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<cn>4.<ct>Beyond content and pedagogy: the role of self and place in entrepreneurial leadership development

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<a>INTRODUCTION

'What does education mean in the context of entrepreneurship?' is one of three key philosophical questions asked by Fayolle in his critical paper on the future of entrepreneurship education (EE) (Fayolle, 2013). Fayolle's review pointed out that the lack of coherent definitions in the EE literature makes it impossible to evaluate initiatives and practices effectively. Since then Kyrö (2015), Macht and Ball (2016) and Hägg and Kurczewska (2016) are notable exceptions to the volume of publications that continually ignore Fayolle's key questions. Given the lack of coherent definitions in this area, there is understandably a similar gap in the understanding of entrepreneurial leadership education.

The thoughts presented in this chapter have their origins in the authors' attempt to answer the simple question: how can you evaluate the effectiveness of experiential learning designed for experienced entrepreneurs learning leadership to enhance growth in their SME? In trying to answer this question the authors recognised they were observing complexities in practice that were not adequately reflected in the academic literature.

The study focuses on understanding EE and specifically leadership education in a group that forms the minority focus in the research: experienced entrepreneurs, that is, those who have moved past the fast-moving and unpredictable phase of start-up to the turbulence of everyday business survival (Byrne et al., 2014). The survival and growth stages of entrepreneurial development provide significantly different challenges from that of the start-up phase.

Experiential and situated learning approaches can offer benefits here. Like their nascent counterparts, the experienced entrepreneur has their immediate tasks to plan, consider and learn from but differs in that they have a wellspring of experience to reflect upon in order to enrich the learning. As well as the positive effect of experience there is also a negative counterpoint: years of experience can also result in entrenched behaviours that limit openness to learning.

There are two areas that offer value to understanding experiential EE for experienced entrepreneurs: the first area is for the teacher or facilitator enabling them to design an education programme that engages this group of learners effectively; the second is in evaluating the effectiveness of this type of EE creating a framework within which it is possible to see all the interconnected components that have or have not contributed to a successful learning experience.

The data for this study comes from the LEAD Wales and Leading Growth programmes of leadership development for the owner managers of SMEs in Wales UK between 2009 and 2015 (Hannon et al., 2015). The authors originally intended to evaluate the effectiveness of incorporating intangible learning outcomes during the constructive alignment (CA) (Biggs, 2003) of programmes designed for established entrepreneurs. However, mapping how pedagogy and content led to these intangible learning outcomes uncovered evidence which supported a three-dimensional complex of conditions for learning (both tangible and intangible). It appeared that these conditions could be used by teachers and facilitators to design effective experiential learning for both nascent and experienced entrepreneurs and to evaluate the effectiveness of that learning design. This builds upon the corpus of work on entrepreneurial learning by Cope (2005), Pittaway and Thorpe (2012), Rae (2005), Kempster and Cope (2010) and Gibb (1993), that combined *how* entrepreneurs learned with *what* they needed to learn.

<a>THE EXPERIENCE IN EXPERIENTIAL

The first factor to consider when designing experiential learning is to understand what is meant by the term ‘experiential’. At its simplest, for something to be experiential means that it is based on experience. Fayolle (2013) is not alone in sharing a concern that the terms ‘experiential’, ‘active’, ‘learning by doing’ and ‘real world’ pedagogies are used interchangeably and synonymously without defining what is meant by those terms and how they are distinctive from each other. Experiential learning has arguably the strongest theoretical pedigree with the studies of Dewey, Lewin and Piaget that were brought together by Kolb in 1984.

Together they describe a linear and cyclical process of learning that starts with an experience, phenomenon or impulse that emotes a feeling followed by a period of reflection or observation of the experience (hindsight or data gathering). The data are assimilated and conceptualised, leading to the learner experimenting or making a judgement or

commitment, which in turn leads to a new experience, phenomenon or impulse. Steinaker and Bell's (1979) Experiential Taxonomy is a similar version of a linear progression from the introduction of an experience (exposure) through stages that lead to internalisation and dissemination of knowledge. While Steinaker and Bell's (1979) model is more commonly found in formal education of vocational qualifications (such as for nursing, mental health or social work) Kolb's (1984) Experiential Model has been used widely by management educators in the UK and USA. It has been widely used as a tool for designing learning processes such as facilitators' design experiences, reflective sessions, conceptualisation tasks and action reviews to provide a guided experience in which learning will happen.

Experiential learning is then an innate process of assimilating learning as a result of experience; it is clearly seated inside the learner's mind. However the Experiential Model of Learning has been a victim of its own success. For such a mainstream theory in the last twenty years there have been remarkably few critics that sought to undermine the validity of the original model, Webb (2003) being the notable exception and apparently at the behest of David Kolb himself. Other reviews do little other than comment on the validity of the theory from a particular theoretical or practice perspective. In fact it seems to be only the theory of *learning* that is under debate. What has not been strongly debated is its applicability to the design of *teaching*: an educational psychology theory aimed at maximising the understanding of innate cognition has become one instead of tacit pedagogy. It is in this way that concept creep (Haslam, 2016) has occurred. In short, the model that describes how the person *learns* has been used to describe a process of *teaching* or facilitation. The theory was originally conceived to understand how people learned in order to understand how to stimulate that learning. Over time it has become instead a sensemaking framework that experiential facilitators can readily take on board to design a programme, but this does not necessarily mean there is an understanding of the underlying process of learning. It can be likened to a child following the instructions that came with a set of building blocks: completing the construction with no understanding of which elements of the design result in a stable, well-supported structure. Using the model of learning in this way promotes a learned helplessness in the designers of experiential learning that stifles innovation and at its worst leads to ineffective learning design.

Accepting that this (arguably valid) model of 'learning' is now utilised as a 'teaching' process, a review of the literature in this field found no empirical study that evaluates what

a valid experience is other than it is 'affective', that is, it generates some emotion. In fact the 'experience' at the heart of experiential learning appears to be a homogeneous absence from many of the studies, that is, an invisible but essential element. Handbooks for teachers on the subject such as that written by Beard and Wilson (2002) suggest that it is valid and useful to design an experiential learning process and then suggest how to create 'experiences', 'reflections' and 'conceptualisation spaces' without explaining how to match these to the learner, their needs or their expectations.

