Exploring value through international work placements in social entrepreneurial organisations: a multiple case longitudinal study

Submitted by Joshua Lange, to the University of Exeter as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Education, September 2015.
Declaration

Submitted September 2015 by Joshua Lange, to the University of Exeter as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Education in Education.

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Abstract

Universities and their partner organisations are promising that short-term work placements in social entrepreneurial organisations will increase student employability, leadership skills, and knowledge of socially innovative practice, while providing students meaningful opportunities to ‘change the world;’ yet theory and empirical studies are lacking that show what is beneficial and important to students, how students develop, and what influences their development through these cross-cultural and interdisciplinary experiential learning programs. This is the first study to explore the value of UK and US students participating in international internships and fellowships related to social entrepreneurship from a socioeconomic perspective. For this study, a value heuristic was developed from organisational models in the social entrepreneurship and educational philosophy literature followed by a qualitative longitudinal multiple case study. Fifteen individual student cases were chosen from two programmes involving two UK and three US universities, taking place in eleven host countries over five distinct data collection intervals. Findings across cases show a broad range of perceived value to students: from research skills and cross-cultural understanding, to critical thinking and self-confidence. Findings also show how student perspectives changed as a result of the placement experience and what ‘internal’ and ‘context-embedded’ features of the placements influenced students’ personal and professional lives. However, the ambiguity of social impact measures raises ethical questions about engaging students with limited knowledge, skills, and preparation on projects where they are unprepared to create long-term value for beneficiaries. This study contributes to the literature on higher education and international non-profit and business education by: providing an expansive matrix of value to students engaging in international placements; initiating a ‘hybridisation’ theory of personal value; creating a rigorous methodology transferable to similar programmes; outlining embedded features that programme developers can integrate in order to improve their own social and educational impact; raising ethical questions related to theory and practice; and including the researcher’s own multi-continent journey into the substance of the work.
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Contents

Abstract ............................................................................................................................................. 3
Acknowledgements ........................................................................................................................... 4
Chapter One: Introduction ................................................................................................................ 10
  Locating social entrepreneurship in higher education ................................................................. 10
  Positioning the researcher ............................................................................................................. 14
  Questioning the value of social entrepreneurship ..................................................................... 16
  Contributing to the field of higher education .......................................................................... 18
  Structuring the dissertation ......................................................................................................... 18
Chapter Two: Literature Review ....................................................................................................... 19
  Overview ........................................................................................................................................ 19
  Problematising the value of social entrepreneurship in higher education ......................... 19
  Synthesising the perceived value of social entrepreneurship into two ‘promises’ .......... 25
    Promise one: Employability ........................................................................................................ 25
    Promise two: Meaningful experience ......................................................................................... 30
  Exploring the value of ‘SE Concepts’ across co-curricular experiences ............................... 32
    Experiential, situated, and transformative learning ................................................................. 32
    Social impact ............................................................................................................................. 35
    Service Learning ....................................................................................................................... 37
    Internships ................................................................................................................................ 39
    International experience ........................................................................................................... 41
    Global citizenship ....................................................................................................................... 43
  Social entrepreneurship: a distinct hybridisation of value to students? ............................. 44
  Value to selves theory and methodological frame .................................................................. 47
    Uncovering a basis for multiple ‘Selves’ in socio-economic theory .................................. 48
    Synthesising the ‘Selves’ into a categorical frame ................................................................. 49
Chapter Three: Methodology ............................................................................................................ 53
  Overview ........................................................................................................................................ 53
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hermeneutic interpretation as the basis of method</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple case study</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple triangulation</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative Longitudinal Research (QLR) Approach</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choosing Cases</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binding Cases</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collecting Data</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Documentary Evidence</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank order of perceived value</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During survey</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hosting Organisation Representatives</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysing data</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revisiting research questions</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaining respondent perspectives on case interpretations</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informed Consent</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidentiality and Anonymity</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficence</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Four: Context</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overview</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying respondent codes</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextualising Programme One</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextualising Programme Two</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Five: Findings</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Tables

Table 1: Student Value to Selves framework ...........................................................................56
Table 2: Data collection timeline ............................................................................................65
Table 3: Identifier code key ...................................................................................................83
Table 4: Programme One example projects ............................................................................85
Table 5: Programme Two example projects ............................................................................89
Table 6: Programme comparison ............................................................................................91
Table 7: Institutional Documentation .....................................................................................94
Table 8: Faculty answers to the question: ‘Can you summarise the value of these placements to students in a word or phrase?’ .................................................................96
Table 9: Influences on student perspective change ..............................................................122
Table 10: Expansions of self resulting from the placements ...............................................162
Table 11: Influences on perceived value to students .........................................................164

List of Figures

Figure 1: Northampton University homepage, ‘study’ tab ..................................................27
Figure 2: International Social Entrepreneurship Scheme (ISES) homepage ..............30
Figure 3: Experiential learning in higher education ..........................................................34
Figure 4: Four Types of Socioentrepreneurial Development ..............................................45
Figure 5: Multiple Selves value framework for students ..................................................50
Figure 6: Multiple case study flow chart ............................................................................59
Figure 7: Longitudinal data collection intervals .................................................................61
Figure 8: Neo-colonialism student discussion prompt .....................................................126
Chapter One: Introduction

Locating social entrepreneurship in higher education

Although there is much debate about the term ‘social entrepreneurship,’ it can be said that ‘social entrepreneurs’ attempt to address aspects of social inequality and environmental degradation through market-based solutions: oftentimes in harsh environments with very limited resources (Dees, 1998; Nicholls, 2006). Social entrepreneurship can be seen as the professional activity of social entrepreneurs, and a ‘social enterprise’ the organisational form which the social entrepreneur uses to trade in a specific economy (Dees, 1998). These interrelated terms comprise a multitude of existing and emergent for-profit and not-for-profit activities, ranging from small businesses and charities to Corporate Social Responsibility initiatives of large corporations (Nicholls, 2006). Underpinning this broad definitional framework, social entrepreneurship can be seen as having a ‘problem-solving’ ethos focusing on fulfilling market needs otherwise ‘neglected’ by governments and capitalist markets (Dees, 2012; Santos, 2012).

As many of the world’s most difficult problems relate to poverty, a major focus of social entrepreneurship is empowering local communities in ‘developing countries.’ This widely-accepted term (United Nations, 2014) refers typically to countries in the southern hemisphere that lack ‘advanced capitalist’ economic and political structures. As used in this dissertation, the concept of ‘developing’ points to a clear economic and cultural difference between the UK and US students coming from the northern hemisphere for work placements during university and the beneficiaries that they aim to support; beneficiaries who, within the ethos of social entrepreneurship, are constructed as needing ‘help’ to build their own economic advantages and sustainable infrastructure. The organisations that partner with UK and US universities to create these ‘North-to-South’ placement opportunities are referred to here as ‘hosting organisations.’ whether they take the form of small entities or corporate social responsibility departments. This is because the emphasis lies on the activities that students
are said to support (i.e. social benefit through economic empowerment), rather than the specific organisational form of the hosting organisation.

According to a 2014 multi-country survey conducted by the higher education focused initiative of the Ashoka Foundation for Social Entrepreneurship called ‘Ashoka U,’ over the last decade UK and US universities have exponentially increased their engagement with social entrepreneurship in the form of student internships and fellowships designed to provide value to multiple stakeholders. These ‘work placements’ aim to support actors working toward sustainable social change by providing volunteers to work on specific projects whilst offering students a broad range of interdisciplinary competencies, new understandings of culture and business practices, and increased employability opportunities through work experience. The term ‘value’ will include these concepts and be developed in the proceeding chapters.

Much of the emphasis in higher education so far has been on social entrepreneurship placements as part of management learning; however, research shows that only about half of social entrepreneurship learning activities are created in business schools (Miller, Wesley, & Williams, 2012). This is most likely due to the wide variety of social entrepreneurial activities and interdisciplinary requirements of working in social entrepreneurship contexts, and a widely held misconception that the word ‘entrepreneur’ necessarily connotes a for-profit business manager (Miller et al., ibid). All of this experimentation around social entrepreneurship creates opportunities for educational research to explore new approaches and emerging trends in higher education teaching and learning.

Although there is a consensus view within the field that social entrepreneurship placements are highly valuable – even transformative – to students (Ashoka U, 2014), research to date showing how students have benefitted from the placements consists only of single institutions and programmes, mostly conducted by the faculty who lead those programmes; furthermore, empirical evidence has been unable to account for any distinct value of engaging with social entrepreneurship other than a theoretical ‘tension’ resulting from the paradoxical ‘dual mission’ inherent to combining profit and social change.
motives (Howorth, Smith, & Parkinson, 2012). Despite the lack of research and uncertainty about social entrepreneurship as a learning catalyst, programmes continue to be built based on the notion of ‘student demand’ for social entrepreneurship engagement (HEFCE, 2012).

There are two interdependent education problems related to value where the research literature on social entrepreneurship placements is silent: First, value to students is generally couched in the language suggestive of a demand for co-curricular activities as career supplements more than as a participatory means of social transformation through economic empowerment, which is somewhat contradictory to the aforementioned ethos of social entrepreneurship (Defourny & Nyssens, 2008; OECD, 2010). Second, work placements oftentimes do not provide academic credit even though they are often assessed and are believed to require critical thinking, character strength, academic skills, and practice of an array of professional entrepreneurship and leadership competencies (Lange & Douglass-Warner, 2014; Miller et al., 2012; Pless, Maak, & Stahl, 2011). These problems indicate a mismatch between the value of work placements perceived by the universities, students, hosting organisations, and faculty involved.

Both problems are a part of significant shifts in higher education related to conceptualising value to students. The first problem relates to the shift towards the marketisation of higher education (Fanelli & Evans, 2015) and suggests a reconceptualisation of the university from a ‘public good’ to a ‘profitable firm’ necessary to compete for students and funding or in leadership terms from a ‘collegial’ to an ‘entrepreneurial’ environment (McNay, 1995). Also problematic is that this view presents a career-focus on learning in higher education rather than a personal growth or social change focus, which are arguably ‘higher’ purposes of a ‘higher’ education. This study will refer to ‘moral and intellectual development’ as an umbrella term for these latter areas of value.

The second problem is pervasive across experiential learning programs (Beard & Wilson, 2006) and suggests a shift towards more ‘practical and direct’ learning experiences in enterprise education, despite lack of studies confirming the value of these activities (Brock & Steiner, 2009). This second problem is
found particularly in ‘service learning’ work placements that are currently underdeveloped in UK universities compared to their US counterparts (Quinlan, 2011).

These two problems relating to the value of these experiential learning programmes are exacerbated by several areas of contestation, the first of which is the absence of an established body of knowledge or a global definition of social entrepreneurship (Defourney & Nyssens, 2013; Nicholls, 2006). Even when the concept is clearly articulated, programme developers and evaluators then encounter the difficulties of transferring value to students across the university by situating social entrepreneurship into mainstream leadership and management ‘competency theories’ (Miller et al., 2012) that are themselves contestable (Bolden & Gosling, 2006) and found mainly within business schools (Miller et al., ibid). Consequently, higher education practitioners in the US and UK are beset both by the so-called ‘dual mission’ of social entrepreneurship which results in ‘the contestability of the concepts, competencies, and types of skill development that students need’ (Short, Moss, & Lumpkin, 2009) and the question of where social entrepreneurship ‘fits’ within established higher education structures (Ashoka U, 2014).

The second area of contestation regarding the value of social entrepreneurship work placements is determining their academic value within national accreditation systems. In the management education literature, cross-cultural placements between adult learners and low-income populations have been shown to represent ‘responsible leadership’ learning potential for actors involved in socio-economic change, both intellectually and morally (Lange & Douglass-Warner, 2014; Pless et al., 2011). The UK academy, however, largely sees service work placements as having only peripheral value to study, and the university is seen as a place to develop intellectual ability in students (Quinlan, 2011). In contrast, the US academy largely sees field experience as having central value to the student experience, especially leadership (Astin & Astin, 2000; Shankman & Allen, 2008) and experiential service learning is seen to develop the moral and civic leadership capacity of students (Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003; Quinlan, 2011). National education systems
therefore have an effect on the way ‘value’ is perceived in relation to student work placements, particularly regarding accreditation.

Thus, if the problem of higher ‘student demand’ for project-based and work-based learning is at least partially addressed through social entrepreneurship engagement, and that in turn leads to enhanced employability, academic skills, and transformative socio-economic value – yet these placements are not accredited like a university course because there is insufficient empirical evidence to suggest their academic value to students – then research should address the perceived value of social entrepreneurship work experiences across several placements to define what, how, and in what ways, the placements affect student intellectual development.

**Positioning the researcher**

As a UK and internationally based university lecturer and designer of leadership activities for students, I came onto the EdD while working with students on social entrepreneurship projects before even knowing about the concept of social entrepreneurship. In many different support and mentorship capacities I have helped students turn social benefit ideas into realised projects. It became apparent to me, like in my own management learning, that the process of setting a challenging social impact goal and implementing it in the ‘real world’ was somehow more ‘educational’ than much of the work the students were completing in their classroom-based courses. It also became clearer through these experiences that the ‘neo-classical’ or oftentimes termed ‘neo-liberal’ view of economics I learned from my management studies (suggesting self-interest is the most rational form of decision-making) was false, in that the students and I were driven not from some sort of ‘enlightened self-interest’ (doing good for long-term self-benefit) but primarily from a feeling of duty to others, a feeling that part of our own ‘higher education’ was to use our time and resources to help those in need, without personal reward: in essence, to belong to the whole of humanity as a morally-responsible being. These experiences and the social entrepreneurship ethos informed a ‘socio-economic’ view of the value of learning that underpins this dissertation, in line with Etzioni’s (1988, p.254)
socio-economic theory where ‘all items have at least two valuations: their ability to generate pleasure and their moral standing.’

During my search for a research topic on leadership education from a socio-economic perspective, I learned about ‘social entrepreneurship’ and reflected on the value of how this practical activity aligned with my view of human nature, and wondered why experiential learning through social entrepreneurship activities (and other social benefit activities like service learning) remained on the periphery of higher education research when they seemingly offered so much value to my own and others’ moral and intellectual development. Furthermore, I found little empirical research about the value of student social benefit experiences in developing countries, which was surprising to me because my own experiences working in a developing country during the formative stages of the doctorate changed my entire worldview and thesis direction – and I had heard similar stories from many colleagues and friends over the years coming into the EdD.

I therefore came into this project with a bias toward ‘experiential’ forms of learning such as service learning and internships, a bias toward social benefit activities in higher education, and personal experience of transformation in a developing world context. I believed there should be more research assessing the value of these experiences to students, even if it did not ‘rank high’ on the research outcomes assessment scales. Furthermore, based on continual communication over the years after graduation, the things these students learned from practical social benefit work experience were oftentimes not ‘digested’ immediately; rather, as the ‘self’ grew from an undergraduate student to a working adult with broader life experience, new ways of thinking and behaving emerged in each individual. Consequently, my position became that the value of work placements in developing countries could not be ‘captured’ in a quantitative analysis or even a qualitative comparison done over a short time span, but required a post-graduation longitudinal element with individual cases.
Questioning the value of social entrepreneurship

Within the paradigmatic scope of ‘interpretivism,’ the aim of the present study is to search for lived experiences, constructed through co-curricular programs with a stated aim to transform university students through work placements in very different cultures and environments than their own. The interpretivist paradigm suggests that all research work includes and is driven by an interpreter who – particularly in the social sciences – often interacts and contemplates other interpreters, i.e. the people studied (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009). Therefore, the term ‘value’ does not refer to either ‘values-education’ nor any one economic definition, but rather to the perceived importance to and benefits of the work placement to the research participants in this study. In line with the interpretive paradigm, the conceptual questions of ‘value’ in terms of what is important and beneficial about a complex intervention can only be understood through the eyes of the human actors concerned with their unique situations, here called ‘stakeholders.’

Stakeholders in this dissertation are defined as the students, faculty and the hosting organisation representatives responsible for the placements. Because of limitations of scope and ethical challenges, neither social enterprise beneficiaries nor benefactors have been included as stakeholders – even though they certainly play a part in the construction of value to students. The following question drives the study:

**Question #1:** What do stakeholders perceive as important and beneficial to non-management UK and US university students of involvement enterprise-based work placements focused on social innovation projects in developing countries?

Social entrepreneurship activities are typically assumed to be connected to ‘business’ programmes in the research literature and university structures (Miller et al., 2012); yet this assumption negates the fact that ‘social’ entrepreneurship covers a broad range of activities disconnected from ‘for-profit business’ or ‘management,’ and includes students and faculty from across the university. It also fails to account for the ethos of social problem solving that could be a
valuable area of intellectual development for all students. Therefore, in order to question the stereotyping of ‘entrepreneurship’ as ‘fitting in’ to the ‘business school,’ my question seeks to broaden the scope of social entrepreneurship work placements by including cases of students from disciplinary majors other than management.

The following three sub-questions to Research Question #1 clarify the choice of stakeholders researched, and aim to identify the ‘value’ to students through perspective changes directly resulting from the placements:

**Sub-Question #1:** From an Institutional Stakeholder Perspective: What value do associated placement representatives, faculty, and the institutional documentation suggest that students obtain from the placements?

**Sub-Question #2:** What do students claim to be important and beneficial before, during, and after their placement?

**Sub-Question #3:** If students change their perspectives as a result of the placement, what do they see as important and beneficial over time?

Once the ‘value’ – in terms of what is perceived as important and beneficial to individual student cases over time and from multiple stakeholder perspectives – was explored and identified, there arose another question that empirical research could answer: What contextual and intervening variables lead to perceived value across cases? In a phenomenological sense, the answer would be infinite, but when data was analysed across cases, patterns emerged concerning the perceived value to ‘student perspective change,’ a key term in the transformative and experiential learning literature that denotes what theorists dating back to (Dewey, 1938; Giles, D. E. & Eyler, 1994) refer to as individual ‘growth.’ Thus, a second question was added during the data analysis stage to capture the affordances of perspective changes in students:

**Question #2:** If part of the perceived value found in Research Question #1 relates to a perspective change during the placement, what contextual and intervening variables appear to influence the change?
Contributing to the field of higher education

Social entrepreneurship is still in an ‘embryonic’ stage of research development (Ashoka U, 2014), and definitions of the value of the concept lack a consensus view; yet governments and private funders of university programmes in the UK and US are flooding money into student activities that include social entrepreneurship, for example the one billion GBP commitment from UK universities per annum to support social enterprises (Lange, Haklay, & McDowell, 2013). Although work placements in developing countries are only one of many activities aimed at social entrepreneurship in higher education (Universities UK, 2012) these ‘immersion’ programmes require a significant amount of financial and human resource expenditure; therefore, it makes sense to develop a clearer understanding in the research literature about the value of these placements – i.e. what stakeholders find important and beneficial to non-management students – so executive administration, faculty, and funders can make informed decisions whether, and in what form, to support placements in social entrepreneurship contexts.

Additionally, from a lifelong and organisational learning standpoint, this study can benefit the participants by offering a record of their experience from an outside observer, which can – in the case of the programmes under study – improve their current offering, support their further fundraising activities, and complement their internal research. And in the case of students, afford them the opportunity to explore how others with similar experiences developed and to reflect on their own development several years after coming home.

Structuring the dissertation

The dissertation is organised in the traditional way, with the next section taking a critical look at the extant literature, followed by a comprehensive methodology that includes a context chapter to frame the study, summary findings, a discussion, and conclusion with implications for theory and practice.
Chapter Two: Literature Review

Overview

The extant literature suggests that through the placement process students will develop morally and intellectually through meaningful experiences such as internships and fellowships; increase their employability through work-based experiential learning; develop their global citizenship and leadership through engaging internationally; and create ‘social impact’ specifically by working on social entrepreneurship projects in developing countries. Yet, the entire field of social entrepreneurship is seen as ‘embryonic’ and to date the value of these university-student work placements has not been explored. As an interpretivist researcher in a field without many studies to draw from, my understanding developed alongside the evidence, and new evidence challenged my former understandings. This resulted in several returns to the literature during and after the data collection and analysis process to find relevant studies to the emergent findings. The review was conducted through key word searches in major databases (ERIC, Education Research Complete, ProQuest, Google Scholar); detailed reading in education philosophy, social entrepreneurship, business education, and qualitative research methodology; and bibliographies from a collective cloud for university practitioners and researchers in social entrepreneurship (managed by Wingate University). My own articles published during the research process (Lange et al. 2013; Lange & Douglass-Warner, 2014), conference presentations (Ashoka 2012, Newcastle 2011), and personal contact with various experts (New York 2011, European Research Network, 2013) were also integrated where relevant, and alongside other theoretical influences found in the literature, informed the development of a heuristic for the methodology.

Problematising the value of social entrepreneurship in higher education

‘Overall, HEIs which invest in social entrepreneurship will find untapped demand, attracting further funding and more students. Social entrepreneurship enhances the student experience and increases employment outcomes. It also
improves teaching quality, research impact and creates public value’ (HEFCE, 2012).

The above quote suggests that ‘social entrepreneurship’ adds a plethora of value to Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), firstly through the ‘student experience’ but additionally through various other university activities. Yet the meaning of social entrepreneurship is evasive, combining the somewhat contrasting ideas of ‘social’ based on the notion of regard for others, and ‘entrepreneurship’ based on the notion of self-interest (Santos, 2012). This seeming paradox can be highlighted in the different areas of value asserted in the second and third sentences of the above quote: it is said to enhance the individual student’s experience and employability, whilst creating public value and research impact.

Even more evasive is that throughout the academic literature the terms ‘social enterprise’, ‘social innovation’, and ‘social entrepreneurship’ are used somewhat interchangeably (Moulaert, MacCallum, Mehmood, & Abdelillah, 2013) and when digging deeper into the value of these activities to the student experience, the notion of ‘service learning’, ‘corporate social responsibility’, ‘social justice’ and ‘civic engagement’ appear to represent the same phenomenon depending on which HEI is asked (Ashoka U, 2014). If this happened in only a few cases, then it would be a moot point and HEIs could settle on a single term. However, the way that HEIs perceive social entrepreneurship has a direct effect on where its related activities ‘fit’ within existing offerings as well as within the institutional mission (Lange & Douglass-Warner, 2014), and as a result how it is presented to stakeholders as valuable to students.

So, what exactly is HEFCE referring to in its claim above that ‘social entrepreneurship’ enhances the student experience, employability, etc.? To answer this conceptual question, Defourny and Nyssens (2013) looked into what they call the ‘European debate.’ These authors found that the organisations called ‘social enterprises’ have existed long before the 1990s when the term began to be increasingly used in Western Europe and the United States (p.40). They argue that ‘SE concepts’ represent entrepreneurial dynamics which result in innovative solutions for providing services or goods to
persons or communities whose needs are neither met by private companies nor public providers (ibid). Within this framing, ‘SE concepts’ pose a challenge to both ‘neo-liberal’ and ‘socialist’ economic policies, yet somehow fit within both ideologies. More fundamentally, Santos’ (2012) cleverly shows how ‘social entrepreneurship’ is found between – and dates back to – the capitalist ‘self-interest edifice’ of Adam Smith in his Wealth of Nations (1776) and the ‘others-regarding edifice’ also described by Adam Smith in his Theory of Moral Sentiments (1759).

Defourny and Nyssens (2013) show how the modern conceptual debate on ‘SE Concepts’ begins with two schools of thought: earned income and social innovation. The first school refers to the use of commercial activities by non-profit organisations in the US, and related studies try to understand the role and raison d’être of non-profit organisations within market economies (Kerlin, 2006). This is also conceived as the ‘mission-driven business approach’ as understood by thought leaders such as Muhammad Yunus (Kickul, Terjesen, Bacq, & Griffiths, 2012) of the ‘social business’ line of thought. The second school refers to entrepreneurial activity that provides innovative solutions to social problems and the potential to change patterns across society (Ashoka, 2014). This school emphasizes the ‘outcomes’ of socially-entrepreneurial activity rather than the ‘incomes’ found in the first school (Dees, 1998; Mulgan, 2007), yet ‘the key actors of innovation are seen in a rather individualistic perspective’ and fail to capture what they see as a revolution in both the methods of organisation and the production process (p.43), primarily as social innovation creates a ‘joint construction of supply and demand,’ and also includes: salaried workers, volunteers, users, support organisations and local public authorities. To frame these concepts holistically, a third approach developed in Western Europe by the EMES International Research Network emphasizes the participatory governance aspect of organisations within this milieu. This view sets itself apart from the ‘heroic’ actions of individual ‘social entrepreneurs’ and sees one of the aims of ‘social enterprise’ to ‘further democracy at the local level through economic activity’ (p.46) through participatory governance.

Seen in relation to curricular and co-curricular activities offered by universities, these important conceptual distinctions hold little weight. This can be seen in
the Ashoka U (2014) study: 41% of HEIs (n=236) reported that ‘social entrepreneurship’ was the most frequently used term, whereas 13% HEIs used ‘social innovation’ and 10% used ‘service learning.’ Only 1% of institutions used the term ‘social enterprise’ most often, even though this is frequently found in the UK (Unltd., 2014). Given this confusion, Ashoka U (2014, p.25) makes a radical recommendation for HEIs:

“We encourage you to call it whatever will get people to actually do it at your institution. If the word “entrepreneurship” makes your Sociology faculty cringe – but they’re still the best systems-thinkers your institution has to offer – consider drawing out the relationship between social justice and social entrepreneurship. Or, alternatively, if “social” is suspicious, but a holistic understanding of sustainability is appealing to the business department, by all means don’t be dogmatic. Feel free to use whatever term has worked in the past at your institution.’

This pragmatist view of social enterprise engagement in HEIs, while aiming to please various institutional stakeholders and avoid ‘turf battles’ (ibid, p.25), conceptually bankrupts the signified action by removing its substance, i.e. ‘feel free to use whatever term has worked.’ If social entrepreneurship engagement is a distinct activity that cuts across departments, however, then both ‘sociology’ and ‘business’ can see their own benefit of engaging with social entrepreneurship without attending to political spin. Although several terms related to ‘SE Concepts’ will appear in the cited material, for the purposes of clarity and style this dissertation uses the term social entrepreneurship as an umbrella term capturing the broadest usage in relation to the student experience. This is the most feasible because, according to Ashoka U (2014), the majority of institutions use this term (41%) and it is the term primarily used in the academic literature reporting on social entrepreneurship (e.g. Academy of Management Learning and Education Special Issue, 2012).

Although the EMES approach to social entrepreneurship insists on reframing society through participatory entrepreneurial activities as opposed to fitting in to existing market structures, HEIs have decided that the value of students engaging activities stemming from in emergent ‘SE concepts’ relates primarily to their stakeholder interests, namely: institutional mission and student demand.
This can be seen in the numbers: of the 236 HEIs responding to the 2014 Ashoka U report, these two incentives were seen as the two ‘most influential factors’ (p.28) driving social entrepreneurship in HEIs. Likewise, the HEFCE study argues that the sector’s interests are forwarded through meeting the ‘untapped demand’ of social entrepreneurship: ‘the Higher Education sector is only recently beginning to capitalise on this potential for social innovation...HEIs are under increasing demands to prove they are providing high quality outcomes for research, innovation, teaching and graduate employability’ (HEFCE, 2012, p.2).

HEI engagement with social entrepreneurship – or any other activity – makes sense without any particular ‘demand’ when these activities are aligned to their mission statement (as HEI strategy must align with that mission anyway); therefore, the response of HEIs to ‘student demand’ raises fundamental questions about the purpose of HEIs and how they should be funded, and another pertinent question of whether ‘student demand’ actually comes from students. Should research and study in HEIs be subject to the ‘capitalist’ law of supply and demand? Is knowledge itself subject to this superstructure? Does this logic not contradict the purpose of ‘intellectual freedom’ that marks the university as the enabler of a free and democratic society (Giroux, 2015)?

HEFCE (2012, p.2) has used the ‘self-interest’ based ‘demand’ argument noted above to entice HEIs into investing in social entrepreneurship: ‘Higher Education funding is increasingly driven by student choice and in turn, student choice will be influenced by the benefits they gain. HEIs supporting social entrepreneurs and promoting this work will attract more demand and more funding.’

Thus, understood from the literature so far, it is clear that the ‘student demand’ for social entrepreneurship engagement comes largely from other places than students. HEFCE’s free market logic is clear, but disturbing to proponents of intellectual freedom: more student ‘choice’ allows students, as ‘knowledge consumers’ (Lyotard, 1984) to decide what the best learning is for them, and positions HEIs competitively one against another to ‘attract’ more demand from the students (knowledge consumers), which ‘in turn’ results in more money (i.e. funding) for the knowledge-consumer-oriented HEI. According to Lyotard (ibid),
this cycle repeats itself until the most knowledge-consumer-friendly HEIs have all of the ‘student market share’ and the least knowledge-consumer-friendly HEIs shut their doors on the ‘choice’ of what to teach and research.

In other words, not only is the concept of social entrepreneurship unclear in its relation to HEIs, nor how its participatory/social aims fit within the ‘free’ market capitalist logic that confines intellectual ‘freedom’ to consumer demand – but additionally the progenitor of the concept of ‘student demand’ in relation to social entrepreneurship engagement is unclear. This can be seen when analysing the research methodologies behind existing studies. For example, in the Ashoka U (2014) study – which is the strongest data to date for ‘student demand’ – only 9% of respondents were students. And although the HEFCE (2012) study represented a 70/30 student-to-faculty response ratio and respondents were from 30 different UK universities, all of the respondents were recipients of £5000 grants from HEFCE to start social enterprises the previous year, therefore already interested in, and arguably biased towards, promoting HEI social entrepreneurship engagement. The HEFCE study is based on students starting ventures, which is quite distinct from work placements in existing enterprises; nevertheless, the idea of social-entrepreneurial learning transfer is embedded in both activities and supposedly based on ‘student demand.’

For example, in the HEFCE study, the major findings saw university social entrepreneurship engagement not only as being transferable to students, but as directly ‘enhancing the student experience’ when students were involved in experiential learning with social entrepreneurship in the form of starting-up their own UK social enterprises (p.6):

- 75% of students felt they improved their employability
- 63% felt their social venture benefitted their studies
- 83% planned to continue running their social venture after university

The above numbers indicate there are three different areas of value but in fact there are only two: academic value (study benefits) and employability value. The notion of academic value is quite significant, as it is arguably the purpose of
students attending university, and the finding above provides evidence that challenges the view that social entrepreneurship activities (other than research) are insufficiently ‘academic’ for universities to support. Nevertheless, showing the value was not the focus of the survey results, as students self-reporting that these activities ‘benefitted their studies’ is without further evidence, and the first and third points both present social enterprise start-ups as directly and positively affecting student employability after graduation.

**Synthesising the perceived value of social entrepreneurship into two ‘promises’**

*Promise one: Employability*

When reflecting on the HEFCE (2012) notion that ‘student choice will be influenced by the benefits they gain,’ a critical observer is forced to question who is determining the meaning of ‘benefit’ in the study: HEFCE or the respondents? The importance of the survey methodology and the report narrative must be underscored here. What were the researchers looking for? Was HEFCE exploring the value to students of these activities or seeking to justify them? A quick discourse analysis reveals that the emphasis throughout the study was on ‘employability’ despite the insertion of other forms of value to students. The report claims a range of value: ‘HEIs are under increasing demands to prove they are providing high quality outcomes for research, innovation, teaching and graduate employability,’ (p.2) yet the report mentions ‘employability’ and ‘jobs’ on 25 different occasions, whereas ‘research’ and ‘teaching’ combine for 14 occasions, and ‘innovation’ is found in the introduction three times and nowhere else. Additionally, the main conclusion (p.6) was summarised bluntly: ‘Social entrepreneurship in Higher Education extends students’ employment options.’

The ‘employability agenda’ has gained evermore prominence in UK university offerings since its inception in the late 1990’s. The focus has grown particularly since the 2008 financial crisis, which spiked unemployment for recent graduates. This development is alongside the The Browne report (2010) that paved the way for the 300% tuition hikes of 2012. Both of these changes in UK
higher education have raised a practical question for UK students and families, one that has been asked in the US for decades and now leads the discussion of higher education ‘value’ in both countries: what is the ‘return on investment’ of this degree? Will this degree ensure that the student can pay off his or her student debt? How does this degree enhance the student’s value in the job market? 

These questions reveal a much larger issue than the involvement of social entrepreneurship into the student experience, namely the appropriateness of applying ‘neo-liberal’ economic policies to higher education. Yet as these policies unfold and the emphasis on employability increases at the societal level (Sandel, 2012) it becomes the primary strategy that ‘new’ (polytechnic-turned-university in the UK) and ‘low-ranked’ universities (US) use to attract students (Bok, 2004). As ‘league tables’ such as the Times HE rankings reify the superiority of the established ‘red-brick’ institutions as a secure bet for a job after graduation, the rest of the HEIs feel that they must convince students of the value of a degree in the first place.

This is where ‘employability’ skills come to the fore and social entrepreneurship is seen as a concrete solution for the hotly debated issue of employability. In this vein, HEFCE concluded: ‘HEIs which invest in social entrepreneurship will find untapped demand, attracting further funding and more students.’ Of course top-ranking institutions like ‘Oxbridge’ already boast a very low acceptance rate; but Northampton University, for example, who represents a ‘polytechnic turned university’ or a ‘new’ university (common usage), has formed their entire 2010-2020 university strategy around the link between social entrepreneurship and employability, making a direct connection between employability and the value of engaging in ‘social enterprise’ in their marketing efforts as seen in Figure 1 on the following page.
Looking at Figure 1, which was found at the top of the most prominent page for prospective students (under the ‘study’ tab), the ‘prospect’ immediately notices the emphasis on ‘real value’ of social enterprise which is ‘added to my C.V.’ The marketing message attempts to address two important themes that resonate with the literature: First, the complaints that students, employers, and politicians increasingly have concerning ‘employability skills’ acquisition as part of a degree. This common attack on ‘academics’ suggests that the academic knowledge gained from university does little to provide ‘real value’ after graduation. Second, the ad infers that the value of any Northampton degree is enhanced through student engagement with social enterprise during university. In other words, both marketing messages create the illusion of distinct employability value of social enterprise as part of the student experience, and highlight the dominance of the employability agenda in UK higher education.

