem solving strategies later in their service-learning project.

Reflection 5: What has been your experience in "giving back" to the community? This can be through time, money, energy, etc. Was it related to how you see your mission in life? Is your experience in giving back related to the passions you identified in Reflection 1 and 2? What kind of contribution do you hope to make in the future and why? Provide examples or tell stories of your experiences in "giving back" and "moving forward". *Learning goal: to analyze and relate service oriented experiences and expectations based on reflections 1-4.*
Reflection 6: to be done after the service-learning project. What did you learn during the project that enhanced your learning gained in the classroom? What impact might your project have on your life-long process? What did your project teach you about community engagement or involvement? What was the most difficult part of your work? If you were to start at the beginning of this project again, what would you do differently the second time around? Provide specific examples to help illustrate your learning.

Service learning project "a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities" (National service learning clearinghouse, 2016) Business communication examples include: help organizations develop training programs for volunteers; help agencies develop ways to supervise, monitor, and support their volunteer staff; design fund-raising activities for an agency; help a community organization develop presentations; work with a Junior Achievement group; develop a business plan or marketing plan; design a strategic communications plan; create a business plan for a new product or service focused on a social or environmental injustice.	
Knowledge level	Synthesis (Bloom's Taxonomy)
Learning Objectives	Combining the learning goals of a strategic business design to community action goals that enhances student development and the common good.
Instructional Design Pattern options	Class project, group project, individual project, continuing case study, directed study, action research, cross-disciplinary project, capstone project are some examples.
Additional Resources	Business Model Generator Canvas (Osterwalder & Pigneur, 2010); Young person's guide to social entrepreneurship (Edwards, Turner & Hertel-Fernandez, 2016); Big idea to social change (Rudd Family Foundation, 2016).
Instructions	Students are required to create a solution to a social or environmental problem in the community or around the globe by applying learned business skills. Using the eight social problems identified in the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), students can identify with: 1) eradicating extreme hunger, 2) achieving universal primary education, 3) promoting gender equality, 4) reducing child mortality, 5) improving maternal health, 6) halting the spread of HIV/AIDS and other diseases, 7) ensuring environmental sustainability and 8) global partnership for development (United Nations, 2015). Tying the social problem project to the topics they discovered they were passionate about in the reflection journal will enhance learning.

Educational Benefits	This tool allows students to apply their business skills to their passions and values based on the results from their reflection learning design.
Instructional Sequence	
Teacher –sequence of learning design. Can be adjusted based on scope of project or client.	Students-individually or in groups apply the steps to a business solution model. Presenting the project as a large term based deliverable, or a concentrated residency project, or presented as a case study are options.
1. Assign a service-learning project that addresses a need with the community or globe. This can be self-chosen based on reflection journals or assigned based on community need. Support from the institution on community based learning or access to community based organizations may impact choice of project. Expectations and connection to course learning outcome descriptions provided.	
2. Construct a sustainable business plan using a social business opportunity based on the Business Change Model or customized format: a. list problem. b. find resources c. list activities to accomplish c. list results expected e. list outcomes achieved f. identify social impact	

Table 5.1 The RASL Learning Design

5.4 The RASL learning design as possible signature pedagogy

It is important to recognize that signature pedagogy is not stagnant. New technologies, new strategies, and changing practices create opportunities to make changes in signature pedagogy but per Shulman (2005), signature pedagogy in any discipline shares "three overarching learning goals:

1. *A cognitive apprenticeship wherein one learns to think like a professional*
2. *A practical apprenticeship where one learns to perform like a professional*
3. *A moral apprenticeship where one learns to think and act in a responsible and ethical manner that integrates across all domains."*

(Shulman, 2005a, p.3).

The three learning goals are referred to as "to think, to perform and to act with integrity" (Shulman, 2005.p.52), but the three learning goals receive different emphasis based on the discipline. For instance, medicine places more emphasis on learning to perform as a doctor and less emphasis on acting with integrity while lawyers focus on thinking like a lawyer with little emphasis on learning to perform like one. To date, no literature exists that applies signature pedagogical design to SE (syllabi analysis has been done but no observations, interviews, or

application in the classroom has been done). In looking at signature pedagogy for management education, Schmidt-Wilk (2010) encourages us to think about Shulman's (2005a) apprenticeships to determine what are being emphasized and what are being overlooked to help select "pedagogies that are designed to accomplish the three fundamental dimensions of professional work (p.34). In looking at the RASL learning design, how does it fit into the three learning goals as laid out by Shulman (2005) to stand for possible emergent signature pedagogy?

Instructors have a plethora of pedagogical choices including discussions, cases, field trips, service-learning, team-based learning, exams, and journaling (Jenkins, 2012). Jenkins (2012) identified clusters of signature pedagogy where "*a collection of class discussion, projects and presentations, self-assessments and instruments, and critical reflection*" (p.18) were commonplace in leadership education in a study that surveyed 303 participants. Schmidt-Wilk's (2010) states that there is no one best way for teaching management but perhaps a combination of pedagogies. However, Jenkins (2012) acknowledges that future research to narrow down the pedagogy further focusing on quality and best practice is needed. In my study, the analysis of the first set of interviews showed that instructors are using discussions, case studies, guest speakers, and exams in the classroom but there were only two common pedagogical choices: a reflection assignment and service-learning project. The use of just two pedagogical choices as a single signature pedagogy differs from Jenkins (2012) study but there were only six participants who were interviewed focusing on best practices. The narrowing down of the choices from the interviews in my study could be the quality and best practice focus that Jenkins (2012) identifies.

The reflection assignment has elements between two of the learning goals: to think and to act with integrity with the goal of forming habit of mind (Shulman, 2005b, p.59). Using the reflection questions found in the RASL learning design, students are asked to "think about past or ongoing experience of events, situations or actions so at to make sense of them, potentially with a view to informing future choices, decisions or actions." (Reynolds, 2011, p. 7). The questions allow students to see the world in a bigger picture that helps them with understanding the concepts of social entrepreneurship—to think like a social entrepreneur. Students also see and communicate with other class mates in groups as part of the RASL learning design so that reflection can be found "in such a way as to offer ways of questioning taken-for-granted assumptions and encouraging one to see his or her practice through other's eyes" (Loughran,

2002, p. 33; Stover, 2016). Social entrepreneurs are highly self-aware identifying with compassion and empathy for a social cause based on reflection of experience and interaction with others (Miller, Grimes, McMullen & Vogus, 2014) and the reflection assignment encourages the building of "cognitive capacity that includes self-awareness, critical thinking" (p. 12). The results from the reflection assignment include a moral dimension about the beliefs and values of the profession (compassion, self-awareness, pro-social goals) and this could be the implicit structure that Shulman (2005) describes as part of acting with integrity. The concept of acting with integrity through an understanding of SE morality and beliefs also ties to faith as Laverty (2007) notes in his study that reflection is "intrinsic *to Christian service learning and the opportunity to grow by processing such challenging experiences*" (p.6). Reflection is considered a key part of experiential learning, project-based learning, and action learning (Reynolds, 2013) and should be rooted in service learning (Stover, 2016) which ties into the second common deliverable: a service-learning project.

The service-learning project has elements of Shulman's (2005) "practical apprenticeship where one learns to perform like a professional" (p. 5). Dees (2012) found any social problem-solving opportunity in the classroom to be a potential tool to help with the application of social entrepreneurial curriculum (Worsham, 2012). The participants used service learning to help students learn to apply the business concepts of SE. The pedagogical reasons for service-learning inclusion in a SE fit with the findings from service-learning research where service learning draws students to their community, engages them in their own personal commitment, helps them better understand social issues, and allows them to problem-solve in complex environments (Eyler, 2002; Giles & Eyler, 1998). Kuckertz's (2013) research shows that service-learning gives skills for entrepreneurship development as a profession. The application of strategic business designs through a service-learning project incorporated models such as marketing plans, business plans, communication designs, volunteer training programs, or product development. The goal of the service-learning plan is to integrate meaningful community service—meaningful based on the student's reflections as well as meaningful help to the community. It is interesting to note that service-learning also has ties to faith. "*Catholic, protestant and liturgical schools appeared to be stronger in their service-learning programming and structure with the perspective of social justice."* (Clarke & Wegley, n.d., p.3). Laverty (2007) studied "the theological concept of metanoia, or a change of the heart" (p.3) through

service learning projects at a Christian university whose aim was to "develop a culture of serving others, to prepare young people for service leadership and to promote Christian values by attending to specific needs of the community, especially those of the underprivileged" (p.5). Laverty's (2007) results "*suggest that involvement in the program gives students a sense of satisfaction, a feeling for social awareness, and real opportunities for learning and personal transformation. What is less obvious in student responses is a clear articulation of the Gospel imperative underpinning the program"* (p.10). The results of Laverty's (2007) study align with Kales and Ryan (2015) who emphasize how service-learning and reflection need to be integrated into the curriculum as "a powerful pedagogical strategy that encourages students to make meaningful connection between content in the classroom and real-life experiences" (Engstrom & Tinto, 1997, as cited in Kales & Ryan, 2015, p. 135). This application of SE business principles through a service-learning project, faith based or not, reflects what Shulman (2005) coins "to perform like a professional" (p.55).

What remains is the third dimension, the issue of thinking like a social entrepreneur. The literature review and the participants in the expert interviews also included a variety of other deliverables used to help meet learning outcomes of demonstrating self-awareness for social or environmental causes and the application of strategic business designs to those causes. The other deliverables included case studies, guest speakers, exam writing, essays, book reviews, interviews, and oral presentations. The other deliverables were used to build onto the service-learning project as well as reflection (book reviews, oral presentations and interviews) to increase the understanding of SE concepts. According to Shulman's (2005) three objectives to signature pedagogy, faculty may need to complement effective classroom activities with approaches that apply the "surface structure" of pedagogical design promoting the intellectual aspects of SE theory—incorporating the social impact of individual and organization schools of thought. Using the RASL learning design and supplementing with activities that enable students to think like a social entrepreneur reflects Schmidt-Wilk's (2010) idea around a combination of pedagogies that accomplish the three fundamentals of professional work.

5.5 Summary

Chapter 5 describes the development of the RASL learning design from the interview findings, curriculum documents, and the literature review. The chapter also applies Shulman's (2005)

signature pedagogy concepts to the RASL learning design as justification as possible emergent signature pedagogy. The last stage, Stage 3 and Evaluation as outlined in the Methodology chapter explores the intent to use the learning design, RASL with faculty who had never taught a social entrepreneurial course before. The results from the second set of interviews is discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 6: Stage 3 Sharing and Evaluation

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I report the results from six semi-structured interviews with faculty across North America. The second set of interviews makes up the Evaluation stage as outlined in the design-based research process in Chapter 3. Design-based research builds on each stage and so the final Stage 3: Evaluation examines the RASL learning design (Stage 2) and incorporates findings from the first set of interviews (Stage 1).

6.2 Analysis

The analysis was based upon Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-stage analysis as outlined in the Methodology chapter (see Table 3.2). The process for analysis followed the same steps used to analyze the first set of interviews and is described in Chapter 4. For this reason, I will not repeat the analysis process for the second set of interviews outside of noting the few differences.

During Phase 1 and 2, I noticed the difference in the participants' faith and community volunteer background between the two sets of interviews producing a theme earlier than in the first set of transcription analysis. Identifying themes earlier in subsequent stages fits within grounded theory as well as design based research where the analysis builds informing progressive stages in the overall research process (Charmaz, 2005; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). I also noticed the commonality between the sharing of practice methods between the two sets of interviews in Phase 2. The correlation between faith, volunteering and service-learning was not identified until Phase 4 when the thematic map was completed and the link became more apparent.

Figure 6.1 Thematic map analysis of Phase 3

The themes became the cornerstone to the developing theory (Corbin & Strauss, 1990, p. 7) and once the thematic map of the analysis was created, it became clear that there were several themes emerging that provided a "rich thematic description" of the entire data set with interwoven themes that also connected to the first set of interviews and framed a complete picture (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 83). For instance, lack of connection to faith was a theme at the start but then was woven into a faculty experience theme to include connection to community and volunteering. The next section will present the findings of each of the themes as laid out in the thematic map analysis.

