

2018-03-26

A Case Study on Leadership in a Transnational Landscape of Practice

Kay, Douglas William

Kay, D. W. (2018). A case study on leadership in a transnational landscape of practice (Doctoral thesis, University of Calgary, Calgary, Canada). Retrieved from <https://prism.ucalgary.ca>. doi:10.11575/PRISM/31756
<http://hdl.handle.net/1880/106464>

Downloaded from PRISM Repository, University of Calgary

UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

A Case Study on Leadership in a Transnational Landscape of Practice

by

Douglas William Kay

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

GRADUATE PROGRAM IN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

CALGARY, ALBERTA

MARCH, 2018

© Douglas William Kay 2018

Abstract

The purpose of this qualitative single case study was to explore the nature of leadership that emerged within a higher education-based community of practice engaged in the process of developing an interprofessional teaching and learning initiative between nursing and medical students. The setting of this initiative was located in one country in the Arabian Gulf Region in the Middle East. This study was situated in a unique setting as it involved a group of North American-based faculty and academic support staff members piloting an experiential teaching and learning experience within a transnational higher education context. This study was set within a wider landscape where several North American-based universities had established transnational branch campuses in this particular country in the Arabian Gulf Region. As such, it was the first identified study of its kind that had been conducted within this situated context.

This study had an emphasis on investigating leadership representation within an interprofessional community of practice and the impact this had on the sustainability of the community throughout their first collective iteration of engagement and potentially beyond. Qualitative data sources collected for this study included individual interviews, meeting observations, and field note documentation captured from community participants throughout the research period. Data analysis followed a social anthropological approach that is aligned with the exploration and investigation of group processes and dynamics within an authentic working environment. This single case study offered a conceptual rationale that situated the research context within a review of literature relating to leadership in the areas of transnational higher education, the scholarship of teaching and learning, communities of practice and situated learning. Further positioning of this research offered a review of literature on community of practice systems conveners and distributed leadership. These were two forms of organizational

leadership in alignment with operational aspects of communities of practice in the situated context of this study.

Findings and implications revealed important considerations for institutional leaders, educational developers, and faculty and academic support staff located in similar situated contexts as described in this study. Despite identified contextual challenges, effective leadership management through the presence of a systems convener and collaborative distributed leadership practices enabled this study's participants to successfully complete their trial initiative. The implications highlighted required institutional and educational development supports in addition to inherent collaborative qualities needed to foster communities of practice. These implications are presented in the wider context of a community of practice engaged in transforming teaching and learning practice within a transnational higher educational landscape.

Acknowledgements

This dissertation has been truly international in its developmental process. Within this vast global landscape, there are many important people that I would like to thank.

A special thank you to my supervisor Dr. Jennifer Lock and my doctoral committee members. Dr. Lock's gracious mentorship and support throughout this process were both invaluable and inspirational. She encouraged me to persevere throughout the dark periods and to push beyond my own self-perceived limitations. As a mentor and supervisor, I consider Dr. Lock to be exemplary.

An additional thank you to my research participants who were generous with their time and patient throughout my study. This work obviously could not have been completed without their great support and participation. A thank you as well to Dr. Ken Ryba who as a close friend and mentor greatly inspired the theoretical context of this research. Dr. Ryba and I spent several evenings engaged in our "social tutorials" in various exotic locales throughout the GCC region. The conceptual mapping results of these inspired tutorials are still with me having been drafted on some prized hotel lounge cocktail napkins.

Another thank you must be extended to Dr. Jacquie McDonald whose work with communities of practice in higher educational contexts in Australia was a foundational inspiration for this study. Dr. McDonald was kind and generous enough to engage with me throughout this study and has provided me with invaluable friendship, mentoring, and moral support.

Finally, a most special thank you to my wife, Minako Kay, who suffered through this process with me. She selflessly kept the hearth warm and my spirits high throughout this long journey.

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	iv
Table of Contents	v
List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	x
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
Introduction	1
Background Context	2
Educational Development and Educational Leadership	5
Research Problem	7
Purpose and Rationale for the Study	8
Research Questions	8
Significance of the Research	9
Definitions of Key Terms and Abbreviations	10
Organization of the Dissertation	13
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	14
Introduction	14
The Higher Educational Transnational Branch Campus	15
The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL)	19
Communities of Practice (CoPs)	28
Situated Learning	40
Approaching Leadership	46
Systems conveners	47
Distributed leadership	49
Conceptual Framework	52
Positioning the Study	56
Chapter Summary	57
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN	58
Introduction	58
Research Methodology	58
Unit of analysis	63
Bounding the case	64
Type of case	64
Critique of case study methodology	65
Research Question	67
Population Sampling	68
Data Samples and Collection Methods	71

Interviews.....	71
Observations	73
Document gathering.....	75
Field notes	75
Data Analysis	76
Data preparation and organization	77
Data exploration and coding	77
Approaching initial coding and pattern coding.....	78
Ethical Considerations.....	82
Role of the Researcher	82
Trustworthiness	84
Internal validity	84
External validity.....	84
Reliability.....	85
Limitations and Delimitations	85
Conclusion	86
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS	88
Introduction.....	88
Participant Profiles	88
Pearl	89
Sara	89
JD	90
Dr. Balzac	90
LMW.....	91
Context.....	91
Findings.....	93
The domain	93
Shared competence	94
Shared vision.....	97
Shared commitment	103
Domain summation.....	108
The community	108
Roles	109
Internal cohesive interactions	111
Internal diverse interactions	115
External relationships.....	119
Community summation.....	123
The practice.....	123
Mutual practice engagement	123
Shared repertoire.....	127
Negotiation of practice.....	132
Practice summation.....	138
Conclusion	138

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION	140
Introduction	140
Systems Conveners	140
Distributed Leadership	144
Spontaneous collaboration	144
Intuitive working relations	146
Institutionalized practice	150
Challenges	153
Participant perceptions	154
Contextual realities	156
Successes	158
Maintenance of a core group	159
Interaction between members	160
Integration of competencies	160
Identification with CoP	161
Tangible practice	162
Leadership Emergence Within a Landscape of Transnational Practice	164
IPE CoP: Identification and landscape location	165
Power dynamics	167
Local practice	169
Boundaries of practice	170
Navigating through modes of identification	174
Summary and Conclusion	175
CHAPTER SIX: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION	176
Introduction	176
Summary of Findings	176
Implications for Practice	177
The institution	177
Educational development	179
Faculty and academic support staff	182
Successes and Challenges	184
Case study successes	184
Case study challenges	185
Future Research	187
Educational development and educational leadership	187
Cognitive proximity	188
Value creation	189
Conclusion	190
REFERENCES	192

LIST OF APPENDICES	213
Appendix A: Pre-study Interview Questions	214
Appendix B: Post-study Interview Questions	215
Appendix C: Sample Interview Protocol.....	216
Appendix D: Primary Data Collection Timeline Matrix	217
Appendix E: Sample Observation Protocol Template.....	218
Appendix F: Copyright Permission.....	220

List of Tables

2.1 Community of Practice Organizational Model.....	54
3.2 Initial Coding Sample Exemplar	80
4.3 Participant Roles and Competencies	95
4.4 Community of Practice Obstacles and Implications.....	107
5.5 Interprofessional Education Community of Practice Typology	166

List of Figures

<i>Figure 1. Pattern Coding Exemplar</i>	81
<i>Figure 2. M-CoP Locational Placement</i>	165
<i>Figure 3. CoP Boundary Crossing Encounters</i>	171
<i>Figure 4 CoP Member Practice Knowledge Orientation</i>	173

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

This qualitative single case study provides a foundational and conceptual overview focused on the issue of leadership in building and fostering interprofessional learning communities committed to enhancing teaching and learning outcomes within a higher education transnational context in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) region in the Middle East. Communities of practice (CoPs), as articulated in literature by Lave and Wenger (1991), and subsequently developed further by Wenger (1998) and Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder (2002), have garnered increasing attention at higher educational institutes (HEIs) for their inherent ability to mutually foster and support faculty members pursuing professional development and educational improvement initiatives (McDonald, Nagy, Star, Burch, Cox, & Margetts, 2012).

As ideally self-organized, self-directed and laterally-structured professional learning entities, CoPs offer faculty members at HEIs both a voluntary and flexible venue to share and expand upon common pedagogical interests that can make a meaningful impact on their teaching and learning contexts (Davison et al., 2013; McDonald et al., 2012). Such collaborative initiatives found in situated learning contexts within a HEI can be well framed within the concept of the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL), which encourages a self-reflective and scholarly teaching and learning culture amongst faculty (Miller-Young & Yeo, 2015). In addition, leadership roles within CoPs in the higher education context have been garnering increased attention in literature (McDonald et al., 2012) as the strategic educational initiatives put forth in these groups have been found to involve a high degree of negotiation in encouraging wider institutional acceptance (Lisko & O'Dell, 2010). Insights into the nature of leadership within an active community dedicated to transforming teaching and learning practice may

provide a deeper understanding of a phenomenon occurring within the situated context of this transnational higher education landscape. Results of this study contribute to identifying support strategies in fostering effective leadership within professional learning communities and contribute to closing a gap in literature that presently exists in the higher education transnational context.

Background Context

Although the GCC is neither a socio-culturally homogenous nor a politically harmonious region of the globe, transnational branch campus establishment within some countries in this region have shared a unique and similar history dating back to the early 2000s (Davidson, 2010). This transnational branch campus development has been most prevalent within the more socio-economic progressive Islamic countries, such as the UAE (including the emirates of Dubai and Abu Dhabi) and Qatar (Romani, 2009). As these countries have developed strong reciprocal socio-economic relationships with western countries, such as Britain and the United States, their higher education systems have been influenced by more liberal social constructivist pedagogical approaches. This has resulted in a pedagogical approach drift that has attempted to move away from didactic and passive forms of learning to more active and experiential teaching and learning methods (Davidson, 2010). These pedagogical changes in the GCC transnational HEI context have raised the need to develop appropriate supporting mechanisms for faculty to develop their own teaching approaches to appropriately scaffold students who may not be accustomed to authentic and socially collaborative teaching and learning methods.

These GCC countries have also shared in articulating their national development strategies in the form of “Vision” documents that outline their future socio-economic ambitions and goals. As the development of the education and knowledge building sector has been a

central and common denominator in these strategic national documents, much investment has been placed in developing transnational higher educational infrastructure and recruitment strategies to entice western-based academics and instructors (Davidson, 2010; Wilkins, Butt, & Annabi, 2017). The level of this investment has had a direct and powerful influence on shaping transnational branch campus institutional accountability and strategic planning (Fox & Al Shamisi, 2014; Ibnouf, Dou, & Knight, 2014).

My case study was situated in one country within this unique transnational higher education landscape in the GCC region and involved exploring emerging leadership trends amongst a group of faculty and academic support members from two branch campuses who were organized in a CoP. This particular CoP had representation from both a North American-based nursing education university and a North-American-based medical education university. As the members involved in my study were comprised of professional experts in nursing education, medical education, and clinical simulation technology and education, their community was characterized as being ‘interprofessional’ in composition with the goal of engaging in a scholarly interprofessional education (IPE) initiative between nursing and medical students (Barr, 2002).