<a>THE LADDER OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

The problem of evaluating experience was first encountered by the authors in attempting to identify the impact of the largely experiential learning programme on learners participating in the LEAD Wales and Leading Growth case study. The research team set out first to characterise what the experiences were that the learners were encountering in order to match which experiences led to which learning outcomes. The programme, identified in more detail in Hannon et al. (2015), was divided into 'learning elements', and a 100 per cent sample of 500 delegates who went through these elements were asked which of these they most preferred and which they considered to be most effective in developing their leadership.

In an attempt to understand how the programme design was created and which intended learning outcomes were expected from each, interviews were also held with the teachers of the programme to determine how they had designed or amended the learning process. The aim of collecting both of these data sources was to match the learner needs and feelings with the teacher's design.

In analysing the learner's preferred and most effective elements against the backdrop of the learning outcomes intended by the programme facilitators, the authors identified that there was a natural but unspoken order to the experiences being designed for and offered to learners. In combining the findings from both groups, the possible real-world consequences of each experience were described as being the unspoken determinant of whether those experiences were superficial or deep (Figure 4.1). Those experiences that had definite real-life consequences either for themselves or others were described as being the most effective in making the learning 'stick' [*sic*].

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Table 4.1Description of the learning elements

Element	Description	Purpose (Notes)
Induction	Introduction to the programme	To start the process of building trust in the group
Experiential event	Experience based learning activities, including games and tasks	Two-day overnight residential course to cement the trust in the groups and to introduce the delegates to the habits of reflecting upon their actions
Shadowing	Observing another in their workplace and being observed	To experience alternative perspectives of leadership and enterprise
Masterclasses	Presentations and workshops from credible experts and leaders	To provide knowledge and/or information about alternative leadership tools and styles
Coaching	Personal leadership coaching	One-to-one coaching with a professional coach to help address personal barriers to action
Action learning	Small group sessions of delegates using action learning principles	To assist delegates to identify and address pathways to effective action
Informal peer interactions	Any informal interactions amongst delegates, i.e. breaks, lunch time etc.	Allows delegates a non-facilitated space to discuss issues and ask questions of peers
Exchange	Short consultancy-type activity	One-to-one exchange of skills between delegates
Online forum	Online platform for communication	To provide consistent communications to delegates
Learning and reflection days	Days where prior learning is discussed	To allow and promote delegates to reflect on and make sense of learning

Graduation	Final celebration of participation in the programme	To provide a forum for sharing experiences

In the case study the participants were leaders or owners of small businesses being asked to make changes to, and subsequently reflect upon, their working practices and decision-making processes in order to develop their leadership skills. In short, the activities described in Table 4.1 were expected to either occur in, or influence learning in the situated learning environment. The activities were potentially highly affective, with the emotions ranging from anticipation, fear or envy through to resulting joy, disappointment or frustration. The least desirable of the learning methods were those 'role plays' that had no real consequences and as a result had no real emotional impact other than to instil in them a sense of dread or expected embarrassment. One delegate described them as 'a throwback', 'it's like *The Office*', and another as 'cringeworthy'. From these responses it was clear that role play was considered to be an out-of-date and potentially embarrassing mechanism.

<PLEASE INSERT TABLE 4.1 ABOUT HERE>

This hierarchy of popularity and effectiveness is named the 'ladder of experiential learning' (Huxtable-Thomas and Hannon, 2017), taking for its inspiration Arnstein's 'ladder of citizen participation' (Arnstein, 1969). The ladder of experiential learning came about as a result of research into the same cohorts of learning. The outcome of this research was the recognition that this model of increasing consequences and increasing effectiveness ultimately advocates that situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991) is in fact the most effective form of experiential learning for this group.

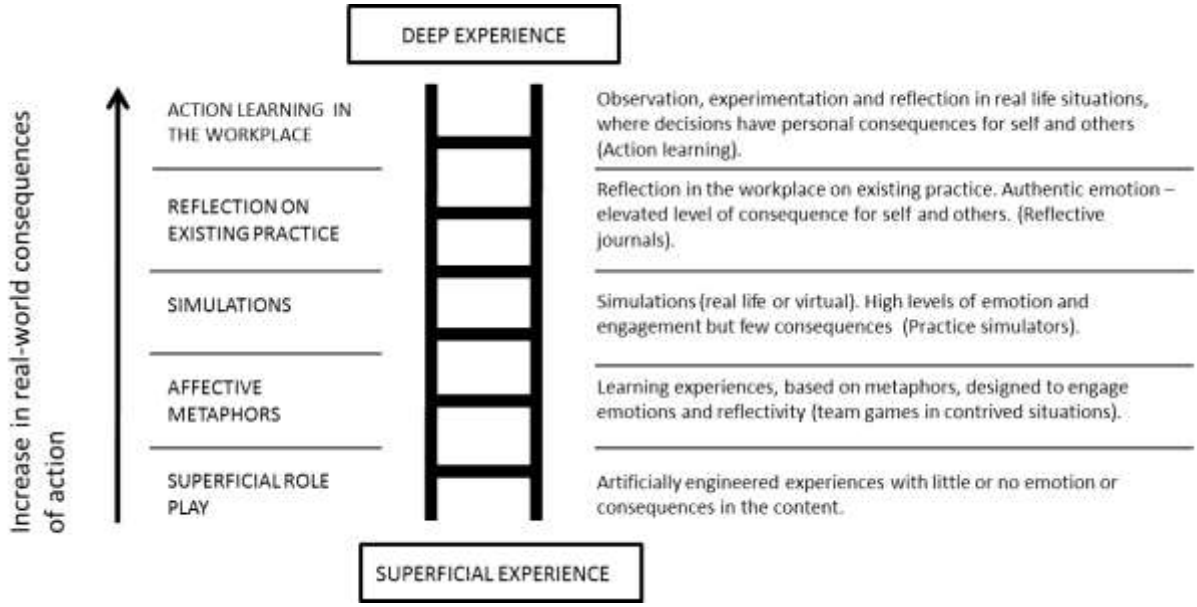

Figure 4.1The ladder of experiential learning

<a>THE EXPERIENCED ENTREPRENEUR AS LEARNER – THE ROLE OF SELF-IDENTITY

The ladder of experiential learning was the first of the findings required to identify what was effective in the design and delivery of an experiential and situated programme of leadership development for established entrepreneurs. For decades entrepreneurs in general have already been identified as 'different' when it comes to learning (Cope, 2005), and a recent review by Pittaway et al. (2017) reinforces that this adaptive approach of 'learning on the job' differentiates these action-oriented learners who have a stock of experience to call upon in order to make sense when encountered with a new experience from those just starting out on their entrepreneurial journey. The experienced entrepreneur is further differentiated from other learner types in that their self-identity is often inextricably linked to that of their business or venture (Huxtable-Thomas et al., 2016). When viewed as a learner they bring both themselves and their business into the learning environment.