6.3 Interviews Findings and Discussion

To give some context for the discussion about SE in the interviews, I asked participants to explain their teaching experience and their institutional support for teaching. I also asked them about their understanding of SE curriculum and presented the RASL learning design for feedback. I asked them about their sharing of practice regarding how they created their curriculum and shared knowledge and resources. Lastly, I asked them about their community

involvement and faith background. Within the interview process, I also asked them about their willingness to teach SE based on the information provided in the interview. The questions were chosen based on the two research questions that look at curriculum design and sharing as outlined in Chapter 3 as well as the results from the Stage 1 interviews. The second set of interviews were built off the first set of interviews and the learning design as per design-based research construction. The Interview Guide can be found in Appendix 2.

The interviews lasted between 35 and 70 minutes with an average of 48 minutes. The thematic analysis led to five themes around teaching SE curriculum: 1. Understanding social entrepreneurship, 2. The place for social entrepreneurial curriculum, 3. Faculty background, 4. The learning design, and 5. Sharing of practice. The findings and a discussion of the five themes are presented in detail through the participants' voices in the following sections.

6.3.1 Understanding of SE

One of the questions that stemmed from the literature review was the simple understanding of the meaning of the term "social entrepreneur" as it applies to teaching. According to Abu-Saifan (2012) and Weerawardena and Mort (2006), there is confusion around social entrepreneurship terminology stemming from its complexity and lack of theoretical framework and consensus. Newbert (2014) and Singh (2003) suggest that there is no one established definition because the discipline is so new. *"It took hundreds of years for the term "entrepreneur" to reach a point where everyone knows the word and what it means but social entrepreneurship was essentially coined in 1980"* (Welsh & Krueger, 2013, p. 270). The authors emphasize the newness and so it would be reasonable to think that faculty who have never taught a SE course may not understand the concepts of social entrepreneurship. Understanding SE correlates with sharing of knowledge as it would be challenging to share knowledge and the learning design if there was little understanding of the core concepts. The results from the second set of interviews, however, revealed that all of the participants had a strong understanding of the meaning of SE. The definitions each participant was recorded as:

> *Off the top of my head, SE is based on a business model but it is more focused on social and sustainable practices than traditional revenue based models (IP7).*

Somebody who is starting a new venture, that's the entrepreneur part of it but developing a product or service with a sort of social aspect to it (IP8.)

Only that it's more non-profit work with NGO's and benefitting society kinds of projects, and that's a different kind of entrepreneurship than I've experienced (IP10).

Well, if you think about social being like social capital, the kinds of things we do in communities to build community then it would be the design and entrepreneurship being something that responds to a need, something new that responds to a need. So SE is something that responds to a need in a community setting (IP11).

That's hard as you almost want to call it societal entrepreneurship. As social implies between people in an almost interpersonal way but societal entrepreneurship is about society and not social. Business that desire to be in business to create value in different ways such as environmental or social and all want to help society (IP12).

The definitions supplied by each of the participants above showed a clear understanding of the social aspect of SE but as well, within a revenue-generated model. This is important because SE without the revenue-generation application fits within social sciences and not business such as non-profit management or public administration (Abu-Saifan, 2012). The definitions also highlight the concepts of organizational SE versus individual SE. *Building community* and *working with NGO's* implies more of an organizational approach to SE whereas *a person starting a venture* implies more of an individual approach to SE. What is common between these six definitions and supported through Hooegendoorn, Bacq and Jenssen (2011), Hoogendoorn, Pennings and Thurik (2010), and Zahra, Gedajilovic, Neubaum and Shulman's (2009) research is the common understanding that society is the beneficiary to SE through the creation of social wealth and reduction in social injustices.

SE marries the business concepts of entrepreneurship with societal injustices. Miller, Grimes, McMullen and Vogus (2012) outline how SE provides solutions to social problems but through an entrepreneurial or business lens versus a sociological one as the main characteristics of a SE definition. The participants' definitions of SE resonated with those characteristics. All of the participants viewed SE as an application of entrepreneurial skillsets but to societal betterment. The fact that faculty interviewed had never taught a SE course nor knew of any being offered in their institution but had a clear understanding of the definition and the goal behind SE could be an indication that the growth in curriculum offerings (Worsham, 2012) is having an impact on awareness among faculty not teaching in this niche discipline. Tracey and Phillips (2007) emphasize the importance of understanding SE strategy before institutions can grow SE offerings and the results may indicate that an increase in awareness could result in an increase in sharing of knowledge and resources among faculty as the discipline becomes more familiar.

6.3.2. The place for Social Entrepreneurial courses

One of the questions behind teaching social entrepreneurial courses is its fit within a business school. Does the for-profit goal in business studies counter the social idealism behind SE perhaps indicating that a social entrepreneurial course should rest within public administration, non-profit management or the social sciences? Welsh and Krueger (2013) found in their global study of 145 faculty with a background in teaching SE, 69 percent indicated that SE should be housed in a business school while 23 percent placed SE in a non-profit management field of study. "Social entrepreneurship can be practiced in for profit and not for profit businesses" (Welsh & Krueger, 2013, p. 26) which may determine how faculty identify with SE curriculum in a field of study—their acceptance of the application of SE concepts in a for-profit model or a not-for-profit model. As a business faculty, would instructing a social entrepreneurial course be a good fit or would it go against the grain of teaching in a for profit program? If business faculty resisted the inclusion of SE into business schools, the potential to share knowledge and build the discipline would be low. The question around its placement was asked in the interviews and all six of the interviewees reflecting with a resounding yes, that the course fits within a business program:

> *It doesn't counter my beliefs. I am not necessarily teaching business because I want someone to be better at generating more and more money. I am not in it for that but I do*

appreciate the idea that at some point you do need to make money, you can't just run on good will or break even all the time. It doesn't counter why I teach business but there is certainly divisiveness among the faculty around this as there are faculty who believe that businesses are in the business of maximizing profit. If that is the way you think then SE doesn't fit with the regard. It does fit with my beliefs. You can't maximize the goodness that you want to do if you constantly have to worry about paying bills (IP7).

From the quote, above, the participant recognizes the debate of where SE curriculum fits but believes that for profit-motives and SE motives can be aligned. The idea of combining social mission within a business-like discipline in both for profit and not-for-profit organizations resonates with some of the research (Abu-Saifan, 2012). The participant below when asked if a SE course could be offered in another discipline outside of business, responded with:

I don't think so. You have to be an entrepreneur first. You have to know how to be an entrepreneur. You have to earn money. You have to know how to do the whole money thing to make this work and be sustainable. So, unless you have that as the foundation, compared to going into social science first as a foundation, I would see the first way potentially being more successfully than the second way, more failures unless you've got entrepreneurship under your belt first. How to make, how to do the business plan, how to sit down and then we'll take it to the next level and apply this to society (IP9).

The participant quoted above was very clear in their belief that the foundation of business principles-- the for-profit concepts-- need to be developed first to give the social entrepreneur or social enterprise a solid foundation in which to apply to societal issues. Although the participant recognized that social entrepreneurs focus on mission and societal value, profit creation is also part of the equation (Dees, 2001).

No, it absolutely fits in the School of Business. For example, if we look at event management or even if you are running a magazine, you have money from many sources and very often from social enterprises, you don't make money or even make enough to stay afloat and so looking at the various stakeholders need value. Like the Salvation Army stores as there's value for the donator who feels good, and the people who buy, and the people who volunteer and the people who get jobs who wouldn't normally and the

money that is funneled into other initiatives that the Salvation Army does. So, I absolutely believe that it fits with the business school (IP12).

The opinion of the participant above resonates with Mair and Marti's (2006) view that SE is "unique from other forms of entrepreneurship because higher priority is given to social value and development that captures economic value" (p.277). The participant is identifying an organizational approach to SE through a non-profit organization like the Salvation Army but within a business school versus a non-profit management school. The views of the participant show that she teaches in a school of business but also emphasize what Maier, Meyer and Steinbereithner (2016) identify as a "harmful marriage of opposing values" (p.527). The authors posit that emphasizing efficiency and profitability clashes with the core values of non-profits but given the growing need for SE (organizational or individual), economic and social outcomes should both be included in SE—more research is needed to look at how to blend these two values.

The uniqueness of SE pulling from many different fields may aid in the development of its signature pedagogy (AshokaU, 2016; Hoogendorrn, Pennings, & Thurik, 2001; Welsh & Krueger, 2012). The literature review outlined the challenge of integrating social and environmental goals with profit maximization as found in business education (Baden & Higgs, 2015). The U.N.'s Principles of Responsible Management Education (PRME) noted in their review of one hundred business education reports, that there was: "little sign of the necessary paradigm shift" (Baden & Higgs, 2015, p. 548) for motivations outside of profit. Business schools are still designing programs mainly around historical profit maximization models. The respondents in this study clearly identified with the idea that a social entrepreneurial course, although focused on societal benefits as one of its main outcomes, needs also to focus on core business concepts that are applied to make the social entrepreneur successful and this goal rests within a business program. The results indicate that a conflict of interest was less than anticipated for faculty to teach the concepts around SE while teaching in a business school answering the question posed earlier in Chapter 2: Is there a way for business instructors to find synergy between the for-profit motivations of some business studies and the innovative, sustainable approaches to solving social problems found in SE studies? Faculty may be open to

adopting a learning design and to sharing knowledge of SE concepts which could develop emergent signature pedagogy.

6.3.3. Faculty background

Faculty background is a common theme from both sets of interviews as it provides insight into the *why* of educators wanting to teach SE. From the first set of interviews, it seemed that faith background and community involvement could possibly be characteristics that may lead to faculty buy-in to a social entrepreneurial curriculum. Garland (2003) and Sherwood (2003) both note in their research that faith encourages people to volunteer as something they "ought" to do and Rodell (2013) outlines how volunteering provides an intrinsic reward for meaningful work. As the research method followed a design-based research approach, the findings from the first set of interviews informed the second set off interviews-- the second set of interviews explored the concept of faith and community volunteering. For instance, do faculty need to connect personally with faith or work in the community to resonate and be motivated to teach a social entrepreneurial course? The findings are less aligned to volunteering in the second set of interviews where the participants did not volunteer out of any commitment to a faith or for an intrinsic reward. The results may be more aligned with Thoits and Hewitt's (2016) study that notes North Americans are volunteering fewer hours and in Canada, long-term volunteering is "disappearing at an alarming rate" (Graff, n.d., p.4) due to increased commitments and leisure activities.

The results also revealed that none of the participants had a consistent or similar background to each other unlike the participants in the first set of interviews. Three identified as having a faith-based background but none of them believed it impacted their teaching or beliefs at work. One participant identified strongly with their faith and worked for a faith-based institution, as they had "*to sign a faith statement regardless of your faith and write a whole letter, an essay basically, about your heritage and your faith and how it plays out in your scholarship, what you're teaching and your life*" (IP9). This participant, however, was the most resistant to social entrepreneurial curriculum regarding a match to their teaching interests—they simply stated that they were not drawn to the social entrepreneurial discipline.

Unlike the participants in the first set of interviews who all volunteered in their community regardless of their faith, only two participants volunteered in the community and only one tied

their volunteer work to their teaching because "*community engagement is one of our institutional learning outcomes, one of the pillars that we have, so I think the institution is looking for us to do more in the community*" (IP11). The community work for this participant was driven more by their institutional learning objectives than their personal motivation.

There was a connection, however, between faculty background and interest in service learning and service learning might be a better indicator for a potential social entrepreneurial connection among faculty. Service-learning is a cornerstone to SE helping to condition students towards a social entrepreneurial skill set including the exploration of compassion and empathy in their projects (Miller, Grimes, McMullen & Vogus, 2012). Are there factors that influence whether a faculty member would use service-learning in their classroom? Banerjee and Hausafus (2007) surveyed 368 faculty and found that there were several factors behind service learning interest as a classroom teaching method:

> *availability of suitable community sites, community offers on projects, and funding were cited frequently by most faculty members for deterring a service-learning component in courses. Numerous respondents indicated that active encouragement from a college dean or department chairperson, direct initiative from mid-level management, and a formal college or university requirement for service-learning courses would increase the likelihood of incorporating this teaching strategy in their courses. (p 41).*

The quote from Banerjee and Hausafus's (2007) study align with the results from both sets of interviews where institutional support and connection to community were factors that encouraged or discouraged the use of service-learning in the classroom. Institutional support in the first set of interviews was explained by the participants as help by their employers in their social entrepreneurial curriculum-- through money, administrative help, or extra time towards the development of their social entrepreneurial programs. Four of the six faculty interviewed in the second phase of research all indicated that their employers were supportive around their curriculum development. Shulman (2005a) does not address institutional support in his research. Shulman (2005a) emphasizes how "*experiences of teaching*" (p. 57) and "*reexamining pedagogy*" (p.59) across institutions are essential components of pedagogical growth but the actual ability to collaborate especially during emerging signature pedagogy is not addressed.