IPE has been characterized as being effective in assisting health professions students in developing high patient care standards in collaborative and highly experiential settings (Buring et al., 2009). An aspect of experiential learning design (Kolb, 1984) conceptualized the enhancement of learning by transforming knowledge into the realm of experiential practice through active engagement and reflection during learning tasks and activities. A key concept in transformative theory (Mezirow, 1997) that compliments experiential learning design is the role of experience in relation to discourse and critical reflection throughout the learning process. In both nursing and medical educational contexts, the transformation of conceptual understanding

into simulation practice has proven effective in bridging theory and practice (Lisko & O'Dell, 2010; Parker & Myrick, 2009; Wyrostok, Hoffart, Kelly, & Ryba, 2014; Ziv, Wolpe, Small, & Glick, 2006). Experiential teaching and learning methodology in this context has included scenario-based critical skills integration through the use of authentic medical equipment, moderate-fidelity manikins with vital sign and programmed voice features, and even standardized human patients.

The context of my case study was in response to a national call within this transnational landscape for more meaningful and innovative educational and training opportunities in the local higher education system in better preparing students to provide and support societal needs in the workplace. With an emphasis on experiential learning within team-based collaborative educational environments, IPE has been promoted as a way forward in post-secondary healthcare education. In 2015, a nursing instructor from a North American-based transnational nursing HEI branch campus within the GCC region had an idea to collaborate with local medical educators in piloting a trial teaching and learning initiative. This initiative sought to bring nursing and medical students together in a shared simulated environment around the topic of family assessment. This was a topic of great national concern within this country in the GCC.

During this time, I was searching to recruit faculty participants for my doctoral study who were involved in collaborative SoTL-based initiatives. As I was working as an educational developer at this transnational nursing institution, I had a deep and intrinsic interest in learning more about providing enhanced higher educational development support for faculty. Upon receiving notice about my institutional call for participants, this nursing instructor from the North American-based transnational nursing HEI branch campus contacted me with the idea of observing her proposed project's development within a trial iteration. As an IPE scholarly

initiative, this nursing instructor had plans to create a collaborative team comprised of nursing, medical, and related healthcare educators.

By the summer of 2015, this nursing educator was able to identify a medical educator from a local North American-based transnational medical HEI branch campus who was interested in participating in this initiative. As the project involved the utilization of a clinical simulation suite, the Simulation Director from this nursing educator's transnational HEI branch campus, along with her lead simulation technician, were also enlisted as collaborative research volunteers. This group of four, assembled as an IPE community of practice (CoP), began initial planning discussions mostly via email in the spring term of 2015. The result of this planning focused on developing a one-day workshop toward the end of the Fall 2015 semester where nursing and medical students would participate together in an experiential simulation encounter. As plans were in development, the nursing instructor decided to enlist one additional member to assist with facilitating the one-day workshop. This additional member was a renowned professor emeritus and content expert in the area of family assessment. As an inherently SoTL-based initiative, this group of five participants had intentions of sharing results from their reflective pedagogical study with other nursing and medical faculty within the wider scholarly community in the region. The venue for sharing these results was targeted at a local IPE conference that was planned to be held in December of 2015.

Educational Development and Educational Leadership

In approaching both “educational development” and “educational leadership” in the context of my study, it was important to situate these terms specifically in relation to their impact on fostering and supporting SoTL-based interprofessional collaborative initiatives within transnational HEIs. The rationale for contextually grounding these terms was to highlight their

relevance in relation to the faculty and academic support staff-oriented focus that this study entailed. Amundsen and Wilson (2012) refer to educational development in terms of “describ[ing] actions, planned and undertaken by faculty themselves or by others working with faculty, aimed at enhancing teaching” (p. 90). Felton, Kalish, Pingree, and Plank (2007) further qualified that as an established profession, it is often educational developers working within teaching and learning centres, and envision SoTL “as a central part of their philosophy and offerings” (pp. 93-94) that provide faculty with appropriate supporting mechanisms to engage in these pedagogical and scholarly action plans. Thus, educational developers working within these teaching and learning centres are situated in a role that can often provide optimum opportunities and support for faculty members in engaging in SoTL-based initiatives aimed at enhancing student learning outcomes.

The location of teaching and learning centres in North American HEIs has become a standard practice (Schwartz & Haynie, 2013) and this has had an influence in transnational branch campus structural design. This is a context where more teaching and learning centres are being established to assist faculty who are working abroad in developing better teaching practices and supporting quality SoTL-based research. The North American-based nursing HEI branch campus in my study had an established teaching and learning centre that was mandated to promote and assist nursing faculty members in developing their teaching practices and scholarship within this unique transnational educational landscape. One of the main services that this centre provided was to deliver ongoing workshops and consultation services in the areas of SoTL research design and development. Three members involved in my study had previously participated in workshops that had been delivered at this centre and found them to be informative and inspiring. As a result, these members periodically utilized the centre for consultative

purposes and in this capacity considered that the teaching and learning centre provided them with needed educational development support throughout the course of their own initiative. Results from my study then hoped to inform how educational development in such a transnational branch campus setting could be improved in order to provide enhanced support to such engaged faculty and academic support members.

The encompassing concept of educational leadership in my study related to a CoP's voluntary engagement in a SoTL-based interprofessional initiative in the effort of influencing a change in pedagogical practice. As such, the influence of educational leadership was not situated through the actions of individuals in traditional and formal positions of institutional leadership (e.g. deans and/or other administrative leaders). Rather, the influence of educational leadership was ultimately represented through the actions and evidence created by "faculty and academic staff who [emerged in my study's context as] SoTL scholars" (Miller-Young et al., 2017, p. 1). Nonetheless, results of this study were also intended to inform institutional leaders on ways to better support faculty and academic staff who decide to answer the call to engage in collaborative SoTL-based initiatives within a transnational branch campus landscape.

Research Problem

Based on the literature reviewed, research in the areas of higher education development for faculty in relation to their engagement in CoPs is of timely concern (McDonald et al., 2012). Although literature on SoTL-based educational development initiatives has indicated an inherent alignment to collaborative-based approaches (Kenny et al., 2017), more research is needed on the extent to which unique institutional factors may propel or impede the development and progress of CoPs in HEI contexts (Adams, 2009; Miller-Young et al., 2017). As institutional leadership within HEIs has a stake in encouraging educational development within their institutions, more

research into harnessing the potential of leadership in both building and fostering CoPs is greatly needed (McDonald et al., 2012). This is particularly the case in the context of transnational higher education where a dearth of literature presently exists.

Purpose and Rationale for the Study

The purpose of this research was to explore the emerging nature of leadership within a IPE CoP engaged in a trial SoTL-based teaching and learning initiative between nursing and medical students. As international attention on these unique higher educational entities is on the increase in terms of academic merit and prestige (Wilkins & Huisman, 2014), research conducted in this area and context may be valuable as investments made in these transnational educational enterprises involve high stakes for state and institutional leaders, faculty and related academic support staff, and students. The impact that faculty-driven educational leadership has on student learning outcomes within these international and academic partnerships needs to be better understood and recognized since both faculty and students are central players in this structure. The purpose of this research then was to explore how leadership evolves and is shared amongst CoP members engaged in scholarly experiential pedagogical initiatives within a transnational higher education context.

Research Questions

The following question served as an overarching guide to this research study:

- How does leadership emerge within an interprofessional community of practice focused on developing and trialing a simulated teaching and learning experience between nursing and medical students in a Middle Eastern transnational HEI context?

The following sub-questions served to further base and inform the main research question above:

- How is leadership represented through a community of practice systems convener?
- How are leadership roles distributed between community of practice participants?
- What factors contribute to the challenges and successes of community of practice initiatives in this study's situated context?

Significance of the Research

Considering the high stakes and investment (both in terms of reputation and finances) that are involved in operating and sustaining transnational higher education branch campuses (Fox & Al Shamisi, 2014; Ibnouf et al., 2014; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2009), these institutions would greatly benefit from research conducted in the context of faculty driven development initiatives. Based on empirical observations that were made between both transnational branch campuses under present consideration, interprofessional groups were previously able to engage in scholarly collaborative innovations through their participation in CoPs. This led to some innovative teaching and learning initiatives that had been disseminated through scholarly publications and conferences. However, the leadership and organizational management within these collaborative scholarly initiatives need to be formally captured and documented in research to better inform educational development and institutional leadership on ways to work together in providing adequate supporting mechanisms for these faculty-based communities. Furthermore, transnational branch campuses in similar contexts as those that were identified in this study would benefit with research that attempts to validate and document these developments within formal ethical boundaries in recording and building upon their institutional histories.

Definition of Key Terms and Abbreviations

Branch Campus: Satellite campuses of parent higher educational institutions. The abbreviation IBC in the literature refers to a branch campus located overseas (Lane, 2011).

Community of Practice (CoP): An informal organized group of gathered individuals with a shared common interest (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). In relation to the higher education context, CoPs have recently been acknowledged to allow for more structure and institutional support (Beach & Cox, 2009; McDonald et al., 2012).

Educational Development: Knight and Wilcox (1998) referred to educational development as “all the work that is done systematically to help faculty members do their best to foster student learning” (p. 98). In my study, this qualification is relevant in the context of transnational institutional supports (e.g. teaching and learning centres) that are implemented to encourage and assist faculty in achieving this goal in their professional classroom environments.

Educational Developers: Faculty or staff members who are professionally trained in supporting faculty members in developing approaches to enhance student learning.

Educational Leadership: This term is contextualized in my study in relation to faculty-led engagement in SoTL-based initiatives that are targeted to influence a wider academic and institutional audience through the transformation of practice. Educational development and developers often play an integral role in fostering educational leadership capacity for faculty members.

Faculty Development: An area within the broader context of educational development that specifically focuses on providing opportunities to improve and enhance faculty teaching and learning approaches.

Faculty Learning Communities (FLC): Cox (2004) defines an FLC as a “cross-disciplinary faculty and staff group of six to fifteen members (eight to twelve members is the recommended size) who engage in an active, collaborative, yearlong program with a curriculum about enhancing teaching and learning with frequent seminars and activities that provide learning, development, the scholarship of teaching, and community building” (p. 8). As FLCs are situated in higher educational contexts they have been regarded by Wenger (1998) as a special kind of ‘community of practice’.

Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC): A region consisting of six Middle Eastern countries (Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, the United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Bahrain, and Oman) that have a level of political and economic ties.

Higher Educational Institution (HEI): A term used referring to tertiary-level (college and/or university) institutions.

Interprofessional Education (IPE): At the time of this study, interprofessional education (IPE) is a term that is contextually associated with the collaborative pedagogical practice developed and facilitated between health and social care professions (Barr, 2002). IPE is considered an “important pedagogical approach for preparing health professions students to provide health care in a collaborative team environment” (Buring et al., 2009, p. 1).

Modified Communities of Practice (M-CoPs): A modified version of a CoP as defined by Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998) that allows for more formal structure and support (McDonald et al., 2012).

Scholarship of Educational Development (SoED): A concept that where educational developers adopt a “systematic and evidence-based” scholarly approach in assessing the outcomes of their practice in relation to supporting faculty (Felten et al., 2007, p. 95).