This is both a valuable asset in terms of the stock of experience that the learner is able to call upon but also can be a limiting factor in how open-minded to new experience or learning the entrepreneur can be. For an experienced entrepreneur with entrenched habits or behaviours, learning to be a better leader can require some change in the way that they behave. Behavioural changes are the hardest to make in part because criticism of a leader's style can lead to cognitive dissonance (Syed, 2015; Festinger, 1962) where the learner will deny in the face of overwhelming evidence a truth that is inconsistent with their own beliefs.

Survey data was collected from a 100 per cent sample of entrepreneur learners (n = 500) participating in the LEAD Wales and Leading Growth programmes between 2013 and 2015. A 53-question survey was constructed to determine the impact of the programme on the learners, measuring factors that included identifying the learning elements applied, the nature of the learning spaces, the role and influence of the other learners, the role and influence of the facilitators and analysing these factors according to the learner-types as described below.

During observation of six cohorts over one year, patterns were recognised by the authors in the perceived self-identity of learners. As a result, learner 'stereotypes' were created according to gender, age, prior educational achievement, experience and business type. This enabled the study to consider the stereotypical and sometimes predictable behaviours that are part of their self-identities.

The stereotypes identified were:

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1.*The Family entrepreneur* – those who led a family enterprise (second or third generation);

2.*The Inexperienced entrepreneur* – those with less than five years' experience of leading their enterprise;

3.*The Experienced enterprise leader* – those with more than 11 years of experience;

4.*The Training cynic* – those who stated at the outset a low expectation of the programme or any training;

5.*The Accidental entrepreneur* – those who had not intended to be an entrepreneur or leader but came to it through: a management buy out, growing a lifestyle venture into an enterprise, starting a social enterprise or charity in order to make a difference.</list>

The initial exploration of the survey data shown in Figure 4.2 suggested the following generalisations:

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<bt>The peer interaction within action learning sets is one of the most influential elements of the programme, especially amongst family business leaders, inexperienced business leaders and the training cynics.

<bt>Family business and inexperienced leaders probably take comfort from the small and trusted group, whilst the training cynics are able to confirm their beliefs and confirm their confidence in what they do within a small group.

<bt>The cohort leaders are also influential to the family businesses and inexperienced business leaders. The delegates in these demographics are younger and are more accustomed to the education environment and therefore are more familiar with placing trust in such figures.

<bt>The business coaches were the most influential element of the programme for the more experienced and accidental business leaders. These delegates were more likely to be older and it is likely that these delegates were enabled to make changes as a result of a one-to-one coaching relationship because it addressed deep seated personal issues relating to their leadership and may have allowed them to uncover assumptions and myths that had become entrenched over time.</list>

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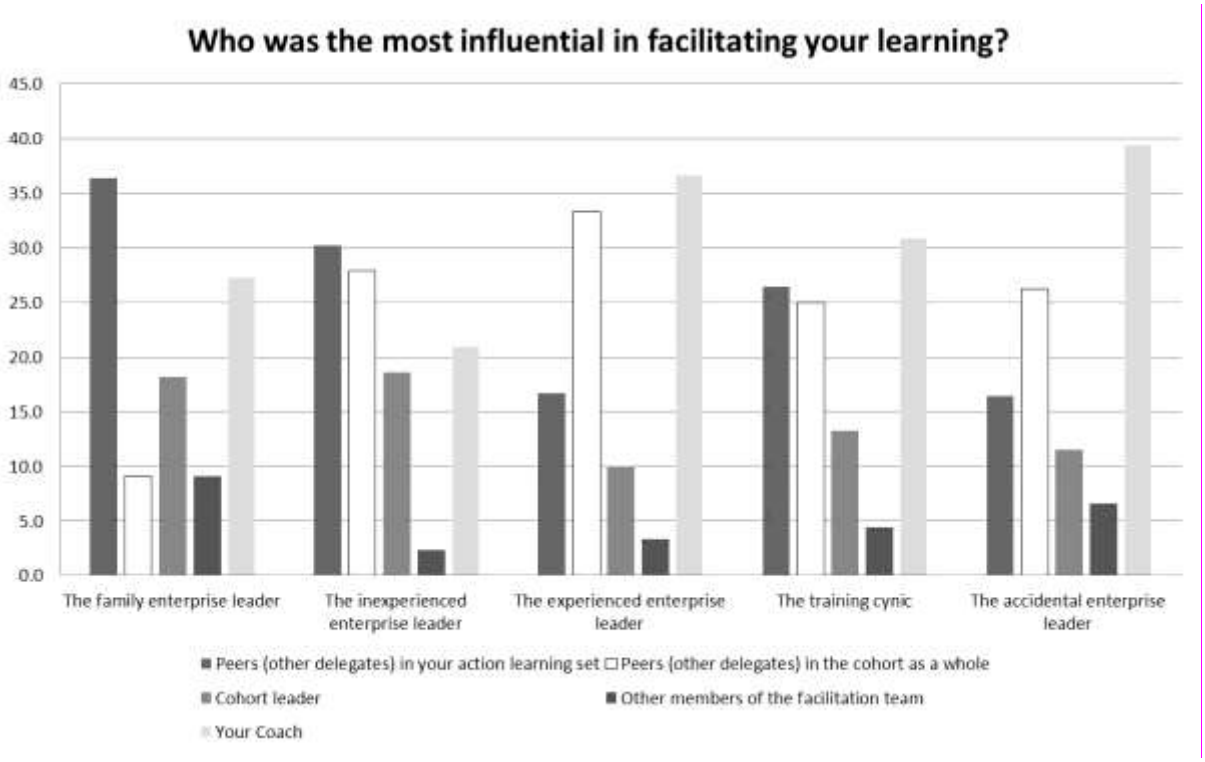

Figure 4.2Influence of other actors in facilitating learning

This initial foray into grouping the learners according to their own self-identity showed that within stereotypes there were clear patterns in terms of preference for who they wanted to learn with and how the programme affected their confidence.