The support of the institution for SE curriculum ties to the support for service-learning where funding, time, and acknowledgement for the added value of service-learning in the classroom encourages faculty to develop service-learning projects (Banerjee & Hausufus, 2007). Only one institution focused on fostering community involvement and although all of the participants recognized that their institution housed a center for teaching development, none of the participants was aware of any research funding or initiatives that fostered community involvement. Kickul, Janssen-Selvadurai and Griffiths (2012) and Robinsson and Shumar (2014) and the results from the expert interviews all noted that community involvement is a fundamental aspect of teaching SE—service-learning was essential. Having an institution that supports community involvement and faculty initiatives in the community would be a key piece to moving social entrepreneurial curriculum forward in institutions where the discipline is yet to be taught (Banerjee & Hausufus, 2007).

What was evident in the results from the second set of interviews was the connection between service learning and the potential success for social entrepreneurial course delivery. Not all faculty in the second set of interviews were interested or supportive of service learning in their classrooms. If faculty are unwilling to incorporate service learning projects into their social entrepreneurial curriculum, will this decrease the effectiveness of the course learning? Institutions that do not support fostering community involvement in the classroom may discourage service-learning projects. Institutional support is critical for faculty embracing and implementing service learning in their curriculum (Giles & Eyler, 1998) through funding, release time, mentoring, and administration support (Lambright & Alden, 2012). The results are two-fold—lack of community support by a post-secondary institution may lead to lack of support for service learning in the classroom by faculty.

6.3.4 Learning Design

Another goal behind the research was to look at sharing or practice methods as they tie to acknowledging and building emergent signature pedagogy. During the second set of interviews, the participants were shown the RASL learning design and then asked exploratory questions around its use such as whether they thought the purpose was clear, what aspects of the RASL learning design were helpful, what aspects were unclear, and whether they could see themselves

using the tool if they were asked to teach a social entrepreneurial course. The results are presented here in three parts: the RASL design overall, the reflection aspect of the RASL learning design (deliverable 1) and the service learning aspect of the RASL learning design (deliverable 2)

6.3.4a Overall design

All six participants found value in the RASL learning design summed up by one participant "*In terms of inviting faculty to get involved, I love it. You might not get everyone interested but this would be enough of an outline to provide a background to getting started" (IP7).* All of the participants indicated that the RASL learning design was clear in its purpose and had enough background to be a springboard to teaching the subject which aligns with Jenkins' (2012) study results that focused on faculty needing resources and a starting point to determine best practices:

> *For me, I'm just saying that it's sort of not just about expertise but I think more about passion, so I guess that what I say it's not in my lens, it's not in my area and it's not what I am drawn to. My friends are in this area, they have backgrounds like me but they are just drawn to this work and that just what they focus on. However, if the university said you have to teach social entrepreneurship as part of your OB program, I could see this fitting. I already do half of it in terms of the vision/values piece of it already* (IP9).

The participant above describes an interesting scenario. The participant expressed a lack of interest in teaching SE as their research area was in organizational behavior and they were very clear that their passion lies in that teaching field. It would be interesting to understand if teaching subject preferences impacted interest in teaching SE but the sample size of the second set of interviews was too small to make any connection. Even though this participant was not interested in teaching SE, they could see the connection between the RASL learning design and SE and its use in teaching SE curriculum. One participant thought that the learning design could be used as a recruitment or interest tool in SE: "*To me, it's a great weeding-out tool because it will show whether you have passion or not—if you don't have passion for this design, you're probably not going to be geared for social entrepreneurship"* (IP10). The sentiment was reflected in the service learning deliverable as well—if you do not have an interest in service-learning, SE may not be the course to instruct especially given that service-learning is the

cornerstone to SE education (Tracey & Phillips, 2007). The connection to service-learning will be discussed in the next section.

All six participants resonated with the flexibility of the RASL design in that the design allows faculty to adjust the format, cater to different community needs, and adapt to learning outcomes. The literature review noted that a pedagogical pattern should be able to capture and reuse effective design practice as a "method of passing on experience or knowledge by skilled faculty to newer teachers" (Pedagogical patterns editorial board, 2012). The RASL learning design created from the first set of interviews does meet this criterion in that the participants or non-expert faculty identified with the concepts behind the RASL learning design as they relate to teaching SE, and to how they could adapt the RASL design to their own use. The individual adaptation of the RASL learning design is a key aspect of learning designs. The learning design should be flexible enough that different teachers in differing situations can adapt the design for their situation—this is the essence of the learning design (Pedagogical patterns editorial board, 2012). When the learning design focuses on "the *why* of doing something" (Derntl & Botturi, 2006, p. 154), it brings an understanding of the value for the learning design which may help increase engagement or interaction with the learning design. The participants understood the value of the RASL learning design which may help increase engagement or interaction as well as the understanding behind the development of the social entrepreneurial field of study (this thesis, p.32). Learning designs are used to help support sharing of practice (Coplien, 2014) and based on the participants' feedback, the RASL learning design may encourage sharing and adaptation towards acceptance of emergent signature pedagogy.

6.3.4b Results of Deliverable 1in the RASL design

In looking at the reflection aspect of the RASL learning design, all six participants expressed a keen interest and understanding in the use of reflection in the classroom. "*I love the idea of starting off the class with self-reflection as to where the class is going to go driven by their values."* (IP7) and "*I like the different reflection pieces, that's so awesome. If only everybody did that, what an impact you could make." (IP8).* The reflection assignment fits within Kuhn's (1962) concept of an emerging field of study where "successive states in the development process are marked by an increase in articulation and specialization (p.111). All of the participants had used reflection in their curriculum in other courses and so this aspect of the

RASL learning design was easily understood. Jenkins (2012) argues that experience with teaching instruments could help determine the effectiveness of the instruments. The fact that the participants had prior experience using reflection as an instructional technique will help build the succession of emergent signature pedagogy.

Participants had suggestions on improvement in terms of the reflection aspect of the RASL learning design. As the participants studied the RASL learning design, they were acknowledging the design and sharing knowledge in the interview—sharing knowledge is an essential component to emergent signature pedagogy.

> *I like the reflections things but one of the things I would be concerned about, in terms of weaving it back to entrepreneurship, how these can be tied back to the learning goals—how do these different goals actually tie back to the entrepreneur part of it (IP8).*

> *One of the things that I would add is that it can't be just building a sense of your own values but really it should be about the stakeholders and what all of the stakeholders need and not just about what I develop as that is what entrepreneurs do about creating and developing a product as value. And this is one thing that I think needs to be put into any program or any course called social entrepreneurship and the value cannot be in the person creating the idea as it creates a product that the audience does not need (IP12).*

These two participants suggest that the reflection piece in the RASL learning design does need to tie back to business strategies around creating value. The focus on impact of the social entrepreneur program fits with Andersson and Ford's (2015) research around productive, unproductive and disruptive outcomes. Projects need to take into account the intended and unintended consequences on each stakeholder and society in general with a strong emphasis on stakeholder engagement to reduce unintended consequences. The concept of measuring impact was also missing from Bacq and Jenssen (2011) and Hoogendoorn, Pennings, and Thurik (2010 & 2011) look at the four approaches to SE. Individuals or organizations focused on SE both need to consider the impact of their SE program.

One key insight from the participants' observations during the interviews is the need to adjust the RASL learning design to capture a better connection between the reflection deliverable and business learning outcomes as well as stakeholder value. For example, when students are completing the reflection pieces in the RASL learning design, they need to consider how their understanding and identification with social injustices can then resonate within a for-profit strategy for social benefit and what the social benefit might actually be. The participants' comments reflected the use of for-profit models but to societal problems –creating self-sustaining endeavors that address social or environmental concerns (AshokaU, 2012).

6.2.4c Results of Deliverable 2 in the RASL design

The second deliverable in the RASL learning design focused on a service-learning project. Service-learning is the "integration of service with learning" (Howard, 1998, p.21) where students and the community achieve common goals (Kalles & Ryan 2015). Service-learning projects reflect on the organizational aspect of SE—working with a non-profit organization to create value towards their mission. The six participants recognized service-learning as a way to link theory and practice (Lyon Frolow, 2010) but the feedback on the service learning deliverable was mixed based on the participant's use and experience with service learning as a teaching method. One participant used service learning regularly in their curriculum focusing on non-profit projects as well as student competitions and had immense support from their institution to use service learning in their curriculum. The support of the institution for service-learning is important as Lyon Frolow (2010) noted in her research that whether a teacher's institution and other professors valued service learning directly correlated to their use of service-learning:

> *Most of the projects are usually through national organizations and the other ones, the client-based ones, are usually the non-profits that might approach the university, or call the department and say "hey, is there a class where you can do a project for us?" or it might be through my own involvement with a particular non-profit organization or who I might know in the community. We have recently developed a service learning office on campus and so it's becoming a big thing at our university (*IP8).

The enthusiasm by the participant above for service-learning tied to their interest in the service-learning project as part of the RASL learning design. Two participants had used service learning

but had not used the concept in their curriculum in the past two years citing some challenges to service-learning such as finding the projects, aligning the projects to the course curriculum, and the perceived extra time involved with having a client. Lyon Frolow's (2010) research noted that service-learning projects were perceived as requiring a higher teaching load (more time to teach) in addition to needing to spend time each week in the community developing the project itself. The challenges in service learning projects were also noted in the first set of interviews where the faculty commented on the necessity of institutional support for success in their service learning projects in the SE classroom. Lambright and Alden's (2012) research also identified institutional support as key for continued service-learning delivery in the classroom. Kalles and Ryan (2015), Lambright and Alden (2012), and Lyon Frolow (2010) all stress that service-learning needs to be part of an institution's culture and mission to be perceived as an important learning activity by faculty.

Two participants believed that the service-learning project "*would not work in all situations*":

> *The service-learning project is great and would resonate with the Bachelor of Commerce students and the BBA international students but it would be extremely hard to do with part-time students who are working full-time and our online Bachelor of Commerce students. I am not sure how you would get them into the community when they are studying online from around the globe (*IP7).

This participant's perceived challenge of organizing a service-learning project resonates with the need to develop and educate faculty around service learning principles. With institutional support around projects in the community, service learning in a part time study or in a distance education delivery may not be a barrier. The remaining three participants had never used service learning in any of their curriculum and although they liked the idea of the service-learning project in the RASL learning design, they expressed hesitancy in how they would implement this. Here, institutional support for professional development may be key: "Institutions that provide development of faculty regarding their knowledge and skill surrounding service-learning are more effective in achieving service learning outcomes" (Kalles & Ryan, 2015, p. 144). The lack of understanding of service-learning impacts the potential for emergent signature pedagogy for SE. Shulman (2005b) stresses how faculty need to acknowledge and share their practices in order for emergent signature pedagogy to build and gain acceptance. A barrier to emergent

signature pedagogy for SE may be faculty who don't value service-learning as a key pedagogical approach to teaching SE.

6.3.5 Sharing of practice

The last theme looks at sharing of practice. Sharing of practice refers to the ways in which the participants share information. Part of the research questions outlined in Chapter 2 focused on how faculty share information– how they support the sharing of practice regarding curriculum development. The sharing of practice was identified in the literature review as a potential method for increasing social entrepreneurial course offerings through the exchange of ideas. More importantly, sharing of practice is a key component to emergent signature pedagogy. If faculty do not share their practices, it is difficult for signature pedagogy to be acknowledged. The first set of interviews investigated how expert faculty share information including Community of Practices, a dropbox, open education resources, and other sharing methods. For the second set of interviews, the same questions were asked regarding how they collect and share curriculum with the goal of finding common practices.

Similar to the first set of interviews, the results noted a lack of commonality among the participants. Outside of searching on Google and perusing through textbooks, no other method for curriculum development was common for all six of the participants. The lack of a common method for sharing of practice creates a challenge for building emergent signature pedagogy. The findings from the sharing of practice questions produced three sharing practice methods: Community of Practice, Resource Sharing, and Networking.