Scholarship of Teaching: A model proposed by Boyer (1990) to promote and support faculty in bridging research and teaching to enhance student learning outcomes.

Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL): A concept that has evolved from Boyer (1990) that includes a “systematic inquiry into the processes of teaching and student learning, including expectations for appropriate dissemination” (Kenny et al., 2017, p. 3).

Situated Cognition: The results of learning that take place in and are transferred beyond specific physical locations in relation to individual thought processes (e.g. memory, speech, comprehension). Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1989) are credited for defining situated cognition in a contemporary researchable learning context (Allal, 2001). Situated cognition is constructivist in its epistemological approach.

Situated Learning: Environments where learning is socially constructed in relation to the context of the content area being learned (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This served as an early community of practice contextual frame in relation to training apprenticeships.

Transnational Higher Educational Branch Campus: This term “refers to the delivery of educational programmes (sic), award or credit bearing, by Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs) in countries other than their own” (Drew, McCaig, Marsden, Haughton, McBride, McBride, Willis, & Wolstenholme, 2007, p. 4).

Wenger Community of Practice (W-CoP): A term referenced by McDonald et al. (2012) to describe an informal and unstructured CoP as originally conceived by Lave and Wenger (1991), and Wenger (1998).

Western: Commonly refers to countries that have been traditionally influenced by European cultures (i.e. Australia, Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom).

Organization of the Dissertation

This thesis dissertation presents a preliminary literature review focusing on the development and leadership implications within four main areas that have helped develop a contextual background to this research study: 1) the higher educational transnational branch campus; 2) the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL); 3) communities of practice (CoPs); and 4) situated learning. The review of literature includes a positioning of the study's focus according to two prevalent and emerging forms of leadership found to be in alignment with social learning theory: 1) systems conveners; 2) distributed leadership. The study's conceptual framework will then be explained to serve as both a data analysis filter and a lens for the study, and conclude with a brief discussion on leadership in the context of higher education CoP literature. Further details will follow in relation to the research design and instruments that were used in this qualitative-based case study. The study will then offer a chapter on the findings, which is followed by an explanation in relation to the research question. A discussion on the study's implications and future research plans will conclude the dissertation.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The intention of this literature review was to provide a basis upon which to begin exploring the emerging trends in leadership that evolve throughout the process of faculty engagement within a community of practice (CoP) structural framework. The contextual focus of this particular faculty community engagement was on a scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL)-based initiative that strove to build interprofessional knowledge between nursing and medical students within a simulated encounter. The literature sample that has been reviewed for this case study attempts to offer a background to base such scholarly initiatives that have been aimed at enhancing experiential teaching and learning methods within a situated learning context. The ensuing research was designed to further contribute to this literature by identifying leadership representation and drawing connections between factors that were found to have an influence on the successes and challenges of this faculty-based interprofessional CoP captured during the course of the study.

The review begins by offering a contextual overview of transnational higher educational institutions in relation to educational development issues as represented in currently available literature. Dimensions surrounding the various forms of leadership issues that have been represented throughout the literature that has developed in the areas of SoTL, CoP, and situated learning theory will then be explored. Although these three theoretical approaches are far from being mutually exclusive and have, in fact, been often interrelated in the literature, they have been addressed individually for organizational purposes. The literature review then contextualizes the theoretical approaches to leadership that have been chosen as a focus for this

study. The review concludes by offering a conceptual framework toward positioning this study in an effort to address identified gaps that currently exist in the literature.

The Higher Educational Transnational Branch Campus

Over the past fifteen years, there has been a growth in the trend of western-based higher educational institutions locating branch campuses abroad (Wilkins, Butt & Annabi, 2017). These branch campuses have primarily been based from world-renowned higher educational institutions in North America, the United Kingdom, Europe, and Australia (Knight, 2011; Wilkins, 2013). This trend has largely been in response to the desire of rapidly developing countries (located primarily in Asia, Southeast Asia, the Middle East, and Africa) in providing the best and most modern academic and technical education to their populaces. Defining this trend has been a concern increasingly discussed and debated in literature (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Miller-Idriss & Hanauer, 2011), centering on the issue of whether these global enterprises are considered as an “international” (interconnected) or “transnational” (integrated) arrangement between two countries (Beerlings, 2003). A semantic consensus (Lane, 2011; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Naidoo, 2009; Shams & Huisman, 2011; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012) appears to most strongly align with a definition provided by UNESCO’s/Council of Europe’s *Code of Good Practice in the Provision of Transnational Education* (adopted June 6, 2001) which stated that transnational higher educational programmes include “all types of higher education study programmes or set of courses of study, or educational services...in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based” (Council Of Europe, 2014). Mazzarol, Soutar, and Seng (2003) identified the emerging presence of these western-based transnational branch campuses located on foreign soil as part of a “third wave” (p. 90) of

international education that has been eagerly pursued by hosting countries in an effort to improve and develop their own educational infrastructure.

Although the establishment of transnational branch campuses shows signs of continued growth internationally, the presence of these educational entities has often tended to be both highly questionable and controversial (Lane, 2011; Miller-Idress & Hanauer, 2011). Wilkins and Huisman (2012) observed the paradoxical motivators and de-motivators behind the establishment of transnational higher education branch campus with underlying considerations associated with gains and losses in relation to “money, influence and status” (p. 640). Beyond the higher education institutional leadership decision-making process to embark on establishing a branch campus abroad, there exists the issues of ongoing branch campus management and quality assurance that often lie beyond the immediate logistical control of the main campus. Shams and Huisman (2011) observed curriculum and staffing, cultural-societal distance, and regulatory distance as three crucial managerial considerations in these two areas. Amongst these three considerations, a clear importance was particularly placed on curriculum and staffing in terms of aligning the quality of teaching and learning at the branch campuses located abroad to those mandated at the main campus.

Faculty concerns were acknowledged as further challenges to transnational higher education branch campus leadership and sustainability in Lane (2011). In relation to the three boundaries (campus, vertical, and temporal) that serve to further hamper efforts between international branch and home campus alignment, the importance of both faculty and staff engagement were considered important features throughout all three of these potential boundaries as they were viewed to serve as barriers to communication that can isolate faculty and staff, and thereby impede a sense of cooperation and cohesive vision.

As teaching faculty and academic support staff have a direct impact on the teaching and learning culture in higher educational contexts, research focused on their own professional attitudes and concerns of these key institutional players would appear to be beneficial in achieving a better understanding of their own working environments. Nickerson and Schaefer's (2001) study on characteristics of domestic branch campus (satellite campuses located in the same country as the main campus) faculty was conducted in direct response to the lack of literature addressing this context. Data collection involved a national survey that was administered to 1,089 branch campus administrators (which reaped a 24.7 percent response rate). The survey intended to capture "branch campus characteristics", "branch campus typology", and the "views of branch administrators...involving faculty, students, resources, organization, and institutional relations" (Nickerson & Shaefer, 2001, p. 49). Although the study revealed many negative aspects of the branch campus context in terms of isolation, institutional support and career development, positive aspects of this context included flexibility and autonomy; two elements that are seen to be lacking in a traditional higher education main campus environment. In areas of providing educational development opportunities and promoting faculty research, the study revealed an environment of institutional indifference. However, a salient finding from the study centred on the importance of "individual leaders" in these environments in offering faculty both "opportunities and support in achieving their [professional] goals" (Nickerson & Shaefer, 2001, p. 55).

Employee commitment in transnational higher education was a further foundational concern that was recently addressed by Wilkens et al. (2017). In a quantitatively-based comparative study between university campuses in the United Kingdom and branch campuses in Malaysia and the United Arab Emirates, overall findings indicated a greater lack of institutional

and organizational commitment amongst faculty and staff at transnational higher education institutions. Implications from these findings pointed toward the nature of limited contractual employment, difficulties in cultural adjustment, and an overemphasis on institutional short-term financial gain. These findings and implications highlighted the inherent uniqueness and difficulties related to faculty and staff commitment and employee attrition within the transnational higher education landscape.

From an educational development perspective, Johnson and Ryba (2015) investigated ways to enhance scholarship opportunities and support for faculty and academic support staff in one specific transnational branch campus context. As part of a needs analysis, the university's "Centre for Teaching and Learning" (CTL) applied a socio-ecological model adapted from Bronfenbrenner (1994) to provide a framework for cultivating a SoTL culture within its institution. One of the general conclusions found in this context was that the CTL was widely regarded as contributing to an environment that greatly assisted faculty in improving their teaching, learning, and scholarship practices. This conclusion implied that CTL leadership in a transnational setting held a contextual influence on the quality of teaching learning and scholarship occurring within a branch campus. This was an important contextual finding as transnational faculty members have been identified as playing a central role in building sustainable partnerships between main campus and branch campus partnerships (Arrowood & Hitch, 2016).

The context of my case study was situated in one country located in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) region in the Middle East. Although this is an area of the globe that at times can be both politically and economically volatile, it has a strong tendency to attract faculty and academic support staff due to the lucrative compensation packages offered through many of its

transnational HEIs (Romani, 2009; Wilkins, 2011). Yet, the unpredictable nature of employment due to issues such as limited contracts and cultural adjustments can also serve as prohibitive factors in recruiting more experienced faculty and academic support staff (Wilkins, 2010; 2017). This often results in a unique and transitory workforce populating HEI branch campuses in a transnational landscape. As a result, it was assumed that this transnational contextual reality might have an influence, either directly or indirectly, on faculty and academic support staff relationships while engaging in collaborative work. This was an influence that might affect internal relationships between members within a CoP and member relationships with stakeholders and peers who were external to the CoP.

McBurnie and Ziguras (2009) cited financial, reputational, and academic targets as prime motivators for transnational branch campus establishment. Considering the high level of financial investments that are being made in transnational higher education, it was somewhat surprising that limited substantial literature was identified in relation to educational development and the promotion of faculty-based educational leadership in the transnational branch campus context. These are areas that would seem to have the potential to contribute to a transnational branch campus institution's level of prestige and revenue development. It was an intention of this study to address this gap in literature by exploring leadership implications in relation to supporting educational development for faculty in the area of pedagogical-based scholarship as well as the current absence of scholarship of teaching and learning literature as it applies specifically to the transnational branch campus context.

The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL)

A reform movement within the American university and college systems during the 1980s and 1990s concerned itself with redefining teaching education and the importance of

professional development strategies (Mayes, 1998). *Tomorrow's Teachers* (1986), published by the Holmes Group, served as a cornerstone document for discussions surrounding reform in areas of teaching and educational research, career development, professional teaching standards, and professional teacher training and development. This led to a continued and engaged discourse that has been documented in literature (Altbach, 2001) between the merits of teaching and research in higher educational contexts. Boyer's (1990) concept of a scholarship of teaching has since become an integral reference point throughout this discourse as it is ultimately aimed toward an approach that merged research and teaching as a move forward in facilitating improved student-learning outcomes.