In addition to positioning the experiential ‘enterprise’ component as ‘real value,’ HEIs are connecting student social entrepreneurship engagement with the increased focus on ‘leadership’ skills as valuable employability outcomes of higher education. HEFCE (2012, p.2) connects leadership to employability and suggests that leadership skills developed as part of social entrepreneurship engagement enables leadership skills to be ‘demonstrated,’ resulting in better employment prospects after graduation: ‘In a tough employment market, social entrepreneurship is vital for graduates. It enables them to demonstrate evidence
of leadership alongside their academic studies, a vital component to securing a job.’ Tracey and Phillips (2007) suggest that the ‘complex and dual nature’ of social entrepreneurship creates motivational issues, contributed to by restricted budgets and multiple stakeholders, and this necessitates not only managerial competency, but also leadership. This idea is furthered in Smith et al. (2012) whose ‘paradoxical leadership model’ of developing leadership in university social entrepreneurship courses suggests there is distinct leadership development value in students learning to manage ‘the tensions emerging from the juxtaposition of social mission and business outcomes’ (p.463).

The idea of ‘leadership’ is commonly inferred in the idea of ‘entrepreneurship,’ ‘enterprise,’ and ‘innovation’ whether the word ‘social’ is used or not (Sullivan Mort & Weerawardena, 2006). The assumption is that to start a new venture or to innovate in a field requires leadership – independent of the definition of ‘leadership’ one chooses to employ. However, it is difficult for me to imagine how ‘leadership skills’ are developed through interning at a social enterprise when the student is neither expected to ‘lead’ ‘supervise’ or ‘manage’ anyone except themselves. On the other hand, reflecting on the HEFCE quote and Northampton webpage above, it is easy to imagine how employers would connect ‘leadership’ to ‘entrepreneurship’ and ‘enterprise’ when these terms are written on a student’s C.V.

Related to ‘leadership,’ another area of employability value that HEIs are connecting with the term social ‘entrepreneurship’ is experience with ‘business’ education, even though social ‘entrepreneurship’ programmes are not necessarily connected to business learning or business schools. There is no established ‘fit’ between social entrepreneurship and business schools (Miller et al., 2012), and from the perspective of one UK student ‘Ambassador’ for social entrepreneurship:

‘The problem with social enterprise is that the social bit kind of sits with people like us in volunteering and the enterprise bit sits with people like the Enterprise Department. We also overlap with Knowledge Transfer and with Public Engagement, so actually bringing it together can be quite difficult.’ (HEFCE, 2012, p.16)
This departmental ‘overlap’ can be seen across disciplines. Schlee, Curren, & Harich (2009, p.5) note that social entrepreneurship has ‘no clear academic home in most universities.’ Furthermore, social entrepreneurship programs within universities tend to be quite diverse, often involving faculty from the humanities, social and behavioural sciences, and public policy as well as business faculty (ibid). In a study of over 76 programmes in the US, Miller, Wesley & Williams (2012) found roughly 50% of social entrepreneurship co-curricular activities were offered outside of business schools. In the 2012 HEFCE Study cited above, Award Winners represented a ‘huge variety’ of academic fields (p.8), with the majority (19%) representing business schools, but students from Arts & Humanities and Social Sciences followed closely behind (17% and 17%). In the contemporary HE climate, where programmes particularly in the Humanities and ‘Pure’ Sciences are coming under scrutiny due to the perceived limited employability of graduates with these degrees (Collini, 2012) it is a logical conclusion by HEIs that students studying in these areas would want ‘enterprise’ and/or ‘entrepreneurship’ on their C.V. as ‘real’ added value, where ‘real’ seems to more and more infer business skills gained through experience.

These trends show an increase both in the inclusion of explicit teaching and research related to social entrepreneurship but also more opportunities for international experiential management learning. Experiential learning is considered generally very important in international business studies because few students have been exposed to international concepts outside of the classroom (Reday & Counts, 2013). Also, employability after graduation oftentimes depends on field experience more than grades (Knight & Yorke, 2003). To emphasize the popularity of these programs, students from all disciplines are competing to participate in social entrepreneurship experiential learning even though the programme might not provide any academic credit towards their degree, may not be paid, and may even change their career trajectories. Within this emergent space, international management education is taking a lead role in offering opportunities for students to participate experientially in social entrepreneurship, even if the students come from non-management disciplinary majors (Lange & Douglass-Warner, 2014).
Promise two: Meaningful experience

Another distinct area of value – both in the UK and elsewhere – is prevalent in the social entrepreneurship discourse: social entrepreneurship engagement provides students with personally meaningful experiences that traditional programmes cannot offer. University marketing language reveals the hype behind the so-called ‘transformative’ value of social entrepreneurship (Bloom & Pirson, 2010) when applied to the student experience, such as this example in Figure 2 from an internship programme offered by a combination of UK and US universities:

Figure 2: International Social Entrepreneurship Scheme (ISES) homepage (accessed 10/2013 from http://www.tatasocial-in.com)

Only 0:25 seconds into the promotional video, the on-screen message is explicit: the Programme will ‘leave an indelible impression on (student) lives.’ Unlike the earlier example of the instrumental ‘employability' value of student engagement with social entrepreneurship, this programme promises a personally meaningful experience to students. The ‘value added’ is unrelated to the C.V. (on the surface at least), and more inclined towards fulfilling the student’s desire to learn and grow through meaningful experiences included in their university portfolio. Moreover, the ‘social’ element of the activities promise a type of meaningful value that impresses upon the student’s moral imagination (Bamber & Pike, 2013).
Akin to employability, the promise of meaningful experience goes well beyond single programmes or national policies. On March 27th, 2013, the worldwide organisation Ashoka wrote an article in Forbes magazine entitled ‘social entrepreneurship is bringing purpose to higher education,’ where the message of meaningful experience is intertwined with field-based projects, and solidified through the explicit ‘value’ on offer. Social entrepreneurship is:

‘helping students develop a sense of purpose and direction that is grounded in creating social value through entrepreneurship. By getting students in the field, providing mentoring, and supporting their initiatives, these programs are helping students develop the sense of purpose and direction they need to fully take advantage of the enormous value their colleges offer’ (Ashoka, 2013).

Ashoka is here inferring two things about social entrepreneurship engagement: that field experience and venture creation are specific activities intertwined with university social entrepreneurship engagement, and that social entrepreneurship is ‘helping’ students ‘develop a sense of purpose and direction.’ Important for the next section, this value is presented as distinct: personally meaningful experience is simply part of ‘creating social value through entrepreneurship.’

In addition, some suggest the distinctness of social entrepreneurship engagement is directly related to students demanding ‘meaningful experiences’ from their university education that ‘align to their values’ (Lange, 2013), which precede, but do not necessarily make, an experience ‘valuable’ Others, such as Bloom & Pirson (2010) refer to these experiences as ‘transformative’ for students, yet, like other social entrepreneurship advocates in HE, avoid invoking a specific theory of transformative learning. Given the two pillars of ‘social’ and ‘entrepreneurship,’ this is yet another problematic term: theorists in the field could, for example, relate transformation to Mezirow’s transformative learning theory (1991), where the individual is transformed through reflecting on a meaningful experience, or alternatively Freire’s social transformation theory (1968), where entire social structures are transformed through the reframing of the collective conscious. In either case of transformation, distinct meaningful experience is emphasized that connects ‘value’ to student learning.
Exploring the value of ‘SE Concepts’ across co-curricular experiences

Experiential, situated, and transformative learning

Independent of whether the value promised to students relates to *employability* or *meaningful experience*, the proportion of ‘co-curricular’ activities HEIs offer related to social entrepreneurship suggests the importance of experiential learning to its related concepts: for example, 55% of programmes offer internships, 52% business plan competitions, 41% field studies, and 30% fellowships (Ashoka U, 2014). These numbers are steadily increasing, with an increase of 81% in fellowships and 60% in internships alone between 2008 and 2014. Additionally, the experiential aspect of social entrepreneurship curricula is espoused by several researchers, with some providing examples of major project work creating social value not only for non-profit organisations and small-to-medium-enterprises (SMEs), but also contributing to ethical and innovative behaviours by students (Calvert, Jagoda, & Jensen, 2011; Calvert, 2011; Savard, 2010).

The concept of ‘experiential learning’ is broad, however, and it can be philosophised – following Dewey (1938) and later authors (Beard & Wilson, 2006; Rogers, 1996) – that *all* learning happens through experience. Nevertheless, all experiences do not necessarily lead to *new* learning or what Dewey termed *growth*. For example, if we do not pay attention, or ‘reflect’ on experiences, new experience can simply confirm existing beliefs (Beard & Wilson, 2006; Kolb, 1984). Thus, to learn from an experience it must be *meaningful* (Beard & Wilson, ibid) and social entrepreneurship work placements are clearly positioned by universities as providing value to students through meaningful activity.

One thesis relevant to work placements in general put forward by Lave & Wenger (1991) suggests that learning is a fundamentally social process, where learners participate in communities of practitioners through ‘legitimate peripheral participation.’ In their conception, newcomers learn by doing meaningful work in the field which leads them towards particular knowledge related to the ‘community of practice’ where the internship occurs. Situated
learning is particularly relevant to the purposes of social entrepreneurship internships and fellowships, yet research is underdeveloped in the internship literature and missing from the social entrepreneurship literature, potentially because there is no clearly-defined ‘community’ of social entrepreneurs adhering to a single set of field-specific practices. Instead, the common practice if any in these communities (particularly in the developing World) is ‘jugaad innovation’ or being very creative and flexible with boot-strapped budgets and passion for something to change (Radjou, Prabhu, & Ahuja, 2012).

The concept of ‘transformation’ has been integrated into many universities’ ‘promises’ to students of the type of educational value of the internship or fellowship promoted. A common defining feature of transformative learning is perspective change resulting from an intense experience – such as experiencing absolute poverty for the first time – that ‘disorients’ the learner’s meaning frames, and through a reflective learning process results in a changed worldview (Mezirow & Taylor, 2009). According to Mezirow and Taylor (2007), more intense experiences like work placements in developing countries, especially when they are ‘value-laden’ – as in the case of social entrepreneurship engagement – help provoke meaning-making among participants by acting as ‘triggers’ or ‘disorienting dilemmas’ that facilitate ‘transformative learning, allowing learners to experience learning more directly and holistically’ (p.7). However, the ‘holistic’ nature of meaningful experience for individuals is not fully clear, as it requires a social frame to both qualify and situate any learning through that experience.

Seeing this disorientation-through-experience from a more post-structural philosophy, Biesta (2010) posits a ‘pedagogy of interruption’ where the learner’s identity is constantly shaped through interaction with the ‘other,’ and therefore any sort of transformation is without a necessary end even though what occurs as a result of the interruption is (potentially) learning. In this view, experiential learning can at most aim to create ‘openings for subjectivity to emerge’ – openings that always manifest themselves as interruptions of the ‘normal’ state of affairs (Biesta, 2012, p.589). These ‘openings’ are the pedagogical entry points of experience, which lead to an expansion but evade a specific outcome. This ‘expansion’ corresponds to what I have termed ‘learning.’
On a practical level in today’s HEIs, however, as seen on the Northeastern University homepage below, the term ‘experiential learning’ is used as a catch-all term for co-curricular activities that ‘integrate the classroom and the real world,’ and typically infer specific outcomes. The catalysts or ‘triggers’ for these supposed outcomes are connected to social entrepreneurship engagement through, to use Biesta’s terminology, co-curricular ‘interruptions’ of the classroom norms learners are comfortable with: e.g. through service learning and internships.

![Experiential Learning](image)

**Figure 3: Experiential learning in higher education (Northeastern University, accessed 4/2015 from www.northeastern.edu)**

The snapshot in Figure 3 not only defines experiential learning, but articulates the perceived value to students of experiential learning in the modern HEI through outcomes: ‘They learn how to transform ideas into impact and become global citizens with successful careers.’ Here, as in the earlier examples of UK and US universities, the promises of employability (successful careers) and meaningful experience (global citizens, ideas into impact) can be viewed as intertwined with experience, and this experiential learning advertised to students as added value to their degree.
In line with the notion discussed earlier of the marketable university, Ashoka U suggests that the emphasis on co-curricular experiential learning activities is a result of the large student demand for social entrepreneurship, coupled with the field lacking substantive theory to develop enough ‘credit-bearing’ classroom curricula (2014, p.37). However, there seems to be little empirical evidence to support this view; furthermore, it perpetuates the idea that book knowledge is superior to experience, and established domains more pertinent to HE than emergent ones.

In fact, both ‘value promises’ discussed above (employability and meaningful experience) suggest an epistemological connection between experiential learning and social entrepreneurship. This resonates with the experiential learning connection to ‘action research,’ where the researcher’s aim is to effect practice in meaningful ways through active projects, but the researcher also learns from the experience. Likewise, when attaching ‘social impact measures’ to service-oriented co-curricular programmes such as internships in social enterprise organizations, the learning process can be assumed to provide students with significant value. Thus, the following section will expand on the concept of ‘social impact’ in relation to student activities and then show how researchers and practitioners are employing two common forms of experiential learning – service learning and internships – to exemplify the potentially distinct value to HE students of engaging with social entrepreneurship during their studies.

**Social impact**

Like the term social entrepreneurship, measureable outcomes resulting from social-entrepreneurial activity referred to as ‘social impact’ escape easy definitions and are beyond the scope of this dissertation. One set of measures related to HEI social entrepreneurship activities has been developed in the UK, co-authored by myself, and in relation ‘knowledge transfer’ which has a direct relationship to research funding and only an indirect relation to student experience (Lange et al., 2013). Lange et al. (ibid) presented three important considerations for HEIs when determining social impact: Deciding what to measure, identifying indicators of outputs and outcomes, and deciding what
types of evidence are needed. To illustrate, the authors proposed this as a set of questions using the example of a ‘university developed life-saving heart-monitoring device’ with social enterprise. Questions included: ‘What measureable outcomes does the social venture actually achieve? (e.g. number of patients saved by the device in a specified time period), and ‘What would have happened if the social venture had never intervened? (e.g. 1 million patients in developing countries would be unable to afford a life-saving treatment).’ Both questions require a clearly defined ‘social impact' measure for the use of the device, which focuses the activity on the value to beneficiaries rather than the university per se.

What if HEIs asked these questions of their experiential learning programmes, rather than merely ‘how does the student benefit?’

In a seminal paper on how social impact relates to problem-solving, Dees (2012) contrasts two ‘cultures’ related to addressing social problems: an older culture of charity and a newer culture of entrepreneurial problem-solving. From Dees’ point of view, in the ‘older’ culture of charity organisations can act out of compassion without worrying about whether they are deploying resources efficiently and effectively (according to econometrics). He suggests that when this becomes a norm for the social sector, it can undermine rigor and the effectiveness of the organisation’s activities. On the other hand, the newer culture of entrepreneurial problem-solving seeks to use performance metrics from the business world, but instead of measuring investment-to-profit, these metrics measure investment-to-social impact.

This ethos of ‘problem-solving’ found in social entrepreneurship, when enacted through service learning and internships, relies on ‘real world’ projects that create value to both students and partner organisations. However, Dees’ theory suggests that social entrepreneurship experiential learning projects should go one step further, and be subject to ‘rigorous’ and ‘effective’ long-term impact investment and measurement. This would imply that social entrepreneurship experiential learning is focused on the outcomes to beneficiaries independent of the student experience, whereas service learning (Brower, 2011) and internships (CAS, 2014) are justified primarily through the value to the student. The distinct learning result is that the student, conscious of the limitations of
temporary ‘service’ and valuing the ‘problem-solving’ requirements of measuring impact, has a meaningful experience by trying to affect beneficiaries’ long-term interests.

To exemplify this point, students from a service learning programme might work for a day in a soup kitchen and provide real, immediate value for the beneficiaries whilst gaining a critical understanding of their own privileged position in relation to those suffering from hunger. Under the terms of ‘service learning’ the project would be considered a success – the student learned something and provided service to beneficiaries. But in Dees (ibid) conception, with a social entrepreneurship experiential learning programme social impact might analyse whether feeding people at the soup kitchen would empower the beneficiaries to climb out of poverty: and if not, then the project would simply be rejected and other projects followed where the students attempt to create measureable ‘impact.’ Nevertheless, both goals require some ‘service’ and ‘learning’ with the poor.

Service Learning

The relationship between service learning and social entrepreneurship has not been explored in-depth (Calvert, 2011), yet social entrepreneurship engagement is ‘included in service learning efforts’ in 40.9% of institutions and another 40.9% suggest a ‘direct overlap between’ the two concepts (Ashoka U, 2014). ‘Service Learning’ is frequently described as a type of experiential learning (Jacoby, 2009) that always includes two benefactors: a learner and a community that supposedly benefits from that learner doing some ‘service’ in that community (CAS, 2014). This terminology, which is common in the US, has only recently been taken up in the UK higher education sector (Bamber & Pike, 2013; Quinlan, 2011). Value associated with service-learning includes academic gains (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Sax & Astin, 1997); civic engagement and volunteerism (Plater, 2004; Tomkovic, Lester, Flunker, & Wells, 2008); increased knowledge of and tolerance for diversity (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Jones & Hill, 2001; Sax & Astin, 1997); personalising ‘the other’ (Neururer & Rhoads, 1998, p.323); improved ability to work with others, including leadership and conflict resolution skills (Sax & Astin, 1997); social responsibility and values
development (Eyler, Giles, Stenson, & Gray, 2001; Lester, Tomkovick, Wells, Flunker, & Kickul, 2005); self-efficacy and confidence (Giles & Eyler, 1994; Tucker & McCarthy, 2001); and enhanced critical thinking and problem solving (Lester et al., 2005; Pless et al., 2011).

Research shows that the impact of the service learning experience on the student will be influenced by the student's values and learning style (Calvert, 2011), prior volunteer experience (Taylor & Pancer, 2007), student identification with the project and perception of opportunity to develop skills and personal attributes (Tomkovick et al., 2008), and the perceived value of the experience to potential employers (Lester et al., 2005). Critics of service learning suggest service, like 'charity' or 'aid' can achieve short-term goals but fail in the test of long-term sustainable value to the beneficiaries (King, 2004; Moyo, 2009). Furthermore, the service-learning framework continues to rely on a passive model of learning where the educational programme determines the issues and arranges the space for learning (King, 2004).

Calvert (2011, p.123) attempts to marry service learning and social entrepreneurship, however, through the concept of impact by proposing that the "development of social entrepreneurs through optimal guidance of the contextual factors will result in the usual benefits, as well as an enhanced long-term impact upon society." She suggests that "well orchestrated service learning experiences which include the development of social entrepreneurial behaviours as a desired learning outcome" will result in the development of those behaviours, and this will in turn result in "a greater long-term impact upon society." Her framework goes even farther, implying that a service learning experience with "lesser student impact" would result in "less learning" and "a well-structured service learning methodology which not only develops student skills and cognitive ability but also entrepreneurial capabilities and orientation, would provide the greatest long-term benefit to employers, non-profit organisations, and the community" (p.123). Calvert's framework is the first attempt to make a direct connection between student learning through service and the social entrepreneurship concept of impact, but she neither addresses how "socially entrepreneurial behaviours" are distinct, nor what "impact" consists of, nor provides empirical evidence to support her claims. These claims reveal
the lack of social impact measures found in service learning – if students on service learning projects made an impact worth mentioning, then appealing to undefined ‘long-term benefits’ to society would be unnecessary.

**Internships**

Another way HEIs have been using student work to make an impact through social entrepreneurship is by supporting internships. In the Ashoka U (2014) study, approx.. 55% of the Social Entrepreneurship programmes offered internships and 28% fellowships, and a 60% increase since 2008 across the board, yet surprisingly these important experiential activities are hardly studied (Lundsteen, 2011). In both the US and UK internships have become ‘an integral part of a higher education’ (CAS, 2014), yet there is much debate about the value of internships to students, particularly those that are unpaid. Major questions arise regarding how colleges and universities can provide an appropriate internship experience, given the various goals of the institution, the academic and student affairs divisions, and the student. Furthermore, some institutions encourage internships but refuse to grant academic credit for them. Additionally, there are the inconstant standards as to what constitutes a credit-worthy internship (i.e., number of hours equal how many credits?) and concern for the liability of students and their institution in case of errors. Nevertheless, when mixed with international work experience and social benefit projects, internships are seen to provide immediate and long-term value to students.

Internships are increasingly interdisciplinary (CAS, ibid), take place internationally, and are integrated with other ‘active pedagogies’ such as structured reflection and action research (Colby et al., 2003, p.224). HEIs are therefore expanding their portfolio of internship possibilities by promising social enterprises and CSR departments of large firms volunteer or low-cost work from student interns. The major advantage of the ‘social’ aspect of internships in social benefit organisations is the moral pull: students are more likely to accept volunteer pay or stipends because the aim of the entity is to provide service to vulnerable populations. Both volunteers and paid interns can complete required tasks with defined timescales, and both typically require a certain amount of
supervision. However, according to the Centre for Academic Standards (2014), interns are not volunteers:

What distinguishes an intern from a volunteer is the deliberative form of learning that takes place. There must be a balance between learning and contributing, and the student, the student’s institution, and the internship placement site must share in the responsibility to ensure that the balance is appropriate and that the learning is of sufficiently high quality to warrant the effort, which might include academic credit’ (CAS, p.1)

Deciding the extent of ‘volunteer’ for projects with expected deliverables raises questions of exploitation as well as the value to students – particularly if they are providing work but not receiving pay. However, the ‘value’ to students of traditional and social enterprise internships can be seen in terms of reciprocity rather than remuneration. For example, one UK university policy definition (UCL, 2014) highlights the importance of internships bringing value to all stakeholders through reciprocal arrangements:

‘Internships are educational and career developmental opportunities providing practical experience in a field or discipline. They are structured, short-term, supervised placements often focused around particular tasks or projects with defined timescales. The work should be meaningful and must be mutually beneficial for the intern and the host institution, therefore it is important to consider the type of work they will undertake.

Importantly, according to both UK and US definitions of internships, the work must be both meaningful and mutually beneficial for the intern and host. This requires not only reciprocity between partners, but also an instructional design that takes multiple stakeholders into consideration: the student, the university (institution), and the hosting organisation (placement site). For example, to initiate ‘reflection on learning’ stakeholders must decide on the space for reflection (student blog, essay, discussion), the type of reflection (open, critical, topical), the timing of reflection (after a milestone, after completion), and the value of reflection (assessed and graded, personal, feedback loop to the hosting organisation.).

To establish a reflection component that provides value to students and hosting
organisations. is a large task, yet when adding the feature of ‘social impact,’ everything in the instruction design changes to adapt to that aim. For example, the ‘reflection’ component would have to have a content base that takes into account the measureable effects of the internship experience on beneficiaries. This is a significant shift in not only the expectations for students to produce value, but also in the potential learning outcomes of internships. For example, when completing projects in harsh environments with unstable infrastructure (e.g. Sub-Saharan Africa) the intern must oftentimes learn through failure because things commonly go wrong in these environments and the students have little to no experience with such failure (Edmondson & Cannon, 2005; Lange & Douglass-Warner, 2014; Miller et al., 2012). This knowledge – that individual internship work has a direct impact on the world’s poorest citizens – could provide students a new level of conscious investment in the international internship (trying to avoid failure and empower others), while setting new standards of impact measurement that non-experiential learning is unable to provide.

International experience

Although the consensus among educators and field critics is that international experiences provide transformative value to students and ‘intercultural competence’ (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005; Paige et al., 2010), it is not well understood how international, or service, or internship ‘value’ can be isolated when these learning experiences are combined, such as the case of social entrepreneurship placements. Furthermore, there is little research regarding the situated learning benefit to students of other aspects of social entrepreneurship placements, like ‘working alongside social entrepreneurs’ or the aforementioned social impact aim. To what extent could these unique aspects of social entrepreneurship experiential learning be part of a 21st century conception of ‘intercultural competence’ or other student value associated with international exposure during university?

Evidence in the field suggests that international experience has long-term benefits for students. For example, a fifty year longitudinal study on US students studying abroad recently indicated that the international experience was the
‘most impactful’ in students lives’ and even led to ‘social entrepreneurship’ orientations later in life (Paige et al., 2010). Furthermore, researchers suggest that experiential learning is an effective way of integrating ethics, responsibility and sustainability into the curriculum (Chell, 2007). Unlike ‘study abroad’ and other international exchange schemes, however, an international internship is difficult to secure because of the difficulty for students to add value to an organisation in an unfamiliar language, and learning culture and customs could require much effort. Furthermore, organisations are reluctant to commit resources to a potential ‘paid vacation’ for the intern (Reday & Counts, 2013).

International placements with social enterprises and CSR departments solve this problem somewhat because they are generally seen as a valuable activity to multiple stakeholders. As social entrepreneurs typically operate in resource-constrained environments, attracting knowledge workers poses much difficulty (Miller et al., 2012); therefore, unpaid internships or consultancy work can increase profit and importantly, the ‘social impact’ of the organisation (Reday & Counts, 2013). In addition, when the enterprise has exposure to large, well-funded organisations such as universities it can support the ‘scaling out’ and development of its core competences and attract future employees. Likewise, students are seen to develop lasting networks and friendships in their host countries from international placement as well as tolerance and understanding of the host country (Kehm, 2005); a more critical understanding of international politics and development (Marcotte, Desroches, & Poupart, 2007); and better employability prospects (Gardner, Steglitz, & Gross, 2009) both at home and abroad (Sison & Brennan, 2012).

The value of international experience also applies to leadership, management, and entrepreneurship competency theories found in social entrepreneurship (Lange & Douglass-Warner, 2014). Evidence shows that work placements with social enterprises, NGOs, and Corporate Social Responsibility departments of multinational corporations located in developing countries and including ‘real world’ deliverables enhance intercultural competence and ‘global leadership competencies’ in students (Pless et al., 2011). Management researchers argue that ‘living and working in a global context can trigger a transformational experience that may produce new mental models in the individual—new
worldviews, mindsets, and perspectives’ (Bird & Osland, 2004, p.67; see also McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). When linking this value to social impact, which specifies deliverables and creates a culture of problem-solving and accountability (Dees, 2012) as well as other management competencies, the experiential space for learning these competencies grows. In other words, by using international work placements to create value through social impact, evidence suggests that students can actually benefit more in regards to developing management and leadership competencies than they would otherwise (Miller et al., 2012). For example, by using social entrepreneurship to develop management competencies, aspects such as finance and marketing can be studied ethically in relation to their place in educating consumers about sustainable solutions (Dholakia & Dholakia, 2001; Miller et al., 2012).

**Global citizenship**

Like leadership, ‘Global Citizenship’ is a broadly used narrative of value found in universities across the world, and even supported by the European Union as a major outcome of a higher education (Sison & Brennan, 2012). Citizenship education is by nature political, and global citizenship education, like international placements, aims to offer students a more developed understanding of how cultures interact and is therefore rooted in experiential forms of learning (Beard & Wilson, 2006). Unique layers of value are added to experiences when students are faced not only with the messy reality of domestic politics but with host country and international politics (Marcotte C. et al., 2007) and, although no definition of ‘global’ will be evaluated here, Maak and Pless (2008) showed that ‘global leadership’ competencies found in students after placements in developing countries are the same political skills ‘vital’ to working in those countries, such as ‘ensuring principle-driven and ethically sound behaviour both at home and abroad,’ ‘taking a stance on human rights issues,’ ‘contributing in active ways to solving the global environmental crisis,’ and ‘being responsive to the legitimate expectations of a diverse group of stakeholders.’ Yet this is in contrast to research that suggests a major decline in political involvement with US university-age students generally, despite increases in volunteering and service learning (Colby et al., 2003; Donahue & Cress, 2013).
It is in the space of the political where social entrepreneurship also rests, and these experiences abroad might do much to broaden students’ political understanding. As the social entrepreneur aims to be self-financing (independent from government or corporate donors) and to economically empower locals (create more jobs, etc.), students and universities in the US and UK can be expected to idealise social entrepreneurship engagement in developing countries. For HEI students with idealistic political views, there is a sense going into the work placement that the activities these entrepreneurs engage in is valuable and therefore the student will engage in meaningful work. However, when the student arrives and must adjust to corruption and highly questionable ethics, on the one hand, and severe poverty and severely limited resources on the other, the students on these placements must reckon with a political reality far different from their own.

This political ‘disorienting dilemma’ (see Mezirow, 1991) can lead to transformative learning, specifically in relation to distinguishing between political ‘theory’ and ‘practice.’ In fact, Bamber & Pike (2013) found that UK students had a more critical view of politics in their home country after service learning in developing countries, and Pless et al. (2012) reported that several of their respondents (particularly those who empathised with the beneficiaries) had even changed their career trajectory to engage in developmental politics after their work-based social benefit experiences. Thus, when taken as a whole, social entrepreneurship work placements cover a wide range of potentially competing value frameworks and educational objectives. Some, as discussed in the next section, see social entrepreneurship as a ‘hybridisation’ of values which in turn inform educational practices.

Social entrepreneurship: a distinct hybridisation of value to students?

The literature covered suggests that programme providers are prioritising the ‘self-interested’ value to students of ‘employability’ and ‘meaningful experience’ as well as a host of competencies relevant to their career, such as international experiential learning, leadership, and becoming a ‘global citizen.’ However, with regards to the notion of social impact, the emphasis on value transitions from students to a specific population of beneficiaries, and expands the experience
to students into social and ideological frames of value. This multiple stakeholder value of social entrepreneurship engagement can be regarded as the educational effects on students of experiences within a ‘hybridisation’ of the competing value structures underpinning its activity.

Despite (or perhaps because of) lack of adequate theorisation, social entrepreneurship learning is crossing moral, disciplinary, international, and political boundaries in HE. In regards to the larger influence of the phenomenon on society, this has been referred to in the social entrepreneurship education literature as a ‘blended value framework’ (Kickul, Janssen-Selvadurai, & Griffiths, 2012), and Ridley-Duff and Bull, (2011) provide a ‘hybridisation’ model where social entrepreneurship ranges from ‘non-profit’ to ‘more than profit’ models:

The above figure shows how different models of social entrepreneurship connect to existing frameworks and use elements from multiple sources to create social impact. When connecting these vastly different (belief) systems, value conflicts are inevitable (Smith, Besharov, Wessels, & Chertok, 2012). It is possible that when researched through the lens of student experiential learning, ‘internships’ and ‘service learning’ provide insight into how these contrasting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Synthesis of Exchange Systems</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Non-profit</td>
<td>Redistribution and Reciprocity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Corporate Social Responsibility</td>
<td>Redistribution and Market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>More-than-Profit</td>
<td>Reciprocity and Market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Multistakeholder (Social Economy)</td>
<td>Reciprocity, Redistribution, and Market</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4: Four Types of Socioentrepreneurial Development (adapted from Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2011).
moral positions could function if and when integrated. More specifically, if the core drive of student participation in internships is primarily self-interested (i.e. ‘private benefit’) whereas the core drive of service-learning is primarily others-regarding (i.e. ‘community benefit’), social entrepreneurship placements will mimic the respective organisational forms and provide a unique ‘hybridisation’ of perceived value to students that satisfies both core drives for value to self and value to others.

The question arising is whether integrating these conflicting sets of values has any educational merit.

In their article on ‘paradoxical leadership’ development through student social entrepreneurship engagement, Smith et al. (2012) argue for integration as valuable to students, or ‘identifying synergies between contradictory elements’ which ‘entails bringing two sides of conflicting demands together, such that conflict becomes productive rather than intractable.’ This, they suggest, is an important competency for leadership as well as social entrepreneurship. While these twin challenges of managing social enterprises—sustaining dual commitments and overcoming intractable conflict – may seem insurmountable, research suggests not only that organisational leaders are capable of sustaining competing demands, but also that the juxtaposition of such tensions can be a source of organisational success (Cameron, 1986). Moreover, the integration of opposing forces can encourage novel, creative solutions that ultimately enable long-term organisational sustainability (Smith, Lewis, & Tushman, 2011). Relating this to HE, students often approach decisions in terms of existing categories, such as non-profit/for-profit or social/financial (Smith & Lewis, 2011). However, Smith and colleagues suggest that students can instead be taught to embrace ‘both/and’ thinking, in which they accept both sides of competing demands as simultaneously possible, enabling them to develop new alternatives that transcend existing categories (Bartunek, 1988; Lewis, 2000).

Transfer this ‘both/and’ thinking into experiential learning during university and the practical value of internships is integrated with the morality of service learning and the result could be interpreted as a ‘hybridisation’ of separate value structures within an individual.
This fusion of value in social entrepreneurship contexts between fulfilling business objectives and providing social assistance not only challenges, but also is theorised to create new ambiguities in learners’ understandings of themselves and others (Miller et al., 2012). Attempting to integrate these different moral frameworks into experiential learning is a promising area for further research and development, particularly in regards to student moral and intellectual development as a result of being measured against the bar of ‘social impact’ (Calvert, 2011). However, researching the ‘value’ to students is as complex as each individual student, because they all have different experiences and identities, and make sense of the paradox individually. Consequently, the perceived value of social entrepreneurship work placements requires a synthesis of concepts that account for competing psychological, social, and economic foundations.

Value to selves theory and methodological frame

Unsatisfied with the core assumptions of value to students found in the literature, namely that social entrepreneurship provides students a ‘paradoxical’ space for development; and unsatisfied that this supposed paradox is based on ‘competing’ philosophies of human nature (i.e. utilitarian and deontological), I dissected and reframed these fundamental ontological differences into a new theory of value to students that necessitates hybridised thinking in relation to social entrepreneurship. This ‘pre-understanding,’ or what is referred to here as ‘Value to Selves’ theory, helped me frame the value of the placement experiences into descriptive categories that could be refined or even eliminated once I developed a deeper understanding through empirical research.

Moral paradox (at least from a Western philosophical perspective found in extant literature used for this dissertation) arises in this research focus because social entrepreneurship can be seen to combine ‘value’ from different ‘selves’. It integrates the philosophical concepts of self-interest and its opposite, others-regarding (Santos, 2012) into a theorised social problem-solving ‘self’ who is at once altruistic and egoistic. In other words, from the human decision-making theories underpinning current socio-economic thought, multiple ‘selves’ must be at work dialogically in the same individuals simultaneously to enact social-
entrepreneurial activities (Hermans, 2001). The overlapping of these theorised ‘selves’ provides an expansive matrix of value to students engaging in these activities.