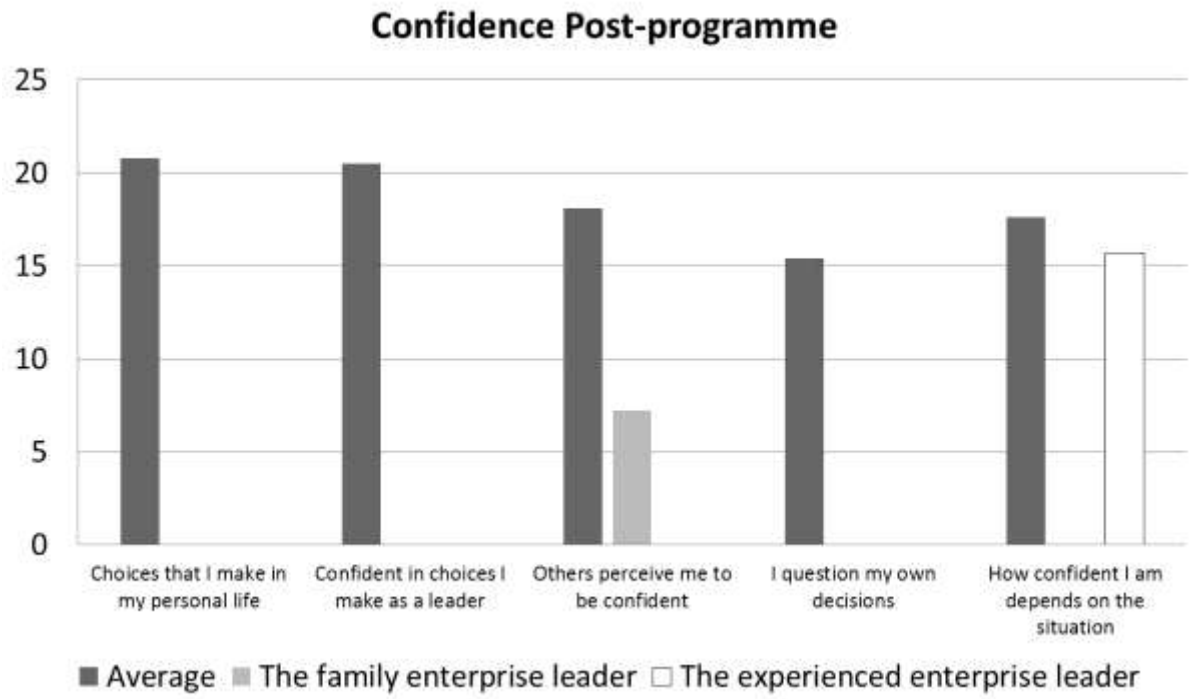

Figure 4.3Comparison of stereotypes' feelings of confidence after the learning

One of the main reported impacts of the programmes on the delegates was improvement in their feelings of self-confidence, their self-belief in what they do as leaders, and how their peers and their staff perceive them. The data shown in Figure 4.3 suggested that the leaders of family businesses were the most likely to question how others perceived them; this is possibly the result of them being young in their careers and seeking authority ahead of succession within their businesses.

<PLEASE INSERT FIGURE 4.3 ABOUT HERE>

Compared to the average response for the cohort, the experienced business leaders were less likely to consider themselves to have differing levels of confidence depending on the situation. This is possibly because the programme challenged their perception of their knowledge and encouraged them to reflect on their practices. The fact that the experienced business leader and family business leader stereotypes showed significant differences in their responses to questions in these areas supported the supposition that these stereotypes brought different needs to the programme and took different feelings and experiences away. To anyone that has observed diverse groups of learners this is an obvious conclusion. However, the fact that different learner groups exist and have different needs even within a single cohort of learners has not been satisfactorily linked to experiential learning design.

<a>LEARNING EXPECTATIONS VERSUS LEARNING OUTCOMES: THE ROLE OF LEARNER EXPECTATION

The learning expectation of delegates was also identified. At the outset of the programme delegates were asked in a free text box to state their expectations of the programme. The responses can be broadly categorised into: improving business skills; enhancing personal effectiveness; enhancing leadership effectiveness; improving management methods or skills; networking; achieving a specific business aim (such as growth/succession planning etc.); improving confidence in own leadership; recommended by a colleague; no particular expectation.

These learning expectations (outcomes) are divided into those that are (a) tangible or (b) intangible. Tangible outcomes (externally evidenced) relate to specific technical skills habits or knowledge. These can be described as the cognitive outcomes. Intangible outcomes (internally evidenced) relate to self-awareness, confidence, emotional regulation, stress, resilience and so on. These are affective but are evidenced through conative means, that is, improvements in any or all of these areas can lead to greater directed effort and acting upon the thoughts and feelings expressed as a result of the affect.

The tangible outcomes were those that most closely related to the intended learning objectives of the course developers. While the intangible outcomes were welcomed and in some cases hoped for, these were not an obvious part of the learning programme. When asked in the survey what they had achieved during the programme, the responses were often described in terms of an intangible outcome. While the stated leadership learning outcomes were tangible and followed the accepted format for learning outcomes, the delegates stated a mix of tangible and intangible learning outcomes as a result of participating in the programme.

As well as providing responses on the tangible outcomes relating to managing people and understanding the influence of the leader on culture and so on, when asked to provide free text responses the delegates stated confidence, awareness of themselves, self-belief, being more motivated or focused as being the effect that the programme had had on them.