Boyer (1990) moved toward an approach in the higher educational context that attempted to merge the *teacher* and the *scholar* throughout four interrelated modes of scholarship that included *discovery*, *integration*, *application* and *teaching*. Although Boyer's (1990) SoTL concept was considered both influential and revolutionary, there was a perception that it suffered from a lack of refinement (Glassick, 2000). Glassick et al.'s (1997) comprehensive report, published by The Carnegie Foundation, offered "six standards" (clear goals, adequate preparation, appropriate methods, significant results, effective presentation, and reflective technique) to serve as a ready criteria framework for the process of measuring coherent evidence for faculty engaged in scholarly work. Glassick et al.'s (1997) guidelines were a significant development as perceived ambiguities in Boyer (1990) obscured coherent procedures of evaluating scholarly work.

However, in the pursuit of clarifying further perceived ambiguities Hutchings & Shulman (1999) brought attention to the need of better clarifying and differentiating between the concepts of "excellent teaching" and a "scholarship of teaching" (p. 13). In introducing the concept of a

“scholarship of teaching and learning”, Hutchings and Shulman (1999) called for more methodological rigor into investigating the relationships between teaching methods and student learning. This involved faculty “going meta” in “fram[ing] and systematic [ally] investigat[ing] questions related to student learning” (p. 13). Subsequent to the seminal and foundational work of Boyer (1990), Glassick et al., (1997), and Hutchings and Shulman (1999), influential literature has developed (Bowden, 2007; Felten, 2013; Kreber, 2000, 2002, 2005; Kreber & Cranton, 2000; Middendorf & Pace, 2004, 2007; Richlin, 2001; Trigwell, Martin, Benjamin & Prosser, 2000) in theoretically attempting to better situate and operationalize the concept of the scholarship of teaching, or what is now more commonly known as the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL), in the higher educational context.

Trigwell, et al.’s (2000) empirical study offered a four-dimensional model designed to gauge the extent to which a teacher is engaged in more student-focused or teacher-focused approaches and practices. The four dimensions of this model included (a) informed, (b) reflective, (c) communicative, and (d) conceptual aspects. The Trigwell et al. (2000) model made a radical departure from Boyer (1990) in that it proposed a hierarchical relationship between the shallow stages of informed teaching and learning (excellent teaching) to the more deeper stages of the scholarship of teaching where findings through research are shared with a larger community (mainly through publications and conference presentations). Despite having provided a model that served as a measure for institutional and departmental leaders in evaluating levels of faculty engagement in certain contexts, Trigwell et al.’s (2000) hierarchical model appeared in contrast to Boyer’s (1990) more organic concept position, which strongly argued for a lateral relationship between teaching excellence and the scholarship of teaching.

Having drawn further upon Trigwell et al.'s (2000) four dimensions model, Kreber (2002) attempted to establish clearer distinctions between the concepts of teaching excellence (self-reflective practice that is not necessarily validated by theory), teaching expertise (teaching practice refined by theory), and the scholarship of teaching (teaching practice that is validated by research and shared with a larger community via presentations and publications). Having conceded that a smaller ratio of faculty may be attracted to this concept, Kreber (2002) considered that benefits could be made from the sharing and proliferation of ideas and approaches reaped from research. Kreber (2002) found this particularly the case in instances where faculty from disciplines outside of education (e.g. business, engineering, and medicine) were encouraged and supported to integrate research with their own teaching.

In attempting to promote the intrinsic value of both teaching excellence and the scholarship of teaching, Kreber (2002) aimed for a less hierarchical relationship than Trigwell et al. (2000) by attempting to highlight the importance of a more student-centered mandate. Kreber's (2005) study focused on teachers' reflective practices, built on both of these notions by indicating greater instructor engagement in process reflection and knowledge construction when student learning is held as a central target. However, as Bowden (2007) observed, Kreber's (2005) approach was open to criticism due to the apparent and uncertain relationship between the scholarship of teaching and student learning. Nonetheless, an important implication from Kreber (2002, 2005) was the role and ultimate importance placed on institutional leadership in supporting an environment that valued and rewarded both teaching excellence and scholarship in teaching.

Other models offered in literature (Middendorf & Pace, 2004, 2007; Richlin, 2001) served as illustrations and tools to further widen the gulf and reinforce distinctions between the

concepts of scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching that Shulman (1998) considered as a necessary way forward in developing SoTL theory in the new millennium. Richlin (2001) observed a cyclical model where the scholarship of teaching “builds on the end product of scholarly teaching” (p. 61) if the teacher regards intervention results worthy of dissemination amongst the wider scholarly community. Middendorf and Pace (2004, 2007) offered a seven-step model (*Decoding the Disciplines*) that served as an impetus for teachers to delve beyond reflective scholarly teaching by identifying meaningful and researchable questions to solve student learning difficulties.

Yet, Bowden’s (2007) lexical and rhetorical analysis of Boyer’s (1990) concept of the scholarship of teaching attempted to draw the discussion back to unifying the concepts of “teaching, research and service” (p. 17) within more discipline-specific arenas. Having offered two recommendations, Bowden (2007) put forward the idea of aligning efforts made in the areas of teaching, research, and service to well-articulated social objectives found within differing discipline-specific contexts. It was then suggested that research into the scholarship of teaching should be situated within these specific discipline contexts as opposed to using a more general concept of teaching and scholarship as a collective reference point. When research in this area has been applied to specific disciplines, unique contextual issues have been identified. As an example, representative literature in the field of nursing education (Allen & Field, 2005; Cash & Tate, 2012) has revealed specific challenges, such as overcoming traditional ideologies in relation to engaging faculty in supporting a broader view of scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching. The uniqueness of this particular context draws attention to the need of more SoTL-based research in specific discipline areas.

Despite a wide diversity of views and approaches towards SoTL engagement, Felten (2013) called for a sharing of “norms” and “common principles of good practices of inquiry into student learning” (p. 122). Felten’s (2013) five “principles of good practice in SoTL” were intended to ensure that SoTL-based initiatives were (a) inquiry focused on student learning, (b) grounded in context, (c) methodologically sound, (d) conducted in partnership with students, and (e) appropriately public. Citing a general skepticism about SoTL in higher education, Felten (2013) argued that having clear “guiding principles” could serve to “demystify SoTL” and “shape” a common “vision” for the concept of teaching and learning scholarship. Felten’s (2013) principles have been particularly influential in offering a common reference guide for SoTL collaborations in interdisciplinary settings (Marquis, Healey, & Vine, 2016).

Discussion in literature has been moving towards a path where more interdisciplinary cooperation and collaboration in the SoTL has been encouraged as a way forward for the higher education culture (McKinney, 2013). This area has involved the presence of effective leadership and supporting institutional infrastructure to nurture a sense of common purpose in faculty development strategies. In merging theory and practice through a program development and evaluation framework, Hubball and Burt (2006) pointed toward the effectiveness of institutional programs in helping to scaffold faculty development in higher education. As an inherently action research based and inspired framework, this program development and evaluation model was applied to assess the effectiveness of a faculty certificate program. An integral aspect of the Hubball and Burt (2006) study surrounded the successful integration of cross-disciplinary faculty members engaged in a common purpose towards improving their own reflective understanding of teaching in order to enhance student learning outcomes.

Adams' (2009) qualitative study on the role of the scholarship of teaching in relation to faculty development revealed further insights into the value of interdisciplinary sharing and collaboration. The study investigated the experiences of nine faculty members concluding that collaboration within an inquiry-based faculty development context enhanced participants' growth as educators. An important finding revealed in the Adams (2009) study that was consistent with Weston and McAlpine (2001) was the influence SoTL-inspired faculty development initiatives had on lessening faculty teaching and department silos in the higher educational environment. Despite admitted and ongoing obstacles in garnering institutional support and overall faculty acceptance, results from Adams (2009) indicated that this inquiry assisted faculty in achieving a better understanding and appreciation of their own professional practice. This, in turn, was found to particularly empower faculty in collaborative settings.

In approaching the issue of "methodological soundness" under the metaphorical "big tent" that fosters interdisciplinary collaboration, Chick (2014) offered a formula for pursuing quality SoTL research. Methodology in this context is the sum of adding (a) project design, (b) evidence of learning, and (c) analysis of evidence. In relation to project design, Chick (2014, p. 4) observed two different questions ("what works?" and "what is?") that prospective researchers need to consider in order to initially situate their research. Identifying which of the two questions to pursue will then determine the appropriate data to collect (quantitative or qualitative respectively) and thus the data analysis methods. Chick's (2014) methodological equation attempted to offer more depth toward research rationale and operational approaches in an increasingly interdisciplinary research environment.

Supporting a collaborative culture for the SoTL in higher education has also brought attention to the role and location of educational development. Felten et al. (2007) view this level

of SoTL as one where educational developers “engage in a scholarship of teaching and learning development by gathering data on the outcomes of their own work” (p. 95). The aims of this level of SoTL research appear two-fold: (a) to assess the outcomes of educational development practice, and (b) to better understand how educational development can better support faculty in their pursuit of enhancing student learning. Focusing on both of these aims, Felten et al. (2007) regard results in this area of enquiry as assisting “colleges and universities to function effectively as teaching and learning communities” (p. 105).

In terms of operationalization, Kenny et al. (2017) have offered a seven-principle scholarship of educational development (SoED) framework that builds upon Felton’s (2013) five principles for SoTL framework. Additional principles added to the Felten (2013) include transformational and reflective components. Despite the benefits of learning more about the impact of educational development practice, implications from Kenny et al. (2017) highlight potential tensions resulting from an educational developer’s dual role as “practitioners and researchers”. These are tensions believed to have a potentially negative impact on relationships between educational developers and the faculty they try to support. Kenny et al. (2017) look to future research in finding answers in effectively mitigating these tensions.

The importance and impact of educational development issues related to SoTL support in transnational education is a relatively new concept and as a result there is presently a dearth of literature in this area. In an attempt at fostering a faculty community around SoTL at a transnational branch campus in Doha, Qatar, Johnson, and Ryba (2015) implemented a program dedicated to teaching improvement projects. As part of a SoED-situated case study that assessed the development of an institutional SoTL program through an ecological model, the study found that teaching and learning centres could be positioned in having a positive influence on research

outputs and overall enhanced conditions for student learning. Beyond the prospective leadership implications that these findings had in relation to teaching and learning centres, the success that this particular “Centre for Teaching and Learning” (CTL) had in this study seemed to rely heavily on the presence of support from the host country, the main campus and the institutional leadership within the branch campus itself. As these transnational branch campuses continue to increase in presence and prestige (Wilkins & Huisman, 2014), a wider cross-institutional study in scholarly cultural changes around teaching and learning in transnational contexts would appear to be timely and welcome.

Perhaps an identified thread that developed throughout the sample of SoTL research literature reviewed here was the concept of a group of professionals, from both similar and differing fields and backgrounds, sharing and collaborating for a united cause: that of enhancing and disseminating teaching knowledge for the improvement of student learning objectives within their own teaching and learning environments. What became apparent from the review of the literature was an emerging focus on the role of educational development in supporting collaborative faculty groups engaged in the SoTL and the ensuing educational leadership implications this may have on both faculty members and educational developers. As the participants in my study were deeply immersed in a joint and interprofessional SoTL-based collaboration, these implications were important to consider in the context of a higher educational transnational landscape.