6.3.5a Community of Practice

Community of Practice as a method for knowledge sharing was mentioned in the interviews. All of the participants had heard of Community of Practices and two participants had participated in a Community of Practice but no longer as:

> *I think it is hard. They are hard to create and sustain. That was my experience. People didn't feel like they are advancing themselves and each other in careers as a result of the involvement so they were not getting enough out of it (*IP9).

The participants who tried a Community of Practice but did not continue as outlined in the quote above reflect the findings of existing research by Campbell and Uys (2007) and Morris and

Heibert (2011) around the difficulty of keeping a Community of Practice running without common goals or reasons to participate. The common opinion from the interviews for not participating in a Community of Practice was that:

> *everyone is really really stretched wearing so many hats. I think there is the best of practice or intent to have a Community of Practice even a virtual one but it's hard to get going and keep going. We are all so busy (*IP7).

> *I feel squeezed, and I believe I am not alone in that* (IP12).

The lack of time as expressed by the two participants is what Ozmen (2013) outlines in his research as a main barrier to participation in a Community of Practice. Participants conveyed an understanding of the theoretical value behind community of practices but overall, felt that an organized community of practice required too much time for the perceived value. Similar to the first set of interviews, none of the participants had heard of the five knowledge-sharing systems or approaches identified in the Methodology chapter (LAMs, LdShake, Learning Design, Pedagogical patterns, or Educational Technology Users Group-ETUG). The feedback from the participants in all of the interviews indicate that using a Community of Practice as a means to share knowledge to build emergent signature pedagogy may not be successful.

6.3.5b Resource sharing

The participants were asked about exchanging resources with other faculty in terms of curriculum building. Three of the faculty did have experience sharing a dropbox. "*I do share a dropbox with one other faculty with references and resources that we are working on together"* (IP7). The participants used the dropbox as a means to facilitate team-teaching or project work and so everyone involved was working on the same outcome versus individual course work. Everyone had the same agenda, timeframe and goals.

> *For team teaching, you need a network as I can't do it by myself. You have to do it with a team and you have to share (*IP8).

> *We use a dropbox for faculty working on the same course or project. I just returned from Africa where we are helping a college in Tanzania to develop a degree program. We are doing some literature review here and we are picking up the pieces of research as we go along. They don't have the same access to information that we do, you know, with all of our online resources that we can access. The library here is a great resource as are the librarians. So, we are using a dropbox to share the information. The one issue with dropbox is that it doesn't seem as organized as well as it could be with everyone in and out of it leading to some confusion* (IP11).

> *Dropbox works for collaborative projects especially when there is a change in leadership. Say it is a three-year project and there is always a chance that some of the people that are involved now won't still be the same people involved in the end, so if all of the information is gathered in something like a dropbox, the work doesn't disappear with somebody who moves on. This is how I have seen the value in collecting the information in one site so you don't lose any of it (*IP9).

The three quotes above highlight scenarios when a dropbox would be a useful tool: team teaching and team projects. The participants were willing to utilize a dropbox method if all the users were working together. For instance, if several instructors are creating a new course together or working on the same project, buy-in and commitment was high. These instructors are from the same institution working together. Shulman (2005b) and Fagerberg and Verspagen (2009) note that pedagogy needs to be consistent across institutions teaching the same discipline for it to be considered signature pedagogy. Using a dropbox to share knowledge across institutions teaching SE would be one method of ensuring common pedagogy within a discipline but institutions and educators would need to have buy-in on using a dropbox as a sharing of practice method.

6.3.5c Networking

The participants discussed networking as an approach to researching and sharing curriculum:

> *I ask my network of colleagues if they know someone who might be teaching in that area. It is like a snowball effect but for networking instead of research (*IP8).

> I *usually start with industry influence so getting out and talking to the industry to find out their needs. This can be helpful if you have an advisory board for the program you teach in. I usually do some research on what other institutions are offering either through their websites or going to the campus. Textbooks are another place to look* and *the publishers send out regular copies of new books* (IP11).

Personal networks are singled out by the participants in the above quotes. Pan, Xu, Wang, Zhang, Ling, and Lin (2015) outline in their study how networks are a viable method for sharing practice and developing common curriculum as networking supports knowledge exchange if the networking is ongoing. Discipline specific networks can be supported through academic institutions highlighting the need again for organizational support in knowledge sharing. The participants in the first set of interviews also used associations or conferences as a networking method to sharing practice, knowledge, and resources:

> *My community of practice from conferences would be my own network. I wouldn't even start with my own campus but I would trust people in my own network for information that I started to build when I was transitioning from PhD into faculty life (IP9).*

> *I usually start with industry influence and the people I know in the community so getting out and talking to the industry to find out their needs. It is easy to set up a lunch or coffee to talk to people in the industry. I usually do some research on what other institutions are offering. Textbooks are another place to look.* (IP11).

The quotes demonstrate the commonality of networking at conferences, networking in the community, and networking over time to build a repository of people to share knowledge with.

6.3.6 Culture of Sharing

The participants vocalized concerns around the culture of sharing during the interviews. Faculty were resistant to sharing their curriculum outside of actually team teaching or joint projects as in the earlier-mentioned dropbox scenarios. Their curriculum was felt to be very personal:

> *For me, I tend to be really protective of my curriculum. So, I am a really transparent giving human being, but I feel like the curriculum and the designs I come up with are my own. So, when there has been a sort of shared dropbox around curriculum, I kind of, I'm a little resistant to that, honestly. I do not want someone else taking my designs and using them (*IP9).

> *There's a real culture around sharing or not. I have always been that way—happy to share-- but I have found lessor and lessor reciprocation and that can be off-putting. Being a senior instructor and I will say to another instructor, oh yah, take my exams and take my notes but I have seen people put their names on my stuff. Wow. Now I have to rewrite all of my exams or start again on a project. There has to be some reciprocal kind of thing. And that has to come out of a culture of reciprocity and as faculty, we are not creating this culture* (IP12).

The participants in the two quotes above highlight a lack of trust around sharing of knowledge. The lack of trust in the voices of the second set of interviews differed greatly from the first set of interviews where participants were all agreeable to sharing their curriculum voiced as "*I like to share my resources to faculty to teach applied learning if they want it. We should share everyone and anything*" (IP6) and "*It is very open and sharing among faculty. I share my syllabi for all of my classes. This is very similar in the SE community*" (IP4). Why is there such a difference between faculty voices on the culture of sharing between the first set of interviews and the second set? Why are expert faculty in a subject more open to sharing?

Can the RASL learning design be shared and built upon as part of emerging signature pedagogy? Shulman (2005b) notes that signature pedagogy is not static—it should be a continual practice of evaluation, reevaluation, and redesign to allow the pedagogy to keep pace with the profession. Sharing the RASL learning design could help with evaluating and designing pedagogy to best represent the SE field becoming what Shulman (2005) coins as a "habit of mind"—forms of instruction that leap to mind when thinking of SE. The expert faculty interviewed in the first set of interviews supported the sharing of a RASL learning design and the faculty new to SE interviewed in the second set of interviews supported the RASL learning design as a potential SE

teaching tool for sharing. Research aligns with the participants in that pedagogical patterns, like the RASL learning design, are considered a method of passing on experience or knowledge by skilled faculty to newer teachers (Mor & Winters, 2008; Pedagogical Patterns Editorial Board, 2012). Pedagogical patterns can provide a framework for developing curriculum or distinguishing signature pedagogy. Ideally, a pedagogical pattern can be used by different teachers in different situations which is reflected in the RASL learning design where the teacher can adjust the reflection questions, the method of capturing reflection, and the purpose of the service-learning project, the team or individual applications as example. As each faculty uses the RASL learning design, they could share successful practices continuing to capture knowledge into emergent signature pedagogy for SE (pedagogical patterns, 2012). The pedagogical pattern clearly identified the why of the pattern which increased the engagement with the design pattern as outlined in Dentl and Botturi's (2006) research. This is promising. The RASL learning design captures possible emergent signature pedagogy and has faculty sharing its intent as a learning design in the interviews. Given that the faculty interviewed were interested in how to use the design, how to improve on the design, and how others would use the design, sharing the design seems viable but the question still remains as to how the pedagogical pattern could be shared?

There is hesitancy to share. The work that faculty create is valuable to them and they seem to hold it close to their hearts. Ownership may be an issue. Kursun, Cagilitay and Can (2014) noted in their research that 'faculty may be willing to share their work, they do not know how to protect their rights" (p. 25). The authors noted a paradox in post-secondary education where faculty recognize and acknowledge the importance of sharing knowledge and practice but only 23% of the faculty in their study freely shared their course material. Institutional reticence and academic culture of claiming ownership of resources for competitiveness and profit generation are also expressed in the study and within the results of the second set of interviews (Albright, 2005). Unlike research, there are few incentives to share any curriculum. Faculty in the second set of interviews were concerned about recognition and quality control of their resources, which is supported by the research by Yuan, MacNeill and Kraan in 2008. The results are quite different for research in which faculty want to publish their research with the intent of others acknowledging and using it. Are teaching tools and teaching practice less valued than research given that faculty are hesitant to share, and institutions are not always clear in their policies around the sharing of curriculum? Ehler's (2011) and Murphy's (2013) research supports a low

level of institutional support as a factor in faculty's hesitancy to share resources. Murphy's (2013) research also highlights the idea that some academics feel that sharing resources may make their jobs redundant -they are giving away their expertise.

Kursun, Cagilitay, and Can (2014) note that one of the biggest barriers to sharing curriculum is legal issues such as copyright clearance. Also, noted as barriers is the high workload that supports the results of both sets of interviews where time and value were noted as barriers to sharing. The lack of institutional support encouraging and enabling the sharing of knowledge reduces the potential for signature pedagogy to emerge. The hesitancy outlined in this section impacts the potential for sharing knowledge and this is an essential component of developing emergent signature pedagogy (Shulman, 2005a). Shulman (2005) stresses that examination and reexamination of signature pedagogies create opportunities to make changes in that pedagogy to better represent the professions but he does not identify how to share that knowledge so that it becomes "habit forming" in the pedagogy and the classroom. Sharing of practice is complicated as it relates to emergent signature pedagogy. No clear best sharing of practice method was determined in the interviews—it was mix of preferred methods with networking through associations sidling out as a possible method for sharing emergent signature pedagogy. Hoogendoorn, Pennings and Thurik (2010) identify that SE research is in its infancy as a field of scientific inquiry with limited research to share and so sharing of practice is important. Hoogendoorn and Pennings (2010) also emphasize the need for more research which is supported by Plaskoff (2011) who suggests that given the complexity of SE, educators need to examine best practices and "business schools can play a major role in furthering social entrepreneurship" (p.441). However, if there is hesitancy to sharing the knowledge itself rather than simply issues with the method of sharing—it becomes essential to acknowledge and address this hesitancy first before any sharing of practice method can be used. In this sense, even if one sharing of practice method was preferred by educators for acknowledging and building emergent signature pedagogy for SE, there may be very little to share if barriers to sharing exist due to the lack of status and recognition of the value in knowledge sharing by institutions and faculty alike.

6.4 Summary

There was less diversity in teaching backgrounds among the second set of participants where only four disciplines were reflected (see Table 3.1). Interesting, the backgrounds did not affect their understanding of SE or the academic placement of SE (within the business field). The lack of connection to faith and to community was equal among the participants as was the interest in service-learning without institutional support. The one participant who was concerned with the outcomes of the SE project (that the project should be driven by the community not the social entrepreneur themselves indicating a more enterprise school of thought (Hoogendoorn, Pennings & Thurik, 2011), came from a tourism background. The participant resonated with Andersson and Ford (2015) and Gedajilovic, Neubaum, and Shulman's (2009) work that it is important to understand the intended and unintended consequences of a SE initiative as creating social wealth can be risky with activities that do not actually create the intended social value. Having one out of twelve participants acknowledge negative social impact (no participant in the first set of interviews mentioned it) indicates that a full understanding of SE impact may be small. It supports the use of an impact criteria into the RASL learning design to encourage faculty to include this aspect.