As a result of combining these competing theories of self, the ‘paradoxical thinking’ found in the overlaps between how different ‘selves’ value the experience is no longer paradoxical but an effective mechanism for expanding student’s understandings. In fact, using Biesta’s (2010) aforementioned theory of learning as an expansion, this multiple Selves framework becomes a heuristic of intellectual, moral, and social development where each self ‘expands’ through subjective ‘openings’ influenced by otherwise competing value structures within each individual.

Uncovering a basis for multiple ‘Selves’ in socio-economic theory

Theories of more than one ‘self’ date back to the early 1900s. For example, in Mead's (1962) social psychology there is the ‘Me Self,’ reflective of group behaviours such as gesturing, and the ‘I Self’ who is the unique individual that creates his or her own reality in their ego-consciousness in response to the ‘Me’ or socially-conditioned self. In Mead’s conception, the ‘Me’ self is transformed by the ‘I’ self after reflecting on experiences that challenge previous thinking.

Likewise, it is the multifaceted ‘self’ that transformative learning builds on, though more vaguely. For example, Dirkx (2006) notes that all transformative theories posit a socially-constructed ‘self’:

“When learning is significant, we are dealing with questions of meaning, values, quality, and purpose. Such questions naturally draw into the learning process our sense of who we are and what our relationship is with the world. This idea of the self’s involvement in the learning process is not surprising...it is a reflective, dialogical, expressive, and deeply emotional and spiritual self that constructs and re-constructs itself through experiences of learning.’ (Dirkx, 2006, p.10)

Importantly, the ‘self’ in this description is seen holistically, so if learning is to be ‘significant,’ rational deliberation alone is rejected in light of the ‘emotional and
spiritual’ aspects of the self that contribute to individual transformation. Thus, rather than a ‘paradoxical’ self as imagined in the ‘power of unreasonable’ activities of social entrepreneurs (Elkington & Hartigan, 2013), perhaps multiple ‘selves’ of socially-entrepreneurial thinkers are dialogically intertwined into a whole individual rather than diametrically opposed in a contradictory being.

Quite separately from the other ‘social constructivist’ theories of Self I have described, socio-economic theorist Etzioni (1988) explains the construct of a ‘We’ who is the Self that exists in regards to his or her perceived moral duty to the community of which he or she is a part. The ‘I&We’ paradigm (originally termed by the theologian Martin Buber) is characterised by what Etzioni calls (p.8) a ‘responsive community.’ This ‘soft deontology’ assumes that since the individual and the community make each other and require each other, the ‘I’s need a We to be’ (p.9); therefore, individuals are under the influence of two sets of factors: 1) their pleasure, and 2) their moral duty (p.63), realised only in communities.

_Synthetising the ‘Selves’ into a categorical frame_

Etzioni and Mead’s fragmented ‘selves’ could be fused to provide a theoretical framework for understanding the perceived value to students of ‘paradoxical’ experiences such as social entrepreneurship work placements. From this viewpoint, understanding what is perceived as beneficial or important to the student’s development depends on which aspect of the student’s ‘Self’ is asked. In-line with the organisational theory on social entrepreneurship discussed in the literature review, perhaps this ‘self’ is best understood as a hybrid of different conscious positions on value within the same individual. The self-interested part of a respondent, for example, might perceive the work experience aspect of the placement as most important to his or her ‘employability,’ whereas the others-regarding part of an individual might perceive the service aspect of the placement as most important to the ‘meaningfulness’ of the experience to his or her ideologies. Similarly, the community part of an individual might value the feeling of solidarity with people on the other side of the globe.
As these ‘selves’ are philosophised to stem from different value ‘edifices’ (Santos, 2012) yet interact within in the same individual, the value of a social entrepreneurship placement experience can be theorised to fit within the overlapping area between the three selves. Indeed, the same language can be applied as in Mead and Etzioni’s theories: the ‘I, Me, and We’ selves. The overlaps between these theorised parts of Self can be represented as a multiple venn diagram:

![Multiple Selves value framework for students](image)

These selves can come together when the student is exposed to social entrepreneurship in practice. The theorised ‘Me’ self has career and winning in mind, and sees money/power/status as valuable. This is where the appeal to students of participating in work placements is framed as ‘employability’ (skills, networks, references, etc.). Self-interest is here the norm, and the student constructed as a pragmatist who sees social entrepreneurship engagement as a means to an end. In contrast, the ‘I’ self is a believer in change for good and sees social entrepreneurship as a tool to effect change. Others-regarding is here the norm, and the student constructed as an idealist who believes that they can, to quote Ghandi: ‘be the change that you want to see in the world.’ The third, or ‘We’ self feels a sense of belonging to communities, and the placement fulfils a perceived duty to community. The ‘global community’ is here the norm, and the student part of the group even though there are vast cultural/geographic differences. It could be the case that these Selves together form a ‘hybrid Self’ similar to the organisations mentioned earlier.
Whereas the literature to date has focused on justifying the value of service-oriented placements by suggesting students develop in a decidedly positive direction as a result of the experience, the Value to Selves framework presents a more nuanced picture of student development. For example, ‘employability’ is presented in the literature as the major incentive of a work placement and a boon to society; but the Value to Selves framework sees employability as inextricable from the ego-needs of the individual student’s conception of value and therefore asks the individual how he or she benefits personally. This could of course include employability, but as only one feature of a ‘Me’ value. In other words, the perceived value of appearing to be a ‘good’ person by volunteering on a work placement or going to an exotic place could provide just as much value to the ‘Me’ self as gaining employability skills, as they are perceived as highly-regarded by employers; yet these other benefits are not read about in existing literature although they likely inform the holistic value of the experience.

Similarly, the literature presents ‘meaningful relationships’ as valuable to students in the form of ‘competency’ development, but from an interpretivist analysis provides insufficient context to understand notions of either ‘meaningful’ or ‘relationships,’ and assumes value is limited to a generic interpersonal skill set. For example, the Center for Academic Standards (2014) presents ‘meaningful relationships’ as resulting in ‘interpersonal competence.’ The Value to Selves framework, however, takes context into consideration: so from this view, gaining competence in a culturally-appropriate way of communicating might be attributed to a meaningful relationship with a specific ‘other’ due to a certain set of qualities that make the encounter meaningful to a case, which is by no means a generic skill. Similarly, students might expand their understanding just as much in becoming aware that they lack interpersonal skills.

The important question for understanding the perceived value of a meaningful relationship, then, is not whether a placement results in meaningful relationships, but how the student’s identity is being (re)constructed, or ‘opened’ through direct experience with an ‘other,’ and this is what the Value to Selves theory seeks to uncover that contribute to individual transformation. Thus, rather than a ‘paradoxical’ self as imagined in the ‘power of unreasonable’ activities of
social entrepreneurs (Elkington & Hartigan, 2013), perhaps multiple ‘selves’ of socially-entrepreneurial thinkers are, as Hermans’ (2001) suggests in the field of psychology, dialogically intertwined rather than diametrically opposed in a contradictory being.
Chapter Three: Methodology

Overview

Social entrepreneurship can be seen as a ‘hybridisation’ of multiple economic theories of value, yet lacks an intelligible framework for analysis of value to individual students who embrace experiential learning with social entrepreneurial organisations. In order to explore this phenomenon I combined the underlying conceptions of value found in the social entrepreneurship literature into a theoretical framework of value to guide data collection and cross-case analysis. Having a theoretical framework enabled me to integrate a longitudinal element into a multiple case study of complex international work placements, thereby capturing comparable results over time to explore how each individual case perceived the value of the experience, and to compare perspectives across cases. Data was collected using a multiple case study with a longitudinal element, triangulating data across time, space, method, and perspective.

A ‘case’ in this dissertation was considered an individual UK or US university student participating in a fully sponsored work placement in a developing country for approximately eight weeks. In each case, individual students were expected to work with social entrepreneurial organisations to produce unique deliverables: support the economic empowerment of low-income populations. Thematic analysis was the primary procedure employed, and content analysis was an added ‘divergent technique’ to identify key terminology used by stakeholder groups that could clarify or challenge thematic content. The findings were organised to prioritise diversity, equality, and intentionality of respondent perspectives.
Hermeneutic interpretation as the basis of method

Interpretivism was chosen as the best ‘fit for purpose’ of the research question (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), because through an interpretive paradigm the data would give the participant’s accounts of the value of the placements as they emerge in context, and capture the perceived value inherent in the emergent process of individual’s making sense of their experiences. Additionally, my positioning assumed the ‘social’ as being inseparable from the ‘individual’ construction of reality, so gathering views from multiple persons in the social context of each case was seen to clarify the perceived value to students of the placement experience within the contexts where the cases were researched.

This epistemological view suggests that interpretation becomes more plausible by dialoguing between the ‘whole’ and the ‘parts’ of the cases. This ‘hermeneutic’ form of interpretation has its roots in what Alvesson and Sköldberg (2007) refer to as ‘alethic’ hermeneutics, referring to uncovering something hidden (Heidegger, 1959, p.102). The strong promotion of activity by university networks without providing any substantial empirical basis provides clear evidence that there are many hidden areas of value in social entrepreneurship work placements.

From this alethic hermeneutic view, understanding a research problem is a dialogic between the researcher’s ‘pre-understanding’ of a phenomenon and the ‘understanding’ that develops through the research process, which recurs in a cyclical fashion and relies on ‘texts.’ Texts can be considered meaningful signs which can be literal (written or spoken words) or figurative (social acts). Deriving meaning from texts is seen as a consensus of interpretations being interpreted as close as possible to the texts.

From this stance, there is not a ‘correspondence’ between the conceptions of a researcher (subject) and his or her interpretation of something occurring outside the researcher (object), i.e. logic of validation. Instead, there arises a logic of argumentation, which begins from the researchers’ own ‘pre-understanding’ of the research problem and associated texts, and develops through a ‘dialectic between distance and familiarity’ (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009), terms that refer
to the closeness of the text to the researched case. For example, a ‘familiar’ text would be a first hand account and a ‘distant’ text a historian’s interpretation of the account. According to a synthesis laid forth by Alvesson & Sköldeberg, (ibid, p.99) central hermeneutic features are, ‘on the one hand, the dialectics between the interpretation of the part and the whole, and on the other hand the particular outlook of the interpreter in addition to the character of the matter interpreted.’ This approach creates a dialogic space for convergence and divergence of texts to arise and allows the researcher to be critically reflective of his or her own understandings of texts.

As an interpretive researcher taking a hermeneutic approach, I aimed to be forthright with my own ‘pre-understanding’ of ‘value to students’ in the context of cross-cultural work placements before the study. This ‘pre-understanding’ informed a theoretical framework and was largely influenced by my intellectual knowledge base and relevant contextual experience, which included broad reading across education, moral philosophy, economics, psychology, sociology, and management literatures; ten years of experience living and working abroad, including three years in a developing country; and experience as a university student both in the US and UK.

Developing the Value to Selves Framework

The ‘Value to Selves’ theory I developed provided a solution to exploring the individual that simultaneously seeks self-interest, others-regarding, and community belonging. In other words, because social entrepreneurship requires thinking from each core belief system to create value to students, each ‘self’ was theorised to develop through a social entrepreneurship placement, resulting in a holistic development experience.

These combinations would include several more ‘potential’ areas of ‘value’ of social entrepreneurship engagement than determined by the extant literature. From a hermeneutic view, therefore, the Value to Selves framework would ‘penetrate’ and ‘expand’ the interpretation to further imagination and application (Madison, 1988, p.29-30).
To create a framework based on this theoretical notion, I began by aggregating all of the types of value that I could think of and split them into three dialectical categories based on core concepts found in the aforementioned schools of thought: instrumental, ideological, and relational value to a constructed self, or the ‘Me, I, and We’ Selves. I then tested the framework through a multi-rater review approach by incorporating perspectives from four current UK and US practitioners and twelve students who had recently been on placements. These ‘texts’ were seen as contextually relevant through their experiential familiarity (having similarly-designed placements to cases). In the following table, additions or edits from the 16 reviewers have been marked bold according to their source: S (student) and E (expert/faculty):

Table 1: Student Value to Selves framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theoretical Frames</th>
<th>Potential Narratives of Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The ‘me’ frame</strong></td>
<td><em>Instrumental/Practical</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do I benefit personally?</td>
<td>• Career aspirations (employability)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internalization of the reified competitive market system (self-interest discourse)</td>
<td>• Economic value (sustainability)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belonging, self-esteem, achievement needs (personal development discourse)</td>
<td>• Competencies/skills (leadership/research)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Ego-needs/drives (personality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Self-discovery/fulfilment (egoist/‘adventure junkie’) S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Political strategy (character image)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Grades (academic expectations) E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The ‘I’ frame</strong></td>
<td><em>Transcendental/Ideological</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why am I doing this? What do I believe? What makes this activity meaningful in my life?</td>
<td>• Personal/community/cultural beliefs (deontology/religious/parents &amp; family) S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral philosophy</td>
<td>• Personal histories/overcoming (virtue/religious/critical formative experiences – critical incidents) S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemological subject</td>
<td>• Ideals (better world narratives/teleology)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructed self</td>
<td>• Forlornness/pessimism (existential)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Spiritual/experiential connectedness (numinous/transformational)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The ‘we’ frame</strong></td>
<td><em>Social/Relational</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How is my social world being (re)constructed through this experience?</td>
<td>• Experiences with peers in the same programme (bonding through task/fate interdependencies?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Peer interaction/study teams/group dynamics
Cross-disciplinary interaction
Class interaction (students/beneficiaries)
Faculty/student interaction
Cross-cultural interaction
Gender/age interaction

- Experiences with social enterprise staff E
- Experiences with beneficiaries
- Experiences with faculty/advisors
- Experiences with a foreign culture S (intercultural competence/communication)
- Experiences with an older person/inspiring person met during the placement S

The first process in developing the framework was to build on this previous knowledge and experience to develop a theory that could account for emergent concepts, contradictions, and surprises in individual cases yet potentially identify patterns of value across cases. This accorded with both the hermeneutic approach and established case method, in that Yin (2013) states case study ‘benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis’ and the hermeneutic approach benefits from an articulated ‘pre-understanding’ of researcher views.

Within this exploratory frame, for each case there would be potentially unlimited variables; on the other hand, from an interpretivist standpoint there would be risks in interpreting value too narrowly. The Value to Selves framework therefore limited the amount of variables – so that data could be triangulated across cases and over time – but remained broad enough to consider alternative interpretations as case data emerged through thematic coding. Other aspects of the case study design allowed for multiple methods beyond survey or structured questioning, opening the possibility for further development or elimination of the Value to Selves construct through the ‘pre-understanding to understanding’ interpretation. Thus, the ‘potential’ narratives of value in the right column of the framework provided cross-case comparative elements, whereas the questions in the left column opened the inquiry to the individual case.

**Multiple case study**

The ‘I, Me, and We’ frames of value provided a heuristic of ‘pre-understanding’ meant to assist the researcher in exploring value to student cases. In order to
understand what the perceived value to students in work placements, this inquiry aimed to be *descriptive* of the intervention and the real-world context where it occurred, and was used to *enlighten* situations in which the intervention being evaluated had no clear set of outcomes. Both of these evaluative goals were suggestive of multiple case studies (Yin, 2013).

Yin (2013, p.16-17) defined a case study both by its *scope* and its methodological *features* as an empirical inquiry that:

- ‘Investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the ‘case’) in-depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between context and phenomenon may not be clearly evident.’
- ‘Copes with a technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables than data points, and as one result relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis.’

A multiple case study is considered a multiplication of cases that fit the above scope and features, and the evidence is considered more compelling overall (Herriott & Firestone, 1983 cited in Yin, 2013) than in single studies. Therefore, when including a triangulation approach with theoretical propositions such as a ‘Value to Selves’ categorisation, the large amounts of data from multiple sources in single cases is reduced and enables cross-case comparison – when cases are sufficiently similar to warrant a cross-case analysis. These cases could be compared based on the theoretical framework of value detailed in the previous section and substantial ‘bindingly’ across cases discussed below on page 64.
The following flowchart adapted from Yin (2013) shows the process for my exploratory, multiple case study:

![Multiple case study flow chart](image)

**Figure 6: Multiple case study flow chart (adapted from Yin, 2013)**

This study is based on a case study methodology that implies a form of triangulation (where data is collected from multiple sources and aims at corroborating the same finding). Yin (2013, p.121) refers to this as a ‘corroboratory strategy.’ Some of the more common methods include time, space, method, and perspective triangulation (Patton, 2002). My case studies were able to benefit from all four.

**Multiple triangulation**

Yin (2013) indicates that case studies enable the triangulation of multiple sources of data within a case, and case data is often strengthened through a multiple case comparison. As this dissertation looks at cases where the intervention (placement) included international travel and multiple stakeholder respondents for each case, the research design allowed a further step into reliability: multiple triangulation. Therefore, the unique case ‘bindings’ of the sample programmes in this study afforded opportunities to triangulate across ‘space,’ strengthening the findings by offering perspectives from students in different countries and different universities within the same country; to triangulate across ‘time,’ giving student perspectives from before, during, and after the intervention at a six-month interval (so the student had enough time after the intervention to make a reflective evaluation of any effects the intervention had back in their home country); to triangulate across ‘method,’ creating supporting evidence within cases to substantiate claims from different
vantage points; and to triangulate across ‘perspective,’ involving different stakeholders such as faculty and hosting organisations to give their view on the value to students of the intervention.

**Qualitative Longitudinal Research (QLR) Approach**

The distinguishing feature of a QLR study is that ‘temporality’ is deliberately designed into the research process, which makes change a central focus of analytic attention (Thomson, Plumridge, & Holland, 2003, p.185). Thomson (2007, p.571) finds distinct value for researchers combining QLR and multiple case study approaches, privileging the individual aspect of the longitudinal case while simultaneously privileging the social and spatial contexts of cases by ‘bringing case histories into conversation with each other’. Although in anthropological studies longitudinal refers to several years, Young, Savola, & Phelps (1991) argue that QLR in the social sciences should involve at least two, ideally three waves of data collection over at least a year. In the field of education, a minimum QLR study looking at the intervention of a semester course lasts about nine months (Saldana, 2003); however, as noted in other longitudinal studies, intense study abroad tends to affect individuals their entire lives (Paige et al., 2010).

Primary data was collected for this study before, during, and after the field experience at five distinct intervals spanning 18 months. As seen from the timeline below, data collection extended as far as one year after the placements, allowing sufficient time to identify important and beneficial aspects that carried over into student lives after they settled back into ‘Western’ society. Regarding perspective changes, the QLR approach allowed the study to progress in two ways: first, to allow for follow-up with participants after new inquiries arose during case analysis (Eisenhardt, 1989); and second, to venture beyond the elusive reliability of ‘self-report’ to include behaviour changes directly resulting from perspective changes reported during placements, such as new career trajectories.
Choosing Cases

Once I formed the initial framework and research question I approached four existing programmes that organized students into Programmes of interns. Research was conducted with only two programmes due to potential data overload. A *theoretical sampling* approach was taken, which focuses efforts on ‘theoretically useful cases’ — i.e. those that replicate or extend theory by filling conceptual categories’ (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.533). Cases were defined as individual students within the current Programme of a specific type of cross-cultural work placement programme. Each case in both programmes was expected to deliver on a unique social business project in contexts with very few resources, even when cases were generally unknowledgeable of relevant practices in the cultures or work paradigms involved. Therefore, programme design logics and student cases provided conceptual categories salient to the ‘embryonic’ discourse on social entrepreneurship (Ashoka U, 2014).

Although the majority of university cross-sector partnership initiatives connected to Social Entrepreneurship or Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) are connected to business students (Miller et al., 2012), I deliberately sought programs open to students from a variety of disciplinary majors and designed for non-business majors. First, I did not want to inadvertently reinforce the dominant idea that ‘social entrepreneurship’ programs should be confined to business schools when there is evidence to support the idea of ‘social entrepreneurship’ becoming an interdisciplinary phenomenon in many UK and US universities (Ashoka U, 2014; HEFCE, 2012; Lange, 2013). Second, none of the student participants from either Programme majored in business, but the placement tasks would be business-related, which meant that interns would probably be thrown into work experiences outside of their domain. My intuition

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**Figure 7: Longitudinal data collection intervals**

- 1-2 months before placement (in student's home country)
- 2 months during placement (in host country)
- 1-2 months after placement (in student's home country)
- 6 months post-placement (around graduation)
- 8-12 months after placement (post-graduation)
was that working with vastly different cultures and disciplines might unearth important areas of value unknown to the individual cases before the placement and underrepresented in empirical studies.

Programmes were also approached because they were located in the UK and in the Northern California area. In both contexts there was a concentration of intellectual leadership and rapidly emerging interest in social enterprise, so these cases were likely to offer exploratory data from different national contexts regarding an emerging social movement being embraced by university education (Ashoka U, 2014; Kickul, Terjesen, et al., 2012; Universities UK, 2012). As a result, these cases were located in environments where programs using this terminology would likely appear.

In my study, the intervention defined at the programme level was the same across cases – namely, a two-month work placement working with social innovation. Both of the programmes chosen had clearly-defined educational goals and constraints that were the same for all students within the Programme, allowing for ‘between case’ comparison within each programme. Although individual cases were unlikely to be generalisable – both because of their many variables but also because cases were found in prestigious universities with the requisite funding and global networks to produce such co-curricular programs – transferable themes could be identified when replicating features of value that appear across cases. Furthermore, clear ‘case bindings’ (Yin, 2013) allowed for the cross-case analysis to extend beyond individual cases or programmes.

**Binding Cases**

The research questions were refined to the cases and the cases in turn bounded by the question particulars and rarity of their implementation. According to the literature on qualitative inquiry, cases could be ‘bound’ by: time and place (Creswell & Clark, 2010); time and activity (Stake, 1994); and definition and context (Miles & Huberman, 1994), therefore the data collection methods could be simultaneously employed across cases and provide some areas for later comparative analysis and refinement of the literature review. The
similarities of the cases in time, student demographics, and activity provided two broad categories of case bindings:

- **Applicant and Programme Boundaries**: competitive, fully-funded, 6-8 week, summer, project-based, sponsored work placements (unpaid but including stipends) for upper division fluent English-speaking undergraduates/first year Master’s students that aimed to create a lasting social impact through linking academic skills and practical value to extremely vulnerable communities.

- **Economic Empowerment Partnerships**: university departments (not career services) partnered with a privately-funded social benefit organisation in a low-income economy for students to complete specific action research projects aimed at creating long-term, or ‘sustainable’ value to the students, the organisation, and the organisation’s beneficiaries.

The relevant applicant characteristics across cases were: 1) mid-upper division students from all disciplines who showed evidence of: 2) good academic standing 3) teamwork/leadership skills 4) previous community service experience and 5) an interest in international development. These requirements also anticipated data collection and analysis by identifying a given range of experiences of the student participants.

Similarly, economic empowerment through ‘social entrepreneurship’ featured in both programs along with the value for students to learn about socio-economics, particularly in the developing world. Without the ethos of socio-economics (discussed in the literature review) that could be practically transferred into social entrepreneurship models (Minard, 2012), the case analysis would overlook an essential aspect of exploring the cases: the programme offering and student value systems. Although each case in my study had a quite different privately funded hosting partner and project goal, the programme documentation in both Programmes indicated forms of **social benefit through economic empowerment** as the paradigm that the student would be working within. Data collection and analysis therefore included this aspect of the experience.
Collecting Data

Case studies can be seen as distinct from other forms of qualitative inquiry in their necessity of defining a case, which assumes certain constructs such as ‘individuals.’ My research question aimed to capture perspectives of ‘individuals’ before, during, and after a two-month intense experiential learning programme. The sample consisted of institutional documentation, and perspectives from students, faculty, and Hosting Organisation Representatives. The data collection methods were applied consistently in each case and include documentary evidence, survey, interview, and case follow-up email and social network communication. Exploration was mediated through sub-questions. An overview of the actual data collected can be seen in the table on the following page:
Table 2: Data collection timeline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>12/12</th>
<th>01-03/13</th>
<th>04-05/13</th>
<th>05-06/13</th>
<th>06-08/13</th>
<th>09-10/13</th>
<th>03-04/14</th>
<th>06-08/14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research questions</td>
<td>Framework development</td>
<td>Case selection</td>
<td>Data collection protocol</td>
<td>Pre-Survey = 7/13 (Progr. 1)</td>
<td>Pre-survey = 11/15 (Progr. 2)</td>
<td>Published expert interview</td>
<td>Faculty interviews = 2 (Progr. 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty interviews = 4 (Progr. 1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Individual student interviews = 6/13 (Progr. 1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-survey = 6/13 (Progr. 1)</td>
<td>Post-survey = 6/13 (Progr. 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics = 13/13 (Progr. 1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Individual student interviews = 6/15 (Progr. 2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6-month after student interviews = 6/13 (Progr. 1)</td>
<td>6-month after student interviews = 6/15 (Progr. 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics = 15/15 (Progr. 2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Refining interview process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Respondent perspectives on case</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Collecting documentary evidence

| Student profiles, Programme description, University strategic goals |
| Syllabi, social network posts |
| Emails |
| Faculty publications, student assignments, student blogs |

**Documentary Evidence**

Programme, staff, and student documents were collected throughout the data collection year, and began shortly after the theoretical framework was built and cases were chosen. Documents, such as student profiles; programme previous
year programme reports; student written assignments before, during, and after placement in the form of essays, blogs, presentations and dissertations; websites and web archives; programme syllabi and the like. As Yin (2013) notes, however, documentary analysis has to be taken in conjunction with a range of other simultaneous factors. Documentary evidence can be seen as purposeful, with an agenda and an audience other than the researchers (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007); therefore triangulation with other primary sources was built into the research design. For the student self-reports documentary evidence was considered in the form of a relevant student text (written or spoken) created during the research collection period. For the faculty, programme, and company data, documentary evidence was considered as a form of supplement to the context and case descriptions.

**Survey**

Approximately eight students in each programme completed the survey instruments as indicated in Table 3. By providing student participants with a survey that asked them to rank the importance and benefit of the placements on an exhaustive list of possibilities, comparative data could be captured before and after the placement that included a consistent line of questioning at two different specified points in time using the same method. Inclusion of a survey would also support feedback instrument development where applications are transferable. A pilot survey was created through Google Docs and tested online by the same 12 student reviewers that tested the conceptual framework. Adaptations were made, consent forms signed, and I was on-site to introduce the study to Programme Two and administer the before placement surveys.

Three steps were taken with Programme One surveys. First, local research assistants (from different local universities in the US and the UK) were hired and given a paper version of the pre-placement survey that mirrored the online survey. Second, the researcher made a one-minute ‘introduction to the project’ video and arranged for it to be shown and the survey to be offered to students at the orientation (Appendix A). The online survey included a link to the introductory video, a reminder of the ethics particulars, and the expected time commitment.
Once the research assistants collected the signed informed consent forms and surveys, these data were scanned and sent over a secure internet connection. I then entered the paper survey data into the Excel spreadsheet and had them double-checked for accuracy by an independent secretary. I emailed the post-survey both directly to participants and indirectly through asking the respective programme coordinator at their university to forward the request. In every case, the survey was sent and completed one month before, and one month after placement with a week of variance.

The survey consisted of closed-questions to capture demographic and historical information about the student participant, open-ended questions that could be elaborated on in an in-depth interview, and ranking questions developed from the conceptual framework. This ‘time-series’ approach was also used with ‘during’ and ‘after’ interviews to some extent, but the key paradigmatic implication of the survey was the ‘pre-placement’ rank order items reviewed by field experts and the pilot Programme. Having hypothetical items on the survey reduced the exploratory value of the survey but narrowed the interpretive framework to a theoretical point where other methods could feasibly triangulate valuable responses. The post-survey therefore supported or challenged the other sources of data as well as the pre-survey expectations.

*Rank order of perceived value*

The main part of the survey consisted of two ‘grid’ style ranking questions that built upon the conceptual framework to assess the why question through *perceived benefits and other motivations*. An ‘other’ option provided for items not on the list but considered by the student, and a ‘no benefits’ option added that allowed for a type of null hypothesis concerning the conceptual framework. Rank order items were listed randomly in a ‘grid’ due to the assumption that the researcher’s imposition on vertical item ordering would create an unnecessary bias. By ranking items of ‘perceived personal benefit’ from 1-5 on scale a change in perspective of what is most important to the individual case as well as increases or decreases in the difference of importance would be indicated. Example items below show how this worked in the analysis stage:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey item ‘perceived benefits’</th>
<th>Before Rank</th>
<th>After Rank</th>
<th>Change (range)</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improved job chances after graduation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel good about myself</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge and skills not covered in the classroom</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>negative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whether items were positive or negative only indicate a change. To be corroborated, the change would have to be indicated in at least one other primary source – collected at a different time and through a different method. The exact same procedure was used to track changes in motivation or ‘reasons’ the student would/did participate. Example items below show how this worked in the analysis stage:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey item ‘perceived motivators’</th>
<th>Before Rank</th>
<th>After Rank</th>
<th>Change (range)</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To help address a social problem I feel passionate about</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn about other cultures/travel abroad</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Learning by doing’ is the best way to learn</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>negative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last question of the survey, concerning relationships, explored how the placement created relational space particularly in regards to bonding with faculty and peers, which was mentioned in the pilot group interviews as a valuable programme feature. Beneficiary and Hosting Organisation Representative relationships were not included here because student contact with these stakeholders varied for each project whereas peer and faculty relationships were consistent across programs. Where students did answer these text field questions the data was coded and used similarly to rank order items: to discover, corroborate or challenge data from other sources.
During survey

A second form of survey I chose was two emailed short-answer questions to student participants. These were designed to stimulate thinking and schemata of the case subjects ‘during’ the first half of placement in relation to my research questions. Below are the two open-ended questions:

- What’s your opinion about the support you received from the university and the social enterprise before getting to Country X? (in the sense of what helped and what was unhelpful to your learning)
- Could you share anything that has changed about what or who you value since you have been in the field?

During surveys were emailed strategically at the mid-point of the placement (4th week) in order to prompt communication with students for potential interviews and simultaneously to capture perspectives of non-interview participants. They were also included in the coding and triangulation of data as unique ‘during’ sources.

Interviews

Faculty

After the pilot and before collecting student data I completed four individual faculty interviews at the US campus of Programme Two. Later in the year I conducted two Skype and three face-to-face interviews with three US and two UK faculty from Programme One, totalling about 12 hours of faculty input. For both Programmes, I was able to interview the faculty Programme Founder who was no longer managing the programme. Faculty time constraints, or the faculty member not seeing the relevance of a question, led to revision and minimization of the semi-structured element. At one point during an interview, when recalling what he had witnessed in a certain part of Africa on a similar project, a faculty member wept. It was difficult to go back to the interview questions so I abruptly moved on to consoling the interviewee. In most cases the interview gave both supportive and critical perspectives. Some of the structured questions I asked all faculty from both Programmes:
• What is your role in the work placement programme?
• How are students prepared and supported before, during, and after the placement?
• What do students report to you as beneficial about the placement?
• What do you feel is the most important thing learned by students on this fellowship?

The first four on-site faculty interviews provided much of the context around how the early programme vision became a reality, supplemented the documentary evidence, and enabled me to include perspectives on the meaning of the fellowship from key stakeholders. It also gave me confidence when approaching faculty, all at elite universities and highly regarded in their fields, to have frank and open discussions about the programs. In all of my faculty interviews the same format was followed: semi-structured, individual interview with between five and ten open-ended questions. On two occasions, a faculty member requested questions in advance, which were provided two weeks before the interview. At the end of faculty interviews, I always indicated closure with this question ‘Tell me one word or phrase that best describes the value of this fellowship to students’ which appears in the ‘faculty snapshot’ section of the Findings.

Hosting Organisation Representatives

I completed Hosting Organisation Rep interviews with one Programme One interview via Skype (India) and two Programme Two interviews via Skype (Uganda and Zambia) and another Programme Two interview face-to-face in the US, totalling about 5 hours of Hosting Organisation Rep input. During the first interview, shortly after the placements, the Programme Two representative was very open about the programme and particularly candid about its weaknesses. I made sure subsequent interviews with representatives built on this openness so I could get a broad perspective including the issues that these programs create as well as solve.

All of the representatives talked openly and had different roles in the organisations, so provided a range of examples and perspectives on value. Although Programme One was a large multinational and their coordination team did respond to my emails positively, I was only able to get an in-depth interview
with one company representative. However, the respondent was a senior level manager and well-known Psychiatrist who was reported by faculty and programme coordinators as quite engaged with the internships. Where possible, I used a technique for interviewing more senior people last, suggested in the literature (Cohen et al., 2007) as a way of sharply coming into the situation with poise. His wisdom and experience was revered throughout the company (and the world) and he had managed the field placement of several interns, including two from the current Programme under study. Questions for all representatives were categorised into questions about the individual, the value that the interns bring to the organisation, and the student experience. Structured questions included:

- What is your role in the organisation, and in relation to the placement?
- What is particularly special about this fellowship/internship that makes it beneficial to students?
- What value do the interns bring to the company (or corporation)?
- What do you plan to do with the results of their project work?
- How are students supported before, during, and after their placement (both by the university and the hosting company)?

In all of my organisational representative interviews the same format was followed: semi-structured, individual interview with between five and ten open-ended questions. One of the differences between these interviews and the others, however, was scheduling. Only the first interview was scheduled. The representatives were often so busy that I just had to ‘catch them’ by calling between meetings or intense travel schedules. Sometimes it took months of trying at different times and going through several middle-men, but respondents seemed at ease during these ‘on-the-spot’ interviews when I finally connected. I always asked respondents first (after repeating the confidentiality statement) what the respondent’s time availability was for the interview, which helped me to prioritise questions and indicate my flexibility. Another important contrast between these and the faculty is that two of the respondents were close in age to the students and as a result provided important insights to the context and value of the placements not captured by the older generation participants.
Students

These consisted of semi-structured individual and group interviews totalling about 21 hours of input from 16 cases and 4 hours of input from 12 students in the pilot. For the pilot I held four separate dinner sessions with 12 recent student graduates of Programme Two, who all signed ethical release forms previous to the study. Interview questions were designed in advance through analysing the available documentary evidence and adapting the questions after discussion with my supervisors. A descriptive coding principle was used with the transcripts as well as documentary evidence from both Programmes (blogs, programme syllabi) and analysis aimed to show alternative explanations or additional metrics needed to substantiate a case. Although these pilot group interviews consisted of teammates who worked on the same projects, this was not necessarily the case for the post-placement interviews conducted as part of the main study. Beneficence was always a priority, and adapting to students’ real-world schedules meant remaining flexible.