The next section will offer a review of literature on communities of practice. As a social learning approach and an organizational structure that collaboratively leverages knowledge management, communities of practice have been found to align well with faculty-based scholarship initiatives in higher educational contexts.

Communities of Practice (CoPs)

The concept of professional learning communities operating within higher educational contexts and serving as vehicles for teacher support and professional development is one that has been regarded as integral in terms of building the required capacity for sustainable institutional improvement (Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace, & Thomas, 2006). Communities of practice (CoPs) have become an increasingly influential manifestation of the broader professional learning community phenomenon in higher educational contexts for their ability to foster active participation within a collaborative decision-making environment (McDonald et al., 2012). However, CoPs as both a concept and model are often oversimplified and underutilized in actual practice (Hutchinson et al., 2015). This section will begin by reviewing prevalent literature that documents the evolution of CoPs from organic assemblies of shared interests to more structured and organized institutional entities. Aspects of leadership will be discussed in relation to its integrated presence in CoP literature throughout its conceptual evolution followed by a discussion on CoP operational caveats and limitations. Focus will then be placed on more recent research that has been conducted in the area of CoPs as applied in the higher educational context and the implications this has had on areas of leadership.

As a concept, CoPs were originally inspired through apprenticeship models in relation to community working dynamics within workplace organizational structures (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1998; Brown & Duguid, 1991; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Orr, 1996; Wenger, 1996, 1998). CoPs have become increasingly influential in higher educational teaching and learning contexts as a vehicle for fostering professional and sustainable development strategies for faculty members in areas of both research and teaching (McDonald et al., 2012). However, and as in the case of SoTL, the application of CoPs to an HEI context has progressively evolved from its

originally intended organic and informal concept to that of a more organized and structured theoretical approach. This progressive shift has led to a concerted focus on the feasibility and implications of leadership in CoPs.

A review of literature has identified the development of CoPs within two phases: the pure and organic concept (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1996, 1998), and the structured approach focusing more on organizational development and leadership (Wenger, 1998b, 2000; Wenger et al., 2002; Wenger & Snyder, 2000; Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015). The first phase was initially represented in Lave and Wenger's (1991) original conceptual articulation of a community of practice operating within a specified situated learning context. This fundamental conception of a CoP was that of a purely self-organized and self-directed entity comprised of an unplanned and organic gathering of individuals sharing a common interest in a workplace environment. As such, leadership issues were largely ignored and considered paradoxical to the inherent nature and spirit of these flexible and somewhat spontaneously assembled groups. Rather than being defined by a rigid *raison d'être* or agenda, CoPs were characterized here as being an undefined group of individuals participating actively to advance learning and knowledge in a specific area within an organization through shared and mutual engagement (Gherardi, Nicolini, & Odela, 1998). Institutional recognition of these professional learning groups was not felt integral to their worth and development.

Wenger (1996, 1998) further refined the CoP concept by examining the intricate dynamics of the learning process occurring within these professional learning organizations. Wenger (1996) explored the significance of these learning organizations as a social phenomenon where valuable learning took place in informally interactive environments. Wenger (1998) delved more deeply into these socially interactive aspects of the CoP by highlighting the process

between participation and reification after which meaning takes on new evolving forms or perhaps even dissipates altogether (depending on the need and circumstances of the context). As a unified first phase then, Lave and Wenger (1991), and Wenger (1996, 1998) conceived a rationale and foundational basis for the products and value that had emerged from the social interactions observed within these informal and laterally organized groups (McDonald et al., 2012).

As more operational structure to the CoP concept emerged within the second phase, allowances for institutional recognition, organizational development and leadership (internally and externally) have become both apparent and prevalent. In relation to “developing and nurturing communities of practice”, Wenger (1998b, p. 7) observed that some CoP entities can actually “benefit” from institutional attention and that “internal leadership” can assume a variety of roles that are both “formal” or “informal”. Furthermore, the presence of external leadership (e.g. representative leadership from the larger institution, outside of the CoP entity itself) was thought to be of value if (and only if) this presence worked with the CoP as opposed to issuing horizontal directives designed beyond the interests and confines of the professional learning community. Having further promoted the role of institutions as supporting mechanisms for CoPs, Wenger (1998b) provided guidelines on successful nurturing strategies to which organizations should become familiar with and foster. These guidelines included (a) legitimizing participation, (b) negotiating the strategic context of the CoP, (c) leveraging existing practices, (d) refining the organizational environment, and (e) providing support.

Wenger (2000) argued the importance of social learning systems operating within organizations by offering a framework focusing on three key elements: communities of practice, boundaries, and identities. A key development in Wenger (2000) was the prominence of

leadership as an important design element in the building of the community. Focusing on the CoP's "internal leadership", Wenger (2000, p. 231) distinguished the role of a "coordinator" (one who looks after the basic daily organizational logistics) from the "multiple forms of leadership" that were later seen to evolve through the delegation of community tasks. This essentially served as a structurally organized approach for Wenger's earlier informal CoP concept.

Wenger and Snyder (2000) maintained this managerial nuance and cited an inherent "paradox" where the evolution of CoPs in an organization needed to retain an independent and organic nature, but ultimately benefited from institutional guidance. Wenger and Snyder (2000) argued that successful leadership in this model involved very subtle maneuvering in providing an environment for CoPs to flourish and yet avoiding the tendency of micromanagement.

Guidelines were again offered on how to both create and sustain an environment for the development of CoPs that included identifying potential CoPs within an organization, allowing for adequate supporting infrastructure, and utilizing innovative assessment methods to measure their value.

Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder's (2002) publication *Cultivating Communities of Practice* was operationally influential as it provided a seven-principle outline on designing successful CoPs. Moving from theory to practice, this publication offered several case examples of CoPs *in situ*. Leadership in Wenger et al. (2002) is operational and allows for a type of "coordinator" who organizes meetings with a more distributed leadership trend occurring within the core CoP group. Although the concept of value creation in relation to having greater alignment within an organization was at odds with the more organic CoP conception, Wenger et al. (2002) appear to consider this desirable in terms of a CoP gaining influence and ultimately becoming a sustainable entity.

CoPs as a learning systems approach have generated a chorus of caveats and criticisms. Wenger et al. (2002) themselves pointed to an evident paradox where the very enabling factors (namely the negotiated and shared practices) of the community proved to be the source of limiting factors (i.e. creating a stasis for the group where innovation is compromised by collective dogmatism). Roberts (2006, pp. 626-636) summarized three predominant limitations (“power”, “trust”, and “predispositions”) and cited three “further challenges” (“size and spatial reach”, the conceptual and semantic paradox of the term “community” itself, and issues surrounding speed and efficiency) all serving as disabling factors. In reference to the first trio of limitations, Roberts (2006) observed the importance of not taking institutional “context” for granted in providing CoPs with the chance of success and sustainability. In fact, certain contexts, already predetermined by existing internal organizational structure, were considered to pose inherent risks to the successful establishment of CoPs. The second trio of limitations pointed toward the larger institutional and wider socio-cultural realities that threaten the successful establishment and existence of CoPs in a rapidly accelerating global environment. Although Roberts (2006) conceded that limitations identified predominantly within large corporate environments found within the private sector may not transfer to other organizational structures, strengths and weaknesses that were offered provided cautionary guidelines for CoP practitioners.

Amin and Roberts (2008) further explored the developing paradoxical and semantically ambiguous nature of CoPs and called for more contextual qualification being applied in the realm of situated practice. Building upon earlier and more conventional CoP approaches, Amin and Roberts (2008) offered a working typology for situating the operational contexts of CoPs. This “knowing in action” typology focused on four CoP variety descriptors (craft/task-based;

professional; epistemic/creative; and virtual) that can be used as a lens to view how CoPs can support varying modes of knowledge building. Although this typology is conceded to be a preliminary concept that requires further trials in application, it raised the question and implication that spatial proximity has in relation to the situated practice of knowledge building. Amin and Roberts' (2008) exploration into aspects of space and factors of situational geography has thematically converged with studies in the area of interactive knowledge and cognitive proximity (Hautala, 2011; Heringa, Horlings, van der Zouwen, van den Besselaar, & van Vierssen, 2014; Huber, 2012; Nooteboom, Van Haverbeke, Duysters, Gilsing, & Van den Oord, 2007). Further research in the area of cognitive distance and proximity in the process of CoP engagement and knowledge creation may assist in identifying and addressing the implications of interactive locales involved in social learning.

Probst and Borzillo (2008) offered evidence on the practical and operational limitations of CoPs in an informative study explicitly entitled "Why Communities of Practice Succeed and Why They Fail". Through interviews with twelve leaders of perceived unsuccessful CoPs, five main reasons for failure (lack of a core group, low levels of interaction between members, rigidity of competences, lack of identification with the CoP, and practice intangibility) were cited. Nonetheless, Probst and Borzillo (2008) developed a CoP governance "steering wheel" (p.344) model as a navigational tool to identify the successes, failures, and prospective sustainability of these professional learning communities in future research. The Probst and Borzillo (2008) model provided an effective visual interpretation of a "normative tool" (p.344) to manage the successful capacity and sustainability of CoPs in a corporate environment. More research into the applicability of this model would appear most welcome in higher educational contexts.

In response to a wealth of literature that has mainly represented positive outcomes of CoPs, Kerns Jr (2008) explored challenges that served as potential caveats to the capacity and sustainability of these social learning entities. Kerns Jr (2008) focused specifically on time constraints, organizational hierarchies, and sociocultural environments as being three contextually prevalent obstacles that face CoP development. These three limitations appeared to be inherent at systematic and culture levels and thus largely beyond a CoP's ability to independently influence and navigate. Kerns Jr (2008) called for more research in areas related to institutional isomorphism, relational institutional structural arrangement, and sociocultural alignment in an attempt to lessen these limitations and improve conditions for institutional CoP development.

Although limitations cited in CoP literature have been largely situated within the private and corporate realm, various situational interpretations of the CoP approach have been applied to the higher education context. CoP reference and application in higher education faculty development literature has indeed ranged from the earlier conceptual definition (Lave & Wenger, 1991) to the more organized and structured models and approaches (Wenger, 1998b; Wenger & Snyder, 2000). In relation to the utilization of CoPs, Cox (2003, 2004, 2006), and Beach and Cox (2009) referred to these entities as *faculty learning communities* (FLCs) in the higher educational context. Cox (2004) identifies these FLCs as being voluntary venues that are structured, cross-disciplinary, and ideally consisting of 8-12 faculty members. These FLCs were further characterized through their commitment to aligning with Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle in an engaged and sharing learning environment. Salient goals of FLCs consistent with the best practices of SoTL were cited as developing a sense of community through teaching and learning, enhancing an interest in undergraduate teaching and learning, fostering faculty

collaboration across disciplines, and promoting a sense of institutional acknowledgement and financial support for teaching excellence (Cox, 2004).

In a large-scale survey study, Beach and Cox (2009) observed the benefits of FLCs in relation to positive changes in faculty teaching approaches in alignment with student learning outcomes. Results elicited from 395 faculty responses spread amongst six research intensive higher education institutes in the United States indicated that faculty members engaged in FLCs credited their participation with enhanced student learning. Faculty perceptions relating to student learning improvements included a sense of more meaningful classroom discussions, a more engaged classroom environment, and better written work. Although evidence for these perceptions was based largely upon subjective assessments and comments gathered from student evaluations, faculty participants regarded FLC participation as aligning particularly well with their own positive development as teachers. Beach and Cox (2004) defended criticism based largely on faculty “self-reports” by observing that the “robustness and consistency” of results gathered from their study greatly diminished concerns of validity.