In this chapter, I reported the results from the six semi-structured interviews with faculty across North America as outlined in Step 3 of the research design: Evaluation. No clear traits were identified in terms of faculty background for teaching SE although a connection to the community and institutional support for community projects were identified as possible success factors to growing SE. Service learning was identified as a key inclusion in social entrepreneurial curriculum yet the interest by non-expert faculty in employing service learning in the classroom was low. Finally, the interviewed faculty new to SE were interested in the RASL learning design with all six participants appreciating the overall design as the foundation to teaching social entrepreneurial curriculum. The last chapter will look at how the findings from both sets of interviews (phase one, two and three of the research design) influence the answer to the two research questions.

Chapter 7 Conclusion and Recommendations

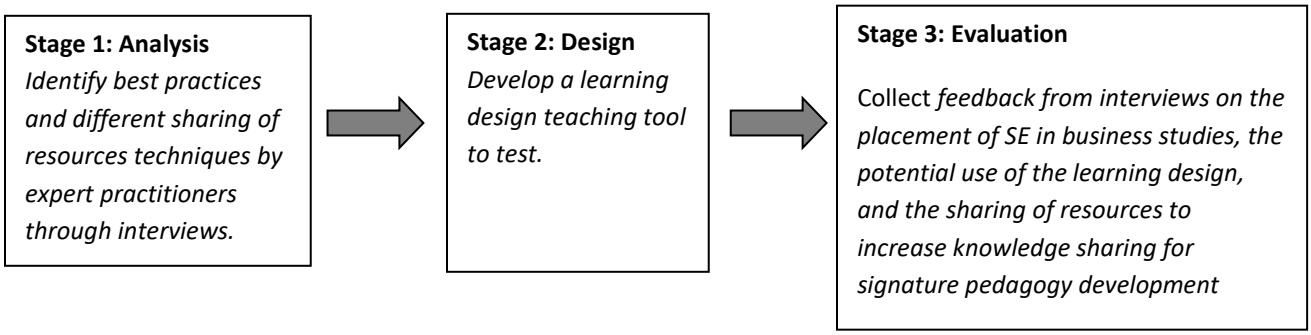
> *"A gap exists between our current understanding of social entrepreneurship and an enhanced knowledge that could aid in researching and fostering this emerging field*" (Short, Moss& Lumpkin, 2009, p. 62 as cited in Newbert, 2014, p. 239).

The quote above highlights the need to better understand SE. The goal of this exploratory research is to find ways of effective building on existing knowledge of teaching SE. Chapter seven is a concluding chapter where I tie the thesis together in consideration of some of the arguments highlighted in the previous six chapters. The final chapter summarizes the results of the research project and revisits the research questions as they relate to the findings. The chapter also proposes recommendations for the development of social entrepreneurial curriculum in a post-secondary institution as well as suggestions for further research. The chapter ends with a short personal reflection on the post-graduate journey and future steps for SE in my own institution.

7.1 Recapping the aims and objectives of the study

The primary purpose of this study was to inform academic development practice in SE pedagogy through exploring the experiences of faculty as they develop, teach, investigate and share curriculum. The research explored elements of possible emergent signature pedagogy through the data collection that focused on faculty experiences around social entrepreneurial undergraduate curriculum in post-secondary education. Shulman (2005) stresses the need for reevaluation, critique, and redesign of pedagogical habits to allow for signature pedagogy to keep up to date with professional practice but he does not identify how to communicate the critiquing and sharing of practice among educators. Kuhn (1962) and Fagerberg and Verspagen (2009) stress the importance of communicating shared knowledge— accumulating knowledge-- and legitimizing the field allowing it to grow. The sharing of practice was also investigated as it ties to the research for emergent signature pedagogy to be acknowledged, shared and built on. A qualitative methodology was used to capture faculty experiences through twelve interviews across eleven different institutions in the United States and Canada. Transcripts were coded, and Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase thematic analysis was analyzed against themes related to SE theory, signature pedagogy theory, and sharing of practice theory.

The research itself was divided into three stages based on Reeve's 2006 model (as cited in Akker, Bannan, Kelly, Nieveen & Plomp, 2010):



Findings from Stage one was analyzed in Chapter 4 where three main themes from the expert faculty interviews were identified and discussed in relation to the research question and the literature review. A learning design teaching tool was created based on the results in Stage one and the literature review and presented in Chapter 5 with the introduction of the RASL learning design. Stage three results were presented in Chapter 6 where five main themes from the thematic analysis were identified from the second set of interviews. This last chapter will pull the findings together into a conclusion and recommendations.

7.2 Answering the research questions

The research questions for this study proposed to examine the complexity of social entrepreneurial curriculum in post-secondary institutions. The aim was to achieve both theoretical advancements as well as practical relevance in the question design. The research contributes knowledge to the development of the SE discipline through emergent signature pedagogy based on the research questions. The first question sought to advance the academic discussion by investigating SE curriculum with the possible application to emergent signature pedagogy:

> RQ1: Are there common elements observable in faculty's experience of teaching social entrepreneurship that could indicate an emergent signature pedagogy?

The research from the expert faculty interviews differentiates SE from Entrepreneurship and may be what Kuhn (1962) termed a move towards a "paradigm shift" where educators increase

articulation and create specializing to develop a new field. As a new discipline, does it have elements of emergent signature pedagogy? Shulman (2013) identifies signature pedagogies as the "forms of instruction that leap to mind when we first think about the preparation of members of particular professions" (p.52). The forms of instruction are important because of the need for pedagogies to measure up to professional standards as well as academic ones (Shulman, 2005b, p. 53). Signature pedagogies also "pre-figure the cultures of professional work and provide the early socializing into the practices and values of a field" (Shulman, 2005b, p.59). No forms of instruction leapt to any of the participants in the interviews when discussing SE curriculum. The lack of instructional knowledge by the participants may indicate that the profession is difficult to understand as indicated in the literature review that looked at the complex traits of social entrepreneurs such as compassion, proself motivators, risk takers, empathy and strategic thinkers. The complex nature of the profession mimics the complex nature of teaching SE. However, the experiences of the expert faculty were captured as common elements for teaching social entrepreneurship and applied to the RASL learning design for sharing with faculty. The RASL learning design depicted elements of social entrepreneurial pedagogy from the best practices of each of the six-interviewed faculty. The design elements were supported by the literature review that noted that student reflection and service-learning projects in the community were a required but often lacking curriculum inclusion for social entrepreneurial courses. (The design elements also answer the question in Chapter 1: is the current curriculum taught by experts in this field similar to the required pedagogical inclusions outlined in the literature review?) The design elements differed from Entrepreneurial studies where applied learning was also identified in the literature review but reflections and community engagement was not a focus (Dreisler, 2007; Kuckertz, 2013, Robinson & Shumar, 2014). The participants shared similar opinions of what was required in SE curriculum and their common deliverables were then captured in the RASL learning design. In this sense, the research supports the idea that expert faculty's understanding of SE can be shared with faculty who have never taught SE and in this project, through a learning design. In terms of contributing to knowledge, past research has not explored best practices of SE through qualitative primary research.

Kuhn (1962) and then Fagergert and Verspagen (2009) emphasize the need for consensus or shared knowledge for a scientific field to thrive. "*Some agreement about what the fundamental*

questions or issues are" (Pfeffer, 1993, p. 617 as cited in Fagergert & Verspagen, 2009, p. 219) is essential as "*without a separate communication system, such as conferences and journal, common standards (for what is good work and what is not) and a merit-based reward system (that promotes the good work), a scientific filed will be unlikely to survive for long*" (Fagergert & Verspagen, 2009, p.220). Emergent pedagogy needs to be acknowledged and shared among educators for it to be built upon to establish the field and achieve legitimacy (Abu-Saifan, 2010; Krishan, 2009; & Newbert, 2014). It is essential to understand if emergent signature pedagogy can be shared and research question 2 addresses the concept of sharing of practice as it applies to emergent signature pedagogy:

> RQ2: Which sharing of practice approaches are potentially viable for disseminating elements of emergent signature pedagogy among faculty?

The answer to this research question was complex. The complexity lies in the inconsistency between the way that faculty suggested they saw value in sharing curriculum in theory in contrast to their actual sharing practice. The literature review outlined different methods for sharing curriculum such as resource sharing through file sharing applications or open education resources as well as pedagogical patterns and Community of Practice (CoP). These methods were selected based on a continuum of engagement. Resource sharing is a low engagement activity where faculty share resources with little communication or discussion whereas a CoP shares resources but also involves higher engagement through discussion, revision of material, and co-creation of resources. The interview guide included several exploratory questions around the faculty's preferred method to research and to share pedagogy. The findings noted that a formalized CoP appeared to have the least potential for successful sharing. Structured CoP practices were perceived as excessively time-consuming for the value accruing to the participants. The experience of these faculty reflected Alali and Salim's (2013) study that showed participant satisfaction is related to perceived use. The results from the interviews also correlated with Ozmen's (2013) study that showed faculty feel a CoP competes with their time, resources and workload balance. The belief that they would not participate in a CoP contradicted how much they discussed and liked the sharing potential of the learning design. Both the expert faculty and the faculty who had never taught SE were enthusiastic about sharing a learning design. The expert faculty were comfortable with the concept of creating a learning design to

test, collaborate and test again as proposed by the pedagogical pattern approach to sharing. This approach to collaboration and sharing of practice could also be considered a Community of Practice as outlined by Wenger (2006) who described a Community Practice as being:

> *formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavor: a tribe learning to survive, a band of artists seeking new forms of expression, a group of engineers working on similar problems, a clique of pupils defining their identity in the school, a network of surgeons exploring novel techniques, a gathering of first-time managers helping each other cope. In a nutshell: Communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly* (p. 1).

The faculty who had never taught SE were presented with the RASL learning design and again, discussed the possibility of testing, collaborating and re-testing in the classroom. The faculty were interested in sharing and improving the design—a goal that reflects the meaning of a Community of Practice concept. Although the research showed the participants believed that a Community of Practice was currently the least viable method for sharing resources, the intended way the participants would use the RASL learning design of testing, collaborating and re-testing could be a way to support the establishment of a Community of Practice.

Resource sharing through a cloud-based repository and Open Educational Resources was also explored as a potential method for curriculum distribution in the interviews. Dropbox, a cloud-based file sharing site, was a method used with some success but only by two of the twelve faculty. The faculty new to teaching SE exhibited discomfort in sharing their curriculum in a dropbox as there was a general feeling of ownership which created hesitancy to share. Open Education resources were not used by any of the participants because participants felt that their curriculum was their creation and sharing their curriculum was not an acceptable practice. The participants new to teaching SE stressed that the culture and rewards at their institutions did not recognize the exchange of curriculum. Sharing of resources was not an accepted cultural practice and these insights correlate with the literature that outlined how faculty do not share resources when there is a lack of reward, trust or institutional policy around open education resources (Brent, Gibbs, & Gruszczynska, 2012; Veletsianos, 2015; Weller, de los Arcos, Farrow, Pitt, &

McAndrew, 2015). There was no incentive to share when the developer was not recognized for their work. The feeling to protect pedagogy also aligns with Tarnaveanu's (2012) study where copyright and confidentiality were shown to create barriers to sharing practice. Faculty who are hesitant to share their SE curriculum and exchange knowledge around building the field limit the potential for emergent signature pedagogy to be built. It becomes essential to remove the barriers to sharing—institutions acknowledging contributions of knowledge sharing will be key. If educators are recognized for their contributions to building emergent signature pedagogy in the same way research publication is acknowledged, the barriers to sharing should be reduced.

Were barriers to sharing to be reduced, an approach that did show potential for successful sharing was informal networking among faculty who meet at conferences and through associations. Personal contact, shared interests, and word of mouth established these informal networks. Faculty used these informal networks on a needs basis where they contacted different people in their network depending on the project. The networks involved a reciprocal sharing of knowledge. The issues of confidentiality and trust did not present themselves when faculty talked about their personal network of sharing which align with research that outlined how trust was low among faculty who did not have any personal connection (Campbell &Uys, 2007; Morris & Hiebert, 2011). Blankenship and Ruona (2008) also found that social relationships were critical to creating trust for sharing resources and knowledge which aligns with the networking and social relationship development that can occur at conferences and association meetings.

When the participants were presented with the RASL learning design, they embraced the learning concept behind the design offering suggestions for improvements and application of its use. Each participant liked it. While showing them the design, they discussed what they thought would work and what had potential and in this sense, they were participating in a sharing of practice concept with me. They did not hesitate to discuss the learning and the improvement areas of the RASL and were open and honest about how they would implement the design if they were to teach a social entrepreneurial course (regardless of interest in teaching a social entrepreneurial course). "*Lecturers most commonly sourced their pedagogical knowledge from their colleagues*" (Cameron, 2016, p. 82) and learning designs that help with the "*study of*

teaching, learning and curriculum" (p.82) help increase the quality of teaching. Learning Designs then may have the most potential for sharing social entrepreneurial curriculum among novice faculty.