Structured Questions included:

- What do you feel is the educational value of the placement for students?
- Did the placement experience change your feelings about your future? In what ways? What about the future of society?
- Tell me about the relationships you built while on the placement.
- Here’s a list of some aspects of value of SE placement that I collated from your blogs/reflections. Which would you consider the most important on that list and why?

Once the pilot stage was complete and the pre-placement survey was distributed, I submitted the two-question ‘during’ survey (previous section) and created several interview questions for ‘during’ the placement. These were used for both during and post-placement interviews. Other structured questions were developed from the student’s profile, submitted reflection assignments written during the programme, or used to expound on specific survey items. Unstructured questions either asked for clarification or emerged directly from the interaction as important to the interviewee. Here is a concise list of structured ‘during’ questions used across case interviews:
Why did you come onto this placement?

(if this item ranked high on pre-survey) Which problem do you feel passionate about?

What are some important things you’ve learned on the placement about yourself? About others? About other cultures?

Tell me about the support (before, during, after) the placement?

Was there any important relationships built or changed while on the placement? If so, can you tell me about it?

Has your perception of your own culture changed since you’ve been there on the ground?

Has this placement changed your views about Corporate Social Responsibility or Social Enterprise? If so, how?

What’s been the most beneficial to you about this experience? Most challenging?

Minor adaptations were necessary for post-interviews, such as using past clauses to represent the completed action. The final question in each student interview was: ‘Is there anything that we haven’t covered and that you would like to add?’ Which gave freedom to the participant to elaborate on any important aspect of the programme, and in turn is included in the coding and triangulation analysis procedures.

**Analysing data**

Through an iterative process an analysis structure was created around the proposition that a change in what was perceived about the programme as ‘important’ and ‘beneficial’ to students would represent identifiable patterns of perceived value across individual cases. These could then be thematically synthesised into transferable meta-categories. A theoretical framework guided the longitudinal element (particularly the ‘before and after placement’ student perspectives) but the context-embedded experience of individuals required a constant ‘conversation’ between the emergent data and myself emerging as a doctoral level researcher. A ‘divergent technique’ (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.533) was used to search for patterns across cases. This technique was seen to ‘force investigators to look beyond initial impressions and see evidence thru multiple lenses’ (Eisenhardt, ibid).
In my study, thematic analysis of multiple stakeholder interviews provided this divergence. These measures would expand categories and diverge from the theoretical framework into new areas of perceived value, and only after thematic and content analysis would the ‘I, Me, and We’ frames be matched onto the data where applicable. With this logic, I could use the theoretical framing as a guide to creating specific questions on the surveys, and then match specific codes, themes and patterns that emerged directly from the respondents when they clearly fit the existing categories through thematic and content similarity. When data emerged that did not match the ‘I, Me, We’ categories, it was simply added as a new code and listed amongst the existing codes (Appendix B).

It benefitted me to use the following procedures to reduce my own interpretive subjectivity and simultaneously enhance my understanding during data collection stages:

- **Conducted prima facie analysis after each interview** by transcribing and proofreading the interview scripts myself. This self-editing method was time-consuming (Note: over 200 hours of billable time, minimised to 100 through my own Voice Recognition Software technique) but allowed me early in the project to: reflect on each interview, improve my questioning techniques, identify lapses in text that needed to be clarified with respondents, combine my memos of the interview data with field notes, and mark key text passages for later coding purposes. This provided an ‘overlap’ of data collection and analysis argued by Eisenhardt (1989) as valuable for case study researchers.

- **Built on each previous student interview** by asking subsequent interviewees whether they had experienced similar phenomenon, and by reviewing my own unstructured questions for anomalies between interviews. After all ‘during’ interviews were completed, I descriptively coded my unstructured questions for later comparison and critically analysed them to ensure that no ‘leading’ information – specific information that might guide the respondent’s answers towards an expected response – was used in my questions.

- **Wrote up cases individually** based only on the evidence from that case. This technique was suggested in the literature (Yin, 2013) and by my
supervisors so that cross-case analysis would rely on facts from individual cases and come ‘from the ground up.’ This procedure kept the framework as a guide to, rather than determinant of, the cross-case analysis (see Appendix C for an example case).

Before embarking on coding individual cases, I organised the data by case and wrote descriptions for two individual cases – one from each programme, representing both genders (example case report in Appendix D). One offered the highest number of primary sources (US2S6, nine sources, over 100 pages of text) and the other the least amount (US1S1, four sources, eight pages of text). I designed this initial inquiry during the data collection stage to gauge whether a case with minimal primary sources could provide comparable thick description (Geertz, 1973; McCloskey, 1988) to a case with abundant sources, thus balancing participant viewpoints equally in the cross-case analysis. I felt that setting a minimum amount of text strengthened the ‘representativeness’ of the cases in the analysis.

Based on the minimum amount of text needed for a reasonable description, I then pruned the data collected from all participants parsimoniously: Cases were included in analysis only when they could provide (a) sufficient primary data for a thick description comparative to other cases within the set, and (b) time, space, and method triangulation within the case. Primary student data was considered sufficient for ‘thick description’ and ‘multiple triangulation’ when it met these four minimum case criteria: it was captured across two time intervals, two national contexts, using two different methods, and enabled thick description (comprised of at least eight one-sided pages of text). As a result, seven cases were pruned from the analysis procedures, leaving a total of 15 student cases.

This ‘rule of parsimony’ (lex parsimoniae) meant that what individual students found to be ‘important’ and ‘beneficial’ to the placements could only be represented in relation to the individuals who actively participated in the study. Despite this ‘selection bias’ typical to voluntary research, this project took an additional step and employed the approach of perspective triangulation across stakeholder groups to present a holistic view of the programmes, participants,
and outcomes. Thematic analysis was the main coding procedure employed and findings were organised thematically (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Subsequent to thematic analysis, content analysis was employed to identify key terminology used by stakeholder groups that could clarify or perhaps challenge thematic content.

Further measures were taken in writing up the Findings to ensure ethical fairness to participant voices in the data. Specific measures included: multiple perspectives of the same event or code were taken into account and then included in the presented quotes and aggregate dimensions (diversity); all stakeholders were quoted in the findings, with paraphrase and summary aiming for exposure of all stakeholders (equality); and enough of the quote was used to give the reader an idea of the speech context (intentionality).

Revisiting research questions

Question #1: What do stakeholders perceive as important and beneficial to non-management UK and US university students of involvement in enterprise-based work placements focused on social entrepreneurship projects in developing countries?

The overarching research question (Question 1) was developed through the pre-understanding process and refined during the design to include three sub-questions.

Research Question #1, Sub-Question #1: From an Institutional Stakeholder Perspective: What value do associated placement representatives, faculty, and the institutional documentation suggest that students obtain from the placements?

For this question ‘In Vivo’ coding – a grounded theory technique that signifies the coded data in the terminology of the respondent – was used to code faculty, Hosting Organisation Reps, and institutional documentation. These ‘emergent’ codes were analysed again to see whether they ‘fit’ with the statements from
other respondents in the same stakeholder group (i.e. faculty with faculty), and then cross-checked with similar codes to be refined or expanded (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Codes were then analysed across respondents and included in the Findings when a code was replicated by at least two faculty sources, or by at least two Hosting Organisation Reps. These replicated codes were then synthesised into the broader theme supported by the coded value item. When replicated codes could not fit broader themes, they stood alone as new categories. Where possible, quotes which represented several codes within the theme were chosen to represent that theme in the findings. These were then minimised to meet the word count limitations based on specific inclusion criteria: diversity of stakeholder perspectives (as many respondents as possible) and fairness to the speaker’s intent. When a single quote could not be found to fully represent the theme to the reader, two quotes were included.

**Sub-Question #2: What do students claim to be important and beneficial before, during, and after their placement?**

Analysis of this question was divided into three procedures: thematic analysis segmented by time interval, multi-rater coding, and replication frequency.

*Thematic analysis segmented by time interval:* All primary student data was thematically analysed (Clarke & Braun, 2013) first ‘within case’ and then ‘between cases’ by Programme and then ‘across cases’ with the entire sample. ‘Before placement’ pre-ordinate codes were constructed based on themes both originating in my Value to Selves Framework and additionally added through the pilot study and thematic analysis of student bios and personal profiles. These themes were then incorporated into the survey items. As part of my pruning process, only the five highest-ranked survey items across both Programmes and the emergent themes identified in open-ended survey questions were considered for each student in the final presentation of findings. ‘During placement’ surveys and interviews were organised and coded by case thematically. ‘Post-Placement’ surveys were administered within one month of the end of each placement, and used the same analysis method as the Pre-Survey. Further documentary evidence was collected (blogs, reflection essays,
assignments, email interactions) during and after the placement for the following six months. On-site student interviews were then conducted at all five university locations six months after placement and coded thematically. Overlapping concepts were merged and duplicates removed.

**Multi-rater coding:** A random sample of 30 longer quotes from 30 student primary case sources was given to a recent graduate from a Scottish university who had (within the last two years) been on a volunteer internship to a low-income context in Africa as part of her Bachelor degree. She was not given codes but rather asked to code the sources emergently for ‘value.’ Her independently coded samples were similar to several of the broad themes I had constructed and the ones she reported from her own ‘developing world’ work placement: ‘real life experience,’ ‘personal responsibility/development,’ and ‘reflection/confirmation of career choices.’

**Replication frequency:** All codes were numbered and appear in the findings chronologically as well as in descending order by cross-case replication frequency. An example of the range of reported value items coded for each piece of student text with a short explanation of reasons for each code being used can be found in Appendix D.

**Sub-Question #3: If students change their perspectives as a result of the placement, what do they see as important and beneficial over time?**

This question began with the conditional ‘if’ as a sort of ‘null hypothesis’ and inferred that collecting and merging data ‘over time’ would in fact provide representative evidence of student perspective change. **Thematic analysis** was used inductively to replicate codes across student cases. A minimum of two data points where the theme was captured and coded ensured both time and method triangulation, because different methods were used at different data collection points.

To present the themes, I first synthesised codes into second order categories by their framework category, then by their relation to each other within that
category. For example, ‘Self-discovery’ included the codes for ‘self-discovery’ ‘self-confidence’ and ‘developmental space’ because in the data, having ‘developmental space’ oftentimes resulted in a ‘self-discovery’ (i.e. becoming conscious about a personal attribute). This oftentimes led to a feeling of greater ‘self-confidence’ in venturing forward into the unknown future. I then ensured the voice of all cases was fairly included, included a range of quotes from during and after the placement, and chose two quotes to present in the table.

Question #2 emerged from the data during the early processes of collection, when it became clear to me that participants were mostly talking about the ‘value’ of the placements in relation to students changing perspectives on everything from capitalism to their own career trajectories toward or away from development. Because data and documentary evidence was captured about each case longitudinally and across perspective, the analysis could identify patterns of specific antecedents which seem to create value to students. This, in turn, provided a set of recommendations for practitioners.

Research Question #2: If students change their perspectives as a result of the placement, what contextual and intervening variables appear to influence the change?

To answer the previous research questions, cases were included in analysis only when they could provide sufficient primary data for a thick description comparative to other cases within the set, and time, space, and method triangulation within the case. To answer this question, and consistent with Research Question #1 procedures, qualitative longitudinal data was investigated to identify influences on perspective change over time and space. Data were thematically analysed based on specific analysis criteria: (a) qualitative change in perspective across primary data sources collected over time and space, and (b) demonstrable effect in behaviour post-placement. Codes were synthesised into second order categories by their relation to each other within an overarching theme and then itemised by theme.
Gaining respondent perspectives on case interpretations

Before interviewing people or collecting course-related documents, strict ethical procedures were followed and informed consent reached in each case. I used the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2011) standards to also inform respondents of their right to read and challenge any of my interpretations before the script would be submitted. This procedure, called ‘respondent validation’ and was seen as a key verification process in educational research (Cohen et al., 2007). Typically this would happen at the write up and revision stage. However, during my data collection period a pilot opportunity for respondent validation presented itself in the ‘respondent perspective on case’ procedure. I had quoted one of my cases in a book chapter that was accepted for publication. I sent the student participant the draft and after a time received a long and detailed commentary and one minor factual correction. The participant’s written articulation was such a valuable supplement to the quoted text it was integrated into the text; so after writing each case I sent each draft to the case participant and ask for comments or challenges to an interpretation.

Ethics

Informed Consent

Participants were all over the age of 18 and fluent in English. They had video as well as a brochure-type overview of the research project, and signed informed consent forms written in plain English before their first interview allowing for full disclosure within the bounds of the study (leaflet in Appendix F). Each respondent was informed at every stage of data collection that: they would have the opportunity to challenge or annotate their interview transcripts before the thesis would be submitted, they could drop out of the study at any time, that this study would attempt to anonymise them and that their continued participation was entirely voluntary. On any online surveys, which were piloted for approximate completion time, a link to the project introductory video (one minute) was included along with an expected completion time for the survey.
Confidentiality and Anonymity

This research project did not seek sensitive data or personal data, except where this information was offered voluntarily by the participant. Names and contact information were stored in a separate location from all other data on an entirely different stationary computer hard drive protected by password. Any follow up session, which would give feedback to faculty and institutions regarding the findings, was categorised by theme rather than individual case. Anonymity was not the preferred approach for case studies (Yin, 2013) due to their complex and rich contexts; however, for this Doctorate of Education study, especially as hosting organisation and university relationships would continue and were somewhat fragile, anonymity was seen as pertinent.

Beneficence

The study was completed with very few interruptions to participants’ daily lives and required no disruption or manipulation of programme variables. The ethics of each step received three-party approval: the participants, the institutional representatives and the respective committee at Exeter. Furthermore, the researcher's interpretation of beneficence went farther than 'do no harm' and included ‘benefiting’ participants, so in addition to the privilege of writing an alternative case description for a doctorate, student participants were offered lunch or dinner in exchange for their final on-site group interview. Pilot interviewees were also offered a meal. Relevant faculty and the hosting organisations were offered an executive summary with recommendations upon conclusion of the project.
Chapter Four: Context

Overview

The two programmes under study are University/Private Partnership schemes designed to advance the student’s understanding of social entrepreneurship in low-income economies through cross-cultural immersion experiences. Programme One has expanded to four universities in the UK and US and does not include an assessment or support structure from the hosting universities. Programme Two makes clear connections between the programme and the University’s religious mission and adds two credit-bearing semesters of academic work surrounding the placements. Both programmes are managed academically through the mode of internship (work placement), with a key feature as the design to bring tangible value to the private hosting organisations, thereby affecting their beneficiaries. Another key feature is that the projects require interdisciplinary work to be effective, so students are challenged to go outside of their disciplinary and campus ‘comfort zones’ simultaneously. The associated hosting organisations work in the ‘third sector’ of social economy, either through a Small to Medium Enterprise (SME) or the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) arm of a large corporation, so both programmes recruit students who have an interest in social development. Both programmes take ‘action research’ type approaches to creating projects suitable for the student, who is primarily a final year, undergraduate level, non-expert, and inexperienced in the developing world. This chapter outlines the two programmes studied, which are in many ways different but share important similarities relevant to the research questions.

Identifying respondent codes

Programme numbers (1&2) were allocated for clarification purposes only and have no bearing on the study. For anonymisation purposes, identifier codes based on similarities were used that allow the reader to identify relevant aspects of the respondents, primarily regarding the multiple institutions where cases
originated. The following identifiers are used in the remainder of the dissertation:

Table 3: Identifier code key

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identifier Codes</th>
<th>Meaning to the study</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UK, US</td>
<td>England and United States, the countries representing the Programmes and place of work/study of respondents</td>
<td>US1S2 = a US-based student from Programme One</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK1, UK2, UK12, US1; US2</td>
<td>Indicates the university represented. ‘US2’ is the single identifier for Programme Two.</td>
<td>UK12F2 = a UK-faculty member who represented both universities in Programme One</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S(n), F(n), HR(n)</td>
<td>Indicates the role of the respondent: i.e. ‘S’ for student; ‘F’ for faculty, and ‘HR’ for hosting organisation representative</td>
<td>US2HR1 = a hosting organisation representative who represented Programme Two</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Contextualising Programme One

There are approximately 15 students per year that participate in Programme One.

The hosting organisation who initiated and maintains Programme One is a large for-profit corporation. The company has been engaging in what are called ‘Corporate Social Responsibility’ activities for over a century and implemented employee welfare programmes well before their counterparts in Western societies. Their founder decided early on that business was inextricable from the communities where it operated, thus community development became the core purpose of the enterprise. His family kept that tradition and today 65.8% of the corporate profits are assigned to various Trusts aimed at directly benefitting local communities. Company values therefore have a direct effect on the types of programmes and partnerships they engage in with UK and US universities, and social entrepreneurship development programmes align strategically with activities the company is already supporting in India.
According to the faculty member who founded the scheme (UK12F2), in 2008 this large multinational corporation began discussions with several UK universities with their intent to establish:

‘an eight week internship programme in India working on social entrepreneurship projects and particularly designed for students who had not been to India before, because the philosophy that they were working with was that there were lots of stereotypes about India and unless people had actually visited India they wouldn’t really know how to separate these stereotypes from the reality.’ (UK12F2)

The initial UK university chosen to set up the programme was already in an advantageous position to win the contract because of their status as a world-leading research university, but also because the Dean of the Business School had an excellent reputation and strong connections concerning Indian business (UK12F2). Furthermore, the University boasted experience starting social entrepreneurship and particularly community entrepreneurship programmes which corresponded to the types of programme desired.

According to UK12F2, a further challenge occurred: ‘It was a University wide scheme. So it wasn’t just for the business school and we then had to put together a programme that would be designed so that students who had no experience of India could go to India and embrace the environment that they were working in.’ So she set off to India to get first-hand experience of the firm’s social entrepreneurship initiatives and upon return developed a programme that could support students from across disciplines. This included one session a week for four weeks to inform students about India, social entrepreneurship, and the particular form of research work expected of students called ‘participatory rural appraisal.’

Since that time, however, the programme has broadened out to include many types of projects connected to ‘Corporate Sustainability,’ and most interns do not currently receive pre-departure support. The scheme has expanded to partner with four more UK and US universities. Various departments (depending on the university partner) coordinate the programme. Furthermore, according to the current US Coordinator (US1F1), the term ‘social entrepreneurship’ used in
the title is somewhat misleading given the transition of the programme to include a multiplicity of company initiatives. What remains is the Founder’s vision: to empower the communities where the company works in practical and innovative ways.

The corporation also sponsors ‘regular’ international internships with university students coming from Singapore, the UK and US through partner institutions in separate programmes. The internships in this study mirror the corporation’s regular international internship (e.g. expenses covered, complete meaningful tasks), except that they are designed to attract students with interests in CSR and/or social entrepreneurship and they are not directly connected to the student’s disciplinary major. Students on the internship scheme contribute to existing projects spread throughout India and each intern is placed at a different company under the corporate umbrella. Below are some examples of the types of projects in the scheme since 2008:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example Project</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Establish a Marketing and Communication Programme at the new cancer hospital through promotional material, newsletter, website, etc.</td>
<td>Healthcare</td>
<td>Kolkata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact Assessment Study of the project ‘Enhancing Livelihoods of Tribals’ in Saraikela-Kharswan and Patamda block of East Singhbhum districts of Jharkhand with focus on Land and Water Management</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>Jamshedpur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benchmarking (Company’s) CSR programmes &amp; Impact assessment technique</td>
<td>Automotive</td>
<td>Mumbai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact Assessment of (company) Interventions in the Economic and Social aspects of the community in 23 villages</td>
<td>Minerals</td>
<td>Saraikela Kharswan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To promote economic development of women in Haldia region of East Midnapur</td>
<td>Chemicals</td>
<td>Haldia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The internships (mostly) have clear deliverables that aim to benefit the company and its community development programme beneficiaries. Projects are not decided in collaboration with the student or the university, but the scheme does
take into account student’s disciplinary major when matching them to a project. Evidence from the programme documentation and in the present study shows that interns oftentimes have a project which emerges once they are on the ground in India. For example, the 2012 project in the chart is unspecific as to what the deliverable was, whereas the 2009 example indicates measurable outcomes. According to one company representative, this ‘uncertainty’ is partially designed into the programme (UKHR1) to challenge these ‘top’ university students to engage their problem-solving, leadership and management skills.

According to the programme application material from the year preceding the study, the university partners and company use the following applicant characteristics in deciding interns:

- Upper-division undergraduates and graduate students
- Competitive based on academic record, information provided in the application, and potentially a phone interview.
- Given the cultural exchange aspect of the programme preference will be given to students who have not previously spent more than one month in India.
- Previous work or volunteer experience with NGOs, community groups, etc.
- Demonstrated leadership capacity
- Demonstrated ability to work in teams
- Excellent communication and organisational skills
- Existing knowledge/strong interest in India

Interns in Programme One are supported through several ways. Financial support form the company includes a monthly stipend, all expenses paid in India, and money for flights. The company and the university partner to give interns a one-day orientation on the university campus (both in the UK and US) and then another one-day orientation when upon arrival in India. Also, in addition to a supervising manager that the intern reports to, in many cases interns are provided with a ‘buddy’ – a company employee from the local community that is a type of chaperone and can help the intern adapt to the
culture and support the intern in their project. Faculty coordinators from at least one of the partnering universities fly to India during the internship to work through any issues that arise, and at the end of the internship different partner universities arrange for interns to present their reports and findings on campus through structured events, designed to both capture interest from future applicants and give the current interns a post-placement reflective activity (UK1F1).

Assessment is a core aspect of the programme, but not in the academic sense. Academic expectations include self-directed research before, a short ‘essay competition’ during, and individual presentations of project outcomes in front of company representatives at the end of the internship. However, unlike many volunteer programmes or internships in the US system (and in line with the UK system where the programme was established and academic credit is only linked to courses linked to specific degrees) interns receive no academic credit for their successful completion of the projects. As the company presents it, the value of ‘hands on experience in CS projects’ goes beyond academic assessments into ‘addressing a variety of issues’ in real-world developmental contexts.

**Contextualising Programme Two**

There are approximately 14 students per year who participate in Programme Two.

The University who initiated and maintains Programme Two is a private institution located on the West Coast of the United States. The University’s mission is to ‘foster a more just, humane, and sustainable world’ and ‘the preparation of students to assume leadership roles in society.’ The Centre that created this ‘fellowship’ initiative furthers the University mission through four goals of learning: scientific inquiry, science & technology integration, complexity, and critical thinking.

According to the Programme Founder, in the 1980s, under visionary ‘servant leadership’ of the Chancellor, the business school re-evaluated its role in
relation to the University’s mission. They focused in on the social mission of the school and garnered ‘champions’ from around the University and externally to found an interdisciplinary Centre focused on the integration of science, technology, and society.

One of the Centre’s initiatives is a social enterprise ‘incubator’ and ‘accelerator’ programme, where a network of over 200 such organisations have already been sponsored. Connected to these projects, through a $2 million grant from a Silicon Valley executive-turned-philanthropist, the programme under study was developed in 2012 across University departments to:

‘provide a comprehensive programme of mentored, field-based study and action research for undergraduate juniors within the (branded) worldwide network of social entrepreneurs. (It consists of) a fully funded 6-7 week international summer field experience in the developing world with two quarters of academically rigorous research. It is a programme of practical social justice...’ (Source: programme brochure)

Thus the programme is meant to be a ‘win-win-win-win,’ where the student wins academic credit and a fully-sponsored internship, the university wins funding and connecting rich experiences for students with partners, the social enterprises win needed human and capital resources, and the funder wins a tax-deductible way to support well-managed educational projects that provide measureable ‘impact’ to the world’s poorest communities.

In addition to the multidimensional ‘win,’ the educational concept behind Programme Two consists of a hybrid of academic work and field-based ‘action research.’ It includes group work such as poster presentations and seminars, team-based concrete deliverables related to the project, post-placement work in the accelerator, and individual work such as reflective blogs and essays. Yet the programme intentionally and vocally distinguishes itself from other credit-bearing activities in the Jesuit (and US university) tradition such as ‘service learning,’ and ‘volunteering.’ It does this by including business and economics into the equation as fundamental to development. As the Founder said when describing the programme:
think of walking in your moccasins being shoulder and shoulder with folks who are actually trying to execute on this business plan through social businesses that are trying to do that. The real unique experience is coming back and trying to integrate so that the models achieve instantiation in terms of a particular business model, a particular enterprise. And also, going into the field to execute on work in terms of what are the gaps, the problems. It’s really a very holistic experience and a lot of experiential-based learning is doesn’t have the conceptual robustness of what I just described.’ (US2F2)

Part of this ‘holistic experience’ includes being placed on an interdisciplinary team throughout the fellowship to work on specific projects aimed to benefit the hosting enterprises. These projects are outlined before the pre-placement semester through a ‘consultancy style’ arrangement between the Centre and the hosting organisation. There are four ‘phases’ of the placement: the before semester phase, where the students are expected to learn about social entrepreneurship and innovation, as well as the culture and aspects of the project; the placement phase, where the project is (hopefully) executed on site; a nine day accelerator phase directly after placement, where students work with social entrepreneurs to help analyse and close the projects and ‘make sense of’ their experience abroad; and a final semester phase, where students write up a report of all the data (quantitative and qualitative) they gathered, revise the spring action research plan, and create a timeline for completing the project deliverables for the enterprise.

Table 6 shows some examples of the types of projects in the scheme since 2012:

**Table 5: Programme Two example projects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example Project</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provide a quantitative economic analysis of the different components of a new</td>
<td>Healthcare</td>
<td>Uganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manufacturing process (for eco-friendly sanitary pads) and develop a training</td>
<td>Economics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manual for ongoing growth of its women micro-entrepreneur sales force.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5: Programme Two example projects (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example Project</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To create digital narratives</td>
<td>Videography</td>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To create mobile applications to support (hosting org.) curriculum development and the rapidly-expanding mobile device platforms.</td>
<td>Photography</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mobile/Web</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify, characterize, and quantify the value of greater investment in hearing health, especially for children. It would create an economic model for expanding its network of Solar Ear Centers to new countries, and develop and implement a quantitative social science and economic survey to document the benefits to society.</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Science</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As most of the hosting organisations are small-to-medium size ventures and external funding is crucial to their organisational viability, projects centre around ‘scaling up’ business-related features of the organisations. Also, due to their experience in and knowledge of low-income contexts, the social enterprises and the university partner do not seem to expect the grandiose claims hoped for by the students – however they do expect them to provide the deliverables in partnership where possible.

According to the student application materials, the university and hosting orgs. use the following applicant characteristics in deciding interns:

- Open only to junior year undergraduate students
- Prepared for sustained effort in research and personal reflection
- Demonstrate academic excellence, a commitment to community service, and the personal responsibility necessary to live and work in a developing world context
- Experience of community service in developing world is advantageous
- Individual interviews
- Team composition considered

Interns in Programme Two are supported in several ways. One ‘faculty mentor’ is grouped with each team, which in my study included professors of business,
sociology, and communications. The before semester is devoted to preparing for the project. The Centre staff are also always available and offer significant support throughout the placement. On the ground support includes several third parties, similar to the ‘buddies’ in Programme One, and sometimes direct contact with the hosting organisation directorate.

Assessment is carried out through reflective essays and group projects. Students are not assessed on their results of the project. During the initial course several readings and small assignments are required around the topics of ‘social entrepreneurship’ and ‘development’. The final assignment of the initial course is the submission of a comprehensive action research plan that will guide their fieldwork. After the placement, there are more readings, discussions, and blog assignments, and the final action research project reports. These reports must be structured along the lines of a private industry consultant’s report. Their discipline-specific studies in their major give them a particular interpretive lens on their experience, but in the words of US2F4 the report itself ‘requires the students to negotiate across the gradients of diverse forms of expertise.’

Table 6: Programme comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Similarities</th>
<th>Differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor students</td>
<td>Large company vs SMEs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some from California universities</td>
<td>Several universities vs one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research institutions</td>
<td>Expectations more intense in SMEs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsored</td>
<td>Some Master students in Programme One</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field placement</td>
<td>Several continents versus one country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low income economy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working with social innovation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside of discipline</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Across-university eligibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using action/participatory research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two months during summer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter Five: Findings

Overview

The cases consisted of 15 students across two programmes, 13 non-management disciplines and 5 universities in the US and UK. Data consisted of 40 full-length interviews with students, faculty, and hosting organisation representatives; 83 total student longitudinal primary sources including interviews, assignments, blogs, personal profiles, psychometric data, and pre-post surveys; and written material from the institutions including curricula and marketing information. The findings are organised in order of research questions. All of the data collected for Research Question #1 was considered exploratory ‘text’ and prioritised according to the level of familiarity with the case: e.g., an interview or blog from the case’s perspective captured during the data collection window was seen as more persuasive evidence than the perspective of a faculty member or Hosting Organisation Rep about the case, therefore the reporting contains lengthier quoting and more in-depth analysis. Research Question #2 emerged from the analysis stage and the findings suggest that student perspective changes were triggered by specific internal and context-embedded influences, oftentimes resulting in behaviour changes.

Research Question #1: How is value perceived?

What do stakeholders perceive as important and beneficial to non-management UK and US university students of involvement in enterprise-based work placements focused on social entrepreneurship projects in developing countries?

From the Institutional Documentation Perspective

The findings from the institutional perspective respond to several inquiries developed in the literature review, particularly in relation to how universities articulate the ‘value’ to students of social entrepreneurship placements through the promises of employability and meaningful experience. The Value to Selves framework was particularly relevant in organizing institutional documentation,
because there were overlapping promises to students’ perceived career goals (instrumental frame), their perceived beliefs about social entrepreneurship (ideological frame), and their perceived desire to develop intercultural competence and meaningful relationships (relational frame).

As expected, the instrumental emphasis was on the value of ‘real world’ experience, and differentiated from other university offerings through the promise of what I’m calling ‘concrete deliverables’ or project-specific objectives related to social impact. Further to this point, value related to enhancing student C.V.s or employability skills was not explicitly found in the institutional documentation, but aspects of the programmes such as the exposure to a ‘worldwide network,’ ‘partnership with a large multinational corporation,’ ‘competitive enrolment’ and ‘leadership development’ infer enhanced employability. Furthermore, the students chosen in both programmes were ‘upper division’ which focuses on the practical value of experience of students preparing to apply for jobs or competitive graduate school opportunities.

The concept of ‘social impact’ through entrepreneurship was articulated by both programmes. Both programmes inferred social entrepreneurship placements would bring significant value to students and beneficiaries through meaningful experiences that made a qualitative difference in the lives of both the students and the world’s poorest citizens. This ‘both/and’ feature of these placements corresponds to the ‘dual nature’ of social entrepreneurship discussed in the literature review. It promises value to the ‘ideological self’ of students through promises such as ‘self-development through self-awareness' and ‘reflection on one’s vocation.’ Using Santos’ terminology (2012), these promises clearly appeal to student self-interest and are merged with an appeal to student others-regarding by promising projects that support the ‘economic and social empowerment of communities’ – specifically in relation to ‘poverty reduction’ and ‘experience in the developing world.’ These value promises go a step further to integrate meaningful academic components through ‘action research’ and the enhancement of the ‘senior thesis.’ Table 8 shows how both programmes articulated value to students:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Programme One</th>
<th>Programme Two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Real world work experience with concrete deliverables** | • Opportunities for students to contribute to community initiative projects of group companies  
• Interns join Group community development teams working on economic and social empowerment of communities surrounding the company’s operating units  
• Make presentations on their findings & recommendations to the company’s Corporate Sustainability management team  
• Intern assignments will involve participation in ongoing activities/ projects | • Comprehensive programme  
• Mentored  
• Field-based  
• Action research  
• Solutions to poverty and environmental problems |
| **Sponsorship**                           | • $1500 towards flight, immunization, and visa; all in-country travel and living costs | • Fully funded support package |
| **Exclusivity**                           | • Partnership with the largest private corporate group in India and one of the most respected companies in the world  
• Competitive based on academic record, information provided in the application, and potentially a phone interview.  
• Previous work or volunteer experience with NGOs, community groups, etc.  
• Demonstrated leadership capacity | • Worldwide network of social entrepreneurs  
• Demonstrate academic excellence, a commitment to community service, and the personal responsibility necessary to live and work in a developing world context  
• Team composition considered |
Table 7: Institutional Documentation (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Programme One</th>
<th>Programme Two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Framework Category: Instrumental (cont.)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employ-ability</td>
<td>• Upper-division undergraduates and graduate students</td>
<td>• Junior year undergraduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree-related benefits</td>
<td>• Summer field experience</td>
<td>• Summer field experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Disciplinary fit</td>
<td>• Disciplinary fit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Back [on campus] students participate in a widely attended student symposium</td>
<td>• Interdisciplinary teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to share their work and lessons learned</td>
<td>• Enhance senior theses, design, and capstone projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Framework Category: Relational</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercultural relations</td>
<td>• Eight weeks in India</td>
<td>• Solutions to poverty and environmental problems in the developing world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Pre-departure orientation and language training</td>
<td>• Worldwide network of social entrepreneurs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• On-the-job translation assistance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Promote international understanding</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Experience with the developing world</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Framework Category: Ideological</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-development</td>
<td>• ‘An adventure of the senses’</td>
<td>• Time-intensive commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• ‘Leave an indelible impression on student’s lives’</td>
<td>• Leadership development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Trains student leaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Emphasizes leadership development, personal growth in self-awareness, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>reflection on one’s vocation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Snapshot from the Faculty Perspective

Although interview data from faculty and hosting organisation representatives is synthesised with student perspectives into aggregate themes in the next section, answers to the closing interview question to all faculty representatives in Table 9 below highlights several similarities and differences of how this key stakeholder group perceived value to students. For example, clear differences in perception can be seen by some faculty emphasising the value to students of learning about the world through ‘development’ versus learning about their ‘self.’ However, faculty from both programmes and across the US and UK emphasised the importance of meaningful experience, particularly through contact with people in the developing world and a broadened frame of reference. Importantly in relation to the literature, value of the placements was seen by several faculty explicitly in relation to the ‘tension’ and ‘paradox’ of social entrepreneurship that arises experientially when students are faced with the ‘realities’ ‘messiness’ and ‘contrasts’ on the ground.