Studies on other structured higher educational based CoPs have raised interesting questions on the implications of leadership roles in the development and continued sustainability of these collaborative entities. In response to the increasing importance stressed on faculty development in medical education, Steinert (2010) offered a two-dimensional faculty development model shifting from the informal to the formal. Steinert’s (2010) rationale for the CoP quadrant in the model aligned toward the Lave and Wenger (1991) ideal of a self-assembled and self-directed group of faculty bonded together to share ideas of professional practice based on experience. CoPs, in Steinert’s (2010) view, were to be valued since “becoming a member of a teaching community can be a critical step in becoming a better teacher” (p. 427). Perhaps in

alignment with Lave and Wenger (1991), Steinert (2010) carefully avoided any direct reference to leadership. “Mentorship”, however, is centrally located in Steinert’s (2010) model as it was seen to be essential in providing faculty with the required “guidance, direction, support, or expertise” (p. 427) to enhance their own professional development and ultimately their quality of teaching.

While Steinert (2010) aligned with a less formal version of a CoP, Janke et al., (2012) envisioned a more formal organizational CoP structure that aligned more toward Wenger (1998b), and Wenger and Snyder (2000). Applied to a multi-institutional context set that was focused on pharmacy education assessment, Janke et al.’s (2012) study chronicled CoP development stages from an informal group (albeit one that was somewhat mandated as the group was “tasked by the deans [from respective HEIs involved in this initiative] to respond to select issues” (p. 2) to a more highly structured collaborative body. This is a CoP that was also funded and fostered by the respective higher education institutions involved and as a result had a degree of accountability in terms of delivering set goals. Leadership concerns here became salient as Janke et al. (2012) contended that, “The success of any group is greatly influenced by how they organize and ‘lead’ their efforts” (p. 5). In response to the multi-institutional structure of this CoP, a two-year rotational leadership shared amongst the higher educational institutions involved, was implemented. In relation to a more structured and organized conception of a CoP, considerations and future implications from the Janke et al. (2012) study appeared very pragmatic and institution dependent.

The McDonald et al. (2012) report entitled, “Identifying, building and sustaining leadership capacity for communities of practice in higher education,” provided a comprehensive study on investigating the roles of leadership within CoPs and its influence on faculty

development. The premise of the study was based on findings from previous research (Southwell & Morgan, 2009) indicating that professional learning communities had a positive effect on both teaching practice and student learning outcomes. This action research project utilized a seven-stage iterative approach that involved “initiation, development, implementation and evaluation” (p. 14) phases in order to ascertain the efficacy of CoP leadership capacity toward enhanced teaching practice and student learning outcomes. Among the key observations made in the McDonald et al. (2012) report, was the need for some type of “intentional leadership or facilitation” (p. 6) to be present within a CoP in order to maximize its institutional effectiveness.

It was revealed that the role of a facilitator within a CoP situated within the higher educational context was particularly “challenging” (p. 6) as this form of leadership requires the careful brokering of many elements of diversity (e.g. managing multi-disciplinary faculty members) within and among an often ambiguous collective entity. This led to a rationalization for a CoP progression model that shifts from an informal Wengarian-based CoP theory (W-CoP) to a more modified (M-CoP) concept allowing for institutional supporting mechanisms. In moving from the unstructured to the structured, the model visualized the two phases of the CoPs conceptual development. However, McDonald et al. (2012) remained cautious in distinguishing M-CoPs from more conventional workgroups (such as institutionally mandated committees or taskforces) since the inherent nature of these collectives was considered to be formed from “community” as opposed to being horizontally mandated by an institution.

In terms of measuring CoP effectiveness, Wenger, Trayner, & de Laat (2011) developed a framework for assessing value creation in communities of practice. While admitting that the issue of assessment being applied to CoPs is one filled with controversy, Wenger et al., (2011)

also argue that the benefits for measuring value in the capacity for “reflection and guidance” (p. 7) as well as informing institutional leaders on better ways to help cultivate and support these communities. Booth and Kellogg (2015) applied this framework in an attempt to better understand the value of member participation in online communities and how these communities can serve as assets in providing professional learning and support for educators. In relation to Wenger et al.’s (2011) five cycles of value creation, an important overall finding from the Booth and Kellogg (2015) study was in identifying “how individuals with varying perspectives and levels of expertise can co-construct new forms of meaning and understanding in ways that are individually and collectively valuable” (p. 695). In a more pragmatic capacity, the Wenger et al. (2011) value creation framework can also serve as an assessment aid for building community identity and legitimacy within institutions. This attention can then be used to leverage institutional supports where needed.

The most recent frontier in the development of CoP theory has involved a shift in focus from concentrating on single learning communities to multiple practices connecting and intersecting within a broader environment. Having developed a more encompassing framework referenced from a *landscape of practice* metaphor introduced in Wenger (1998), Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) have offered a lens of focus where “knowledgeability manifests in a person’s relations to a multiplicity of practices across the landscape” (p. 13). This is an environment that acknowledges much greater complexity where differing CoPs and their participants within *the landscape* broker both internal and external power dynamics, local practices, and diversity. It is precisely on the boundary where participant knowledge both converges and conflicts that new learning gains are reified. While the Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) framework observes the interaction between multiple CoPs in operation,

a special focus is upon three modes of identification (engagement, imagination, and alignment) that build participant identification through the process of operation and interaction. An important implication of the Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) framework is offering a lens to capture leadership emergence through the rich and diverse interactions occurring on the boundaries of practice.

The extensive amount of CoP literature that continues to emerge in publications appear to largely support the belief that these collaborative learning mechanisms are an improvement to more traditional hierarchical management approaches (Kerno Jr, 2008). Indeed, none of the various CoP critiques identified in this review denied the potential value CoPs have in relation to improving knowledge management in either corporate or higher educational sector contexts. Rather, the critiques seemed to focus on outlining internal and external conditions that need to be both modified and navigated in order to properly foster and support CoP development, capacity, and sustainability. This finding identified throughout the literature provided an important contextual and foundational rationale for this study in terms of aiming to identify conditions that might help or hinder CoP development in a transnational HEI landscape.

As the literature on CoPs has shifted focus from a very informal concept to more of a structured and organized theory that captures the complexity of a wider landscape of practice, it also appears that leadership or at least some form of recognized facilitation and management is optimally desired to both support and help these entities build their own capacity (Janke et al., 2012; McDonald et al., 2012). Since CoP development is an emergent process that is inherently context-dependent, identifying how leadership emerges within these entities involves a close observation of such a community engaging in their practice within their own situated context.

Situated Learning

Where CoPs provided a community-based venue for both sharing and promoting common interests aligned towards enhanced teaching and student learning outcomes in a higher education (HEI) environment, situated learning theory has evolved in providing contextual approaches and frameworks to observe and analyze this phenomenon. The foundations of situated learning theory were derived from the seminal works of Lave (1988), and Lave and Wenger (1991). There has been a tendency in both practice and literature to merge aspects of situated learning theory with situated cognition theory. This may have occurred as a result of their shared constructivist underpinnings (Dewey, 1938; Piaget, 1950; Vygotsky, 1978), which are concerned with where and how learners actually learn. Accordingly, efforts have been made to delineate these two theories in literature. There has also been vigorous debate on the merits and appropriateness of each approach (Anderson, Reder, & Simon, 1996; Cobb & Bowers, 1999; Greeno, 1997; Hung, Looi, & Koh, 2004).

It was important to observe how these two theories have been defined and, at times, have intersected for the purposes of this case study research. Thus, situated cognition is observed to have its theoretical focus on individual thought processes (e.g. memory, speech, comprehension) and the results of learning that take place in and are transferred beyond specific physical locations (Cobb & Bowers, 1999). Brown, Collins and Duguid (1989) are attributed to framing the contemporary research contexts of situated cognition that takes the focus away from the more social and interactive dimensions of the learning process. Alternatively, situated learning refers to the overarching interactive learning environments where authentic activities, people, and previous knowledge are brought into a situation (Lave, 1988). Focus is placed on both the individual and the surrounding community as meaning within this situated learning environment

is socially constructed (Allal, 2001). Since community in the teaching and learning process is emphasized, situated learning is in alignment with the concepts and theories of CoPs as put forward by Lave and Wenger (1991) and subsequently expanded upon by Wenger (1998). Similar to the case of CoPs, theoretical applications of situated learning theory have been applied to both the higher education and private corporate business contexts. As higher education concerns often intersect with those in the private corporate sector, the theories and lessons learned thus far in these sectors can help to inform and compliment future approaches that may be applicable to the higher education context.

Two distinct development phases have been identified throughout the literature that has focused on situated learning: a) the conceptual phase and b) the operational theoretical framework phase. The conceptual phase (Lave & Wenger, 1991) related to the idea of situated learning contexts as being those where learning took place in authentic and socially constructive environments between full participants (masters or experts) and legitimate peripheral participants (novice participants or apprentices). Although these contexts allowed for a degree of differences and conflict, they were characterized overall as being culturally agreeable and cohesive environments. The emphasis on cultural cohesion was derived from the apprenticeship model of learning (Brown & Duguid, 1991; Orr, 1996) where experience and mastery were transferred from expert participants to less experienced peripheral learners through mutual engagement and participation within a professional learning community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It was through this mutually active social participation and practice that participant identity was built (Wenger, 1998b).

Critics of this early conceptual phase drew particular attention to situated learning's inherent weaknesses and limitations, while having acknowledged its potential as a developing

theory. Contu and Willmott (2003, p. 283) considered “learning practices” in situated learning contexts both “enabled and constrained by their embeddedness (sic) in relations of power;” and thus removed from developing a sense of collective self-autonomy within modern workplace CoPs. Power and conflict was a theme that was seen to be crucial to the reconceptualization of situated learning as a more applicable theory (Fox, 2000; Fuller, 2007; Hong & Fiona, 2009; Kakavekakis & Edwards, 2012; MacPherson & Clark, 2009). Lave (2008) addressed these limitations by reminding critics that situated learning was originally conceived as a “manifesto” to critique more conventional learning theories rather than “as a normative or prescriptive model” (Lave, 2008, p.283). Having acknowledged situated learning’s conceptual flaws, Lave (2008) observed the importance of recognizing the influence of “political economic and institutional structuring” (p. 287) on situated environments and the need to capture professional learning communities in a relational capacity as oppose to merely observing them in isolation.

As an applicable and operational theoretical framework, situated learning has proven particularly efficacious in relation to authentic learning environments. As a result, nursing education and clinical simulation were both contexts that found alignment with situated learning theory (Onda, 2012). Utilizing instructional techniques (including stories, reflection, cognitive apprenticeship, collaboration, coaching, multiple practice, articulation of new skills and technology), Gieselman, Stark, and Farrugia (2000) were able to develop and apply a situated learning model to the design of a nursing research workshop. Results indicated favorable feedback from learners in terms of harnessing active teaching and learning strategies to facilitate meaningful skill uptake. However, situated cognition theory has often been merged or even used interchangeably with key contextual elements of situated learning in the development of applicable theoretical frameworks.