These were all intended outcomes of the programme but there was no part of the curriculum in which ‘increasing self-confidence’ was stated as an outcome. However it was regularly an expectation of the programme. More extreme examples included ‘I feel more

able to take time out of the business', 'I have a better relationship with my wife and son' and 'I manage my time better'.

Time management and family relationships were certainly not learning objectives identified by the programme designers of this leadership programme at the outset. This suggests that the delegates set their own learning expectations and worked towards achieving them autonomously, utilising the learning opportunity rather than being led to learn in order to do so. Taking responsibility for their own learning over and above responding to instruction is the definition of the autonomous learner as provided by Boud (1988). While this theory of autonomous learning is regularly referred to in considering fluency in language learning it has only been covered with regard to entrepreneurship education by Löbler (2006) and Van Gelderen (2010), but not related to the experienced entrepreneur. Given the need for autonomy in all other areas of the entrepreneur's life, there is an argument that the entrepreneur will have their own expectations of learning, and the role of the teacher/facilitator is to enable that process. This combination of the progressive and humanist approach to educational philosophy suggested by Hannon (2005) changes the role of the teacher away from a director of learning to a guide or helper. Like self-identity, the prior expectation of the learner has an impact on how and what they are willing to learn and who they are willing to learn from. The role of the teacher as guide is to impart autonomous learning skills as well as multi-purpose learning experiences that allow the learners to achieve their own expectations.

<a>BEYOND THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT – THE LEARNING BIOME

After considering the self-identity of the learner and the expectations of the learner, the third way in which the programme was broken down was in determining the influence of the environment in which the learning was taking place. Being a mix of formal and informal learning, the learning environment was complex in itself. Rather than trying to simplify this, for the sake of the study the authors instead attempted to characterise the more complex reality. Kolb's own early work on experiential learning recognised that the 'lifespace' of the learner, as identified by Lewin (1935) in his work observing children, was more complex and organic than just the interaction of the individual with the learning environment. Lewin's own theories were fundamentally psychological and required the teacher to understand the subjective and dynamic reality that each student faced when they were learning. Later development of the lifespace by Bronfenbrenner (1995) identified an 'ecology of

learning/development spaces' in which learning occurs in a set of 'nested structures' from the immediate setting of the learner or the microsystem and to other concurrent settings in the person's life such as their family life, their home or other courses they may be attending called the mesosystem.

Interviews with the LEAD Wales and Leading Growth programme facilitators confirmed the author's observations that each learner was unique but that they all learned together. Lewin's (1935) and Bronfenbrenner's (1995) theories could both be applied to how, or where, the entrepreneurs learned. However, in considering the design of learning, the facilitators could consider only the factors that were within their control and the environments that they could be sure the learners participated in. This study has identified a shorthand that encompasses this real-world learning environment known as the 'learner biome'. Influenced by Bronfenbrenner's ecological metaphor, a biome is a 'community of flora and fauna occupying a major physical habitat'.

The learning biomes are the parts of the learning environment that go beyond the physical environment (or learning habitat) to include the wider community (other learners/actors) in that habitat. For the case study this community was easily identified as the dynamic membership of the group that came together to learn. The biomes were therefore the interaction between the members of this community and the physical learning habitats (the physical spaces such as the classroom or coffee areas, the workplace, the home and the region) as well as each learner's own personal community to the extent that they were involved in the learning.

The learners were not kept in petri dishes and were only released to learn in the spaces where the programme facilitators were in control. This had to be recognised and exploited where possible in order to keep the learning up at the 'deep experience' end of the experiential ladder of learning (Figure 4.1).

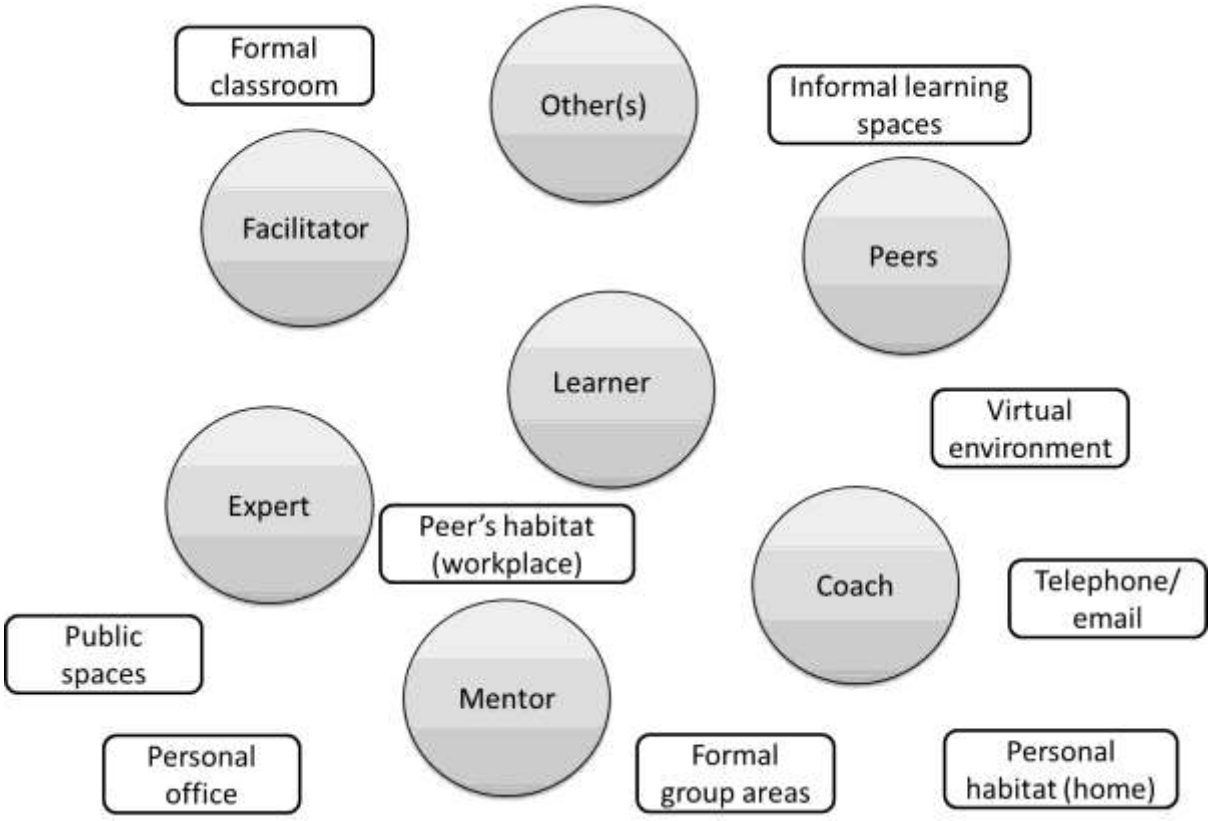

Figure 4.4The total learning biome

The constituents of the learning biomes were described in order to identify how these influenced – if at all – the learning outcomes. The total learning biome was first identified (as shown in Figure 4.4) and then divided into the constituent microbiomes as described in Figure 4.5.