Table 8: Faculty answers to the question: ‘Can you summarise the value of these placements to students in a word or phrase?’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme One</th>
<th>Programme Two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>UK1F1</strong></td>
<td><strong>US2F1</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘life experience’</td>
<td>‘exposure to empathy; experience; again, on the ground experience. This is a programme that is centripetal, instead of drawing you in, it throws you out into new places that you haven't been before and in doing so, you discover yourself.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>UK1F2</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘broadening horizons’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>US1F2</strong></td>
<td><strong>US2F2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘The students are experiencing something vastly different than what they see here; and in India there are huge discrepancies. You have very, very rich to very poor literally right next to each other, so those contrasts are more striking [where individuals are not] uniformly at one income level. The disparity is great.’</td>
<td>‘Self-knowledge. I think by putting the student in the context of not knowing and of complexity and lots of uncertainty it really enables a person to develop a level of self-knowledge and awareness – ironically through service-based form of learning. And so it also tests</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8: Faculty answers to the question: ‘Can you summarise the value of these placements to students in a word or phrase?’ (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme One</th>
<th>Programme Two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US1F3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Primarily from the graduate perspective, it gives them a real-world opportunity to see in actual fact what they have been studying; we talk a lot about corporate social responsibility the semester before they go out...The benefits of actually getting out and looking at development not as formulas or theories or whatever but as people and the messiness of the world and really it’s understanding the messiness of development. That’s the main take away.’</td>
<td>US2F2 (cont.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US2F3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘It's something like the experience of the 4 billion other people in the world. Something like that because I think it's important in so many ways that experience with the ‘other.’ So everybody can really benefit from that contact; that experience – not the personal experience, but the personal engagement: are you engaged somehow?’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US2F4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘practical dream for justice’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Value across cases

The following areas of value appear across stakeholder groups and are presented collectively by theme. Themes required replications across all stakeholder groups and at least two respondents within each stakeholder category. Codes were numbered according to the code key (Appendices D & E) to make the tables more visually clear, and the numbers represent text codes which can be found in the same Appendices. Since student perspectives were gained at several data points, the designations ‘B,D,A’ in the example quotes
signify when the perspective was articulated, respectively ‘before, during, or after’ placement.

Programme fit between student’s personality, background, and interests

The term ‘ideological value’ in my framework describes a set of features that emerged as codes including ‘personality,’ ‘issue that student is passionate about,’ ‘critical incident before placement’ ‘previous service experience’ and similar; but findings indicate instrumental value as well, in the sense of ego-needs and employability, so this theme overlaps across both categories. One faculty member (UK1F1) described the value to students of Programme Two exactly as the theme title is written above except for ‘personality’, which I added after synthesizing codes into themes. Students, for example, articulated how the placement aligned to their ‘passion’ and ‘idealistic’ views of the world before the placements, and how these views were developed as a result of the experiences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Example student quotes – Student/Programme compatibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Programme One</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>(A)US1S3: ‘My passion is helping others…I initially veered away from finance and business because I never connected that line of work to helping others. The internship changed that. The work at [hosting org.] has realigned me towards a career goal that I am able to use the talents given to me, whilst finding a way to help others in my own and developing communities’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Programme Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(D)US2S6: When I came into this placement I think I was a bit idealistic about what I was doing. I saw this as a ‘world saving’ opportunity so to speak and I thought that my work here would have a much larger impact than it probably will. Realizing that I was being idealistic was hard for me and I spent a lot of time wondering why I had come here when I could have been working a regular job and likely getting a lot more money and practical experience. But the more I settled in, the less I thought about those things. I have become very inspired by some of the people I have met here. I think I have learned that no one person can change the world but that every person can have a real impact for some people. Some of the people here could also be off somewhere else making much more money, yet here they are. It is a very selfless thing.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

98
At almost every data point and from multiple stakeholder perspectives aspects of these four criteria appear. Hosting Organisation Representatives from three different countries mentioned ‘personality’ and ‘attitude’ as essential for being successful in the specific environments. These words were related to a ‘problem solving’ orientation (USHR2) and ‘engaging with the culture’ (USHR3). One SE rep (USHR3) mentioned the value culture-specific knowledge could have as a participation requirement and even gave examples of programme failure due to the lack of this feature.

Additionally, faculty and Hosting Organisation Reps across Programmes and countries specified a strong correlation between a student’s background and experience, noting that students with previous experience abroad were much more likely to be successful. This was backed up by documentary evidence for both programmes.

Related to this, a student’s particular interests were reported across Programmes and stakeholders. Sometimes, as in US2S6 this was a strong passion that prompted him to identify an opportunity and significantly exceed project expectations, such as in the first example quote above. Student interest or passion also appeared in many cases as a disciplinary fit, such as UK2S2 who completed her MSc dissertation on CSR and used the programme for a case study; or US1S1 who majored in Hindi and used the placement partly as a language immersion exercise. Sometimes these perspectives reinforced existing values but in other cases, such as the first example quote above, students articulated a ‘realignment’ towards core student values, or as in the second example quote, a realization of the student’s core values.

It was difficult for universities to match students to programmes, however, both because from the perspective of faculty their pool of applicants was surprisingly low for a fully sponsored internship – US2F3 spoke about having to ‘go out and recruit’ across campus and US1F2 reported that they admit approx. 50% of students to the placement, thus potentially admitting applicants without knowledge, interest, or experience. Faculty and Hosting Organisation Reps perceived some students sought a ‘free vacation to visit family in India’ (UKHR1, US1F1, US1F2) and this was triangulated with student admissions
data (US1S2); even though the hosting organisation in Programme One attempted to prevent ‘Indian nationals’ from participating, ‘if they had lived in India sometime in the last five years or something’: from the faculty perspective this was impossible to control because of university inclusion policies (US1F1).

Another area which appeared across faculty was the contrast between Grad and Undergrad. US1F3, for example, felt strongly that Graduate level students who are ‘hungry’ for experience related to their degree benefitted the hosting organisation the most. According to him, for these students the internships were like ‘manna from heaven.’ This view was triangulated with both UK faulty respondents (UK12F2; UK1F1) who gave examples of ‘successful’ graduate level students, and one Hosting Organisation Rep., although desiring student interns from a ‘diversity of disciplines,’ perceived the best outcomes typically come from the Graduate level intake (UKHR1). As the following example quotes show, however, faculty and Hosting Organisation Reps indicated an alignment between the values inherent in all students’ social class and disciplinary interests:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Example institutional stakeholder quotes – Student/Programme compatibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Faculty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>US2F3: ‘I think you got a pretty self-selected group that is going to be more interested than average…So their parents have to be well-off enough that the students can take the summer off…they are all families who can afford to send their kids here in one way or another…it’s a social class thing…I think many of these people have travelled with their families to Europe were wherever so they are already kind of attuned to that.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>UK1F1: ‘the internship programme fits between their background, experience, and interests.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Hosting Organisation Reps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>USHR1: 'It was a really good engineering experience for US2SX. One of the things that she told me was that she was very happy that she started to deal with me and that she had the time [away from her intended project], and that she had actually started working on designing something before she came – because even if she did not use anything of what she had done before, when she arrived here she had already gone through the [engineering] process of how do I do things.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Employability

‘Increased employment opportunities’ was originally described as providing instrumental value in my framework. Although not explicitly articulated by the institutional documentation, the value to students of employability appeared throughout the multiple stakeholder analysis, specifically amongst the Programme Two students (who were all US undergraduates), and with faculty across Programmes and countries:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Example student quotes – Employability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Programme One</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>(A)UK2S4: ‘Actually, it’s a differential that I have here in Brazil. Not many people around here have international experience. Especially not in a big company like [hosting org.]. So it was a good thing to put in the CV also. And the experience of course of working inside [hosting org.] is a golden opportunity also to know a big company. So since now I am researching about big companies it was really important for me to see how they work so I can research them now.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>(A)US1S3: ‘A benefit that I see more and more is that CSR work is flexible and adaptable on any resume. When a firm asks for work that might entail any of the three aspects of CSR, you can elaborate on your work in any of those related fields.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>Programme Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(A)US2S1: ‘I think my attitude towards projects in the developing world has changed that I’m less confident of their success…I think when people pitch ideas for the developing world, [it’s interesting to note] the reaction that you get from people when they see you spent the summer in [that developing country]. Trust me, I’m going to milk it because I’m looking for a job, but I don’t believe it, even when I say it.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students from both Programmes felt strongly about the value of international work experience on their resume (US2S1, US2S4, US1S3, UK2S4) and reported social service through enterprise development as a unique aspect of the placements for employability. International work experience was not necessarily connected to the social enterprise or CSR feature of the
programmes per say, and even considered as something ‘typical’ and ‘expected’ by students from both Programmes and countries (UK2S2; US2S2). As seen from the student quotes above, these opportunities were typically considered ‘golden’ for the C.V. (first quote), not only due to their affiliation with ‘big’ companies (Programme One) but also in their adaptability to present value ‘on any resume’ (second quote) and the perceived relative market value compared to peers without developing world experience (third quote).

Regarding the comparative value to peers without developing world experience, competitive advantage through being perceived as a good person was noted across Programmes as both a morally appropriate and highly valuable feature of the placement to further one’s job-seeking ends, whether to ‘milk it’ (third quote) or to ‘elaborate’ the social responsibility aspect of the placement (second quote). This perspective of value, however, was found only in undergraduate student statements across cohorts and did not appear in any of the Graduate level student data.

Students across Programmes (UK2S5; US2S1; US2S8) mentioned skills and competencies not found in the classroom as important to employability and even derided the university system for not providing more relevant employability skills (US2S6; US1S3; UK2S4); faculty seconded the motion (US2F4). Furthermore, perceived value was mostly framed by students in terms of immediate employability – i.e. first job after graduation – as opposed to longer-term prospects noted by faculty (UK12F2; US2F2; US2F4) and Hosting Organisation Reps (UKHR1). Indeed, students immediately utilized the specific skills developed – not during their studies but specifically on the placement – to successfully convince employers after graduation of their capability to complete relevant job tasks (US1S2, US2S6).

Although every student (except UK1S1 the only PhD level case) reported employability as a main reason for participating, this theme was stronger in Programme Two, most likely because of student demographics (all bachelor degree level; vast majority without work experience) and the fact that the university was not as prestigious as those in Programme One.
Only one Hosting Organisation Rep. (UKHR1) mentioned ‘career’ as a key benefit to students, which prompted me to approach the other Hosting Organisation Reps. via email during the analysis stage for their thoughts (although this did not yield any responses). In the same sentence that career was mentioned, however, this same Programme One Hosting Organisation Rep. (UKHR1) mentioned learning about ‘systems’ as a key driver for students which also featured in a Programme Two faculty interview (US2F2) as ‘systems thinking.’ Other faculty, however, talked of employability as a type of ‘carrot’ to ‘dangle’ (US1F2) and this corresponds to the institutional documentation found in both Programmes. As seen in the first two quotes below representing both Programmes, these placements were seen by both UK and US faculty as the defining feature of student employability:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Example institutional stakeholder quotes – Employability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Faculty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>UK12F2: ‘this was an ideal opportunity to actually get some experience in a developing country about at the not-for-profit sector and definitely both students would not have gotten the jobs that they got had they not done this internship. So it was more about getting practical experience, which is very, very valuable, particularly if you're looking at it from a career development perspective.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>US2F1: ‘The institutions are using it. Just because you make good grades is not going to get you a really great position where you get to do a lot of things, or it'll get you in graduate school right. So two fellows from last year have used the fellowship on the resume…the reason they got admitted is because they had the special unique experience on the resume…these millennials, they are global and they are local. At the same time they want to be global citizens.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hosting Organisation Reps

UKHR1: ‘I think that the students by and large were coming to the scheme because their interests are often in systems in how systems work, especially in India and China, and especially because, purely for their career reasons.’
Real world work experience with concrete deliverables

This would be considered both instrumental and ideological in relation to my framework – it combines the ideologies of experiential, international, problem-based and project-based learning with the ideology of self-financing social benefit organisations. This complex combination was found to simultaneously be the key incentive for student participation, the major expense for the hosting organisations, and the major risk for universities.

Several distinct areas of value were integrated into this overarching category due to their inextricability with both 1) ‘real world work’ in contrast to ‘classroom’ experience, and 2) the expectation of students to produce a ‘deliverable’ (which varied across cases but typically related to research intended to support the hosting organisation’s strategic aims. For Programme One, projects were designed primarily to benefit the interns as experiential learning projects and were by and large unimportant to company operations but still required concrete deliverables; whereas for Programme Two some projects were of minor significance and others required deliverables crucial for the very survival of the organisation. This difference in programme objectives seemed to have little significance in comparison to the value of working on real world projects, particularly in relation to transitioning from school to work, where students articulated the value of ‘real world’ deliverables in terms of offering value to those in the real world, as opposed to the school world they were used to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Example student quotes – Work experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Programme One</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>(A)US1S3: ‘this abroad internship was the first time I have worked full time…I learned how exhausting 40-50 hours a week can toll your body...It was an experience where I had to think on my feet, and use a short period of time to learn about how to adjust and catch up with the rest of my peers. It’s pushed me to adapt not only quickly, but efficiently. I’ve carried what I’ve learned to projects at work, academic assignments, and any situations that demand for it.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Codes  Example student quotes – Work experience (cont.)

Programme Two

(A)US2S1: ‘recently I have felt kind of down on myself about my resume because the placement was supposed to include a [degree-related experiential] component for both [my teammate] and I but it didn’t happen. So we basically have to go into these interviews with no experience to talk about. So I’m thinking a lot about how to best spin it as something that I’ve learned.’

(A)US2S8: ‘the whole reason you’re there is to return something of benefit to the organisation…I returned documentaries that will hopefully again generate money and hopefully win them some awards that they can help the enterprise. And so for me learning was this shift from learning because somebody told me, to skill sets (A)US2S8): and being able to mould yourself to be able to accomplish something which was different. This idea that it was my prime directive is to be able to help these people. So I need these skills to be able to do this. So no longer was it, ‘I’m getting a degree.’”

Even though all stakeholder groups saw the value of ‘concrete deliverables,’ few of the projects were related to the student’s discipline. In fact, several students (UK1S1, UK2S2, UK2S5, US2S1, US2S4) and Hosting Organisation Representatives (USHR1, USHR2, USHR3) reported that the projects required new skills and competencies unrelated to student disciplines, and intense workloads atypical to internships – such as six day work weeks. Furthermore, both faculty and Hosting Organisation Reps mentioned interdisciplinary skills as important in their contexts (US2F4, UKHR1, USHR2).

Connected to this, in every case students had to develop new competencies as part of the project aims – but considering the already complex environments, limited time for the fieldwork, and students’ lack of foreign language competence. Relevant project skills oftentimes required a steep learning curve that resulted in perceived frustration from students and Hosting Organisation Reps, and only marginal results as reported by all Hosting Organisation Reps and several students. However, faculty in both Programmes (UK12F1, US2F4) perceived venturing forward, taking responsibility for their own learning, and
interdisciplinarity as valuable to student development despite the minimal impact of some projects.

On a practical level, as in both examples below, students articulated the value of learning interdisciplinary research skills through field interviews related to action research projects:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Example student quotes – New competencies and skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Programme One</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>UK2S4: ‘I learned how to be more prepared for interviewing people...at [university] you got the skills for more scientific research and I think that when I was like assisting [hosting org.] it was more practical oriented. So after interviewing I had to come up with a result for my supervisor, I had to...find out what was important for the company [by analysing] the research. It was very fast...I had to prioritise...So I learned at least how to dig out whatever I think the result needs to use.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Programme Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(A)US2S6: ‘I learned to engage with people better and try and learn from people just in conversations better. I’ve taken advantage of just like listening because before this placement I learned you go to class, listen to what the professor has to say, that you learn. And that works if you listen and do this and that and the other thing, you do learn what you need to learn, but there’s something to be said about...having conversations with people and being able to learn in a nonconventional type of setting. So it’s not a classroom: you learn to experience their interactions and pursue discussions working with the [social enterprise mentor] out there, travelling around with him and being forced to ask questions and really have to dig down...I really had to take the initiative to learn to do that rather than expect for the answer to be given to me. I had to go outside of myself.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Programme Two, several students lamented that the accredited pre-placement semester did not prepare them with the relevant skills to complete their specific projects, but after placement reported some confidence in project-specific skills developed during the placement, some even noting their value for employability (US2S1, US2S4) mentioned above. However, neither earning academic credit for any part of the placement nor having a preparation semester were reported as important by any of the students in Programme Two,
whereas these benefits were mentioned as important by most of the faculty (US2F1, US2F2, US2F4). Despite the uncertainty of pre-placement value, post-placement project work in an on-campus incubator (another concrete deliverable) and multiple assigned reflection activities were perceived as highly beneficial by most students in Programme Two.

All faculty interviewed across Programmes perceived the impossibility for students to be fully prepared for the fieldwork, which highlighted a contrast in preparation between and within programmes. Programme One mostly relied on self-directed learning before placement whereas Programme Two used assessment-based comprehension. In preparing Programme One students, for example, UK12F2 expected – and challenged – UK students to complete their own background reading and ‘save it on a USB stick’ because it would most likely ‘become useful’ during the placement. The thinking behind this method stemmed from the fact that these were ‘already bright and motivated students from elite schools’ and also that most of the projects were designed directly before placement or on-site during placement anyway.

Only faculty from UK universities in Programme One felt that the self-directed approach was useful (UK12F1, UK12F2); in fact, several US faculty (US1F1, US1F2, US1F3) who represented the same Programme firmly rejected the self-directed approach. US1F3 gave specific details of the assessed preparation tasks that his US graduate students were expected to complete before placement. In his view, preparing for things that would inevitably change on the ground would demonstrate to students the ‘messiness’ of development work, upending their assumptions whilst anchoring them in relevant general knowledge. Independent of UK or US affiliation, some Programme One students perceived the ‘one day orientation’ on campus and in India as sufficient preparation, whereas others indicated that the lack of comprehensive pre- and post-placement activities – particularly not knowing how or whether their results would be used, and not having group reflection activities – negatively affected their project and learning outcomes. Nevertheless, faculty and Hosting Organisation Reps from both cohorts emphasized the value of concrete deliverables and ‘real world’ skill development, as seen in the following quotes:
Example institutional stakeholder quotes – Work experience

Faculty

US1F1: ‘This is a very serious internship. In fact, what they are expected to produce at the end for an undergrad is quite intensive. So they in fact believe the internship they have to leave in internship with a product or a report or a presentation...that's something tangible...and students actually make very solid recommendations that often times [the hosting org.] does take into account. So it’s not an internship where they’re making copies and they're making coffee. It’s a significant type of internship.’

US2F4: ‘the university doesn’t do a very good job of teaching people how to talk outside of their academic silos. ...So were trying to both welcome and encourage the development of additional specialized forms of expertise and the same time provide a breadth of context of interdisciplinary team collaboration to help people learn how to apply their emerging expertise in the service of a bigger team project.’

Hosting Organisation Reps

USHR1: ‘they had a true engineering experience...No internship the US could do this because when you become an intern in a company in the US for the summer, [you complete repetitive tasks, whereas] coming here, she has to do real engineering. She has to create everything around her. Where do I set the [equipment]? how do I set up a place for me to work? who do I share this knowledge with? how do I? and she had to learn to connect all the dots in the mechanical design to understand how the[equipment] works, to find the parameters, and helping others learn as well. So it’s like a complete cycle...She walked in and we had to figure out where the [equipment] could go and it’s really starting from scratch and taking care of everything single every single detail.’

Critical Thinking

The term critical is very broad but here refers to the two types of transformative value discussed in the literature review: the value to students of becoming ‘critically reflective’ (in Mezirow’s sense, coming from a psychological view of learning); or becoming ‘critically conscious’ of political and economic
inequalities (Freire’s sense, coming from a systems-level view of learning). This area of value can be considered *ideological* in relation to my framework. This was perhaps clearest in the *participatory research methods* that included direct contact between students and beneficiaries and were consciously integrated by faculty and hosting organisations into multiple student projects: Programme One through *participatory rural appraisal* (UK12F2) and Programme Two through *action research* (US2F2, US2F4).

Importantly in both examples below and across both programmes, critical thinking was connected to a student’s *conscious perspective change* or ‘realizing’ their ability to ‘make a difference’ (second quote below). Likewise, the value of *systematic critique* can be found across programmes where students critically examined phenomenon they observed in the field, such as the accounting processes of hosting organisations.’ supposedly ‘social’ initiatives (first quote below). Independent on whether the student worked individually or on a team, the value of *individual critique* can be seen in all cases, where students critically reflected on, and then articulated how their worldview before placement developed into a more nuanced understanding of themselves during placement (second quote below):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Example student quotes – Critical thinking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td><strong>Programme One</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(D)UK2S1: ‘CSR budget is taken before tax, so that in terms of finance, CSR is not a big effort that the firm has to bear, and shareholders’ dividends remain the most important thing. So I would say business as usual, even though the company has an ethics and some of their social initiatives are good.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Programme Two</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(D)US2S4: ‘before I really wanted to come over here and make a difference, and now I still would like to do that, but I’m realizing that there’s a lot of jobs that make you feel like you’re making a difference, or make you feel good about yourself, but don’t really benefit the local people that much. So if I was to still come to a developing country and work, I would be very cautious of what job I accepted because I would rather not come at all than come here”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

109
My findings cannot separate students’ critical thinking from the context of development where they found themselves, yet critical thinking in the two senses described above was not necessarily linked to the culture visited. US1S3, for example, had a perspective change after critically reflecting on a single conversation with a certain hosting organisation worker about ‘life, politics… everything’ which could arguably happen anywhere in the World. Similarly, and perhaps more related to the value of engaging with social entrepreneurship initiatives, US2S7 reflected in a blog after working with a hearing impaired community that his previous communication fears were unwarranted, allowing him to *empathise* with those in his new surroundings. Furthermore, ‘after reflection’ on the hosting organisation’s unique business model, UK2S2 re-evaluated his earlier ‘critique’ that grouped all corporations as ‘greedy,’ now critiquing his own formerly ‘narrow’ view of corporate activity and even going further to suggest the hosting organisation was a model for UK corporations to follow. Almost the same words came from UK1S1 in a separate interview, replicating this *systems-level critique of ‘Western’ corporations* whilst changing one’s own perspective about ‘the corporation’ as a fixed, socially-destructive entity.

For Hosting Organisation Reps, though, ‘critical thinking’ was spoken of as *tied to the context of the developing world* (second quote below). Likewise, faculty gave instances of common practices in developing countries that would provide critical thinking value to students in the form of coming to terms with unethical cultural norms such as ‘fudging the books’ (first quote below). Faculty indicated critical thinking *in both senses* of transformative learning discussed above as providing important value to students and connected to the developing world, reflected explicitly in interviews and articulated as *part of the placement design scheme* of both Programmes (US1F3, US2F2, US2F4).
Codes Example institutional stakeholder quotes – Critical thinking

13 Faculty
16 US1F2: ‘some students have said it’s a big contrast where they’ve encountered slightly fudging of the books, creative accounting and things like that: but then they have also sort of come around and said ‘I can understand why they do it because money is earmarked and you have to finish it.’’

Hosting Organisation Reps
USHR2: ‘You have to be able to write and think critically and know how to communicate with others, and you have to do this successfully.’

Relationships connected to the placement and closer to home

The word ‘relationship’ is a general categorical term and in the data corresponds to many different types of relations between individual participants and some other person or community. This area of value connects to the relational value category of my framework, except relationships ‘closer to home’ were not considered in my framework or captured during the pilot stage (although missed examples from the original pilot data were noted in my later reflections). Students perceived value in building relationships with mentors, peers, Hosting Organisation Reps., and in the two cases of students with a dual-cultural identity (sharing with the host culture) value in the relationship with previously unknown communities in their own cultures (second quote below). Also in this theme are ‘relationships closer to home’ which indicate a change in value reported in regards to students’ pre-existing personal relationships such as their boyfriend (UK2S5) and their parents (UK1S1; US1S1).

Codes Example student quotes – Relationships connected to the placement

7 Programme One
13 (D) UK2S1: ‘I have been lucky enough to visit [hosting orgs.] plantations, explained by people truly passionate about their job; I have been welcomed like a real queen by a group of workers. I have seen how one lady can give birth to an ambitious school for
In Programme One, relational value was generally limited to CSR staff and beneficiaries of the visited programmes. Although the programme included a one day group orientation and a social network page, students came from different universities, had individual projects across India, and had no follow-up activities after the internship. Faculty were involved primarily for coordination purposes. And depending on the case, some students connected strongly with
beneficiaries, such as UK2S5 who was ‘treated like a queen’ (second quote above) and felt she had become much closer to the culture, also feeling that she had understood her relationship with her Sri-Lankan boyfriend back in London better. Other cases had daily contact with beneficiaries but no significant relational benefits developed. And other cases had little to no encounter with beneficiaries and worked on projects in air-conditioned offices.

There was some value reported through a negative identification with hosting organisation staff. In one case, US1S2, a manager-employee relationship went sour after the student – an ‘A’ level high achiever – received a ‘2 out of 10’ performance evaluation. He related it not to his own actual performance but to the manager’s ‘cultural tropes,’ valuing it as learning about Indian cultural stereotypes of US Americans. Other important negative identification was reported by US1S1, UK2S2 and UK2S5, where hosting organisation staff ‘did not have time’ to support the internship.

In the vast majority of cases, however, students had a positive identification with hosting organisation staff and were both impressed at the professionalism of the management and also with their authenticity in corporate social responsibility. Similar findings from Programme One could be observed concerning Programme Two regarding identification with Hosting Organisation Reps, where in some cases there were also inspirational social enterprise staff. Overall, both Programmes found positive value connected to hosting organisation representatives, who in several cases were models of leadership as UK2S4 noted: ‘I learned the value of people in an organisation who take their shared vision seriously.’

For Programme Two, relationships also played an important role in the construction of value. In two significant ways these contrasted to Programme One: First, students in Programme Two reported that some faculty were engaged fully in the projects and could listen to them – sometimes on a daily basis on the telephone – and give supportive advice whereas in Programme One faculty played a minimal role altogether. Likewise regarding teams, in Programme One students were placed individually whereas in Programme Two, team member relationships played a role in student learning: US2S1 and
US2S4, referring to their teammate (who was ‘uberpositive’ even when things went terribly wrong) reflected that they learned the ‘type of people they didn’t want to work with’ in the future; but in other cases students felt that they had bonded well with their teammates and created lifelong friendships.

One faculty member (US2F3) neatly described the value of these placements coming from a ‘personal encounter’ with ‘the other 4 billion’ meaning those living in poverty. Likewise, one Hosting Organisation Rep (UKHR1) saw human contact as an essential driver of the value to students. He even said that he tried to give students data analysis research internships with significant publication opportunities but that not a single intern was interested, and he related this to their need for contact with the ‘other.’ Similarly, as seen in the Faculty Snapshot (page 97-98) with faculty quotes, US2F3 related the value of the placements as a personal encounter with the ‘other 4 billion’, suggesting a connection between value to students and experiencing low-income contexts.

Understanding enterprise-based social innovation

This theme does not easily fit into my values framework: the contested terms ‘social enterprise’ and ‘social entrepreneurship’ featured in the title of both programmes and were found throughout the institutional documentation, but in actual practice the hosting organisations operated on various organisational models so the research question adapted to the sample, which reinforced the conceptual debate discussed in the literature review and the interpretive methodology chosen for the study. Yet, in regards to expanded student understandings, value in thinking about the ‘paradox’ and ‘tension’ between profit and social aims seemed to be uniquely important to student perspective change as a result of the placements, and were elucidated clearly by a majority of students often through reflective inquiry (first quote below) and other times through a categorical challenge to their former thinking or general perspectives about social entrepreneurship (second quote).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Example student quotes – Understanding social enterprise or CSR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 DUK2S5</td>
<td>‘Through the [programme] scheme, I am acknowledging the corporate sector as a realm of welfare provision. How can impersonal profit-maximizing enterprises know what’s best for people? Working with [hosting org.], however, there seems to be this inextricable link between producer and consumer.’</td>
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</table>

**Programme Two**

(A)US2S6: ‘I have learned that not everything that has a business model and is trying to achieve a social good I should consider a social enterprise. It’s a very gray area.... I think one of the things I realise and I also benefit from working in the center and being exposed to other social enterprises. If I’d only been on this project, I would probably have thought that social enterprises are a joke. The ones that I think are successful, I don’t think the owners of those businesses would consider themselves to be social entrepreneurs.’

Like US2S6 in the second quote above, my findings across stakeholder perspectives show that the placements do not clarify, but rather skew, the already robust debate on defining social entrepreneurship. For example, Programme One students were placed in the CSR departments of companies belonging to a single corporation; for this programme the term ‘social entrepreneurship’ was used because the strategy that the hosting corporation used was unique in the world of CSR and consisted of contributing a majority profit share to *community development through local enterprise development*. One programme coordinator (US1F1), for example, came into the programme only three years before my data capture and suggested ‘social enterprise’ was a ‘remnant’ of the original programme. Also in Programme One, some cases (UK2S2, UK2S5) worked directly with local social entrepreneurs for their projects, but others completed work on other *social benefit projects* sponsored by the corporation unrelated to social enterprise (UK2S4, US1S2). These facts emerged only during the placements, creating a shift in my research question and sampling strategy from ‘social enterprise’ to ‘enterprise-based social benefit’ projects (a feature in all of the hosting organisation *value propositions*). Likewise, Programme Two students were placed in organisations called ‘social
enterprises’ but US2S6, for example, reported that ‘(this company) is not a social enterprise...they are a charity’; so for this student, like several others in the same Programme (US2S4, US2S1) there was still confusion in defining the social enterprise six months after the placement.

The fact that over half of the students from both Programmes reported on the before placement survey that they had ‘not heard about social enterprise’ before studying at university supports the evidence that social entrepreneurship is a trend promoted particularly in higher education. Students found the tension between ‘social’ and ‘enterprise’ not only a unique aspect of their expanded understanding of social systems but also important to understand for many reasons that correspond to their personal values and goals: whether a career in development was worth the effort (US2S5); whether ‘markets’ rather than NGOs or governments could impact the world’s most difficult problems (UK2S4, US2S8); whether enterprise-based solutions could address environmental degradation caused by enterprise (US2S6); to participate in international service learning (US2S2, US1S3); and whether corporations could be models of social responsibility (UK1S1, UK2S2).

Independent of the organisational form, faculty and Hosting Organisation Reps perceived distinct value in ‘understanding’ an innovative type of developmental practice that uses enterprise-based solutions to tackle significant social and environmental problems faced in the ‘developing world.’ Faculty from both Programmes (UK12F2, US2F4) perceived value to students in learning about innovative enterprise solutions in severely resource-constrained environments and the ‘social entrepreneurs’ who create these solutions. USHR1, for example, who had a decade of engineering experience in the US, said working in these resource-strapped environments modelled the core processes of engineering better than ‘any US internship’ where ‘things are done for you.’ US2F2 explained at length how these placements represented a new model of student development because of the ‘systems thinking’ behind these innovations, which he explained was not found in any other forms of particularly experiential learning. He went further to suggest that students benefit from the case method combined with action research. Further to this point, US2F3 explained how ‘critical theory’ did not provide solutions to specific development problems and
makes students feel forlorn, whereas social entrepreneurship demonstrated to students that specific developmental problems could be addressed through ‘innovative enterprise solutions.’

Important to the discussion concerning social impact, both Faculty and Hosting Organisation Reps identified how the culture of problem-solving affected students’ intellectual development. For example, UK12F2 (first quote on the following page) suggested that the student’s orientation towards providing value changes once the student is ‘stretched’ by the ingenuity of social entrepreneurs and the student becomes more intent on providing impact to the community. Similarly, USHR3 (fourth quote below) identified how the focus on social impact is not to ‘play’ and be ‘self-indulgent’ through international experiential learning, but rather to create value for the project beneficiaries by way of social impact, which in turn makes the experience more ‘authentic.’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Example institutional stakeholder quotes – Understanding social enterprise or CSR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td><strong>Faculty</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>UK12F2: ‘I think this is the social entrepreneurship side: you get out there, you’re working with the community, you can just see how resourceful that community is…your relationship with the communities that you’re working with becomes one of ‘well, how can I use what I know to help this community? I want to do what I can to help this community move along.’ So I think that kicks in. They can’t really imagine what it’s going to be like no matter how much you tell them, and so getting out there seeing on the ground how communities are living on very few resources and opportunities that are available to people in those communities are so limited… I think it’s stretching, it does stretch them’</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>25</td>
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<td>26</td>
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</table>

US2F2: ‘the student gets this kind of big picture, this kind of meta-analysis…so the idea of creating enterprise type solutions that are economically viable is a very unique approach. So that conceptual meta-model is laid out and in the practical approach to ‘how do you actually build identify, and build and sustain the social enterprises? That education is part of what [the internship does] and then they actually go out and they work in the field, you know they work shoulder to shoulder with these ventures…looking at it from a systems perspective: how do you intervene to change that reality? So I think it’s a very different model.’
Codes

Example institutional stakeholder quotes – Understanding social enterprise or CSR (cont.)

Hosting Organisation Reps

UKHR1: ‘I don’t think that they change when they are here. They may have developed some understanding what it is like to be in Asia and to be a doctor and what it’s like to be a human being in Asia... so I think that it touches human life in a way that you begin...UKHR1 (cont.): ... to think...the idea is not to change the global poverty as such, but [it’s enough] even if you change how you see it or how you say it.’

USHR3: ‘[supporting social enterprises] gives you a purpose to be there and helps you kind of explore in a more authentic way. I think I really appreciated like every time I’ve been in India. It’s been I’m there for a reason. I’m not just there to play and I think that the students appreciate that as well. It feels a little less self-indulgent and so I think that the students...definitely learn more about social enterprise and how it works.’