Building upon the centrality of learning in authentic practice settings, Paige and Daley (2009) proposed that a “situated cognition framework” needed to be applied in an effort to guide “design, evaluation, and future educational research” within high-fidelity simulation (HFS) contexts (p. e101). Paige and Daley’s (2009) contribution to the development of this theory was by visualizing the learner’s interaction with the three main elements (people, activity, and ingredients) that existed within this situated context. Although this appeared to form a salient operational basis with which to view the interactive components working within a situated learning framework, there remained a significant pull toward the cognitivist view of situated learning in educational literature. This is a trend that has continued to develop in more recent literature (Wyrostock, Hoffart, Kelly, & Ryba, 2014).

Situated learning theory in management literature was observed as remaining close to the more socially rooted aspects of its pure conceptual base (Handley, Clark, Fincham, & Sturdy, 2007). Contrary to more cognitivist perspectives, Handley et al. (2007) argued that as “learning and knowing cannot be separated from everyday practice” (p. 174) so it followed that “learning cannot be isolated and then studied as though it were a distinct activity” (p. 174). Having offered a conceptual framework comprised of a triad of core components including *participation*, *identity*, and *practice*, Handley et al. (2007) attempted to “demonstrate the heuristic value of [this framework] in helping to generate insights about the processes of learning” (p. 174). The model was applied to a study that attempted to determine the manner in which management consultants were able to gain an understanding in relation to practices and identities in client-consultant projects. The value of Handley et al.’s (2007) model was that it contributed the basis of an observational framework, which was triangulated with participant interviews and documentary artifacts, and was applicable in different situated contexts. A relevant finding in the Handley et

al. (2007) study was that both the community and the individual had a part in determining how learning was to be regulated.

Having utilized a relational sociological approach, the Kakavelakis and Edwards (2011) case study built further upon situated learning theory by adopting a temporal-relational perspective that developed a multi-orientation contextual model that highlighted the value of conflict during the learning process. The Kakavelakis and Edwards (2011) framework used the idea of navigating through a dynamically unfolding situated learning process by relying on human agency related to past practices, future projections, and present evaluations (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). Conflict emerged through differences identified and negotiated between communities (represented by the “incumbents”, “newcomers”, and “managers”) that operated within the temporal landscape in relation orientations to practice along which each community was observed to be better aligned. The significance of the Kakavelakis and Edwards (2011) study was that it offered an operational framework to observe the complexity of social discordance along temporal-relational lines within the landscape of practice. Contrary to Lave and Wenger’s (1991) idea of these situated landscapes being socially cohesive and habitual, Kakavelakis and Edwards (2011) observed participants from “multiple modes of knowing in practice” (p. 492) mutually engaged within an environment that is constantly in flux.

Using the concept of Gherardi, Nicolini, and Odella’s (1998) situated curriculum (a methodology that instructs socialization in the workplace specifically through engaging in workplace activities) as a reference point, Kempster and Stewart’s (2010) study examined the development of leadership within this situated practice. Having conceded that the study is limited in terms of expanding to broader social, political and cultural implications, Kempster and Stewart’s (2010) autoethnographical account revealed insights into a leader’s transition from a

peripheral to legitimate participant (Lave & Wenger, 1991) within a relational perspective. Emerging themes in relation to leadership concerns included “coping with shifting identities within a specific context; coming to terms with the use of power; addressing conflicts of loyalty and conflicts of moral practice; and reassessing relationships, role expectations, and responsibilities” (Kempster & Stewart, 2010, p. 216). The study pointed toward the need for approaches, beyond those that have already been established through quantitative means, as a way forward in achieving a deeper and richer understanding of leadership concerns within the situated learning process.

During my review of situated learning, I realized that this theory was relevant in my study’s context on two levels. On the first level, the CoP core members involved in my study were deeply immersed in a teaching and learning initiative that was framed within an authentic student learning environment. Throughout the course of my study, the CoP members would be focused directly on how their approaches contributed to achieving enhanced student learning objectives. This was a level in alignment with the literature involved with exploring pedagogical practice within situated learning environments (Gieselman, Stark, and Farrugia, 2000; Onda, 2012; Wyrostock et al., 2014). On a second meta level, my focus as a researcher in this study was examining the emerging interactions and relationships that developed through a more temporal-relational lens (Kakavelakis and Edwards, 2011). This involved observing any potential tensions in shifting practice and identity, and in identifying and monitoring leadership that emerged throughout the CoP engagement process within this situated landscape of transnational practice (Kempster & Stewart, 2010).

My understanding of situated learning theory also had a profound influence in my adopted ontological and epistemological positioning in the areas of knowledge management and

organizational learning. In relation to the realm of social learning theory, Brandi and Elkjaer (2011) observed that socialization (the ontology of learning) and the construction of learning within this landscape which is inherently social (the epistemology of learning) are “inseparable processes” that “constitute each other in an understanding of learning as participation in social processes” (p. 34). This interpretation was in contrast to situated cognition where learning and socialization were viewed separately. As situated learning aligned with the manner of collaborative knowledge creation that is prevalent in CoP engagement, my foundational theoretical positioning in this case study was aligned with social constructivist theory as oppose to constructivist theory.

Approaching Leadership

Although the issue of leadership in higher education CoP literature has only recently been of emerging interest, it has appeared in the past to be somewhat elusive since it was often viewed to be at odds with the autonomous nature ideally fostered within these organically formed and voluntary-based social learning entities. The mechanisms of internal CoP leadership, when broached, have been moderated through the use of verbs such as “facilitate” or nouns such as “facilitator” (McDonald et al., 2012), and more recently with the newly branded title of “systems convener” (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015). The careful use of these words has perhaps attempted to fulfill a need to remain faithful to the more purist Wengerian CoP (W-CoP) concept that has traditionally remained in opposition to the prospect of manipulation from external and hierarchical management sources.

As a concept that has emphasized collective leadership (Bolden, Petrov, & Gosling, 2009) and has been influenced by the socially-constructed based activity theory (Engeström, 1999), distributed leadership has also been referenced in association with CoPs in higher

education literature (Davison et al., 2013; Jones, Lefoe, Harvey, & Ryland, 2012; Southwell & Morgan, 2009). Bennet, Wise, Woods, and Harvey (2003) have further qualified distributed leadership as being inclusive toward (a) emergent leadership in a socially constructed environment, (b) an openness in terms of leadership boundaries, and (c) a distribution and acknowledgement of varieties of expertise amongst members of an organization. These are three features that align particularly well with CoP organizational structure and decision-making processes and as a result have emerged as an area of interest to Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2013). The next two sections will offer a review of literature in relation to the role of systems conveners and distributed leadership that situates an approach to leadership in the context of this case study.

Systems conveners. Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) have recently and similarly focused attention to the act of “convening” and the role of a “systems convener” (p. 97) in the process of building and cultivating CoPs. Systems conveners are observed to function as a type of twenty-first century organizational leader by attempting to “reconfigure social systems through partnerships that exploit mutual learning needs, possible synergies, various kinds of relationships, and common goals across traditional boundaries” (p. 98). Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) provide a framework outline on how these systems conveners interact and navigate through the “three modes of identification” present in the landscape of practice framework, which include “imagination, engagement, and alignment”. They also discuss the essential characteristics that distinguish these conveners as unique leaders. Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner’s (2015) focus on conveners has provided an emerging lens with which to begin critically analyzing the leadership role and needed supports for these individuals operating within a CoP.

Answering Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner's (2015, p. 97) call for more "stories of systems conveners at different levels of scale" on both "practical" and "strategic" levels, Coenders, Bood, Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) offer a chapter dedicated to highlighting CoP convening practices operating within the context of a Dutch government project. Common convening practices and strategies that were identified in this case study related to inviting key people, building trust and openness, creating commitment, and understanding how to work together.

Cashman, Linehan, Rosser, Wenger-Trayner, and Wenger-Trayner (2015) add another chapter on convening within a special education context. Focusing on an identified landscape including multiple levels of scale and complexity, Cashman et al. (2015) offer a three-level "dimensions of leading by convening" model that integrates "habits", "elements", and areas of "depth" in relation to interaction within the context of collaborative learning (p. 143). The chapter also offers a series of convening roles that were identified throughout the study. The main value of the Cashman et al., (2015) study appears to be in its application in assessing more complex and multi-scale communities operating within a landscape of practice.

Previous to Cashman et al. (2015), Hannah and Lester (2009) had developed a multilevel organizational approach related to social learning convening that focused on the role of "knowledge catalysts" (p. 35). These knowledge catalysts were situated within "social networks at multiple levels of the organization" and served to "spur organizational learning through social interaction" (p. 35). Hannah and Lester's (2009) focus on these knowledge catalysts was in the context of a more network-based and organizationally integrated three-level system. This was ideally a context "where top-down leadership serves to set the conditions to maximize the emergence of knowledge creation and diffusion, while limiting leader intrusion into the actual

creative processes” (p. 35). Although Hannah and Lester’s (2009) ecological framework was at contextual odds with more CoP-based leadership models, their framework offered a valuable contrast in perspective on how more formal top-down forms of institutional leadership could best support catalysts who serve as knowledge generators within a wider independent system.

I ultimately felt that context was key in considering whether to semantically represent the emergence of any unique and individual leaders within a community as either “systems conveners” or “knowledge catalysts” within my case study. As systems conveners assume a “critical function in landscapes of practice” (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, p. 116) and thereby figure prominently within this case study’s overall conceptual framework, an aspect of leadership emergence was expected to align more through the positioning of a systems convener than that of a knowledge catalyst as represented in the literature. Nonetheless, I closely welcomed and considered the leadership approaches presented in Hannah and Lester (2009) in further grounding implications for institutional leadership in my study. The next section discusses the prospect of distributed leadership in the wider operational context of the CoP.

Distributed leadership. An additional dimension to CoP leadership in educational contexts follows Southwell’s (2012) observation that “For such communities to be successful, they need to develop informal leadership structures and foster leadership skills that effectively meet the needs of teaching academics, while negotiating the institutional leadership terrain” (p. 87). Distributed leadership has emerged as a focus on CoP leadership operating within higher educational institutional contexts well over the past decade (Bennett, Wise, Woods, & Harvey, 2003; Davison et al., 2013; Jones, Lefoe, Harvey, & Ryland, 2012). As a response to a more traditional and well entrenched hierarchical leadership approach typically found throughout the higher educational landscape, distributed leadership as a general concept has a focus upon the

presence of a more collective agency “throughout an organization with leader roles overlapping and shifting as different development needs arise” (Harris, 2003, p. 125). Gronn (2000) cites Gibb (1954) as a founding theorist in this area of collective group leadership.