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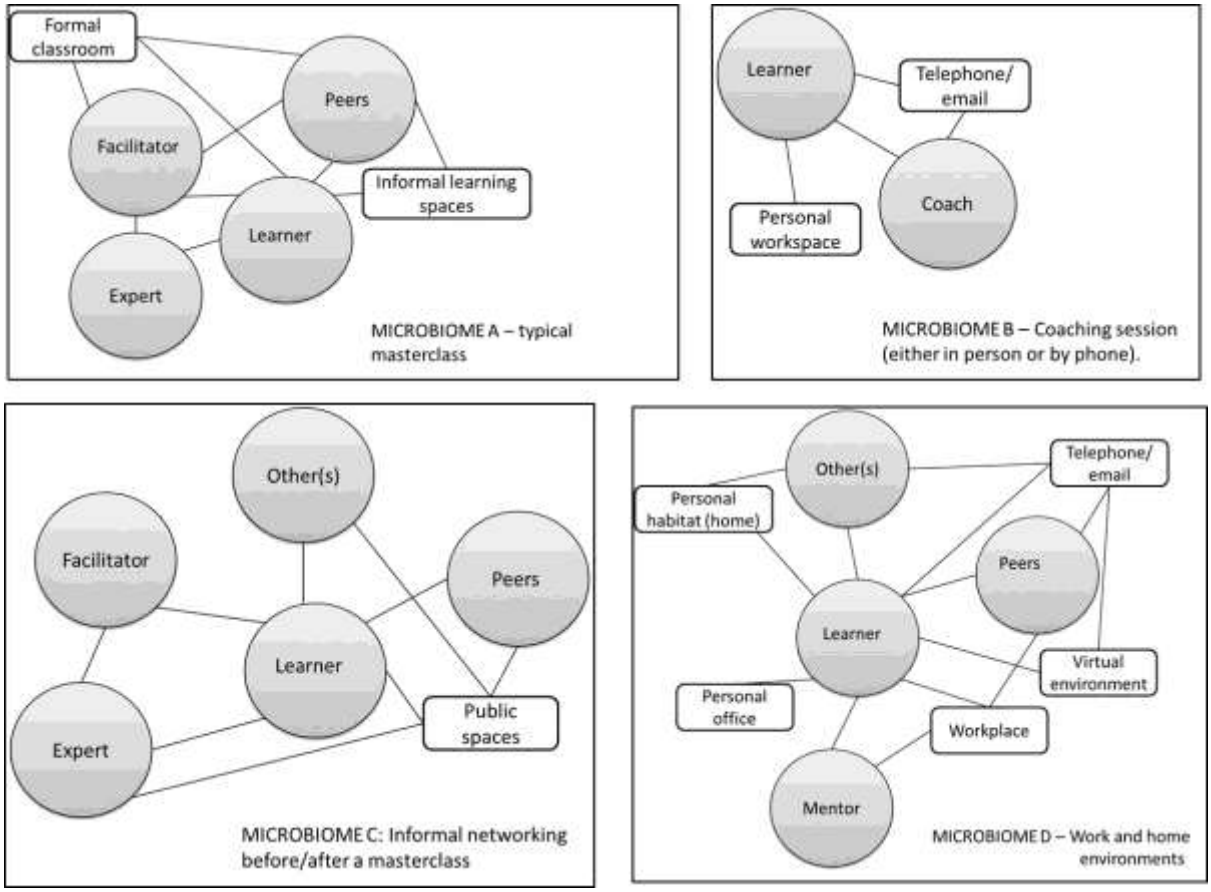

Figure 4.5The four microbiomes

Microbiome A is typically a masterclass comprised of the learner, the facilitator, the peers and the expert speaker. This normally occurs in a formal classroom but is preceded and followed by refreshments in an informal learning space. Observations of this microbiome showed that those who wished to listen and take in information could do so during the formal part of the session but those with more kinetic or interactive learning styles who wished to interact with the speaker and with their peers could do so outside of the session. In this way the initial input of information could be discussed with others during a sense-making process in a less formal environment for those that wished to do so by interacting with any of the other members of the community as desired.

Microbiome B is a very small community of only the coach and the learner. The learning takes place outside of the formal or informal spaces associated with the facilitators and may include the home or office environments. Some delegates participated while sitting in their cars, yet others went to a public space or their coach's place of work to meet with their coach, preferring to meet in person rather than conduct the session on the phone. This

biome is a personal one and deflects the influence of others in order to maintain the commitment to personal responsibility that is required of the coaching process.

Microbiome C is the informal environment that delegates most commonly stated was important to their learning. Rather than pointing to any single conversation, the sum of the conversations held over coffee or lunch were considered to be major contributing factors in the delegates' being able to associate concepts, theories or tools they were exposed to during the more formal learning experiences with the actions that they intended to commit to in order to act upon the learning (the 'active experimentation' part of the Kolb cycle).

Microbiome D is the situated learning space. This was usually the learner's place of work and as a result the community was much wider, comprising work colleagues, direct reports or leaders, as well as customers and suppliers. All of these members of the learning community have the potential to impact on the experiences that the learner has but are outside of the control or influence of the facilitators. In this instance the role of the facilitator is to instil in the learner a discipline of reflection, to be able to recognise learning opportunities for what they are and to bring those back to the formal learning environments to enrich the learning experience.