The complexity of answering the second research question lies in the learning design as well. Faculty were very hesitant about the concept of sharing their curriculum. The hesitancy aligns with Kursun, Cagilitay and Can's (2014) research findings that showed post-secondary institutions create a culture where academics shy away from sharing resources in order to be more competitive and with Yuan, MacNeill and Kraan's (2008) research that showed faculty hesitated from sharing resources because they would not get the recognition. It is clear that a barrier to sharing is institutional culture. Shulman's (2013) work on signature pedagogy used classroom observation and focus groups to examine signature pedagogical models in different disciplines acknowledging that academics share practice to standardize a discipline for signature pedagogy development. Shulman's work does not acknowledge *how* sharing of practice is done. It is essential to acknowledge that institutional support for academics to share knowledge may be a key strategy in signature pedagogy development. Reaching a consensus around how best to teach the tenets of the new discipline is part of establishing signature pedagogy and so it is elemental to understand how faculty share information as well as the barriers that prevent sharing of knowledge.

7.3 The Existence of signature pedagogy for SE

The difficulties of understanding signature pedagogy curriculum have been documented through paradigm shifts as faculty teaching SE have yet to establish a shared understanding of SE curriculum. The literature review outlined the research around the lack of agreement on the definition, curriculum or pedagogy among faculty teaching SE. The literature review questioned whether SE branched off from entrepreneurship education as its own discipline. What is clear is that signature pedagogy tends to be discipline specific providing a common standard or design with which to teach students the skills necessary to work in that field (Shulman, 2005b). Shulman's (2005b) work, however, does not identify the process of building signature pedagogy. With this in mind, I will attempt to answer the question as to whether SE is a new curricular field of study in which signature pedagogy needs to be established.

To date, there seems to be no published established best practice for SE. The research from this thesis created a possible best practice in the form of the RASL learning design based on curriculum from expert faculty and the literature review. The learning design could be considered the start of pedagogical agreement or standard for the discipline with the potential to share effective SE teaching and learning pedagogy or what Jenkins (2012) noted as a need to understand the "quality of their impact "(p. 20). One concept that was introduced and supported by the literature review and the findings is the paradigm shift within entrepreneurial curriculum where SE has branched off into its own discipline rather than a subset of entrepreneurial studies. Social entrepreneurship is emerging as a field of different viewpoints and specialization (Goldstein, 2012). The differing viewpoints and specializations resonated in the variety of disciplines and backgrounds of the expert faculty including political science, environmental studies, and marketing. With these differing specializations, social entrepreneurship is emerging through a multi-discipline approach (Fagergert & Verspagen, 2009), multidisciplinary field of study (Kickul, Jansssen-Selvadurai, & Griffiths, 2012), and multi-schools of thought (Hoogengoorn, Pennings, & Thurik, 2010 & 2011).

Weerawardena and Mort (2006) and Newbert and Hill (2014) outlined the lack of any theoretical framework for SE. The RASL learning design that resulted from this research could be considered the start of emerging signature pedagogy to share and build towards creating a shared understanding of an academic discipline designed to teach students the necessary skills to work in the social entrepreneurial field. The shared understanding would align with Shulman and Erikson's (2013) concept that signature pedagogy is "*the characteristic forms of teaching and learning…that organize the fundamental ways in which future practitioners are educated for their new professions"* (p.52) so that students "*practice the intellectual moves and values of experts in the field"* (Garung, Chick & Hayne, 2009, p.3). The research also outlined potential sharing practices between faculty and between faculty and their institutions –a key component to gaining consensus on emergent signature pedagogy. Signature pedagogy for SE is" *a potentially rich area for further research*" (Jenkins, 2012, p.19) to determine the quality of the pedagogy like the RASL learning design and "*feeding back what we learn into the redesign*" (Shulman, 2005a, p.16).

7.4 Limitations of the study

This study is not without limitations. First, I recognize the limits of what can be achieved in a relatively small-scale study such as this. Care should be taken when generalizing findings based on small groups and the results are illustrative of the participants' experiences only. Second, the study was limited by the access to faculty. I decided to not recruit faculty in my own institution due to my role as Chair, which could be seen as a position of power for the Research Ethics Board compromising the consent of the participant. However, this increased the difficulty of recruiting participants. In the findings chapters, I highlighted the problem of gaining access to participants. Recruiting participants for the second set of interviews, in particular, was challenging where participants were less invested in social entrepreneurial education (Newington & Metcalfe, 2014; Smyth, Jacoby, Altman & Gamble, 2015).

Investigating the background of the participants may have provided more understanding of the connections to the transcript analysis. For instance, exploring the teaching experiences, cultural backgrounds, and educational backgrounds further could have provided reasons for some of the personal answers by the participants given that there were diverse school backgrounds –from non-profit management to marketing to economics. The correlation between the teaching backgrounds to faith, for instance, may have led to further insights as to the connection between service-learning and community involvement. Two of the participants were very specific about not using any personal information or institutional connection and this limited some of the analysis. As well, there was a time limitation of what could be asked and discussed within a one-hour interview.

The geographical location of the study could be considered a limitation. The study was conducted in North America based on undergraduate courses where institutions like Ashoka have a large influence. The North American school of thought on SE tends to lean towards individual SE and this is stressed in the research from Hoogendoorn (2016) and Bacq and Jenssen (2011). Hoogendoorn (2016) notes that SE start-ups are more prevalent in countries that provide incentives and laws for starting social enterprises and the United States where nine of the twelve participants worked, is not known for its social enterprise start-ups resulting in more of an individual SE focus.

Another limitation was some of the concepts used in the research. I had thought that the definition of SE would be unclear but all the faculty interviewed had a very good understanding of SE as an academic topic. As the study emerged, it became clear that terminology around SE and Community of Practice was muddy and this increased the questions on the Interview Guides to include more clarification around Community of Practice concepts. A Community of Practice is a broad concept that captures the simplicity of shared conversation in an office or even a hallway to an established formal meeting schedule around a common topic (Wenger-Trayner, 2015). Given that the term Community of Practice is so broad, the participants had different interpretation during the interviews. This study also introduced selected tools into discussion such as Dropbox or LAMS to gauge participants' intent for use. There is a plethora of tools for supporting resource sharing and Community of Practice processes and more tools could have been discussed. To keep the scope manageable, only three were included in the interview allowing each participant to reflect on those tools but to add in any that they had experience using.

7.5 Recommendations for practice

Until now, no one has investigated signature pedagogies in SE. The goal of the research project was to explore SE curriculum in an attempt to understand better how to teach the subject area and how to share SE curriculum in hopes of building SE course offerings across North America. Researchers were still debating on the meaning of SE in 2012 (Abu-Saifan, 2012; Weerawardena and Mort, 2006) yet my research revealed that faculty not working in this field of study do have a good sense of SE today. The intent of applying for-profit business concepts to society's most pressing social and environmental problems was recognized by faculty indicating that awareness for SE is growing in academia.

The literature review outlined that SE curriculum should allow students to reflect on their own leadership, and to connect with their local community through a visionary process. The results from my research indicated that SE curriculum should include a reflection assignment as well as a service-learning project. The project should be based on a social or environmental problem of concern to the student. My research supported the findings in the literature review as well as contributed to emergent signature pedagogy through the RASL learning design.

The research also set out to explore sharing of practice concepts to understand better, how SE curriculum could be shared among faculty as the discipline grows. The literature review noted that resource sharing has its challenges as faculty are reluctant to share resources due to cultural and institutional barriers as well as the perceived belief that sharing resources is too time consuming. My research supported the literature in that faculty were reluctant to share their curriculum due to the lack of institutional support and credit and again, the perceived belief that sharing is too time consuming.

Based on the findings from the literature review and my own research results, several recommendations to build the SE discipline are provided.

7.5.1Institutional recommendations

i. For small institutions trying to offer a course in SE, collaboration is difficult. Investing in developing a small network through conferences and associations will provide interested faculty with a starting point to share practice and grow knowledge in the subject area. Known associations such as Ashoka, Arnova, or the Stanford Social Innovation would be useful starting points for creating networks. The associations all have annual fees but the cost is minimal—around $100 a year per faculty member teaching SE. Faculty who set up their own networks through these associations tend to trust and share pedagogy with each other and for a small institution, this could help build knowledge around SE curriculum offerings.

ii. Successful social entrepreneurial courses and programs rely on institutions support or funding. Organizations serious about incorporating social entrepreneurial curriculum need to provide support for connecting with the community around service learning projects as well as funding to aid student project development. For instance, the major social entrepreneurial programs in North America are supported by incubators or learning centres such as Simon Fraser's RADIUS established as a social innovation lab and venture incubator or the SEERS fellows program that supports Sanford's social entrepreneurial curriculum. These incubators and support centres appear to be funded in part, by private and business donation as well as through profits from actual projects the students develop. The success of the curriculum that the expert faculty were delivering was due, in part, to the support of their institution. All of the expert faculty worked in institutions that had incubators or at the least, administrative support for community engagement

in finding student projects. Resistance to service-learning was noted as time commitment and lack of institutional support and given that service-learning is a cornerstone to SE curriculum (Kickul, Janseen-Selvadurai & Griffiths, 2012), institutional support for incorporating service-learning into a SE classroom is essential.

iii. When an institution is hiring or developing, they should focus on faculty who are passionate about service learning and student reflection as teaching tools to deepen student learning. Research show that faculty who have a high sense of community are more likely to implement service learning (Hansen & Gregory, 2015). Faculty who have experience or are passionate about service learning were more likely to be excited about social entrepreneurial curriculum. The passion also correlates to teacher vitality noted in the findings where teachers who are teaching topics that align with their interests and beliefs will have more energy and motivation (Cavner, 2015). Service-learning is an essential concept to social entrepreneurial pedagogy and faculty teaching this discipline need to understand and deliver service learning concepts. Institutions that do not support fostering community involvement in the classroom might discourage the use of service learning projects and create barriers to social entrepreneurial pedagogy. The results showed that a lack of community support by a post-secondary institution might lead to a lack of support for service learning in the classroom—an essential aspect of social entrepreneurial curriculum. Institutions can offer faculty support for development around service learning. This recommendation ties to the previous recommendation around institutional support for community engagement given service learning is *"a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities* (what is service learning, 2017). An institution that supports service learning should by definition support community engagement fulfilling both of these recommendations (financial or administrative support for community engagement and support for service learning in the classroom).

There may be a correlation between faith and community involvement which is connected to service learning. Gavin, VanderWaal, and Ellis (2014) and Park and Smith (2000) note in their research that having a strong social network within your church can be a motivator to volunteering in the community increasing a sense of community and involvement creates more involvement. From a hiring or training perspective, administrators could consider the connection

of faith to service-learning as the literature identifies that dedication to community and service-learning is increased with a connection to faith (Clark & Wegley, n.d; Garland, 2003; Gavin, Vanderwaal, & Ellis, 2014; Sherwood, 2003).

iv. An increase in trust among faculty may occur if institutions create a culture of sharing where support and recognition for collaboration was established. Institutions that have Head of Departments with the strength and the ability to create a "*working environment that is conducive to the needs of academics"* (Qualter & Willis, 2012, p.130) may help build a culture of sharing. Institutions that can reward or incentivize faculty for sharing pedagogy through learning designs may be able to become leaders in curriculum design. The result from more sharing of practice is an advancement in fields of study (not just social entrepreneurship) as well as less individual work for teaching faculty. Shulman's (2005b) research does not address how to share pedagogy but the sharing element is essential for building emergent signature pedagogy and increasing the recognition of sharing knowledge should decrease resistance to sharing of practice.

v. It may be worthwhile for an institution to research the role of the government in terms of incentives, leadership, and laws that provide an environment conducive to SE development. According to Hoogendoorn (2016) and Peris-Ortiz, Teulon, and Bonet-Fernaandez (2017), there is a correlation between a culture where public sector expenditures is strong for SE development (individual or organizational) and the formation of social entrepreneurial ventures. Knowing the political environment would be helpful in developing SE programs.