Self-discovery

Developing an expanded view of oneself represents a clear epistemic change in specific students’ perceived knowledge of ‘self’, and would best fit in the ideological category of my framework. I am using self-discovery as an umbrella term here which includes the concepts of ‘self-development’, ‘self-confidence’, ‘self-knowledge’ and ‘transformative learning’ found in the literature. Several students from both Programmes reported a new feeling of confidence, usually connected to taking ‘initiative’ – both the initiative to start new things (UK2S2; UK2S5) and the initiative to self-direct one’s own work activities (US1S1, US2S6). Other confidence was related to taking a new career trajectory (US2S5, US1S3) or ‘finding’ oneself in community-benefit work as opposed to typical post-university careers (UK2S5, US1S3). Some of this was articulated in personal qualities like ‘confidence’ (first quote on the following page) or ‘assertiveness’ (second quote on the following page), but also in terms of an increased understanding one’s skills such as being resourceful and successfully adapting to new contexts (third quote on the following page):
Codes | Example student quotes – Self discovery
--- | ---
36 | **Programme One**
A)UK2S2: ‘I think in terms of the skills set and calm confidence to take responsibility over situations; to initiate something, I think that’s what this experience provided me with, the confidence to do that.’

D)US1S1: 'I've learned to value a few qualities that I think are necessary to accomplish work, such as initiative and assertiveness. I spent the first couple of weeks in the office not doing much, until I finally took the initiative to ask to go places or set up interviews, etc. It helped change my experience a lot.'

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38 | **Programme Two**
A)US2S7: ‘My biggest concern was being able to identify with the [developing country] people despite speaking a language different than their own…my fears were intensified when I realised I was going to be doing research with the hearing impaired population… All of these preliminary fears quickly went away as soon as everyone took out their phones…That moment was the ultimate turning point in my communication fears. I became extremely open-minded to the language barrier seeing it as an opportunity to learn.’

Hosting Organisation Reps also reported this type of discovery as important and normal. USHR2, reflecting on her own experience as an intern to India, said: ‘when you are pushed into a new environment and you are forced to do things so differently and you are so far outside of your comfort zone – it kind of like rattled my core being so much that I saw myself more clearly.’ Oftentimes the self-discovery mentioned by Hosting Organisation Reps was connected to a specific discipline such as engineering or management (USHR1, UKHR1, respectively) or skill-set like ‘leadership’ or ‘critical thinking’ (USHR3).

Faculty respondents mentioned the importance of self-discovery mostly in relation to *empathy*. For example, US2F2 noted the irony, but also the benefit of expanding understandings of self through serving those in need. Similarly US2F1, when asked if he could encapsulate the value of the placement in a word or phrase, unhesitatingly said: ‘instead of drawing you in, it throws you out into new places that you haven’t been before and in doing so, you discover
yourself.’ In relation to the unique value of learning through social entrepreneurship engagement, from the faculty perspective across programmes the student’s ability to provide value to beneficiaries through empathy results in self-discovery and a more mature understanding of their unique skill sets (first quote below) as well as personal qualities (second through fourth quotes below):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Example institutional stakeholder quotes – Self discovery</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Faculty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>UK12F2: ‘one of the years we had a student when he got out there, his project became two projects and he always felt rather concerned about that...but he did deliver and it was to his credit that he did...So this was an unexpected raising the bar of the challenge. But the student met that challenge.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>US2F4: ‘It's also in keeping with our tradition focused on more a more profound understanding of self and one's deepest actions and desires, and how those passions, desires, and skills might be aligned with the needs of particular groups of people so that the students have a clear sense about what they might do when they're finished, and so it's designed to help sharpen and hone their ability to understand themselves so that they can make better choices about a lifetime of learning.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Hosting Organisation Reps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>UKHR1: ‘So the question is, do they self-actualize or not?’</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>USHR2: ‘I saw them [again after the placement] in their native environment at [the university] and it was really interesting to see US2SX...her view of the world was especially more global and inclusive and had strong Jesuit values. [She] before studied abroad in El Salvador. She was really excited about connecting with the people on an individual level.’</td>
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Research Question #2: How is value created?

If students change their perspectives as a result of the placement, what contextual and intervening variables appear to influence the change?
One main finding from Research Question #1 was that stakeholders value new student perspectives that result from the placements. *Perspective change*, as a value construct, came about through the literature review, expert interviews before and during the placements, and texts analysed from students on previous placements in the same Programmes. For example, blog posts recorded in the pilot study from Programme Two, and in a 2011 article published in a major UK newspaper about the Programme One scheme the interviewee said: ‘I think I have a new perspective after spending time in India. I’m more attentive and aware of my surroundings.’

If change could be put on a continuum between incremental and life transforming, perspective changes in the pilot and the actual study were more incremental than life-transforming, although both occurred. Stakeholders typically used *comparative adverbs* (such as ‘more’ and ‘less’) to signify some qualitative change, for example ‘she was more global’ (USHR2) or ‘I’m more aware of my surroundings’ (Programme Two Predecessor above). Likewise, a general assumption from the programme documentation, faculty and Hosting Organisation Rep respondents across Programmes was that some sort of perspective change would be the most important and beneficial outcome of the placement. Major themes found in student longitudinal data for Question #1 also indicated important and beneficial student perspective changes: ‘learning about a foreign culture,’ ‘understanding social innovation,’ ‘critical thinking,’ and ‘self-discovery.’

A majority of the cases described influences in relation to common *internal or context-embedded variables that triggered a change, and consequently effected a change in behaviour*. The ‘effect in behaviour’ was understood through the longitudinal data, strengthening or challenging the claims made by self-reports. Perspective changes seemed to focus on what I call *objects of lived experience*, referring to the objects familiar to the individual being asked. In other words, students tended not to generalise their experience but rather apply aspects of the placement experience to something familiar and important in their own individual lives, i.e. an ‘object,’ such as their university studies, upbringing, career, personality, own culture and the host culture, and experience with developmental practice. Self-report findings within cases were triangulated
across 83 primary student data sources in 15 cases, further triangulated with witness perspectives from other stakeholders and longitudinal documentary sources, then synthesised into themes using thematic analysis:

**Table 9: Influences on student perspective change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context-embedded triggers</th>
<th>Internal triggers</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty</td>
<td>Personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-cultural immersion</td>
<td>Formative experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficiaries</td>
<td>Passion for change</td>
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<tr>
<td>Enterprise Staff</td>
<td>Empathic inclination</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social innovation immersion</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Action-compelling circumstances</td>
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**Internal influences on student perspective change**

*Personality factors, specifically empathy*

Eight cases across Programmes in the pre-placement Survey data indicated they had previous ‘volunteering’ or ‘service learning’ experience, which suggested an *inclination toward helping others*. Coupled with the fact that neither programme offered a salary, and the majority of pre-placement survey respondents from both Programmes judged an important feature of the placement as ‘helping people in need,’ the case for dispositions toward empathy and altruism in both Programmes was strong before collecting longitudinal data.

‘Learning by doing as the best way to learn’ and an extraverted temperament appeared among the top 50% of ranked pre-placement items in all cases. Extraversion was also indicated in the Post-placement survey with ‘connecting to other people in a meaningful way’ and ‘meeting interesting people’ as high-ranking value items of the placements. Finally, psychometric testing found in the pre-placement documentary evidence from Programme Two (*n*=14; the ‘Myers-Briggs Temperament Indicator’ and ‘Group Personality Radar’ tests), classified 71% of this Programme as extraverts and 71% as scoring high on an ‘empathy index.’
However, these neat classifications of the ‘ideal’ participant type were somewhat confounded by qualitative longitudinal data. In interviews during and after placement US2S2 challenged the fixed notions of her strong ‘introverted’ temperament determined by the MBTI, by suggesting that the close and open community-context of Nepal (object of lived experience) exposed her true extraverted character. In fact, she reported this as the most important thing she learned about herself on the placement and six months after placement reported that:

‘when I came back here [to the US], I’ve sort of slipped into the normal pattern again where yes, I still talk to people and go out with people, but not as much anymore because it’s harder to make time for that and the people here are not as close together anymore, as they were over there.’

Although psychometric data was only captured in Programme Two, cases from across ‘personality’ types, cultures, and universities changed their perspectives after trying to understand the perspective of the ‘other’ (UKHR1) which is generally referred to as empathy. As aforementioned, psychometric tests identified strong ‘empathy’ in 71% of Programme Two. For Programme One, this trigger could be seen in UK2S5 who during the placement was ‘sitting with the local women daily in their homes.’ Taking their perspective sparked a certain later devotion to that community one year later when she attempted to develop a UK-based social venture supporting this specific community. Likewise, empathizing with research participants in the field gave UK2S4 a new perspective on scripting the content of interview questions, (an important skill he reported for the post-graduate job he found as a researcher). And US2S6 talked about ‘learning to listen’ as a main benefit of the placement, but not only listening: ‘I learned to engage with people better and try and learn from people in conversations better. I’ve taken advantage of just like listening…trying to understand their perspectives.’

**Formative experiences before the placement**

Certain formative experiences seemed to prime students for a perspective change as part of this placement. These might have included ‘service learning’
or other charitable work the students had engaged in, but in the data only included former internship or ‘study abroad’ experiences that had shaped student views more generally that were then reconsidered by the present placement. For example, US2S5 generalised about cultures based on her earlier study abroad experience in Italy, but her perspective changed during this placement as she was now able to compare ‘Zambians’ to ‘Italians’ to ‘Americans’:

‘I guess the biggest thing that I saw a lot more commonality between people like when I went Italy. I was like ‘Italians are so different from us’ because I expected them to be similar but when I went to Zambia I was like ‘oh Zambians are so similar to us’ because I expected them to be so different. Even people who live in rural huts and haven’t touched money in the past three years…still like get into the same kind of dramatic quibbles about like people’s drama in their villages…I was like everyone has a lot more in common then we think they do, which I think is really nice.’

In another experience where formative experience shaped a perspective change, UK2S4’s previous work with an ‘incompetent’ NGO influenced him to generally distrust aid initiatives and seek enterprise-based solutions to development. After this placement he expressed a desire to work even further into the for-profit world and had already applied and interviewed to work in a for-profit tech start up in London. In both examples, a comparison was made based on experience. Generalisations stemming from earlier ‘formative experiences’ were challenged by the new experience from this placement, and ultimately these earlier experiences became the objects of lived experience (intercultural relations) focused on explaining how a perspective change took hold.

**Passion for change**

‘Help address a social problem I feel passionate about’ appeared in 11 cases before and six cases after placement in the Survey, and was discussed by participants in seven cases during, and nine cases after placement. Consistency of passion was supported by individual case demographic data such as degree major and critical incidents the case had previous experience with poverty. US2S6 was the most consistent case in the data, feeling
passionate about environmental protection before placement, putting in a considerable amount of extra effort to support this passion during the placement, other cases talking about him in relation to this passion, and him seeking employment opportunities after the placement to engage in protecting the environment. In other cases, however, changes relevant to passion represented two types: those cases who before placement indicated a passion but they later could not articulate the same passion or it had become less important, and those who through the placement ‘renewed’ or ‘reaffirmed’ their passion about a particular issue.

Regarding the former type, before placement US2S2 had a desire to work in low-income economies and was passionate about education as the solution to development. Education as the solution to poverty still remained a belief during and after placement in interviews, but six months after placement financial security concerns seemed to influence a change in her determination to follow her passion:

‘I have other priorities as well like getting a job like having financial security in the future, and we were talking about this and I think that if there were a well-paying job in development I wouldn’t go for it right now. I would build up my skill set, establish a career and then after that maybe I would go into development. I just don’t see it being a very stable future for me right now.’

In contrast, UK2S4 had previously worked with NGOs and with the government on projects related to his passion for environmental protection, but his job roles became such a burden that ‘it was hard to wake up and go to work at 6 a.m. in the morning on a Monday. It was so boring and you were like receiving money for that and you’re bored and you don’t want to do that.’ But he reported that his overseas experience renewed his passion to create social change opportunities in his home country of Brazil:

‘[After the placement and a further internship in Germany] I feel like I want to do something from the ground from Ground Zero, you know long-term… I want to feel like I’m being part of something from the start to the end. So I’m really passionate about transformation of green spaces, specifically urban green spaces. So I am…talking to people that live by green spaces and making these transformations happen.’
Personality, empathy, formative experiences, and passion for change appeared to be ‘internal influences’ that afforded a change in perspective across several cases, but could not be fully demonstrated in this project because these influences were inextricable from the contexts in which they were observed.

**Context-embedded influences on student perspective change**

*Faculty intervention*

In the Pre-placement Survey, five cases (representing UK, US and both Programmes) without prompt wrote in the additional space provided that an expected beneficial relationship change of the placement would be ‘more in-depth discussion/debate with professors’, but this was not mentioned by any cases after placement as beneficial. In fact, in her Post-Survey, UK1S1 highlights the non-involvement of faculty in regards to Programme One:

‘Teachers are not involved at all, it is a separate initiative, not related to our core courses at the university. Same with fellow students. As for the relationships with the other interns, they have not changed either, I think we are sharing and are still sharing a common interest in social enterprise.’

Regarding faculty advisors in Programme Two, however, about half of the cases cited their faculty ‘mentors’ as essential supports and inspirations during and after placement (US2S2, US2S5, US2S6, and US2S8), whereas others weren’t mentioned at all.

Faculty intervention appeared to lead to *critical thinking* and was supported by specific faculty-driven programme lessons. For example, this photo:

*Figure 8: Neo-colonialism student discussion prompt*
was strategically inserted into the syllabus material without explanation by US2F4 to ‘prompt’ students with what he perceived as the inevitable discussion on ‘white privilege’ and ‘neo-colonialism.’ It is unknown whether this specific photo prompted discussions amongst the cohorts studied, but this example highlights corroboratory data that showed a faculty member intervened to support critical thinking whenever and wherever possible throughout the Programme, and students referred back to these interventions when reporting perspective changes.

Similarly, pre-departure material in US1F3’s graduate courses contained a ‘critical’ case study, country report and literature review. He reported that some frank criticism was gladly taken and acted upon by the hosting organisation when one student in Programme One had made recommendations based on findings during his placement. Crucially, the student had an engaged faculty member to communicate with before submitting the final draft to the hosting organisation.

In the former case, an engaged faculty member used teacher-inserted material to create a ‘white privilege’ discussion, which led to specific mention of a perspective change in five cases; in the latter case, a credible report submitted to the hosting organisation changed the perspective of not only the student but also the hosting organisation, and was acted upon in their strategic operations. On the other hand, lack of faculty involvement can result in a situation like US1S2 discussed in his post-placement interview where the hosting organisation manipulated a draft to support their own Public Relation ends.

Perspective changes related to ability to handle academic discussions with faculty and peers were reported in qualitative data from several post-placement interviews; and a deeper appreciation of how the professors intervened was succinctly reported by US2S8 in the same open-field survey question post-placement: ‘Students became teachers and teachers became students. In order to solve the complex problems social enterprises face no one has all the answers and everyone from everyone.’
Cross-cultural immersion

Chosen cases were immersed in eight different national contexts as well as eight sub-cultural contexts within India for two months. Overall, the code ‘learning about a foreign culture’ appeared 116 times during and 95 times after placement across all 15 cases, and was compared between 30 primary sources during and 23 after placement. The expected finding was that living and working within ‘intense’ international communities for longer than a few days would afford several perspective changes. Further inquiry into the student primary data showed a more impactful perspective change for cases that spent time in rural areas and directly with programme staff and beneficiaries. For example, shortly after the placement US2S5 blogged about her perspective change after the placement:

‘The eight weeks I spent in rural Zambia this summer changed how I look at the world. I learned about life in a rural village, poverty, and true happiness while I was there. These rural villages are incredibly remote which makes it difficult to build infrastructure to serve the local people…My experiences there have shifted how I view the world and I’m still wrestling with how my views have changed and what those changes mean….For me, the biggest impacts came from my interactions with the local people and realise the harsh realities of abject poverty.’

After discussing the ‘harsh realities’ at length and how these have changed her perspective, she contrasts the developing world through the terms ‘poverty’ and ‘happiness’ side by side. Later in the text she shares exactly how being immersed in local culture impacted her:

‘[Local lady cook] also taught me everything I know about traditional Tongan cultural practices. While making n’shima or chocolate cake, I questioned her about marriage practices, celebrations, dancing, and singing…We danced together in the kitchen, to both Tonga drumming and Jay Z. All the Tonga greetings we learned were drilled into us during our time in the kitchen…People in the outstations were shocked and pleasantly surprised when we sputtered our infantile Tonga. Her knowledge of the gossip and goings on around town helped me appreciate the social structures and her connections. One day she took [another student] and I to the local hospital. Not only did we get a private tour by one of the directors, we also had a
chance to meet a variety of patients. We even met a woman in labour. [Local Lady’s] connections within the town helped us become accepted by the wider community and I cannot imagine how I could ever repay her.’

In other cases the examples of cross-cultural immersion were also written with a similar profound tone, using strong, mostly appreciative language expressing impact on the student.

In both cases above there were objects of the student’s lived experience (i.e. development work, poverty, and school) that connected the student’s life to the context through cross-cultural immersion experiences. Cases who had previously worked on international internships (UK2S2, UK2S4) or study abroad (US2S2, US2S5) indicated that the immersion process into local cultures, particularly in the so-called ‘developing world’ had vastly more impact on them than other study abroad experiences. US2S2 explained:

‘They have cultural ethnicity this quarter and being back [on campus] it was interesting because I attended two of those [classes] and it’s almost everyone has travelled someplace today, but I think that there was a clear difference in the perspectives of the people who have never been to the developing world before and the people who had been, and I sort of saw, that gap before the fellowship because I had been to the developing world before that, but after that I realised it’s a really big gap.’

There was also evidence of immersive language learning itself to be an important ‘eye opener’ in the field, particularly in contrast to classroom-based learning:

‘When I do brave the attempt to utter a perfectly composed, well-rehearsed sentence in Hindi, it is usually met with one of two reactions: a) the person I am talking to responds in perfect English or b) they simply laugh...and then respond in perfect English. (Having that awkward moment when you realise that two years of Hindi instruction means diddly-squat in a country where even the six year old school-children’s English is better than my Hindi).’

To borrow a term used by several stakeholders in interviews, some cases also mentioned going outside of their comfort zone by being immersed in these communities as important to their perspective changes – for example, lack of
internet or running water (UK2S5), dealing with local corruption (US2S5; US2S6), being a young, attractive foreign girl in an area where rapes were common (US1S1), and having access to areas where ‘tourists’ weren’t allowed to go:

‘It’s a way of challenging what [students] know through seeing a completely different example… I don’t study this subject, but other students who are studying CSR studied pollution reducing stoves. And then I was able to see them in the house [the hosting org.] gave the opportunity to us to go travel together with them to discover those little places, those villages where you cannot possibly go as a tourist without them. So it’s the chance to see for real what your work means.’

UK1S1 here generalised her perspective change out to other cases, particularly those students who study CSR in university. She relied on objects of her lived experience, i.e. ‘little villages’ and ‘pollution-reducing stoves’ as evidence of her cultural immersion, i.e. ‘where you cannot possibly go as a tourist.’

**Beneficiary identification**

About half of the cases from Programme One and most teams from Programme Two had direct experience with programme beneficiaries at some point, which always consisted of people on the ‘bottom of the pyramid’ in their respective country. Consistent across Programmes was the type of relationship: collecting research data in order to ‘empower’ local social enterprise initiatives. The distinctiveness of these relationships was influenced by the distinctiveness of the social innovation initiatives that created the need for interaction.

For example, before the placement US2S7 felt incapable of communicating in a foreign language. Fate provided him a double challenge – collecting interview data about a solar-powered hearing aid in a foreign language (Portuguese) from beneficiaries who were deaf. He reported as a main benefit of the placement in Brazil a new communicative confidence resulting from the shared solution the beneficiaries and he devised: to communicate through cell phone translators.

At the same time on a different continent, UK2S1 interviewed disabled people in rural India earning vocational training certificates and children in the process of
creating a butterfly museum to fund their education. She reported being in awe of these innovations during placement and closely identifying with these unique beneficiaries, but in her MSc dissertation on the subject after the placement she revealed her perspective change when she identified an unhealthy dependency-relationship between the beneficiaries and the hosting organisation.

In both of the cases cited above, perspective change could simply not have happened without identification with beneficiaries.

In most cases, identification with beneficiaries reinforced participant notions that they as individuals could help change lives for the better. In particular there were personal relationships built with female cases in contact with female beneficiaries. The local women in India had such an impact on UK2S5 that during placement she spoke of them as sisters and after the placement she took steps to start an e-commerce social enterprise to sell their goods overseas. Since then she has even changed her after graduation career plans to support this initiative, looking at an internship at Amazon as a way to develop requisite skills to forward this vision to support the beneficiaries she identified with. In another part of India, US1S1, who had previous experience in the US working with an assaulted women’s shelter, dealt with a ‘culture shock’ when women there challenged her ideas about the innocence of rape victims, and this helped spawn a perspective shift that resulted in her applying for, and getting, a human rights fellowship eight months after placement.

**Enterprise Staff identification**

‘Positive identification with Hosting. Org. staff’ was reported in eleven cases during and eight cases after placement. For US1S3 in Programme One a conversation with a local staff member during placement was the tipping point for the case to completely alter his graduate school trajectory, and six months post-placement the case had indeed changed his major. Similarly, US2S5 and US2S6 both mentioned a local social entrepreneur in Uganda as an inspiration to their own lives. US2S6, who was ‘mentored’ by this inspiring person, mentioned him by name on nine occasions in three primary sources. In this case, the relationship was essential to the case’s perspective changes about
many objects of lived experience, such as defining the ‘social entrepreneur,’ assessing his own learning style, developing his writing talent, and the importance of addressing environmental issues at both the grass-roots and policy levels. As a result of seeing the world through his mentor’s perspective (discussed more in depth in Appendix C example case), this student’s commitment to environmental justice was solidified and resulted in a relevant funding application.

‘Negative identification with Hosting. Org. staff’ was also reported in six cases during and four cases post-placement. US1S2 during placement said ‘I've had an outstanding time on field visits, but the supervisors assigned are always busy doing their own things. I’m often on my own and quite confused as to how to proceed’ and after placement he reported that his internship supervisor had evaluated him a ‘2 out of 10’ for arbitrary reasons related to ‘cultural tropes.’ Before placement, US2S8 hoped ‘to use [the hosting orgs.] as inspirational motivators for the ‘Average Joe's’ of the world to get up and serve others’ but six months post-placement he reported that relationships on the ground revealed the different ‘motives’ of many ‘social entrepreneurs’ than what was purported in the pre-placement semester: ‘it was a this Grail that was being held up...when we came back to work in the accelerator that’s when it really became clear to me that a lot of these people were working for social good, but were really there to make money.’

Social innovation immersion

Being immersed into the context or ‘working shoulder to shoulder’ with social entrepreneurs in the field was perceived by faculty to have a lifelong effect on students (US2F4, UK12F2) and even seen as a new learning model (US2F2, US2F1, UK12F2). Findings show that a majority of students had a positive view of social entrepreneurship before placement, which changed somewhat during and after placement towards some sort of realism. This trigger was supported by respondents with examples of objects of lived experience, such as career, civic involvement, view of charity and the host culture.
Sometimes perspectives on social innovation appeared in a post-modern type of relativism militating against grand narratives (UK2S2), but at other times it was utilitarian pragmatism (US2S8) that saw ‘skills’ as the answer to pressing development concerns. Many students had a perspective change in the sense of a ‘realisation’ that social entrepreneurship is an integrative epistemology, meaning it is not a ‘one size fits all’ type of solution (US2S5, US1S2). This, along with a reflective realism was also hoped for by the academics and Hosting Organisation Reps involved (US2F4, UK1F1, US1F3, USHR1).

There were various perspective changes related to social entrepreneurship as a result of field experience and about half reported a change in career trajectory somewhat due to this factor. Although having direct experience with socio-economic models in low-income populations had a positive influence on the beliefs of several cases about their individual agency to solve the world’s most intractable problems (US1S1, US1S3, UK2S2, US2S6), many reported becoming more sceptical about the social innovation discourse in general. For example, UK2S1 after working with the hosting organisation for just four weeks: ‘I still believe companies can do some good things socially through their CSR, but I have also realised that even good/honest people in a company which has some ethics are still first and foremost businessman.’

Data also showed that direct experience with social innovation in a low-income economy could influence one’s view away from charity toward problem-solving. The following quote from US1S3 during placement encapsulates the broader discussion on what Dees (2012) identifies as a ‘charity vs. problem-solving’ approach to development:

‘I came to India convinced to provide for these people in whatever way I could – namely through the food in my pack or the few rupees in my wallet. India challenged me to do otherwise. There is a social pressure to give charity when poverty looks you in the eye; my heart told me to give, but logically I understood it wouldn’t help them in the long run. Direct charity is a noteworthy cause but unless the need is immediate, it creates dependence and potentially a sense of entitlement in their efforts to beg for spare change.’

¹ supported with concrete examples in her post-placement MSc dissertation.
But after working in the accountancy department of the hosting organisation which oversees more than 200 social innovation initiatives across India, this northern California native found a new hope:

‘the problem demanded a new approach. By no means should the solution be obvious, but I believe something of value doesn’t come without some friction. This exchange pushed me to look higher upstream in the context of examining this problem at its core. Many of us have many of our basic needs: food, shelter, and the privilege of education. Coming to India has challenged me to revisit whether I am pursuing my academics for self-gain or instead to provide an infrastructure in helping those without those same luxuries.’

After placement, not one single case in either Programme changed their overall negative view of charity expressed vividly by US2S1:

‘that’s what I believe really strongly about social entrepreneurship is that it’s not charity. I think that’s really important. So I really like that they go there with a business perspective, but they also try to make a difference.’

Yet both Programmes did attract a ‘self-selecting’ (US2F3, US2S5, US2F3) group of students generally incredulous of the value of charity-type service work. In fact, before the placement ‘volunteer work’ as an expected benefit wasn’t ticked on the rank order survey by a single case; yet ‘support social enterprises’ and ‘help people in need’ were in the top-ranked items across Programmes. Furthermore, the idea of charity is reported across Programmes as regressive and ‘neo-colonial’ in several during and after placement interviews (UK2S1; UK2S4; US2S5; US2S6; US2S8). Additionally, several cases in their bio (pre-placement) and in their during interview talked about the difference between the value of a social innovation vs. aid approach to development and several readings in Programme Two before placement (such as ‘Dead Aid’ by Moyo, 2009) took this general stance. Thus the immersion experience served as a catalyst for perspective change but also as a reinforcement of existing ideological viewpoints.
Perspective changes based on a type of ‘critical thinking’ that led to actual behaviour changes indicated that being involved directly in social innovation contexts in the developing world effected a change. For example, US2S5:

‘I knew that the traditional system of aid was broken even before I applied for the[programme]. I had plans of working to improve the system. Yet I do not think I fully comprehended how collapsed the system truly was... Millions of dollars has been funnelled into the community and despite their best efforts; there has been little change. Of course [hosting community] is doing much better than many other surrounding communities with their education system, the radio broadcasts, and the free health clinics; yet, the absolute and overwhelming poverty trudges on without significant change... no lack of hard work, and no lack of effort, but the system was broken. That realization was difficult for me because it upended my strategic and streamlined life plan. I realised that I could not continue on that trajectory, I could not work within the broken system.’

Likewise, the forms of ‘systems thinking’ referred to by faculty and Hosting Organisation Reps could also be seen by students who applied social innovation concepts upon their return, such as US1S2:

‘one thing that has changed is that I don’t believe growth is zero sum that’s important a big principle of corporate social responsibility... in general I think the ability to recognize the growth is nonzero sum and to apply that principle to other organisations is really important. one thing that (University) newspaper does or what we started this year is that we started this activity in schools.’

As both examples show, the value of ‘critical thinking’ about the broader structures in society as part of a social innovation immersion played a part in actual behaviours directed toward objects of lived experience (i.e. career, civil service) in students’ lives.

Action-compelling circumstances

There was another contextual variable that appeared to trigger a change in perspective across several cases by affording students new ‘confidence,’ ‘skills,’ and new ways of approaching work and study. Paradoxically, this intervention
was a non-intervention in developmental practice: the lack of structured
guidance, the minimal expectations of the hosting organisations, and projects
that would inevitably fail.

Despite the ‘romantic views students have about the developing world’
(UKHR1) and their ‘elite university’ education (UK12F2), many students
understood within a few days in the field that they were simply unable to
achieve their project aims. Faculty member UK12F2 suggested that seeing
communities who create innovative solutions based on very little resources
would trigger students to act; however, the student longitudinal data presents
situations where a perspective change resulted based not only on the ingenuity
of the beneficiaries or social entrepreneurs, but on the compelling
circumstances of the situation.

Two sets of unfortunate circumstances seemed to compel students to change
their perspective and then their behaviour on the ground and after the
placement: main projects not providing use to the hosting organisation; or
organized projects that failed due to local circumstances.

Main projects not providing use

US1S1 used the word ‘frustrated’ more than any other word in her during
interview, describing the laissez-faire way the management dealt with her, but
later reports:

‘I spent the first couple of weeks in the office not doing much, until I finally
took the initiative to ask to go places or set up interviews, etc. It helped
change my experience a lot, which has been immensely helpful.’

She then contrasted her new proactive self with her old ‘lazy’ self who always
performed according to the specific tasks she was given, both in university and
in her US government internship. Sticking to the term ‘initiative’ to signify the
perspective change, she said:

‘So coming here, the one thing that I have learned most definitely, maybe
not leadership (I hope I’ve learned leadership) but at least I’ve learned
initiative and I’ve learned, creativity, I’ve learned that if I want to do something I’ve got to do it, and I’ve got to take what little I have and make something great out of it.’

This was a similar experience for UK2S5, who came into the placement without relevant skill or knowledge about the task she was to perform, saying ‘I even had to google the term business plan.’ Like US1S1, she reported that training and guidance were unavailable. Once she had reached the conclusion on the ground that she could ‘provide no value whatsoever’ she decided to act by seeking to understand beneficiaries’ lives and seeking ways after the placement to help market their products. Six months later she reported a change in ‘confidence’ regarding her ability to efficiently complete academic work:

‘It has given me confidence to do things differently. I am I wake up at five in the morning and work two hours when everybody else is asleep and then have the rest of the day to follow my own things other than more and I can get as much work got had they done by a that evening.’

Likewise, UK2S2 reported six months after placement how low-expectations had affected his own way of approaching school work, specifically ‘in a more relaxed way’ that produced ‘better results.’ Like US1S1, he had been on other internships before, but viewed this new perspective on approaching work as a direct result of this placement:

‘I can speak regarding my managers. I think it was more challenging because they actually had very low expectations of me when I got there and said ‘oh yeah, just produce a six page report just tell us what you find here and there.’ You don’t need to worry about any extravagant details or coming up with anything new, but that’s sort of spurred me to actually do something more than what they expected.’

In over half the cases student attitude to work shifted and there was a context embedded compelling force involved which was not strategically planned, but rather part of what US1F3 called the ‘messiness of development.’
Organised projects that failed

Another set of circumstances that seemed to impel action leading to a perspective change were situations that had challenging yet feasible goals, but for some reason or another, students could not deliver. For example, US2S5 had a lot of negative feedback to offer concerning the ‘tangible goals’ that were missing from the original project that failed; however, she noted in the same response that the alternate course of action taken produced valuable results and that this experience helped her discover something about herself:

‘I learned a lot about myself. I get really frustrated if I am not doing something that doesn’t have a purpose or meaning. We spent a lot of time doing absolutely nothing, and I didn’t necessarily take it very well…and I felt like the work that we did end up doing wasn’t necessarily very valuable. It ended up being really valuable because they ended up winning this huge grant, but we didn’t think that we would be able to use that information for the grant application. So, definitely looking into jobs and stuff, I think I want to be able to kind of see the product of my work. I guess…not necessarily immediately, but some sort of tangible goal, which we did not have.’

Despite the main project showing early signs of failure, unexpectedly positive results occurred. US2S5 spent time developing an understanding of the culture and had a unique change in perspective as quoted above in the ‘cross-cultural immersion’ section. Yet perhaps more significantly, US2S6 (on the same team as US2S5) was compelled to act after realizing the main project seemed to be a disaster and would waste his time. Since his mentor had immense relevant knowledge but limited writing ability, US2S6 found a problem that he could solve. The result was an entire textbook written for several beneficiaries (including those not considered in the initial project) that would empower them to self-sustain through step-by-step instructions on irrigation and sustainable farming. Being compelled to ‘do something’ also triggered him to discover something about himself: the main benefit this student reported from the placement was he ‘learned [he] could write.’ US2S6 not only provided value on the ground but surfaced his writing talent that back in the US after placement and turned it into paid employment writing professional web content for social enterprises, and further paid project work for a similar writing project on an entirely different continent.
On another continent and through a different programme, UK2S4 could not adequately complete his individual project aim and struggled to find value in a project for which he was ill-equipped to handle, i.e. direct sales. In this case, the hosting organisation project aims required skills that the student simply did not have:

‘While I was there and after I left the company I realised that I am really good in research things and I am not really good in selling things. So during a point in the internship at (hosting org.) I had to talk to some people to sell ideas environment ideas especially in the field of recycling. And I realised that when it came to talking about values and moneys, I was terrible at it. I was really really bad, that was the feedback for myself when I was there.’

Nevertheless, after this valuable field experience and critical reflection on his weaknesses, the student was able to narrow his career trajectory and find a relevant job after the placement that used the market research skills without the need to sell anything. In these last three cases, the perspective change focused on career as an object of lived experience and ended with a change in career trajectory.
Chapter Six: Discussion

Overview

Cross-stakeholder perspectives from multiple stakeholder databases revealed several important areas for higher education research and practice, particularly when meditated through social entrepreneurship engagement. Both Programmes inferred social entrepreneurship placements would bring significant value to students and beneficiaries through meaningful experiences that made a qualitative difference in the lives of both the students and the world’s poorest citizens. This ‘both/and’ value feature of these placements corresponded to the ‘dual nature’ of social entrepreneurship discussed in the literature review and built upon by my Value to Selves framework, and turned the paradox of competing value frameworks into a distinct hybridization of value frameworks for students. The effect of the placements on beneficiaries, however, was generally very limited, which raises questions about the ‘self-interest’ versus ‘others-regarding’ value to the stakeholders supporting these programmes. The discussion section is organised in reverse chronological fashion, focusing first on the perceptions of ‘value’ across stakeholders and the learning implications in relation to the placements written in the findings; then moving back towards the strengths and weaknesses of the theoretical frame; raising questions about the value to beneficiaries compared to students; and finally discussing whether problematising the ‘SE Concepts’ found in the literature provided any distinct value to students.