<a>THE THREE-DIMENSIONAL LEARNER

The summary of the learning from the observations of the participants in the LEAD Wales and Leading Growth programmes is relatively simple. The learner and their desires or preferences have a role to play in aligning the content and pedagogy. Consider that each learner occupies a set of coordinates in three dimensions as shown in Figure 4.6, these being: their preferred learning biome, their perceived self-identity and their expectations of learning. The coordinates have an impact on the willingness of the learner to learn, regardless of the content or pedagogy as shown in Figure 4.7.

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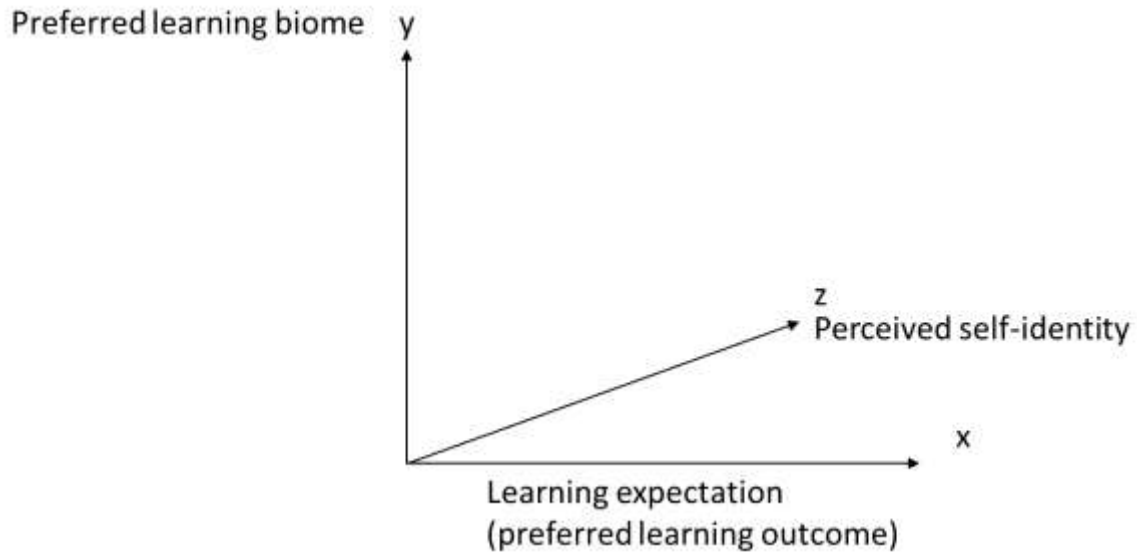

Figure 4.6The three dimensions of the entrepreneurial learner

This will be relevant to all education, not just EE. However, the subject of EE is particularly apposite because the perceived self-identity of the learner is so keenly linked to their entrepreneurial intentions or efficacy. Entrepreneurs as learners are likely to prefer an experiential and autonomous learning environment and as a result the educators are likely to be able to exploit the entrepreneur-learner's wider range of experience and relevant learning network to enhance the experiential learning and/or reflection.

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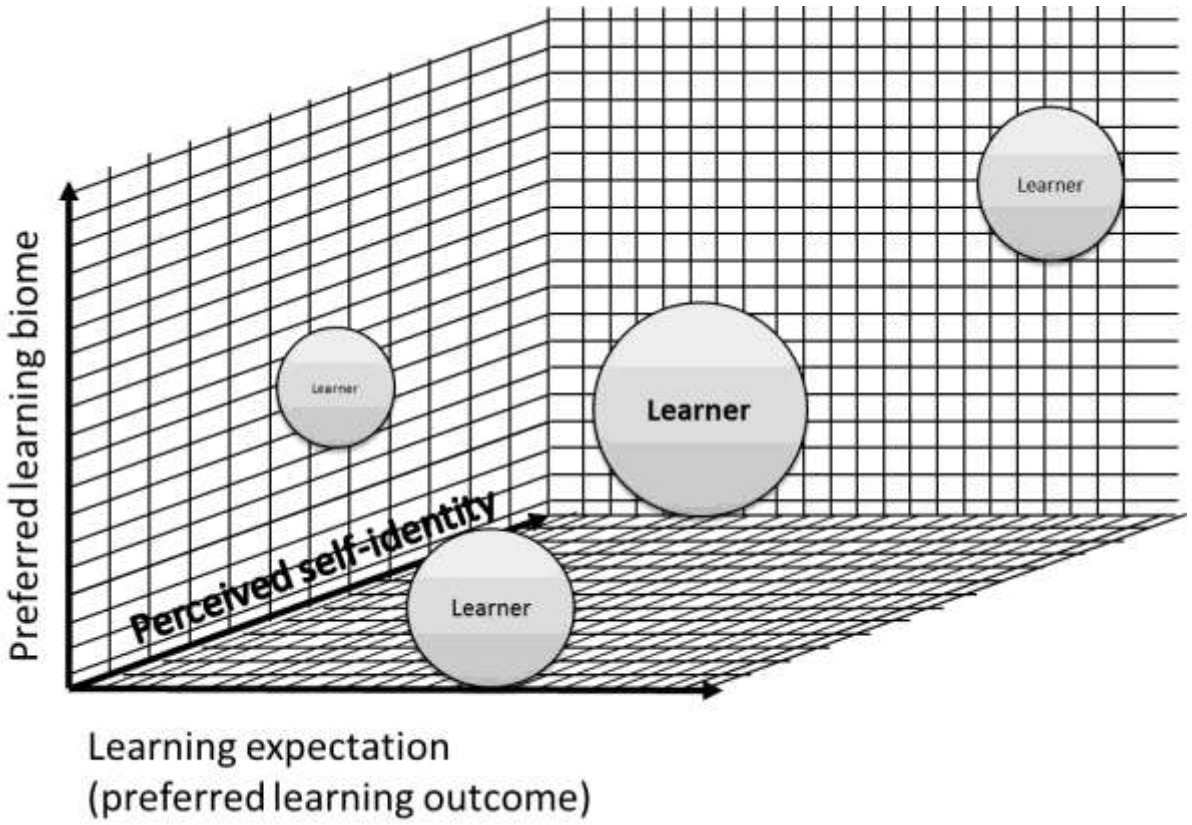

Figure 4.7The three-dimensional learner space

<a>CONCLUSIONS: RELATING THE THREE DIMENSIONS OF THE LEARNER TO EFFECTIVE LEARNING DESIGN

The relationships between the three dimensions of the learner expectations, self-identity and their learning biome were explored in order to understand how best to evaluate preferred pedagogies and effective learning methods for experienced entrepreneurs. This imperfect effort at dismantling the elements of the learning design was undertaken by necessity. The learning outcomes described by the delegates could not be explained at all by the linear model of 'learning outcome – pedagogy – assessment' as the learning outcomes achieved extended beyond those required, designed or even measured. Nor could they be wholly identified by the cyclical model of Kolb alone; the elements of the programme were not intentionally structured to achieve the outcomes identified.