7.6 Recommendations for further research

i. The findings from this study contribute to the body of evidence-based studies that seek to examine and build pedagogies for social entrepreneurial curriculum in business schools. The RASL learning design merits further investigation to understand whether this approach to learning is appropriate for students studying SE. Welsh and Kreuger (2013) found in their analysis of SE syllabi and surveys, that there is a lack of experiential pedagogy being used in SE education. The RASL learning design is an experiential tool and could be tested in a future research project. The design could be utilized into a social entrepreneurial course by faculty and

analyzed for its usefulness in teaching the discipline. Faculty could update the design based on their experiences and re-test. One key aspect missing from the design is measuring or embedding impact within SE and exploration of the service-learning project within the RASL learning design would give a better sense of what is meant by success or positive impact (Andersson & Ford, 2015; Gedajilovic, Neubaum, & Shulman, 2009). In this sense, the RASL learning design could be implemented into an action research methodology study.

ii. Gundlach and Zivnuska (2010) used a model to help business students develop passion and compassion as a means to learn about sustainability and social entrepreneurship. The research analyzed the research from the instructors' perspective who assessed the quality of the student's written work and oral presentations but not student perspective was analyzed. The RASL learning design could be explored from the student perspective. Did the design increase learning or passion for SE? Does the design have the potential to increase student interest in working as a social entrepreneur? The RASL learning design could be tested and updated based on student feedback. Researching social entrepreneurial curriculum from student's perspectives could also be a further step. Further studies that incorporate the students' learning on the RASL learning design would create a better understanding of the intent of students to understand and ultimately develop social entrepreneurial concepts.

iii. Barriers to sharing became a theme in the research. A barrier was noted in the findings around sharing curriculum due to ownership beliefs and perception around copyright. For instance, the expert faculty were comfortable sharing their ideas and their curriculum, but the faculty new to SE expressed clear resistance to sharing any curriculum they designed. The same barrier was not evident for faculty's published research. In fact, faculty seek to publish their research and have others use it. If the barrier is an acknowledgement, is there a way to attach status and recognition to the sharing of practice? Or is the barrier more of a cultural one given the difference between the first set of interviews and the second set of interviews where expert faculty were more open to sharing. Further research around these barrier issues could help answer questions around faculty willingness to share curriculum. Using Lewis and Slapak-Barski's (2014) research where an Open Educational Resources repository was established just within one department to start as a springboard for changing cultural attitudes towards sharing resources may be a good starting point for future research. The potential for growth in any

discipline would increase if there were a better understanding of the willingness and the obstacles felt by teachers to share resources and practice.

iv. Although the thesis did not set out to explore the background of experts teaching in the social entrepreneurial area versus faculty who are not teaching in this field, the results were interesting. The background of the participants may be correlated to the interest in teaching and building SE. Background appears to be an under studied topic in SE—the background of academics passionate in teaching SE. For instance, the faculty considered experts in their field in the first set of interviews were more open to sharing resources than the faculty in the second set of interviews. Faith may have an impact. Brophy's (2015) research indicates that faith or spirituality does indeed motivate educators by providing intrinsic rewards and Park, Helm, Kipley and Hancock (2009) note that faith is also a motivator to incorporate service-learning into the classroom. Did the dedication to volunteerism in the community stem from the inclusion of service learning projects in the social entrepreneurial curriculum? Does working with personal reflections and social injustices deepen the connection to faith? Further research to explore these questions and collect data to help describe the participants may help better understand the tie between the backgrounds of faculty with the passion for SE.

7.7 Contribution to the literature

Creswell and Tashakkori (2008) outline that for research to contribute to literature, it should fill a gap in existing research, replicate a study that is considered controversial, or expand the generalizability of theories. "*Researchers must make clear what major contributions their studies make and explain why these contributions are important. It is a mistake to assume that readers will decipher the importance of the study from a description of what was done*." (Summers, 2001, p.410). What contribution has this research made? According to Boyer (2009), research that contributes to literature is composed of four dimensions: scholarship of discovery (process of creating new knowledge), scholarship of integration (research that synthesizes knowledge and places it in its broader context), scholarship of application (applying knowledge to consequential problems) and scholarship of teaching (applying research into the teaching process) (Brown & Dant, 2008). In looking at my research, the findings contribute to the scholarship of discovery and the scholarship of teaching.

New knowledge was added to the scholarship of discovery. This research builds on Shulman's (2005a; 2005b) work uncovering one potential method around how emergent signature pedagogy can be formed—through a learning design. Shulman's (2005b) identification of signature pedagogy falls short in application of how knowledge in a discipline is shared as his work only looks at signature pedagogy once designed. Shulman also fails to identify the need for organizational support to enable sharing of practice-- such as workload balance, reward systems, and administrative support which is considered in this research project. My research looks at how signature pedagogy could be designed and the importance of sharing knowledge to build a discipline. For social entrepreneurship, the need to go outside of the classroom and into the community (service learning) may be part of its signature pedagogy.

The scholarship of teaching refers to the practice of teaching. My research looks at the practice of teaching SE through the use of the RASL learning design. Peris-Ortiz, Teulon and Bonet-Fernandez (2017) note in their recent book on SE that "*the research in the past decade has been dedicated primarily to establishing a conceptual foundation, which has resulted in a considerable stream of conceptual papers (p.26).* The authors note that there is a lack of empirical studies. The RASL learning design as part of a design-based research method is ready for testing in a classroom increasing the contribution for more empirical based studies.

My research presents a variety of areas for further research. This in itself is a contribution to the literature. No research to date looks at SE from a design-based research approach as it applies to signature pedagogy.

7.8 Final reflections: my journey

The years spent doing this EdD have undoubtedly been one of the most challenging times in my life. I have conducted research projects before but nothing compared to this thesis. The continual support of those that surround a post-graduate student are essential for success, and I was very fortunate in this aspect. EdD students often work full time, and have families, and my situation was no different requiring late night or early morning writing and family time mixed between research goals. The juggle naturally led to drafts with poor grammar, ambiguous statements, incredibly long run-on sentences and the hardest part, weeks when very little was completed.

This is not uncommon in the EdD journey where many students quote the mantra “Finished is better than perfect” (Hope, 2012).

I am like many other students who did not think about their career when they started their post-graduate studies (Careering through the PhD, 2011). The process and topic in my post-graduate work has enhanced my technical skills in the area of business education with a further commitment to my chosen subject area. My passion for working within a business school marrying the concepts of marketing with those of social entrepreneurial goals for community betterment has been strengthened through this research. The contributions my research has made to growing awareness around SE curriculum created two volunteer opportunities. First, I was recruited to join a group of like-minded people to start a local social enterprise whose goal is to test and grow enterprising solutions to social issues. The work is fascinating where I can bring my educational and work background in business and marketing practices at the same time as my post-graduate work in SE development.

I also joined the educational board of a large international association (Arnova) committed to research on non-profits organizations and social innovation connecting scholars with practitioners. The committee work will provide an opportunity to create more awareness around SE among faculty networking and learning more about sharing resources. The committee work in both of these associations directly ties into my research where the results of my research can be applied practically. Students sometimes wait until their thesis is finished or published before taking on opportunities and this can lead to missed opportunities and a chance to build your skillset as a doctoral graduate (Hankel, 2014). I am moving forward while still researching and writing.

From a teaching perspective, I am going to incorporate the RASL learning design into a new course on social sustainability being offered next year. The social sustainability course will integrate concepts of social entrepreneurship creating an opportunity to test the RASL learning design as a teaching tool. I am excited by the opportunity. Although this will be a small study of only 35 students, it will provide further research and insight into the use of the RASL learning design both from a researcher/teacher perspective and from the student perspective.

Employability post-study is tied to the university's reputation (the university the student studies at), self-confidence of the student, how engaged the student is during their studies and external labour forces (Rothwell, Jewell, & Hardie, 2009). The University of Liverpool is a well-recognized university in Canada and I am passionate about contributing further to social entrepreneurship studies fitting in with Rothwell, Jewell and Hardie's study results. One of the post-secondary institutions in my town is developing a new SE certificate program with the help of Ashoka U, and I have been asked to teach a few of the classes. I have also been part of a committee that has spearheaded an SE certificate at my current institution set to launch in January 2018 and is a combination of sociology, management, marketing, and political science that ends with a major capstone project. Lastly, I am interested in creating open education resources on SE that can be used to springboard other instructors into teaching an SE course or at the very least, increasing understanding about open education resources. Changing the culture of sharing resources has to have a starting point in my own institution.

> *We cannot seek achievement for ourselves and forget about progress and prosperity for our community...Our ambitions must be broad enough to include the aspirations and needs of others, for their sakes and for our own* (Chavez, as cited by Gorenflo, 2014).

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Appendix

Appendix 1: Interview Set 1 (experts in social entrepreneurial curriculum) Protocol: Content Overview

Research Title An investigation of emerging signature pedagogy for social entrepreneurship and the sharing of practice

Background

Designing social entrepreneurship courses to increase the social entrepreneurship intention of students requires a hands-on approach from applied learning according to the literature review. Faculty resources to teach this complex topic are lacking due in part to the infancy of the academic topic as well as an unclear understanding of why some faculty opt to include social entrepreneurial concepts as a teaching tool in business courses and others do not, regardless of whether there is an institutional commitment to this form of academic inclusion. The actual term, social entrepreneurship, has different interpretations adding to the complexity of understanding how to teach it. The research is interpreted from a business study perspective versus a social sciences perspective due to the researcher's background of teaching in a School of Business.

This research study takes a participatory design based approach to explore the complexities of social entrepreneurial curriculum. To fulfil the requirements of my Doctoral thesis, I chose to undertake a qualitative research approach using semi-structured interviews. The first set of interviews will be the primary means of gathering data for determining best practices in social entrepreneurial curriculum and its relation to knowledge sharing. The interviews will be semi-structured, whereby a set of open-ended questions will be asked to encourage fuller, experientially based answers. The participants will be drawn from an academic association and recruited from conferences.

There will be six participants ideally from six different institutions across North America to increase depth and perception in the interviews.

Interview Objectives

To hear from the participant's perspective their experience in designing and teaching social entrepreneurial curriculum as well as their understanding and use (or lack of) in Virtual Community of Practices, resource sharing sources, pedagogical patterns and open education resources for knowledge sharing.

Interview Questions (prompts listed underneath the main question)

1. Tell me about your campus. What stands out for you?
    a. What are the strengths to the organization? (how are you supported)
    b. What are the weaknesses?
2. Tell me about your social entrepreneurial course(s)?
    a. Why do you teach it? What are the learning outcomes?
    b. What is it that you love the most about the course?
    c. What are areas of improvement?
    d. What supports are in place from the institution that allows you to teach this curriculum?
    e. What supports are needed to develop this topic/course work further?

3. How do you teach your social entrepreneurial class—tell me about the pedagogy?
    a. What types of deliverables do you employ? Case studies, projects, guest speakers
    b. How is there community involvement?
    c. Tell me about any experiential learning employed in the class?
    d. Give me an example of an activity that you would include in your classroom? Design narrative. Could you send me material to support this—one thing/ lesson plan?

4. How do you find information for teaching social entrepreneurial curriculum?
    a. Do you use academic research ie. Ebscohost?; Do you go to conferences ie. Ashoka? Do you network? Tell me about the process.
    b. Do you share your curriculum with other faculty? If so, how do you do this? Have you used an OPEN EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES? If so, how?
    c. What are the problems you experience in developing social entrepreneurial curriculum?

5. Virtual Community of Practices are an online activity system about which participants around the globe can share understandings or knowledge about what they are doing. It can be used as a forum for lesson plans, for curriculum ideas or a networking resource. An example of this is LD Shake.
    a. Tell me about any open source/online repositories you may have used?
    b. If you were to use a VCoP, what tools would you expect and how would you use it?

c. Have you explored pedagogical patterns or pattern designs when you are sharing curriculum?

6. Have you experienced any moments of self-reflection, where you have critically examined your role as a social entrepreneurial educator?

7. If you look back at delivering social entrepreneurial education, what is the single most important idea, skill or insight you would want to pass on to faculty wanting to teach this topic?

8. Is there anything else about teaching social entrepreneurship that I haven't asked you about that you would like to share with me?