Understanding stakeholder perspectives in context

This first section of the discussion explores the impact of the placements on student self-perception; employability; leadership, management, and civic involvement; individual relationships; and transformative learning, as five areas of perceived value across cases and stakeholder groups. These areas were either found in both the literature and the exploratory findings, or underdeveloped in the literature and emerged through the findings as important to the perceived value to students.
Student self-perception

I have used ‘Self-discovery’ as an umbrella term in the findings to signify the perceived value of personal development discussed in the literature. Terms that were used by students included ‘confidence,’ ‘initiative,’ ‘knowing about myself,’ and ‘learning about myself.’ The faculty level coordination teams came from and lived around the world so knew from their own intercultural experience how the shock of a completely different environment changes the ‘self.’ This finding corresponded to Biesta’s (2010) pedagogy of interruption discussed in the literature, where ‘learning’ happens as the self is reconfigured as previous norms are challenged through social experience. Thus US2F1 reported that there is an embedded learning-about-self found in the social relations of these programmes: a ‘centripetal force’ of the placements, as he put it, ‘that throws you out to learn about others, and by learning about others you learn about yourself.’

The similarity of this ‘self-development’ norm across stakeholders is weakened however by the situatedness of the experience and the position of the observer. For example, some students had previous service learning experience which drove them to do charitable acts; additionally, all of the data collected was verbal, meaning that there were no behavioural changes researched; and the ‘self-development’ of the researcher on his own higher education journey during the process, all which limit the generalisability of the findings.

In relation to economic ideology, there were also clear class and race issues at play in the perceived value to students, that included feelings of ‘white guilt’ and ‘white privilege’ as discoveries about one’s Self (terms I learned from the cases themselves, not from the literature review). Cases were referring to the economic and political advantages that ‘Westerners’ had compared to particularly the African and Indian cultures encompassing their placement experience and this was discussed at length in Programme Two during their post-placement reflections as well as with many cases in Programme One during their post-placement interviews. However, the ratio of white-to-minority students on these placements was over 80%, so the ‘white guilt’ factor seemed to be limited to the sample characteristics. Nevertheless, from their self-reports
as well as the ‘elite’ status of the universities where they were studying, the 20% of non-white students could be assumed to come from a somewhat ‘privileged’ social position and also reported a self-discovery of their own privilege.

Therefore, the notion of ‘self-discovery’ having only positive connotations is false: sometimes, these placements enabled an internalisation of the neo-colonial and other cultural conflicts of the students, giving them more expanded views of themselves in a socio-cultural frame. This value is highly advantageous to students if indeed ‘self-discovery’ can be gained from a two-month work placement in a developing country, especially as it contains powerful self-understanding in relation to racial and class systems. Nevertheless, as most of these students were from top-tier universities, it is unclear whether this ‘critical’ self-understanding would similarly affect the self-perception of lesser-privileged students in higher education, for example students from a community college or vocational programme.

Employability

Employability is a key factor in assessing the ‘lifetime value’ of a degree nowadays (Economist, 2015) but it remains unclear after this study whether the perceived employability value of these placements enabled student development. The language of employability was not used in either of the programmes’ literature as a promotion. Nevertheless, the programme designs required students to fit into categories where they were predominately looking for internship opportunities (third/fourth year undergraduate or final year masters) to increase their employment chances. Furthermore, each programme promised some employability-related features in the documentation, such as a ‘worldwide network’ and experience with one of the World’s ‘top companies.’

Students differed sharply in their before to after perspectives on the employability value of their placements. For example, several students on both cohorts expected to do something in-line with their degree, but on the placement did nothing related to their disciplinary major. In a typical case there was an expectation for engineering experience, and the student felt that she
needed this experience because she only had her school grades and projects to support her CV. But she never obtained the experience; the project had limited value, and she was unable to use her engineering talent. She was left to either find a different experience or try to compete against other engineering graduates with ‘real world’ experience. In fact, very few students reported valuable degree-related experience resulting from the placements.

Faculty, however, focused on the longer-term job prospects for the students and downplayed employability generally, yet recognised the importance of the assumed employability advantages of the placement to students. For example, in Programme Two after the placement there were organised visits from LinkedIn and other companies to help students frame the experience on their CVs. This contrast in importance was logical: that the older, more experienced faculty and Hosting Organisation Reps would be able to see the longer-term value as opposed to the students who are focused on the immediate opportunities after graduation. It also revealed that faculty needed to be consciously aware of and actively involved in fostering employability opportunities for students.

The literature suggests the faculty were right: in a longitudinal study of 50 years (Paige et al., 2010), the international placement experience was the ‘most impactful’ experience of student lives. Add this to a current estimated average of nine careers in a given individual’s life, and the student’s low-estimation of this value suggests the perceived value of employability should be looked at over a longer period than in this study. However, in the current climate of employability, which is globally dominated and propelled largely by the US economy (where over half my cases would be seeking post-graduation employment), even without loan debt the high expectation and importance of employability on the part of many students after these placements is concerning.

There are two important results from this study related to this current ‘drive’ in UK and US universities for students to focus on employability: The first relates to the way students planned to present experience to prospective employers,
aka image management. Students coming from placements could, in the words of one case ‘talk about something interesting in an interview’ (US1S2). The second result relates to the way that social entrepreneurship was perceived in relation to employability: as an uncertain path that did not seem to fulfil the experience/internship requirement for any disciplinary major. This could be a result of the ‘interdisciplinary nature’ of social entrepreneurship, the limited opportunities available for internships, or other factors. What the finding does show is that ‘employability’ was important to students, even during the intense experience of serving the poor in developing countries.

Leadership, management, and civic involvement

If the term ‘leadership’ refers to leadership as the supervision and direction of others in specified tasks, these students, particularly in Programme One, exhibited leadership in other areas of their life before and after the placements but not during the placements. This type of previous experience ranged from religious groups (UK2S2) to leading school newspapers (US1S2) and school societies (UK2S5). On the one hand, this finding strengthens Quinlan’s (2011) claim that service-oriented experiences show good leadership by the university executives and transfer to ‘servant leadership’ development amongst students. On the other hand, student leadership activities could be related more to personality factors than the experiences, since these students all had orientations toward leadership identified in the before placement data.

Additionally, the findings indicated that the expectation for ‘leadership’ was apparent throughout the institutional documentation in the two programmes under study, but there was little evidence of leadership opportunities being actually designed, executed or reported in the cases. In these cases the students could scarcely report any of their or their peers’ leadership activity, unless ‘leadership’ means ‘modelling social awareness and a service mentality,’ which could be observed in the data across stakeholders. One Hosting Organisation Rep suggested that there is a form of ‘self-leadership’ that needed

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2 Several students articulated the specific ways that they planned to boost their image through the experience, with the ‘developing world’ mentioned much more often than the social entrepreneurship experience in relation to using the placement to one’s job-seeking advantage.
to take place to be in these environments, but this term is questionable, and without activities to ‘lead’ others I remain sceptical.

If leadership development is enhanced by performing civil/public service activities, such as theorised in Astin and Astin’s (2000) ‘transformative leadership’ theory of student engagement, then neither programme resulted in leadership because there was very little increase in civic action back home. The fact that in only one of the 15 cases a student returned to their home country and increased their civic involvement shows evidence of the ‘post-modern’ idea of disillusionment with politics and political leadership that UK and US students are facing. Furthermore, the one student who did increase civic participation upon return was actually Brazilian, studying on a UK Master’s degree and already somewhat involved in political action in Brazil before the placement.

This finding aligns with the concerns of Ehrlich et al. (2006), who observed an increase in US undergraduate volunteering but a decrease in their political involvement. Several students in these cases reported an increased mistrust of politics in foreign countries, and a realisation of the value of their own political system. This was helpful to illuminate the critical thinking section below, but insufficient to propel students to action. So there was perceived value to students in expanding their understanding about the complexity of public leadership, recognition of the value of their own political advantages, and in committing to specific beneficiary groups, but the educational value of the placements – at least in the short term – did not impact civic leadership behaviour or even concern about, for example, domestic poverty.

The students in my case studies could not be seen as social entrepreneurs, or managers or civic leaders, but the findings showed that some associated competencies were activated independent of the student’s disciplinary major through engaging with social entrepreneurship. For example, Pless et al. (2012) in their ‘responsible global leadership’ set of competencies, maintained that managers in modern corporations who have developed a ‘global mind-set’ through project-based service activities are better equipped to deal with the ambiguity and complexity created by a multitude of cultural heterogeneity, organisational environments and structural changes. This ‘grasping and
managing complexity’ competency was seen across cases and programmes in my study. For example, one student who had visited Nepal reported:

“Many of the men in these villages would go outside of the country for work – Now what you have is broken families, which makes things like education more difficult and things like that more difficult. So all that development had many components to it, and they were interrelated in many different ways. For example, the man of the house was abroad, and the children were usually growing up without fathers for very long periods of time, and the women had to take care of everything, but they would be farming as well. So they didn’t have an education themselves. It was all interconnected.”

The student’s ability to articulate how poverty was ‘interconnected’ to a precarious cycle of activity shows that this student has identified potential causal factors or ‘grasped the complexity’ of the situation. However, the second part of the competency, or ‘managing’ complexity, is less apparent in the above example and generally in the placements. So the difficult question is not whether these students developed leadership, management, or entrepreneurship competencies, but rather: ‘leadership: where do we start?’

The Importance of personal relationships

Much of the research literature and several faculty participants talked about the importance of learning about the ‘other,’ but in every single case the ‘other’ was embodied in a specific cultural frame or a certain person who came into the case’s life as part of the placement. These results reinforce the suggestions made by Mezirow and Taylor (2009, p.8) who identified ‘authentic relationships’ as an essential component to transformative learning from social benefit activities, even going so far as to say that critical reflection was ‘meaningless’ without building personal relationships during transformative learning experiences.

Students on these placements perceived value in building relationships with mentors, peers, Hosting Organisation Reps., and their own cultures. The intensity of these experiences was unforgettable to these students: for example, the student quote in the previous section was extracted from the case’s
rendition of the event, where the poverty-stricken lady she was listening to had been weeping to her, connecting to her on a human level in one of the poorest places in the World. In this case there had been an additional emotional element pushing the student’s development that could not have been observed from any quantitative analysis: the conversation was in the student’s own second language (as her grandparents came from the same culture and emigrated to the US) so she knew the local language. This cultural familiarity created an unusually high level of access to and focus on the relationships with beneficiaries.

Another quote from a different Programme and continent shows a specific behaviour change as a result of a quite different personal encounter:

(D)US1S3: ‘the most significant change so far would be my consideration of changing my studies at [university]. At the moment I am studying (degree unrelated to business) with a minor in Business; what sparked the thought to change majors was a conversation I had with [a local hosting org. employee]. We talked for hours, specifically about corporate business, our work and life experiences, the people we’ve met along the way, and what really separated the good from the great.’

The student in the above quote has had what Mezirow (1991; 2009; discussed in next section) calls a ‘disorienting dilemma,’ where his meaning frames were reshuffled and he was reconsidering his degree trajectory. Yet the important trigger of transformation in this and several other cases was a local person who had somehow become close to the student. The person he was chatting with was an Indian local who worked for the hosting organisation and chaperoned the previous cohort, but who now had other responsibilities. It was this person, who sat down and listened, persuaded, who knows what else, that, according to the student, disoriented the student enough to decide to change his degree at a top-ranking university. Although there were most likely other drivers for this change, the personal encounter seemed to be the tipping point.

The idea of the ‘personal encounter’ was also discussed by the most senior (in age) professor interviewed. He cried during the interview when recounting his own first encounter with extreme poverty, the feeling of helplessness he had,
and the stimulus to start using his life to make an impact. In most of the cases there was not such a ‘spark’ that changed the student’s career trajectory in such meaningful ways.

My inclination leads me towards thinking of the above-mentioned case (US1S3) as a certain personality type that might have ideological roots primarily influencing the change – the ‘personal encounter’ acting merely as a decision point. Consequently, for a student who is empathic and ‘open-to-experience’ the personal encounter in such a different part of the world can create an almost ‘spiritual’ experience and lead to this tipping point of perspective change noticed in these cases.

One of the most striking resemblances across cases was the admiration that students held of the Hosting Organisation Reps, which included CEOs to helpers to NGO workers at the same sites. The clearest example of this was found in US2S6, recounted in the case narrative where the African man of the forest, college educated and teaching hundreds of villagers how to grow crops and live healthier lives in the midst of unjust deforestation practices, took his time to show a 21 year old US American student around. Depending on which theoretical backdrop invoked to explain the experience, there was a ‘disorienting dilemma’ or an ‘interruption’ that the student reflected on after the experience:

‘In those four and a half weeks [first half of placement] I had seen my idealistic picture of working in Africa crumble into a barely recognizable reality, tainted by the difficulties of trying to be productive in a place where productivity was as rare as my white skin.’

By the end of the placement, however, the youth felt that he could understand the specialist’s field techniques well enough to translate them into a manual. The mentor was mentioned on 9 occasions in 3 different sources and from three respondents:

‘I don’t have anything to compare it to, but sort of [my mentor], there said if you were here five years ago this would be a really lush forest, and all we could see this like beautiful pastures, but now all we can see of this like these swathes of just completely ruin’
The mentor, who passionately despaired of the ruin, also gave the young mentee hope by taking him to a secret garden where the mentor disappeared and gave the student some developmental space:

‘[My Mentor] left me to do some routine checkups and I took a seat under a tree and began to ponder the splendour of the place. I began to realise the importance of educating these people about the benefits of these gardens, the reason [My Mentor] gets out of bed every day. My cynicism melted away that day and was replaced by a new, more refined and realistic idealism, an idealism based on practical action and self-empowerment.’

The clear growth of this student that resulted through personally engaging with the local mentor could not have been staged or designed by universities. Like the ‘centripetal force’ aforementioned by US2F1, and the unassailable ‘interruption’ of the previous norms of the student’s subjective self (Biesta, 2010), this student’s ‘refined and realistic idealism’ existed in the periphery of the goal of the intervention, yet through an authentic relationship with the ‘other’ became the value of the intervention itself.

The mentor-mentee relationship in the above example, and the empathy in the Nepal example, and the student who changed his degree course example illustrate how three students on completely different placements (and continents) could have an entirely different transformation influenced by a meeting or event with a local person, and how that personal ‘encounter’ resulted in significant perspective change. Data here as elsewhere is insufficient to provide generalisations to all similar experiences, yet the importance of personal relationships built during these intense circumstances gave this study some striking examples of student growth and development through an ‘other.’

Critical transformation

One of the advantages of having a qualitative longitudinal element within an educational case study is the opportunity to observe changes in the student’s ‘development’ resulting from the intervention, especially if the intervention is an intense experience which acts as a ‘catalyst’ to significant, or even ‘transformative’ learning (Mezirow & Taylor, 2009). My research shows that
two types of critical thinking were important to student perspective change and tied to the experiential learning component or ‘catalyst’ of the placements. The following quotes from US2S2 show a case of transformation:

*Before:* ‘I believe education moulds the foundation for superior individual and societal welfare, and that creating markets with correctly aligned incentives in education can have long-term beneficial effects on worldwide problems such as health and unemployment as well…through the fellowship, I hope to use such key insights and soft skills [from my unique degree programme] to promote social change through social entrepreneurship.’

*After:* ‘I thought that there was tremendous change done every day and then I got there and change was happening, but it was much slower. And it took an entire company to put on this radio programme and it was many steps and they were working so hard – ultimately, this radio programme aired one time. I was like “how many lives has that changed?”…I was like, this company is doing so much but ultimately how much change are they making.

The above quotes highlight two forms of ‘critical thinking’ activated in the student that come from two ontologically different schools of thought. The first type of critical thinking US2S2 showed is self-critical. This is what Mezirow (1991; 2009) refers to as ‘critical reflection’ and was observed in all cases, where students critically reflected on, and then articulated how their worldview before placement developed into a more nuanced understanding of themselves during placement. According to Mezirow and Taylor (2009, p.7), in this stage of transformative learning the subject ‘questions the integrity of deeply held assumptions and beliefs based on prior experience.’ In the case of US2S2, her deeply held belief in the power to change society through the ‘superior’ method of social entrepreneurship was challenged. Nevertheless, this maturity through critical thinking was in some ways a negative outcome, as this student – as well as many others who go on placements in developing countries – seemed to lose her former motivations to make a difference in the World and focus on employability instead.

The second type of critical thinking US2S2 shows is systematic. She noted that the production of the devices was held up by many interlocked systems that
combined together to produce an overall inefficient structure. Add to this the corruption and backroom dealing she witnessed, and through the ‘catalyst’ of experiencing this first hand on a project she originally had idealistic hopes about she began to think about the speed of change and the underlying systematic forces that worked to hinder change. This type of critical thinking is outward-focused and has its roots in several different conceptions of ‘critical’.

In my understanding, the fundamental difference in this second form of critical thinking is that it is promoted by those who rely on a materialistic or ‘objective’ framework of reality (in the sense of Marx), whereas in Mezirow’s theory critical reflection supposes a psychological framework of reality. The key learning theorist for this materialist form of critical thinking is Paolo Freire (1968), who suggested that the ‘oppressed’ could only be freed from their ‘oppressors’ through a transformative learning process, and in effect, transform society through critical thinking and action (called praxis). Thus, in this frame of critical thinking, there is a real oppressor and the experiential intervention that makes this reality ‘conscious’ to the learner, and transforms their social world as a result.

This second type of critical thinking is notable in this study because, unlike the psychological type that is commonly reported in educational journals this critical thinking situates the (mostly) white, middle class UK and US students into a position with people historically oppressed by their ancestors and arguably oppressed today by a system that perpetuates poverty in developing countries in exchange for the material wealth of a few in the West. Unlike the first type of critical thinking, which is more ‘me and the world,’ this type is much more an ‘us and them’ scenario. This second type of critical thinking explains why placements in rural areas or directly involving beneficiaries lead to this materialist form of criticality, as Freire’s studies also analysed the experience of these marginalised groups.

Taking on Freire’s (1968) notions of transformation through ‘conscientization’ or becoming aware in the critical sense, these personal relationships forged in developing countries forcibly challenge the student to critically reflect on the morally unjust systematic forces that brought the relationship together between
student and beneficiary in the first place – a sort of transformation that I thought before the study should disrupt the core being of the individual. In the end, however, devastating to my own idealistic picture of placements in developing countries but also to the design of the placements, only a few students on these placements had ‘life-changing’ transformations in either critical sense. Students mostly had slight alterations of perspective, counting these personal experiences as important and beneficial but shifting focus onto ‘life as usual’ shortly after they arrived back home.

**Raising questions about the value of placements**

Practical questions arise regarding the length of the placements and the feasibility of the projects to provide social impact, and moral questions arise concerning the notion of co-curricular ‘international service’ activities that might recreate, rather than reduce, class and racial inequality for UK and US students.

*Raising practical questions*

In several cases, such as US1S1 and UK2S2, the length of placement was inconsequential due to the lack of a specified ‘deliverable’ or expected outcome. However, most cases went through an extended period of culture shock and a steep learning curve in their respective contexts that was valuable from the ‘cross-cultural learning’ and ‘global responsible leadership’ perspectives found in the literature, but limited the social impact of the projects. In other words, by the time that most cases settled in, the work placement was half over. I found in neither Programme that students were prepared with relevant linguistic or research methods training before placement, despite specific deliverables requiring these skills. This fact, along with the high rate of acceptance across Programmes (50% of applicants) raises questions about universities fulfilling their ‘student demand’ for international service projects at the expense of producing tangible results for the hosting organisation beneficiaries. Similarly, the connection between academic skills and practical results was fostered by both Programmes through an ‘action research’ or ‘participatory rural appraisal’ approach, but in every single case except where the students spoke
the local language (US1S2, US2S4) there needed to be intermediaries and chaperones for each student, which is quite impractical and yields multiple translations and interpretations that undermine the entire research aim. The fact that most students were inexperienced and unknowledgeable about the research techniques they were required to apply, and that translators mostly came from the hosting organisations, severely limited the value of any data collected.

An illuminating example highlighting both questionable practices of these complex work placements is the case of US2S7, where the deliverable was to gain perspectives from hearing-impaired Portuguese speakers that would then translate into product development of a hearing-aid. He came onto the placement with no knowledge of Portuguese, the national or local context, working with the hearing-impaired, or qualitative research methods – yet producing his deliverable required knowledge of all these areas, which should have been obvious to the programme management. He came up ‘on the fly’ with a creative solution: using Google Translate with beneficiaries on their smart phones. Although this whole experience provided transformative value for the student’s perspective change, it remains questionable whether the value to the hosting organisation was worth the $4,000 expense of sending this clearly ill equipped student onto the placement.

Raising moral questions

Despite the fact that US2S7 provided very limited value to the beneficiaries or hosting organisation involved, he has since used the placement on his resume to obtain employment at a leading corporate firm, citing the ‘advantages’ of working with social innovation rather than taking on a ‘bank internship or something.’ Referring back to the literature examples of Northampton (UK) and Northeastern (US) universities, even in the case of supposed altruistic activities like social entrepreneurship engagement or International service learning, higher education institutions are pressured by funding bodies such as the HEFCE to create differentiated ‘value’ to students through aligning programmes with employability skills and unique experiences that competitor universities cannot offer. Seen from this view, social entrepreneurship is the perfect outlet
for recreating class and race inequality – through fostering competitive advantage for the ‘white privilege’ students who engage in these activities. In the case of US2S7, the placement offered the appearance of a morally good ‘global citizen’ and simultaneously presented him to employers as having unique experience and skills, when in fact one year after the placement he reported that he still ‘could only speak about five words of Portuguese.’

Likewise, evidence of a class-based ‘Me Self’ that limited the ‘We’ or ‘I’ value of the placements could be found in the statements of faculty respondents across Programmes and both from the UK (UK12F2) and US (US2F1), who happily indicated that these placements provide competitive advantage in the marketplace and graduate school admissions. Students confirmed. US2S1, who said she would ‘milk’ the experience for career purposes, and was finding a way to ‘spin’ the experience to show she worked on a disciplinary-specific project when in fact she had not, furthered her claims of competitive advantage in the sense of US corporate employers perceiving her ‘developing world’ experience as representing a selfless, altruistic person and therefore more trustworthy. In contrast, students who have no record of ‘social’ or ‘entrepreneurship’ on their CVs or graduate school admissions statements are potentially excluded from this ‘privileged’ status of the young entrepreneurial do-gooder: for example, low-income students who must work during summer break; students attending higher education institutions without substantial financial backing from alumni and/or corporate partners that subsidise the placements; and beneficiaries of the placements who might aspire to better social positions through access to higher education.

Aspiring to claim a ‘distinct value’ of social entrepreneurship

There are two aspirational goals that university systems seem to be striving for in creating these placements, and the findings indicate that these are indeed aspirational: social impact and student demand.
The wish for social impact

One area of distinct value I suggested was that when attaching ‘social impact measures’ to service or work-based learning, the perspective change process takes on a distinct value feature that is inextricable from the student’s developed understanding of the effects of that experience on beneficiaries. This feature of the placements was connected to the ‘social impact’ framework posited by Dees (2012), where the student is seen as cognisant of the effects of his or her ‘service’ on the beneficiary groups. Unfortunately, although faculty and institutional documentation made quite large claims about the impact of these placements, students had limited opportunities to apply their new understandings to other fields (within the timeframe of the study). As a consequence, students perceived limited value through social impact: particularly in Programme One where the outcomes were not even shared with students.

Furthermore, some Hosting Organisation Reps in Programme Two saw little value in the placements and called on programmes to consider a direct investment into social enterprises rather than sending students, which, in their estimation would enable more social impact than coordinating several employees full-time and hundreds of thousands of dollars for travel and management of students who would at best provide some ‘action research’ on a small marketing project. This complaint connected to the supposed ‘interdisciplinary’ nature of the placements and the fact that the student participants came from disciplinary majors largely disconnected from the needs of the hosting organisation projects. Since the students came from what I called ‘non-management’ disciplines, they often felt incompetent and questioned the purpose of their involvement. In one case, for example, a student reported that she had to ‘google’ the term ‘business plan’ before the placement (UK2S5) so she could at least understand what was expected of her to produce for beneficiaries.

Nevertheless, the impact goal in every case was aimed at specific beneficiary groups, allowing for feasible projects to be implemented. Yet some students became dismayed at the real prospects of development and felt uncertain about
their stance regarding the value of social entrepreneurial and other activities aimed to lesson the real burden of poverty. In the few cases where the student did (office) work away from beneficiaries, the emotional connection was logically much less intense, even bordering insignificant, but in most cases there were indicators of impact that the students were looking for, that they had prepared for and expected even if they lacked the skill sets to create much impact. This heightened the intensity of student perspective change due to its ‘real-world consequences’ and action research focus. Therefore, where impact was not seen, students seemed to be very disappointed, which at the individual personality level uncovered a connection between their desire to ‘make a difference’ in beneficiary lives and their self-interest in wanting to feel accomplished about the project’s impact.

This connection between impact and ego-needs that could be seen on the individual level in my cases indicates a conscious awareness of participants to the theorised ‘paradox’ between self-interest and others-regarding in their activity that is inherent in the ethos of social entrepreneurship. The claim that dealing with this paradox somehow builds leadership or any other skills was not found in my study, however, and with the many other contradictory practices of organisations that students could develop from, does not seem a distinct area of value confined to engagement with social entrepreneurship. What paradox does seem to do in the context of student engagement with social entrepreneurship is trigger critical reflection on two levels: the individual and the societal.

**The wish for demand**

In the literature review I suggested that ‘student demand’ for social entrepreneurship engagement comes largely from other places than students. The results support this assessment, as well as the fact that social entrepreneurship remains on the periphery in higher education. The data showed that Programme One admitted about 50% of applicants, meaning that roughly only 30 out of over 20,000 potential students showed interest. This number is strikingly low, especially as the ‘Ivy League’ and ‘Red Brick’ universities in Programme One all have public reputations of strong civic
engagement. Programme Two had a bit more interest, but accepted all 15 applicants out of over 1,500 potential students. Despite the positive data coming from the literature suggesting universities should yield to ‘student demand’ for social entrepreneurship, the data from my study suggests student demand is quite limited and the concept of social entrepreneurship remains of little consequence to higher education.

The lack of interest across campus was difficult for faculty to understand because they could perhaps see the long-term advantage of the placements from the vantage point of their own experiences. Social entrepreneurship was seen by the university and hosting organisation stakeholders as empowering individuals to become self-sustaining problem solvers rather than dependent beneficiaries (Dees, 2012), which – from this perspective – is in beneficiary long-term interest. Likewise, placement within a social entrepreneurship context was seen by these stakeholders to provide long-term value to the student. Thus, from the faculty perspective these were great opportunities that last a lifetime, but this view only translated to students during and after their placements.

In contrast, findings showed that student learning resulted from an increased uncertainty, even mistrust, about the power of social entrepreneurship to realise its empowerment claims in the longer-term. This was clear in Programme One, where several students complained of a communication ‘cut-off’ after the placement, not even learning whether their placement added any value to beneficiaries in the short-term, much less the long-term of their lives.

Even if a research project could capture long-term data on the value to students, however, the students’ mistrust is warranted. After this study it is still uncertain whether short-term placements with social entrepreneurship can provide long-term value in the form of multi-stakeholder empowerment stipulated by the programme claims. This is a result of the lack of data in the broader literature showing that social entrepreneurship itself provides the long-term benefits it promises! (Moulaert et al., 2013). Without established practices

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3 The differences in the programmes’ university contexts is relevant in these ratios, as the programme requirements and designs were different enough to yield little comparative data in the area of student demand for social entrepreneurship engagement.
or strong data, it seems universities are appealing to ‘student demand’ as social proof to justify the early acceptance of the concept across programmes. However, as both programmes in this study were privately-funded by third-party interests (i.e. philanthropy and corporate social responsibility), the ‘demand’ for social entrepreneurship engagement seems to be more of a ‘supply’ of finances and public relations for the universities involved than verifiable student ‘demand.’

My own reflection on this finding is that the demand appeal is a concerning development for valuing university study in general. This ‘knowledge-consumer’ (Lyotard, 1984) focus on demand fundamentally challenges the authority of faculty in lesser-economically-viable areas such as Philosophy, for example, and transfers university human resources to more ‘profitable’ areas that support employability, such as ‘entrepreneurship’ and ‘internships.’ The recent drive in UK and US higher education institutions to produce measureable economic ‘value’ to students, therefore, seems a reductive commodification of something arguably more beneficial in the long-term than employability resulting from the work placements: the value of learning. Nevertheless, when student learning – or ‘expansion’ - includes social entrepreneurship, this study shows that experiential engagement creates avenues for transformative learning and perhaps more importantly, learning through social impact.
Chapter Seven: Conclusion

Overview

In addition to creating a rigorous approach to qualitative research in the area of service learning and work-study abroad, this is the first empirical data to show any comparative value to UK and US students of work placements in international social entrepreneurial contexts. This study shows that ‘hybridising’ seemingly paradoxical value positions in order to understand experiences in socially-entrepreneurial organisations can benefit students personally, socially, and intellectually. However, as value to students is seen from this paradigm as inextricable from perceived social impact, the ambiguity of social impact outcomes of placements raises ethical questions about placing students with limited knowledge, skills, and preparation on projects where they are unprepared to create social value for beneficiaries.

Building on the methodological frame

The breadth of the multiple case study approach that covers both UK and US programmes combined with the length of the qualitative longitudinal research (QLR) design fills a gap in the research on experiential learning in higher education, as most empirical research on internships and service learning is seen to lack rigor and is often perceived as ‘anecdotal’ (Calvert, 2011). This gap is particularly relevant to educational studies that include ‘SE Concepts,’ as the field of social entrepreneurship is itself ‘embryonic’ and lacks an established body of research (Moulaert et al., 2013). Analysing cases across continents and higher education systems therefore provides a step forward in expanding the scope of work placement and social entrepreneurship education studies.

Similarly, having a multiple triangulation design that includes ‘time’ ‘space’ and ‘perspective’ triangulation provides a valuable analytic method in education because researchers and universities often claim an expansive range of student benefits from intense, overseas work and service placements yet lack comparable evidence by drawing from multiple sources. When multiple
perspectives are taken from multiple sources in a case study approach over a time span that begins before the placement and extends beyond graduation, includes a consistent line of questioning, and triangulates data from the home country to the placement context and back, this study and any future study employing a similar approach provides ample evidence of ‘transformation’ ‘development’ or ‘learning’ where it occurs.

**Expanding the ‘Self’ through social entrepreneurship engagement**

The literature review shows how dominant economic ideologies that consider the market ‘value’ of a higher degree are creating much of the discourse around value (e.g. through structuring the perceived value of international work placements through ‘demand’ and ‘employability’ arguments). Simultaneously, the UK and US societies where these cases originate are witnessing a paradigm shift in capitalism from utilitarian conceptions of value to an individual (‘self’) that infer a ‘rationally self-interested’ Self, into a set of deontological theories that include the community ties and moral duties in the formation of the Self (Santos, 2012; Moulaert et al., 2013). As these structural views of Self overlap, social entrepreneurship engagement is seen by university systems as a powerful ‘win-win’ outcome by addressing concrete social problems whilst fulfilling ‘student-as-consumer’ demand (Lange et al., 2013). Within this narrative, the value of placements is perceived as a socioeconomic deliberation between ‘self-interest’ and ‘others-regarding’ activity that creates a mental paradox (Smith et al., 2012).

This paradox is distinct, because when tied to a social impact goal such as the expected deliverables from a placement, students become aware that their involvement (for better or worse) will not only impact their grades or scores, but beneficiary lives. This study thus reveals that experiencing first-hand the ‘value paradox’ of social entrepreneurship creates a ‘tension’ in student thinking that leads to a reconstruction of understanding through ‘hybridising’ competing value structures into student’s own subjectivities.

In order to create the opportunities for students to come to these new understandings of the self and other, universities and programme managers
must create an ‘other’ to benefit from student experience. Rather than the traditional internship exchange where value to the hosting organisation and student reciprocated only ‘self-interest’, social entrepreneurship placements create a third party focus of beneficiaries that requires a hybridisation of competing self-interest and others-regarding value structures.

This hybridisation of ‘I’ and ‘we’ value structures is purported by socio-economists to take the best of both ways of thinking to create ‘social impact,’ or a measureable change in the well being of beneficiaries through market activity. One of the main reasons to take into account ‘value to beneficiaries’ in interpreting the value of the placements to students is the moral structure of social entrepreneurship itself. The beneficiary populations in this study are amongst the World’s lowest-income populations, and within the social entrepreneurship ethos of problem-solving (Dees, 2012) student learning cannot be separated from thought and action directed towards solving specific problems for specific beneficiaries. Therefore, if perceived value to the student is measured absent of perceived value to beneficiaries, the claim to be a social-entrepreneurial placement is categorically false, because the two are interconnected within the fundamental aims of social entrepreneurship. Likewise, ‘service learning’ also includes the notion of providing ‘mutual benefit’ to students and beneficiaries, and the ethics of beneficence in research with human subjects also require this reciprocal benefit, so the above theoretical position is transferable to other social change initiatives that involve students but raises the standard to a measurable, long-term impact for beneficiaries as well as students.

As a result, this study contributes to higher education theory by showing that intense field experience in social entrepreneurial contexts create an atmosphere for an intellectual and moral ‘expansion’ (Biesta, 2010) that affects students long after the placement experience has passed. Like Mezirow (2009) and Freire’s (1968) dominant transformative learning theories, this expansion requires a disorientation (what Biesta terms an ‘interruption’) followed by a self-reflective dialogue that opens new understandings of Self and society to the student. In contrast to the aforementioned dominant transformative theories, however, this ‘expansion’ does not necessarily result in the experience
‘seriously challenging their worldview’ as in Mezirow’s (2009, p.18) conception, or becoming ‘conscious’ of an oppressive ‘reality’ as in Freire’s (1968) conception – but rather results in an opening of the consciousness to more possibilities of Self in relation to impacting what I have termed ‘objects of lived experience,’ referring to the objects familiar to the individual being asked. In other words, the concept of ‘perspective change’ in this study is not generalised but rather applied to aspects familiar and important to student’s own (subjective) lives, i.e. an ‘object’ such as their university studies, upbringing, career, personality, own culture and the host culture, and understanding of social entrepreneurship.