Over the course of two years the authors set out to explore their understanding as teachers of the different factors that were believed to affect learning outcomes and how they connected together. This was important to create good quality learning and to evaluate it authentically.

Combining these observations with Fayolle's (2013) critique of the understanding of EE made it clear that two factors were being ignored in the literature: the complexity of the entrepreneur as learner and the understanding of what constitutes a valid and valuable learning experience for this complex learner group. As a result of this initial study three major findings can contribute to the understanding of how to design experiential learning: <nl>

1.Experiential learning is more 'sticky' and effective when undertaken at the higher end of the ladder, where consequences of the experience are more meaningful to the learner. In order to understand how to design the learning to take this into account, designers need to understand the learner's sphere of experience.

2.Who the learner is, is important in designing learning. Much of the research into entrepreneurial learning assumes one or two stereotypes, such as the nascent entrepreneur, the student or 'the entrepreneur'. There are as many different types of learners as there are entrepreneurial ventures. However, understanding the three dimensions of the biome/self-identity/expectation allows programme designers to see and respond to the needs of all learners in a cohort (or at least to be aware that they might not be responding to all needs).

3.Beyond pedagogy or content the facilitator needs to design a set of experiences in a number of different biomes (that is, environments and people) that respects the learner's needs as identified from who they are, who and what they know, where they prefer to learn and how they prefer to learn.</list>

The work done here provides much-needed empirical insight into the somewhat overused but underexamined process of developing experiential learning. Coming back to the 'industry standard' of constructive alignment it becomes clear that the reality cannot be modelled in such a simple fashion, subsequently requiring the design of learning to embrace the complex reality. In fact it is similar to a Rubik's cube: aligning two dimensions can cause the third to move in or out of alignment in unpredictable ways until the dynamics within the system are understood. This can be used to build upon Biggs' (2003) model of constructive alignment as shown in Figure 4.8.

<PLEASE INSERT FIGURE 4.8 ABOUT HERE>

Figure 4.8Constructive alignment after Biggs (2003)

In Biggs' model, which was originally intended for the design of HE education for somewhat homogeneous groups (students) in homogeneous biomes (lectures), the model is linear and all processes shown in grey are within the influence of the teacher. The learner only influences the achieved learning outcomes through their engagement or otherwise with the process.

The evidence from the LEAD Wales and Leading Growth programmes suggests a more complex model, as illustrated in Figure 4.9, in which at each stage there are more factors outside the influence of the facilitator due to the nature of the semi-autonomous learner (white) which need to be taken into account when the facilitator is designing those aspects that are within their sphere of influence (grey) in order for the learning to be successful.

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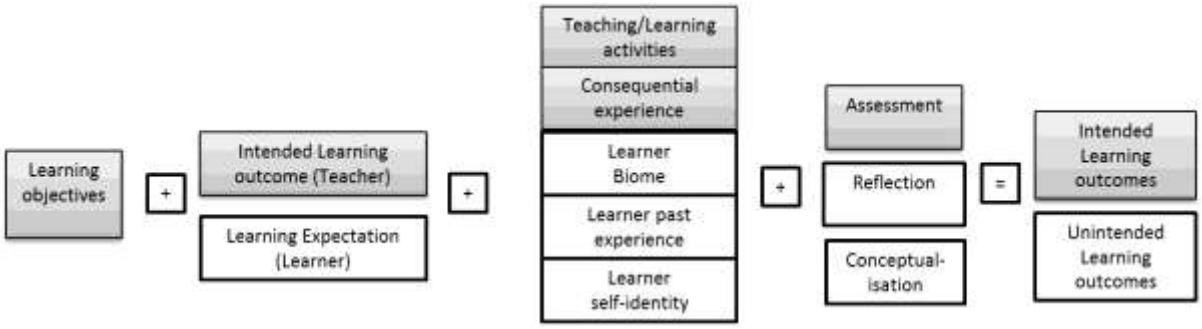

Figure 4.9The complex model of alignment

This model was used with the design of the Entrepreneurial Leaders Programme (ELP), an intensive programme of experiential learning for senior managers in Malaysian institutions of higher learning who had the objective of becoming more entrepreneurial. Again this was a group of autonomous learners with a wealth of life experience and wide-ranging personal and professional networks that could be exploited to enrich learning.

Adopting the concepts of the three-dimensional learner and the ladder of experiential learning allowed the designers to account for culture differences, limitations of prior knowledge, increased learners' happiness with the learning and allowed the designers to spot the ways in which to facilitate and enable learner autonomy. Initial evaluation of the programme suggests that learner satisfaction was above 90 per cent and in some areas 100 per cent.

The findings suggest that programmes of learning aimed at entrepreneur(ial) learners need to take these three dimensions into account when prescribing pedagogies. Further,

the authors propose that the traditional methods of designing course delivery have been oversimplified and as a result fail to recognise and utilise the inherent complexity of the learner.

We further suggest that 'what the learner learns' can only be influenced and not dictated by what the teacher teaches. Therefore the most efficient method is to provide a diverse menu of learning opportunities that look beyond traditional input and feedback designs. The teacher needs to plan for (and measure) intangible and unintended learning outcomes, including those of motivation and inspiration, increases in confidence and behavioural changes. This is particularly relevant when considering how best to deliver learning to entrepreneurs in an attempt to improve economic performance in the SME economy.

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