Adapted from Jacob & Furgerson, 2012

Procedure

Interviews will be scheduled with participants through Skype or telephone pending on the participant's preference. At the beginning and end of the interview, a script will be prepared to repeat the reasons for the interview, availability of the resulting transcript, reminders of confidentiality from the researcher's side, reminder of any follow-up interview and a thank you will be provided (Jacob and Furgerson, 2012, p.3).

The interviews will last approximately 60 minutes.

Recording findings

I will ask permission to audio record the interview. If recording is refused or malfunctions, I will rely on hand written notes. I will transcribe the recordings myself and let the participant know to increase a sense of confidentiality in that no one else will read the interviews. If requested, a copy will be sent to the interviewee for approval.

Jacob, S.A. & Furgerson, S.P. (2012). Writing interview protocols and conducting interviews: Tips for students new to the field of qualitative Research. *The Qualitative Report, 17*(6), 1-10.

Appendix 2: Interview Set 2 (faculty with no experience teaching SE) Protocol: Content Overview

Research Title: An investigation of emerging signature pedagogy for social entrepreneurship and the sharing of practice

Background

Designing social entrepreneurship courses to increase the social entrepreneurship intention of students requires a hands-on approach from applied learning according to the literature review. Faculty resources to teach this complex topic are lacking due in part to the infancy of the academic topic as well as an unclear understanding of why some faculty opt to include social entrepreneurial concepts as a teaching tool in business courses and others do not, regardless of whether there is an institutional commitment to this form of academic inclusion. The actual term, social entrepreneurship, has different interpretations adding to the complexity of understanding how to teach it. The research is interpreted from a business study perspective versus a social sciences perspective due to the researcher's background of teaching in a School of Business.

This research study takes a participatory design based approach to explore the complexities of social entrepreneurial curriculum. To fulfil the requirements of my Doctoral thesis, I chose to undertake a qualitative research approach using semi-structured interviews. The second set of interviews will be the primary means of gathering data for determining intent of teaching and sharing social entrepreneurial curriculum based on the results from the first set of interviews. The second set of interviews also explores the intent to use a learning design tool in a social entrepreneur course. The interviews will be semi-structured, whereby a set of open-ended questions will be asked to encourage fuller, experientially based answers. The participants will be drawn from three academic associations across North America.

There will be 6 participants.

Interview Objectives

To hear from the participant's perspective their expression of interest in teaching social entrepreneurial curriculum as well as their understanding and use (or lack of) in virtual community of practices, resource sharing sources, pedagogical patterns and open education resources for knowledge sharing.

Interview Questions (prompts listed underneath the main question)

1. Tell me about your campus. What stands out for you?
    a. What are the strengths to the organization? (how are you supported)
    b. What are the weaknesses?

2. Tell me what you know about social entrepreneurship?
    a. Are there courses taught at your institution on SE? If yes, in what department? If no, do you know why not?
    b. Does your institution/department/ school use service learning projects?
    c. What type of business classes are offered?

3. Tell me your thoughts on the learning designs provided?
    a. Do you understand the format and the purpose?
    b. Is any aspect unclear?
    c. Do you think you could teach with this design?
    d. Do you think you could teach a SE course—why or why not?

4. Tell me a little about yourself?

    a. Do you belong to any community groups?
    b. Do you volunteer?
    c. Do you come from a strong faith-based background?
    d. Do you belong to any associations? (mention Ashoka, Arnova and Stanford)

5. Community of Practices are face to face or online activity systems about which participants around the globe can share understandings or knowledge about what they are doing. It can be used as a forum for lesson plans, for curriculum ideas or a networking resource.

    a. Have you ever used a sharing site like Dropbox? Tell me about any open source/online repositories you may have used?

    b. Have you ever used a more interactive sharing site like LD Shake? If you were to use a VCoP, what tools would you expect and how would you use it?

c. Have you had any experience with pedagogical patterns?

6. Is there anything else about teaching social entrepreneurship that I haven't asked you about that you would like to share with me?

Adapted from Jacob & Furgerson, 2012

Procedure

Interviews will be scheduled with participants through Skype or telephone depending on the preference of the participant. At the beginning and end of the interview, a script will be prepared to repeat the reasons for the interview, availability of the resulting transcript, reminders of confidentiality from the researcher's side, reminder of any follow-up interview and a thank you will be provided (Jacob and Furgerson, 2012, p.3).

The interviews will last approximately 60 minutes.

Recording findings

I will ask permission to audio record the interview. If recording is refused or malfunctions I will rely on hand written notes. I will transcribe the recordings myself and let the participant know to increase a sense of confidentiality in that no one else will read the interviews. If requested, a copy will be sent to the interviewee for approval.

Jacob, S.A. & Furgerson, S.P. (2012). Writing interview protocols and conducting interviews: Tips for students new to the field of qualitative Research. *The Qualitative Report, 17*(6), 1-10.

Appendix 3: Example of thematic analysis

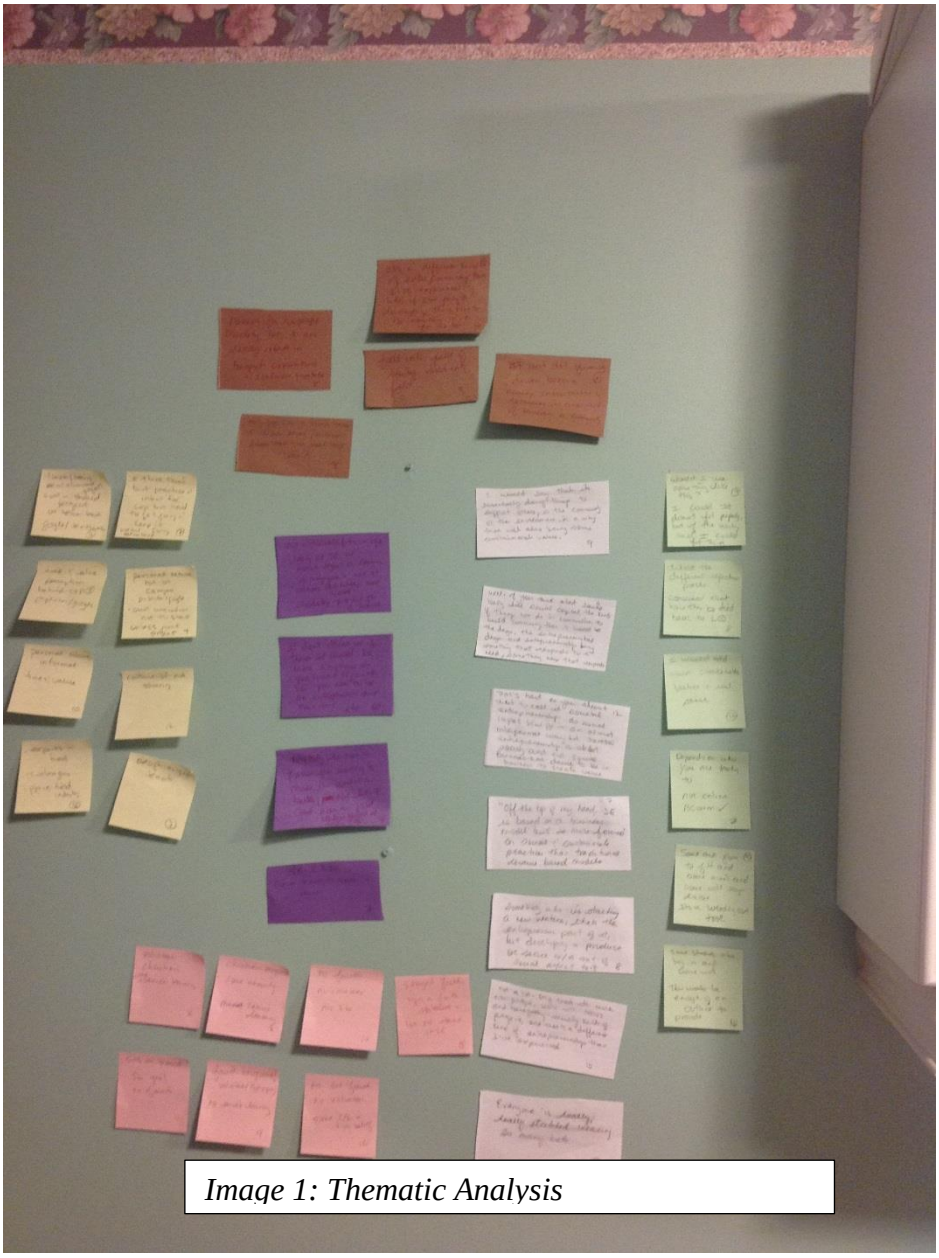

Image 1: Thematic Analysis

As part of the thematic analysis, the transcripts were reviewed repeatedly pulling out themes to determine repetition of "*topics that occur and reoccur*" (Ryan & Bernard, 2003, p.89). Thematic analysis also uses cutting and sorting as a technique in analyzing the transcripts focusing on quotes and expressions.

Following Ryan and Bernard's approach (2003), quotes were put onto coloured paper cards with the reference to the transcript and where it appeared in the text on the back as noted in *Image 1: Thematic Analysis.* The quotes were then sorted by similarities with each section given a thematic name. *Image 1: Thematic Analysis* shows how the thematic names were further separated by coloured paper. The themes from the quotes were then compared with the themes from the transcription analysis. In this image, the five coloured areas represent the five themes from the second set of interviews: the pink section represents the concepts of social

entrepreneurship itself; the brown section represents how social entrepreneurial curriculum fits into business studies; the yellow section represents the faculty background; the purple section represents feedback on the learning design; and the white section represents feedback on sharing of practice

Appendix 4: Example of word count

The transcripts were analyzed for word lists and key words focusing on repeated statements counting each repetition (Ryan & Bernard, 2003, p. 96). The word lists and key words were used to support the cutting and sorting technique demonstrated in Appendix 3. The words that had the highest count are noted below alphabetically as these words helped produce the themes used in the findings chapter.

Six Interviews produced the following word counts from the first set of interviews:

Word	**Count**
Ashoka	10 mentions
Arnova	4 mentions
Barriers	5 mentions
Centers	16 mentions
Christian	6 mentions
Community	26 mentions
Community of practice	6 mentions
Copyright	0 mentions
Dropbox	2 mentions
Experience	4 mentions
Faith	18 mentions
Google	9 mentions
Hand-on learning (or applied)	20 mentions
Jewish	3 mentions
Learning design	1 mention
Mentoring	3 mentions
Networking	10 mentions
Non-profit (or not for profit)	7 mentions
Open education resources	1 mention
Pedagogical patterns	0 mentions
Projects	20 mentions
Reflection	21 mentions
Reflection Groups	4 mentions
Service learning	24 mentions
Sharing	19 mentions
Social innovation	4 mentions
Social venture	9 mentions
Stanford Social Innovation	7 mentions
Support (institutional)	12 mentions
Textbook (supports)	6 mentions
Transformation	20 mentions
Volunteer	24 mentions

The higher count mentioned words fit into the three themes pulled from the transcripts and described in Chapter 4:

1) Faculty and institutional background theme focused on Arnova, Ashoka, Centers, Christian, community, experience, faith, Jewish, support, and volunteer;

2) Common deliverables theme focused on hands-on learning, learning design, project, reflection, reflection groups, service learning, social innovation, and transformation;

3) Networking and sharing of practice theme focused on Community of Practice, copyright, dropbox, Google, mentoring, networking, sharing, and textbook supports.

Appendix 5: Consent Form

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL

Committee on Research Ethics

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Title of Research (working)

Design Determinants of Social Entrepreneurial Curriculum: a learning design approach

Project: Research interviews taking approximately 1 hour to complete

Researcher: Michelle Clément

1. I confirm that I have read and have understood the Participant Information Sheet dated Feb 22,2016 for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my rights being affected. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.

3. I understand that, under the Data Protection Act, I can at any time ask for access to the information I provide and I can also request the destruction of that information if I wish.

4. I understand that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained and it will not be possible to identify me in any publications. Participants will be coded and no names or institutions will be identified in the report.

5. I understand and agree that my participation will be audio recorded and I am aware of and consent to your use of these recordings to create a transcript for analysis. I understand and agree that once I submit my data it will become anonymized and I will therefore no longer be able to withdraw my data.

6. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in relevant future research.

7. To consent to participate in this research, please email Michelle Clément at michelle.clement@liverpool.ak.uk with the words "**I consent to be part of this research"** in the body of the email. This will indicate consent to participate in the research.

Principal Investigator:

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