This study provides evidence from 15 field placements in social entrepreneurial contexts that student development – or ‘openings of Self’ to use Biesta’s terminology – occurred consistently across cases and contexts as revealed by the longitudinal data. This process was linear: before the placement the student had an idealistic belief in the power of social entrepreneurship and the student’s self-belief as a ‘heroic’ (DeFourney & Nyssens, 2013) change agent. This was followed by the placement experience with specific social impact aims serving as the ‘interruption’ or catalyst for ‘opening’ student understanding to the more realistic ‘messiness of development’ (US1F3) and the limitations of their individual power to ‘change the world.’ This was followed by a during and/or after-placement perspective change in relation to objects of their own lived experience – such as family relationships, career plans, or a critical understanding of their own value systems in relation to ‘other’ value systems experienced during the placement. The following table summarises this ‘expansion’ found across UK and US cases from both programmes:

**Table 10: Expansions of self resulting from the placements**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘Expansions’ of Self</th>
<th>Examples and interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Programme fit between student’s personality, background, and interests</td>
<td>Students who showed an ‘empathic orientation’ before the placement increased their perspective-taking ability by empathising in new contexts and with specific ‘others’ (US2S2; US2S7; UK2S1); and students who showed strong interest in social/environmental change before the placement increased their passion for problem-solving through social entrepreneurial methods (US2S6; UK2S4).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Students came on the placements with the promise that their ‘employability’ would increase. This instrumental goal was transformed by social entrepreneurship field experience into an ideological (re)alignment of career goals toward self-fulfilment and social benefit (US1S3; UK1S1); a feeling that social entrepreneurship was more valuable than NGO or government work in developing contexts (US2S4); or a complete move away from a career in development (US2S2; UK2S2; US1S1).

Students expanded through identifying opportunities to solve problems in the field. These were sometimes disciplinary-specific (US2S6) and context-embedded (US1S1; UK2S2) and mirrored the types of solutions modelled by social entrepreneurs (USHR1; UKHR1; US2S2; US2S6). Students also expanded their business and management communication skills (UK2S4; US2S2), and market research skills (US2S4; US2S8).

Students learned a specific form of ‘systems thinking’ (term used by US2F2) that required critical evaluation of political, social, and economic systems in order to contextualise problems and seek to create long-term value for beneficiaries.

Students expanded their understanding of the daily struggles of beneficiaries (US2S4; UK1S1; UK2S1) and applied this to understanding their relationships with family and friends back home (UK2S1; US2S8).

Students expanded their ‘classroom’ understanding of social entrepreneurship by learning the ‘real’ challenges of creating social impact in the field, which enabled them to make comparisons between theory and practice and handle more advanced discussions on the topic (US2S6; US2S8; UK2S1; UK1S1; US2S4).

Students learned a broad range about themselves through the field, including personality factors that challenged earlier psychometric testing (US2S1) and hidden competencies (US2S6) to religious beliefs (UK2S2) and what they wanted in a life partner (UK2S1).

Students in general expanded their conscious ability to articulate learning from experience, and to self-reflect in profound ways concerning their sense of identity (US1S1; UK2S1; UK2S2; UK2S4; US2S2; US2S6; US2S8).
Creating value in social entrepreneurship work placements

In addition to theory, this study contributes to practice by identifying specific ‘internal’ and ‘context-embedded’ influences on student perspective change through the placement experience. For example, the longitudinal evidence shows extensive student development through areas such as ‘self-discovery’ and ‘cross-cultural interaction.’ The following table concisely outlines the areas where faculty and programme developers can foster value to students as evidenced from these cases.

### Table 111: Influences on perceived value to students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influences</th>
<th>Examples and interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Opportunities to transition from a ‘school’ to ‘work’ mindset | • Field experience with self-directed ‘concrete deliverables’ challenged students to learn how to accomplish work on their own initiative (UK2S5;US1S1;US2S8).  
• Consistent work hours required students to adapt to organisational requirements that mirror the ‘real world’ of work (US1S3;UK2S4). |
| Completion of meaningful tasks within the placement period | • Sufficient time to complete projects was a consistent issue across placements, resulting in limited ability to complete work. Where projects were clearly defined and had smaller goals that students could accomplish with their existing knowledge and skills, projects were seen as ‘valuable’ (US2S6; US1S2) whereas when students ... students could not complete meaningful tasks projects were seen as ‘useless’ (UK2S1; US1S1).  
• Another consistent issue was the lack of communication by both Programmes concerning the extended results of project work. In most cases, students felt that knowing whether their work was meaningful to the ‘social impact’ would have given them a clearer perception of the value of their placement (US1S2; UK1S1; US2S4; US2S8). |
| Reflection on field experience                        | • In Programme Two, reflection activities that fostered transformation including ‘post-placement’ group discussions and blog posts were combined with book reviews that fostered reflection on the notion of social change through enterprise development (US2F4), |
### Table 11: Influences on perceived value to students (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influences</th>
<th>Examples and interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reflection on field experience (cont.)</td>
<td>whereas lack of programmed individual and group reflection activities limited the value that Programme One participants perceived from the placements (US1S2; UK2S2).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Learning through failure          | - Projects that failed due to lack of expectations from the organisations resulted in student self-discovery in relation to students ‘taking initiative’ for their own learning (US1S1) and finding creative ways to contribute (UK2S2).  
- Organised projects that failed due to circumstances related to developmental contexts created space for students to explore creative projects (US2S6) and think critically about the reasons they were actually participating in the placements (US2S5; UK2S5). |
| Learning from an ‘other’          | - Identification with inspiring social entrepreneurs and managers provided students with models of exceptional human beings (US2S6; UK1S1), while students also had perspective changes resulting from identification with negative role models or ‘bad managers’ in these capacities (US1S2; US1S1).  
- Daily life, or ‘personal encounters’ (US2F3) with beneficiaries gave students transformative views of the ... ‘poor’ (US2S2; UK2S1) and a deeper understanding of how culture influences every aspect of their own lives (US2S4; US1S3; US2S8; UK2S5). |
| Thinking at a systematic level    | - Comparing corporate and work cultures provided students new understandings of context in that ‘business as usual’ (UK2S1; US2S5) in other cultures does not correspond to a US or UK corporate business model (UK2S2).  
- Contrasting the problem-solving ‘theories of change’ driving social entrepreneurship as opposed to ‘charity’ gave students opportunities to look at how complex political, historical, and social systems contribute to poverty and its alleviation, as well as to reflect on how globalisation is affecting different populations (US2F2; UK1S1; UK2S1; US2S2). |
All of these identified influences suggest that student perspective change is inextricable from the student reflecting on objects of lived experience, and reflecting on the social impact of their placement experience on the beneficiaries they ‘encountered’ (US2F3). The notion of perspective change being linked to ‘objects of lived experience’ is an important finding, as perspective change was shown in the case data to both stem from ‘internal’ influences emerging from the student’s personality and background experiences (particularly with volunteering), as well as ‘context-embedded’ influences in the specific field contexts working with social entrepreneurs.

From the ‘value to selves’ standpoint found in social entrepreneurial thinking and uncovered in this dissertation, meaningful experience is integrated dialogically between an ‘I’ and ‘We’ Self, where the student is prompted to consider the reciprocal value to beneficiaries of their placement. This distinct ‘hybridisation’ of value structures is theorised to influence an expansion of understanding within each individual student about their own purpose for participating in the placement, and the multiple case findings support this theory. However, when taking the concept of social impact into consideration in regards to student benefits and the data collected, the measureable value to students in this study far exceeded the practical value that they brought to beneficiaries through the placements. This indicates a need for closer alignment between so-called ‘service’ projects and students, and calls for better clarification from institutions what their purposes are for including inexperienced, non-management students in international projects with third-sector enterprises for work placements.

Limiting the research

Although exhibiting highly innovative placement experiences, the four ‘world-leading’ and one mid-ranked-but-very-wealthy research institutions in my sampling frame were representative of only a small minority of UK and US higher education institutions. Furthermore, each placement had vastly different contextual influences on learning which limited their comparability; for example, each student ‘case’ had a unique ‘deliverable’ determined by the hosting organisation and the academic partner, and work placements occurred in
multiple organisations and locations around the developing world. Additionally, cases came from both the UK and US, which have differing higher education structures and expectations for work placements, and from five different universities, all which have differing expectations for their students on placements and different relationships with the hosting organisations.

Due to the large amount of data collected through the complex methodology, several procedures were implemented that determined the scope of interpretation. This meant that understanding value to individual cases was limited to portions of ‘text’ that could be compared across cases. However, this filtering of data inadvertently removed any ‘aha’ type of perspective change or an illuminating viewpoint that could have been gained from a single instance, unless the value features of the text were identified across two time intervals and corresponded with the thematic coding procedure. I tried to account for this by including a ‘respondent validation’ measure and open-ended questions, but seven cases were finally rejected due to insufficient data for within-case and between-case comparison across time and context, and any one of those cases could have provided singular instances of text important to understanding value.

In relation to framing learning as value, the Value to Selves theory and framework was a valuable categorisation tool, enabling me to shift emergent codes into broad categories and challenge my interpretations during the re-coding process. Nevertheless, any ‘self’ framed within categories that match onto social entrepreneurship philosophies is merely a niche heuristic: my theoretical frame is unlikely to add much value to learning studies that explore areas of the student experience outside of social entrepreneurship or aim to explore areas of value absent a clear paradox. Furthermore, although the framework provided a theoretical basis for the researcher’s ‘pre-understanding’ of underdeveloped ‘paradoxical’ learning theory in social entrepreneurship, the theory flexibly applied concepts in psychology, sociology, education and economics without in-depth analysis from any specific domain.
Further areas for research

In some places in this dissertation I have been critical of the transformative learning value of the programmes; but the period of the ‘longitudinal element’ was actually quite limited. As longitudinal studies in the field of study abroad indicate (e.g. Paige et al., 2010), the influence on the student of intense international learning journey during their university years can be the most impactful of their lives. Similar experiences of intensity to social benefit work placements have been identified to stimulate transformative learning in individuals (Mezirow, 2009; Freire, 1968). If social entrepreneurship field experience in developing contexts can trigger a ‘life-changing’ moment for students, the tangible results would be a form of transformative learning through social entrepreneurship. Further research with larger samples and longer data collection periods can identify whether engaging in social entrepreneurial activity leads to transformative learning, and as one faculty respondent said ‘broadened horizons.’

Although this study represented only a small fraction of UK and US overseas learning initiatives, one of the unanticipated results was the identification of several ‘internal’ and ‘context-embedded’ influences on students having a strong perspective change after the placement in Research Question #2. Some particular influences identified here provide a rich context for empirical exploration: from the ‘positive/negative identification with faculty and supervisors in the field,’ to the ‘Myers-Briggs’ psychometric scores. The ‘Learning through failure’ concept of Edmondson & Cannon (2005) is of note because it was both explored theoretically in my published chapter on competencies for social entrepreneurial experiential learning (Lange & Douglass-Warner, 2014) and then expanded here with corroboratory evidence from multiple cases. Further theory can explain why students change their perspective; and broader quantitative and qualitative studies can show whether particular influences appear across broader populations. Further multiple case research in this area, particularly from a broader spectrum of host countries (e.g. Europe, East Asia) and organizational types (e.g. community colleges, all black colleges), can give more insight into how social entrepreneurial organisations are involved in higher education.
(Re) positioning the researcher

During the course of this study, in one way my own understanding of ‘higher education’ has linked to my understanding of ‘social entrepreneurship,’ in that there is a minimal difference in the teleological aims of the two. Both seek a better human existence and derive their action from sound reasoning. I understand better from empathising with these cases that I also have a ‘heroic,’ ‘practical-idealistic’ and ‘extraverted’ personality that through the research process has become more critical about objects of my own lived experience. Similar to US1S3, this has resulted in transformative learning in the sense of an ‘expansion’ of my own career trajectory: I have realised that my broad experience and skills should be used to directly effect social change through social entrepreneurship as well as discussing it in the halls of academia.

Therefore, shortly before submitting this dissertation I started my own online education social enterprise that combines all of my EdD learning with my diverse skills in an applied form of education.1 The research process has reaffirmed my core passion of giving education opportunities to people so that they can transcend circumstances that limit their growth as human beings. Certainly, my own history of transcending circumstances such as poverty and physical disability through education to finally finish a doctorate in education has taught me that through the process of helping others to expand their Selves, I constantly transform myself.

Currently, I understand that in the newer political and economic discourse poverty is seen as inextricable with opportunity, and opportunity is constructed as a market function. University students are in this estimation subject to the same market socialisation as the beneficiaries they supposedly empower on social benefit projects, and both are fundamentally constructed as consumers and creators of value in a marketplace. This reduction of students into economic (or socioeconomic) value units, i.e. ‘consumers,’ infers ‘learning’ is a measureable ‘function’ of knowledge consumption. From one perspective, this positioning of ‘elite’ UK and US university students as consumers and promising that they can ‘over one summer’ become effective producers of social impact in developing contexts in addition to benefitting through better competitive
advantage in the marketplace over their peers after the placement (employability) is an affront to the social justice ethos that underpins social entrepreneurship; from another perspective, however, social entrepreneurship is a positive evolution of capitalism and students engaging in these placements are building a better future for everyone whilst expanding their understanding about themselves and the 'other,' whether consumers or not. Perhaps this discussion remains political and economic, i.e. broader than the field of education: yet it is precisely the field of education that substantiates social entrepreneurship’s value through catalysing social and environmental change in new and innovative ways.
Appendices

Appendix A: Social Enterprise Pre-Placement Expected Value Survey and Example Survey Report

Social Enterprise Placement Expected Value Survey

Thank you so much for responding to this survey. Your responses are for research purposes only and will not be shared and your names or affiliations will not be published. Responding to the questions is completely voluntary. The survey should take about ten minutes. You can access the results at the end of the study by contacting me here:
Josh Lange: jl387@exeter.ac.uk

1. Please enter your email address here if you are willing to participate in a short interview (15-20 mins) during or after your placement: Name: ____________________________ Email: ____________________________

2. What is your age? __________

3. What is your identified gender? ________________

4. Were you aware of 'social enterprises' before choosing your degree program? Yes ☐ / No ☐

5. What work experience do you have besides this social enterprise work placement?
   - part-time paid employment
   - full-time paid employment
   - Other: ____________________________
   - other work placement e.g. internship
   - volunteering

6. How important are social enterprise placements as part of academic study?
   - Very important – 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ – Not important at all

7. Do you think you will get personal benefits from participating in a social enterprise placement?
   - No, I don't care about personal benefits (tick and go to question 10)
   - Yes

8. Please rank from 1-5 (1 = the best) the benefits that you expect to get from your social enterprise placement
   - Work experience
   - Higher grades
   - Travel abroad
   - Developing networks
   - Feel good about myself
   - Volunteering experience
   - Improved job chances after graduation
   - Better understanding of how social enterprises work
   - Knowledge and skills not covered in the classroom
   - Meeting interesting people
Appendix A: Social Enterprise Pre-Placement Expected Value Survey and Example Survey Report (cont.)

9. Are there any benefits not mentioned that you think are important? Please list and rank if possible:
   
   ____________________________________  ____________________________________

10. In addition to the benefits mentioned above, are there additional reasons you are participating in a social enterprise placement?

   □ Only the benefits mentioned above (tick and go to question 13).
   □ Other reasons besides the benefits mentioned above.

11. Please rank from 1-5 (1= the main reason) the reasons you are participating in a social enterprise placement:

   _ To help people in need
   _ To work with like-minded people
   _ Because it is challenging
   _ To protect the environment
   _ To support social enterprises
   _ Religious beliefs
   _ To learn about other cultures
   _ It relates to my personal history
   _ My teacher thinks it’s a good idea

   _ It’s part of the course – necessary component to pass
   _ To help address a social problem I feel passionate about
   _ To work for an organisation that shares my values
   _ To work for a smaller organisation where my contribution can make a difference
   _ To connect to other people in a meaningful way
   _ Personal values not connected to a specific religion
   _ Learning by doing is the best way to learn

12. Please list any additional reasons not mentioned above that you think are important (and rank if possible)

   ____________________________________

13. If you think this social enterprise placement might change your relationships with your teachers and/or other students, then how do you predict each relationship might change?

   ____________________________________
Appendix A: Social Enterprise Pre-Placement Expected Value Survey and Example Survey Report (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US2 SS</th>
<th>Cohort: 2</th>
<th>Age: 21</th>
<th>Identified Gender: Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Previous SE knowledge: Yes</td>
<td>Previous work experience: Experience in the field through Study Abroad (in India)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Importance of SE work placements as part of academic study</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Will personally benefit/Did benefit from placement</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved job chances after graduation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering experience</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work experience</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel good about myself</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better understanding of how social enterprises work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge and skills not covered in the classroom</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher grades</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting interesting people</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel abroad</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing networks</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Expected versus received benefits

Additional benefits you think are important: Most importantly, I feel a social enterprise placement provides knowledge and skills not covered in the classroom, including developing networks, gaining work experience, etc. And this is the reason why it most appeals to me; this kind of knowledge cannot be taught in the classroom. (BEFORE)

More global perspective-- #1-2 benefit (AFTER)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Any additional reasons for participating in SE placement</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It's part of the course – necessary component to pass</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help people in need</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help address a social problem I feel passionate about</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work for an organisation that shares my values</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with like-minded people</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because it is challenging</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work for organisation where my contribution can make a difference</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connect to other people in a meaningful way</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protect the environment</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To support social enterprises</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious beliefs</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal values not connected to a specific religion</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teacher thinks it's a good idea</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn about other cultures</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It relates to my personal history</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Learning by doing' is the best way to learn</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reasons for participation in SE placement

Any additional reasons: These reasons are quite all encompassing. Most importantly, I believe 'learning by doing' is the best way to gain valuable skills and insights, which further helps to advance personal goals in the field of social entrepreneurship.

n/a, good list above (AFTER)

Expected relationship changes: I think we will see that sometimes we have different personalities and working styles, but using those differences to our advantage in the form of teamwork will help us more successfully achieve our common goals.

Reported relationship change: Yes, I sometimes feel more mature from my experiences compared to other college students. This may also be because I am a senior and am older, but I believe my study abroad and fellowship experiences have a lot to do with my personal growth and maturity.

Anything else added: Thank you!
Appendix B: Coding data – Exploratory, inductive method

Example from post-interview UK2S5 using the researcher's thought processes:

UK2S5 reports a ‘self-discovery’ and potentially ‘transformative’ experience in that it challenged her previous assumptions and brought great meaning and peace to her ‘intrinsically’ after the difficult transition to adulthood (explained in more detail in other parts of the interview, particularly in the realization of a world of work differing from her school experiences). This also reflects her ‘personality’ type by describing her ‘connection with’ others as an outcome, her ‘ideological’ stance of empowering women (expressed at several points across sources as an ‘issue the student is passionate about’) and her ‘idealistic’ belief that she could benefit the women somehow through the connection she made with them, as they benefitted her through this short-term social bonding.

The ‘relational’ value in this excerpt is multi-faceted. She expresses a dislike or ‘negative identification with the hosting organisation’ and believed that they didn’t value the ‘stuff’ she did, i.e. her ‘project work,’ which was not a ‘concrete deliverable.’ Simultaneously she emphasizes her bonds with the ‘tribal women’. This reflects a cross-cultural value coded as ‘relational – foreign culture’ but also a more specific relational value with the ‘beneficiaries’ of the project.
Appendix C: US2S6 Case Report

Summary

This 21 year-old, ‘out-of-state’\(^4\) student, studying the Environment and planning to work in Environmental Protection reported a wide range of development, which is triangulated from five primary sources. The experience solidified his mentor relationships and relationship with the institution. He found a new direction for his lost passion of writing, and received many accolades from his peers as well as using the full-length report and guide he wrote to apply for new career prospects. He also developed knowledge concerning the tensions between structure and agency, particularly with a new and reflective appreciation for complexity regarding environmental politics in developing countries. This new understanding also resulted in scepticism about social benefit organisations, and reinforced his doubts about government. His career aspirations are in flux despite the other placement benefits, and he felt that this was an issue faced by many who ‘give up’ their summer to participate in unpaid work placements.

Most important aspect of the experience: Mentor Relationships “We” Frame

The Mentor is mentioned on 17 occasions in 3 different sources. JB’s mentor was an African Agroforestry social entrepreneur, college educated and now teaching hundreds of villagers how to grow crops and live healthier in a context of tragic deforestation practices. A relationship was built with this local expert on the ground, where a disorienting dilemma\(^ii\) occurred through the placement experience:

‘In those four and a half weeks [first half of placement] I had seen my idealistic picture of working in Africa crumble into a barely recognizable reality, tainted by the difficulties of trying to be productive in a place where productivity was as rare as my white skin.’ (Post Ref.)

\(^4\) In the US system, students who live ‘in-state’ pay considerably less fees (typically 1/4th) so for a US reader this implies both a larger potential student debt and a different sub-culture than California during his upbringing.
He relies on the mentor to make sense of his surroundings:

‘I don’t have anything to compare it to, but sort of [my mentor], he said if you were here five years ago this would be a really lush forest, and all we could see this like beautiful pastures, but now all we can see of this are like these swathes of just completely ruin’

The mentor, who passionately despairs of the ruin, also gives the young mentee hope by taking him to a “secret garden” where the mentor disappears and gives JB developmental space:

‘[My Mentor] left me to do some routine checkups and I took a seat under a tree and began to ponder the splendour of the place. I began to realise the importance of educating these people about the benefits of these gardens, the reason [My Mentor] gets out of bed every day. My cynicism melted away that day and was replaced by a new, more refined and realistic idealism, an idealism based on practical action and self-empowerment’

This ‘realistic idealism’ is consistent with his sceptical disposition\(^5\) but also grounded in the shared experiences, positive identification, and informal guidance from the Mentor. By the end of the placement the youth feels empowered. He could understand the specialist’s field techniques good enough to translate them into a useful manual and leave Africa feeling accomplished. Besides a developmental scheme provided by the Mentor and JB’s solution-orientation, however, the measureable success of this placement required discipline-specific competencies and a field opportunity with an engaged Mentor.

There are also 7 mentions in 3 sources regarding positive identification with the faculty and staff of the university centre, particularly the course director. The faculty mentoring and coaching aspect is clearly valued by this case. From the post-placement survey he noted:

‘I would say that through this fellowship I developed a relationship with the Course Director that is unmatched with any other professor at (our university).’

\(^5\) Scepticism about the project or the situation was mentioned on 15 occasions in 2 sources
Most beneficial aspect of the experience: Competencies/Skills/Self-Knowledge “Me” Frame

JB came out of the field experience with a new confidence in his writing skills and new conceptions of what it means to learn by listening. JB articulated that these were directly related to the two mentor relationships above. Six months after in this interview recalled how his “reaffirmation” concerning his writing talent occurred.

‘I worked hard on it, but it never felt like work. It wasn’t like writing an essay. I guess always the course director told me that I was a good writer and I was like ‘all I have ever written was essays how do you know that?’’

This, coming from a young man who wrote a full length report and a 106 page guide for an agroforestry project in Africa during his work placement. He said:

‘I really don’t enjoy writing essays, but when I got a chance to this I realised that I could actually do something with my writing. That was substantial.’

That “something” he mentions he can “do” is the backbone of a funding proposal for a local charity. Unlike an essay written in a comfortable environment, there was a moral imperative introduced into the writing goal (reducing poverty) and JB was conscious that this proposal had real-world consequences for the very poor population in his immediate vicinity.

Besides disciplinary knowledge and writing skills, JB needed an orientation towards problem-solving and fact-finding. For example, he recalled his geographical mapping of the remote village before and his fact-finding approach to write the manual during placement.⁶

Most challenging aspect of the experience: Career Advancement Dilemma/“Me” frame

⁶ “having conversations with people and being able to learn in a nonconventional type of setting, so it’s not a classroom you learn to experience their interactions and pursue discussions [mentor] would take me out into the garden and I would say ‘what is this and what are you doing there, what’s this plan over here and where are you doing it? how long does this take?’ and I really had to take the initiative to learn to do that rather than expect for the answer to be given to me outside of myself.”
Through first-hand experience, JB was able to make sense for himself about the “dual-mission” of profit and social action. He could tangibly see results of his knowledge at work; but six months after the placement in his US context more immediate belonging and survival needs seemed to prevail:

‘The most relevant thing for me right now being an assumed college graduate is that there’s a huge tension between doing something that you care about and you’re passionate about and doing something that you’re less passionate about, but it’s more secure financially. And that’s the hardest thing for me. All the [other students on placements] when we came back we were just like we just wasted our summer. I didn’t get the experience I needed. I didn’t make any money…”

To contextualize the above statement, in the student debt-ridden US economy, JB mentioned student loan debt as a common conflict that leads students away from socially sustainable work placements to more lucrative options:

‘[For example] my accounting friends. They were signing contracts with Deloitte and getting awesome jobs, some can even pay off the loans in two years or something like that. I don’t have a job. I’m nowhere near that. So being able to identify the ways fellowships or experiences like this can actually help you in life is important.’

21st Century Curriculum (Social Entrepreneurship) “We” Frame: (a more nuanced understanding of the tensions between one’s own agency and the societal/structural constraints which limit that agency)

JB is recalling a story of first-hand experience in a reflection piece7 which was part of the curriculum and written two months after the placement. Note that his mentor is again mentioned, and the focus is real-world problem/solution based:

‘the children of the family were playing with charcoal, only stopping to stare with gaping mouths at my strangeness. With My Mentor translating, the man and I talked, and I began to understand not only another dimension of poverty but also how it is so inextricably linked with the environment. I spent the next leg of the journey with my thoughts. The further we rode, the more
desolate the landscape looked. The idea was to teach the students to grow crops in an environmentally friendly way. This would increase their nutrition as well as their incomes and offer a viable alternative to the charcoal paradigm.'

The children playing with charcoal scene immediately recalls the larger, structural conditions that societies are struggling with. The student wrestles with it and finally comes to a resolve that a market solution (livelihood) is the best way forward. Using a similar line of reflective thinking, but in a different way, he turns to the hosting organisation and challenges its business model:

‘That was the biggest issue for our projects is that governments were horrible partner for us to have to deal with. So the only reason why Brand is still around is because the CEO finds outside funders to buy the [radio]players and they give them to government. I don't think it's a business.’

His mixture of the pragmatic arts of business with critical orientation towards governments and private interests are more than scepticism borne out of disposition and field experience. In this case, they are specifically outgrowths of his university classes on the topic before the placement. He also seems to be navigating through the ‘dual-edifice’ tension of social entrepreneurship mentioned in the literature review. On the one hand, the student is articulating a core social problem currently neglected by government and private interests – on the other he is articulating solutions through a market logic.

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8 Further he explained the business case “basically the idea behind Brand is that you get these governments to buy the Brand radio, but if governments are your only customer you've automatically, limited yourself to 191 customers. Furthermore of all the countries the actual need actually need radio education you've limited it even further to just developing countries and their governments specifically, and beyond that governments around the world are probably the least reliable customer that you can probably count on.

9 Triangulated with pre-survey: student reported no previous knowledge of social enterprise before choosing degree.
## Appendix D: Student code key and longitudinal data

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#### Knowledge and skills not covered in the classroom

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**Frame work**

- ID = ideological
- IN = instrumental
- RE = relational

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**SUM**

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**Notes**

- New code
- ID = ideological, IN = instrumental, RE = relational
- not only to people
- ***leadership; self-knowledge***

---

1. Primary sources available for this case
2. proportion of diversity of value to number of sources
Appendix E: Faculty and Hosting Organisation Representative code key

Programme One:
1. Value of Graduate Level versus Undergrad
2. Work with a substantial organisation
3. Support mechanisms
4. Tourism
5. Transformative learning
6. Disciplinary fit
7. Self-directed learning
8. Learning about ethical business
9. Entrepreneurial atmosphere on campus
10. Value of any degree at a specific university in relation to employability
11. Engaging alumni
12. Value of concrete deliverables
13. Critical thinking
14. Contributing to an existing project
15. Leadership development
16. Challenging students in new ways
17. Venturing forward
18. Application of skills and knowledge in real work project
19. CONTEXT – programme development
20. Understanding poverty in context
21. Student personality – adventurous
22. Opportunities for sponsored internships by the university
23. Contrast UK and US education systems in relation to the programme
24. Value in one word or phrase
25. Learning about ethical business
26. Experiencing social entrepreneurship in developing country
27. Value of formal credit for experiential learning
28. Employability
29. Developmental space in regards to the university’s matriculation system
30. Fit between programme and students background, interests, and experience

Programme Two (additional codes):
- Relationships – ‘personal encounter’ ‘alterity’
- Global citizenship
- Working in teams
- Vocation in the Jesuit sense
Appendix F: Ethics Board Approval and Participant Leaflet

Student Higher-Level Research Dissertation/Thesis

University of Exeter
Graduate School of Education
Certificate of Ethical Research Approval
Dissertation/Thesis

To activate this certificate you need to first sign it yourself, and then have it signed by your supervisor and finally by the Chair of the School’s Ethics Committee.

For further information on ethical educational research access the guidelines on the BERA website: http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/guidelines/ and view the School’s statement on the OSE student access online documents.

Read this form carefully and then complete it on your computer (the form will expand to contain the text you enter). Do not complete by hand.

Your name: Joshua R Lange
Your student no: 600049427
Return address for this certificate: bei Rebarz, Maystrasse 4, Dresden, 01277, Germany
Degree/Programme of Study: EdD Generic Part-Time
Project Supervisor(s): Carol Evans (Ed School) and Richard Bolden (Business School)
Your email address: josh.lange@ucl.ac.uk
Tel: +47019007249

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given on leaflet and that I undertake in my EdD thesis to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research.

I confirm that if my research should change radically, I will complete a further form.

Date: 18/2/2013

Signed: Joshua Lange

NB For Masters dissertations, which are marked blind, this first page must not be included in your work. It can be kept for your records.

Chair of the School’s Ethics Committee
Updated: April 2011
Chair of the School’s Ethics Committee to countersign. A unique approval reference will be added and this certificate will be returned to you to be included at the back of your dissertation/thesis.

N.B. You should not start the fieldwork part of the project until you have the signature of your supervisor.

This project has been approved for the period: Feb 2013 until: Sept 2016.

By (above mentioned supervisor’s signature): __________________________

date: 22/12/2013

N.B. To Supervisor: Please ensure that ethical issues are addressed annually in your report and if any changes in the research occur a further form is completed.

GSE unique approval reference: __________________________

Signed: __________________________

date: 22/12/13

Chair of the School’s Ethics Committee

This form is available from: http://education.exeter.ac.uk/students/
Appendix F: Ethics Board Approval and Participant Leaflet

University of Exeter Graduate School of Education and Centre for Leadership Studies

Project Title: “Perceptions of Work Placement Value to Students: A Cross-Cultural Study of Undergraduate Experiential Learning Placements in Social Enterprises”

This leaflet tells you about the research project. If you have any further questions, please contact Josh Lange at:

Skype and Twitter: langehigh
Email: jl387@exeter.ac.uk

Why is this research being done?

Participants will be part of a Doctor of Education project taking place in three continents. A key aim of the project is to explore whether social enterprise ‘work integrated learning’ placements during undergraduate study offer unique value to students. Gaining your perspectives on the experience of social enterprise placements and comparing those perceptions across cultures and programs should help universities, lecturers, and social enterprises better understand how students might benefit from these placements. This study draws from the ‘pragmatic’ view of learning and teaching that suggests work experience helps prepare undergraduate students for adult life. It also draws from a range of ‘social learning’ theories that suggest learning in social enterprise environments could offer students a broad range of unexpected benefits both personally and socially.

Who will be in the project?

Faculty, students, and social enterprise representatives who are directly involved in the placements.

Will you know about the research results?

Key findings from the project and resources will be available to you before the project is submitted. Information will be generalized so that no names are used. If you are involved in focus interviews or a focus group you will have an opportunity to check the transcripts for accuracy and to confirm whether you are happy for the information to be used for the project.

What will I be asked to do?

You would be asked to be involved for one to two interviews and complete two short surveys over a nine month period. You can withdraw at any time.

I will also be asking for student volunteers for a focus group interview – to take place once during or after your module. These would be to explore student experiences of changed perceptions during a work placement at a social enterprise. The meetings would be no longer than 1 hour each and probably take place on a conference call or Skype (during placement) or on your university campus (after placement).

What will happen to you if you take part?

You will be kept informed about any findings and asked your opinion of these through email communication. The study is designed not to disrupt your regular coursework or work placement activities. The study is designed to support the social enterprises and universities involved by providing valuable information about your experience.

Thank you for reading this leaflet.
References


Savard, J. (2010). *The Impact of Immersion Programs upon Undergraduate Students of Jesuit Colleges and Universities*. The University of San Francisco.


Vienna Virtuoso, which is now the official online music tutoring system of Vienna (the undisputed World capital for classical music), superimposes the findings of this research project and the positionality of the researcher onto online education. First, the ‘pre-professional’ level music tutors I hire for paid tutoring are higher-level Bachelor and Master degree students from Vienna’s elite conservatories, and the students I engage are from low-income populations. This mirrors the placements by providing ‘elite’ providers of value to disadvantaged groups while giving university students ‘real world’ tutoring experience. One major difference between this approach and the placements studied is that my tutors have excellent knowledge and skills in the area I expect them to deliver. Second, I have developed an evidence-based system for music performance competitions that uses multiple triangulation of evaluation rubrics in each instrument with ratings from peers and feedback from ‘professional’ and ‘virtuoso level’ tutors to decide competition winners. This is a direct use of the research skills I gained from the study.

Mezirow (see lit. Review)

Where ’competitive advantage’ is contrasted with ’sustainable development’ juxtaposing Adam Smith’s theory