Finding a precise and clear definition of, or approach to, distributed leadership has continued to be elusive and has resulted in both differing and dovetailed interpretations and frameworks. As key distributed leadership theorists, Gronn (2002) and Spillane (2006) offered two leading analytical frameworks in attempting to describe a more systematic emergence of this leadership phenomenon. Gronn’s (2002) framework was articulated through a “concertive action” lens, which included the following three modes: spontaneous collaboration, intuitive working relationships, and institutionalized arrangements. In contrast to Gronn (2002), Spillane’s (2006) framework has more of a focus on both spatial and sequential aspects of relational leadership dynamics in relation to collaborated, collective, and coordinated distribution throughout the course of peer engagement.

In comparing different frameworks related to patterns and outcomes of distributed leadership, Bolden (2009) also includes two additional and more formative-focused models by MacBeath, Oduro, and Waterhouse (2004), and Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, and Hopkins (2006). The MacBeath et al., (2004) “taxonomy of distribution” (p. 35) allows for a potentially systematic flow throughout the following six distributed categories: formal, pragmatic, strategic, incremental, opportunistic, and cultural. The Leithwood et al. (2006, pp. 61-62) framework references “spontaneous” and “planful” alignment configurations in relation to the spontaneous and institutionalized practice modes of Gronn’s (2002) framework. However, it is the inclusion of the “spontaneous” and “anarchic” misalignment configurations that appear to provide a more instructional and operational tone to Leithwood et al.’s (2006) model.

Bolden's (2009) comparison of these four distributed leadership models confirmed for me that where the Gronn (2002) and Spillane (2006) models had a focus on interpersonal dynamics, the MacBeath et al. (2004) and Leithwood et al. (2006) models were more systematic and structure-based. Since the focus of my own case study was related to the interpersonal leadership dynamics emerging within a CoP, it seemed logical that my attention would be located more toward the Gronn (2002) and Spillane (2006) models during my data analysis. However, due to the emerging and unpredictable nature of this case study, I decided that it was best to be open to the possibility of certain components from the MacBeath et al. (2004) and Leithwood et al. (2006) frameworks being present and possibly informing some of the results of my study. As a result, I was expecting to take more of an integrated and hybrid approach when managing my data in relation to the four prevalent distributed leadership frameworks as advised by Gronn (2009).

A survey of other collaborative leadership theories and models in such areas as shared leadership (Bergman, Rentsch, Small, Davenport, & Bergman, 2012; Pearce & Conger, 2002) raised the issue of whether or not distributed leadership was the appropriate theory and practical approach that would properly align with this situated case study. This question was partly answered through the relevant literature indicating that distributed leadership "includes many elements related to education and is almost fed by educational environments" (Goksoy, 2015, p. 113). As scholarship pursuits within a transnational higher educational landscape was an inherent component for the CoP under study, models relating to distributed leadership were felt to be contextually relevant in application.

Further validation of distributed leadership's relevance for my case study related to its situated contextual features. Studies in the areas of cross-institutional and interdisciplinary CoPs

operating within the higher educational landscape have both focused on and been informed by distributed leadership theories (Davison et al., 2013; Jones, Lefoe, Harvey, & Ryland, 2012; Lefoe, 2010; McDonald et al., 2012). This is perhaps due to distributed leadership's "three distinctive elements" (emerging groups of interacting individuals, openness of the boundaries of leadership, and the distribution of varieties of expertise) that Bennett et al. (2003, p.7) highlight as aligning well with fostering best practices in educational leadership.

In conclusion, my case study intended to carefully observe the positioning of systems conveners and modes of distributed leadership that emerge within the CoP throughout the course of the study. Observations in this area were intended to inform the successes and challenges that faced the CoP in this situated context and ultimately provide a locational mapping for leadership emergence within a transnational landscape of practice.

Conceptual Framework

Communities of practice (CoPs) have been utilized as a way forward in addressing the need for supporting mechanisms to enhance teaching and learning in higher education (McDonald et al., 2012). However, the use of CoPs as a theoretical approach to addressing these pedagogical concerns is still in its developmental stages. In a case study conducted in the Australian higher educational context, McDonald and Star (2008) implemented an organizational model containing the three fundamental CoP elements (domain of knowledge, community of people, and shared practice) that had been informed by the work of Wenger (1998) and Wenger et al. (2002). A replicative organizational model had been chosen as a foundational theoretical framework base for my case study, which involved the use of a CoP as a supporting mechanism for a scholarly community focused on a teaching and learning innovation amidst variable tensions occurring within a transnational higher education landscape. My study involved a core CoP comprised of nursing, medical, and simulation technology and education leaders who were

engaged in sharing and building new knowledge through reconceptualizing student learning in accordance with active and experiential teaching and learning strategies. This organizational model was also chosen due to its inherent qualities in fostering collaboration within the higher education institutional context: a context prone to isolation and individualism. Furthermore, the CoP organizational model was perceived to provide a convenient structural filter for observing and analyzing the mechanisms within a core community throughout their active engagement process. Table 2.1 presents the organizational model for conceptualizing the core interprofessional CoP's context, engagement, and practice in the context of this study:

Table 2.1

CoP Organizational Model

CoP Elements	Contextual Descriptors
Domain of Knowledge	<p>Teaching and learning nursing content</p> <p style="text-align: center;">+</p> <p>Teaching and learning medical content</p> <p style="text-align: center;">+</p> <p>Simulation technology supported education</p> <p>= Interprofessional (IPE) scholarship initiative</p>
Community of People	<p>Interprofessional relationships: How field experts in nursing, medical, and simulation education mutually engage with one another.</p>
Shared Practice	<p>Interprofessional practice: How field experts in nursing, medical, and simulation education mutually engage with their shared practice.</p> <p>Pedagogy: The implementation of experiential teaching and learning methods and activities.</p> <p>SoTL: The goal of scholarly dissemination of research inspired from CoP participant involvement.</p>

A similar framework has been used by Jakovljevic, Buckley, and Bushney (2013) as a basis toward developing guidelines to inform and identify “tacit and innovative knowledge sharing within and between communities of practice” (p. 1116). As the Jakovljevic et al. (2013)

operational model was designed for a specific situated context, it was hoped that a similar model could be effectively applied in this study's transnational and situated context in order to reveal insights into the emergence of leadership. In essence, the application of Wenger et al.'s (2002) model in this study was focused on capturing the processes of knowledge creation and management as it was socially constructed throughout the engagement process.

Recent developments by Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) have stated that the "notion of a single community of practice misses the complexity" involved in knowledge creation and that it is necessary to allow for capturing "different communities of practice" operating within "a complex landscape of practice" (p.15). This appeared to be particularly relevant in my study, which involved a core interprofessional CoP that had been formed by participants belonging to their own distinct practices and surrounded by external practices and influences. Thus, I felt that the interprofessional CoP (as conceptualized in Table 2.1) needed to be mapped within the wider transnational context where the three distinct practices (nursing, medicine, and simulation technology and education) were situated.

In accordance with Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner's (2015) framework, the complexity of my study's transnational landscape was contextualized through its own inherent political, local, and diverse characteristics. Participant identification was observed through the following three modes that functioned both within each practice and during the process of practice boundaries crossings throughout the wider landscape: engagement, imagination, and alignment. This involved widening the conceptual lens to observe the ebb and flow of community interactions with a key focus on moments where "boundary encounters" occurred and important learning moments were enhanced for the CoP core members. Thus, Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner's (2015) framework provided an interactive backdrop where

knowledge creation and management was co-constructed and brokered within a landscape that was inherently human and social.

Positioning the Study

The literature review drew upon a socio-cultural (Vygotsky, 1978) theoretical perspective in providing a backdrop where educational development can help drive and navigate faculty culture toward the concept of educational leadership in higher educational contexts. In terms of the individual's relationship in the social realm, Wells (2000) observed the "third key feature of Vygotsky's theory: the mutually constitutive relationship between individuals and the society of which they are members" (p. 3) as an enabler for sustainable "activity systems" that exist and persist over time in societies. This theoretical concept may help to reveal valuable insights on the continuity of educational leadership as an area focused on the enhancement of teaching and learning outcomes in a sometimes uncertain and unpredictable transnational higher educational context where ambitions do not always measure up to reality (Knight, 2011).

Educational leadership, in the context of educational development, presumes the existence of an engaged faculty body that is receptive to the ideas and objectives of further enhancing and promoting their own teaching and learning initiatives in alignment with achieving successful student learning outcomes. However, system factors unique to the higher educational institutional context have often served as barriers toward meaningful and continued development in this area (Adams, 2009; Steinert, McLeod, Liben, & Snell, 2008). Socially constructed teaching and learning approaches, such as SoTL, CoP, and situated learning, which seek to empower faculty with the support from educational development, have attempted to overcome such systemic institutional barriers in an attempt to reclaim the inherent nature of the university as a learning culture. As this single case study was located within a transnational higher

educational landscape in the Middle East, findings were aimed at exploring leadership trends emerging within faculty-based CoPs in this situated context.

Chapter Summary

Based on this study's review of literature, a gap has been identified in situated learning conceptual and theoretical literature that is focused on the presence and implications of leadership within these environments. Leadership in situated learning theory literature appeared to focus more on self-reflexive understanding rather than on how leadership is socially constructed and leveraged by the members of a community of practice throughout a shared learning process.

The uniqueness of my case study was that it added to the literature that has been identified in relation to educational leadership within transnational higher education contexts. This leadership was represented within a CoP through the presence of a systems convener and an integrated distributed leadership network. The presence of these two forms of leadership had an influence on the emergence of leadership within the CoP between the three represented practices: nursing education, medical education, and clinical simulation technology and education. The next chapter provides a detailed description of the research design used to investigate this inquiry.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

This section provides a rationale for the methodology of this qualitative single case study. This case study was designed to identify trends in leadership that emerged in building and fostering an identified and defined interprofessional education (IPE) community of practice (CoP) engaged in the shared development of a Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) based pilot initiative. This initiative was between faculty members and technical staff from a) a North American-based nursing university, and b) a North American-based medical university, who were collaboratively committed to enhancing student teaching and learning outcomes. Both institutions were identified, according to current definitions in literature, as being “transnational higher educational institute branch campuses” (Council of Europe, 2014; Lane, 2011; Mazzarol, Soutar, & Seng, 2003; Naidoo, 2009; Shams & Huisman, 2011; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). In this particular study, these transnational institutions were situated in one country located in the GCC region in the Middle East.

This chapter begins with a general overview of the research methodology and the research context within which this case study was situated. Methods and details related to data collection and analysis follow with a discussion on the ethical considerations, limitations, and delimitations that were involved within the scope of this study.

Research Methodology

In the context of this situated research, a single case study approach was considered conducive to exploring how IPE involvement in CoPs along with emerging leadership implications could contribute to the future achievement and sustainability of scholarly and faculty-led teaching and learning initiatives and objectives. This context was considered to be a

phenomenon as the CoP was operating within a larger transnational landscape where institutional history is often undeveloped, and where channels of support and infrastructure are not necessarily established or sustainable (Altbach, 2010; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). However, after conducting a preliminary survey of case study literature (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995; Yazan, 2015; Yin, 2014), it became obvious that the study's methodology needed to be well defined and appropriately positioned.

In relation to offering a definition for the "case study," Flyvbjerg (2011) observed an evident challenge, as the prospective researcher must navigate through numerous semantic characteristics and classifications. A further difficulty was that differing interpretations of key case study approaches appeared contradictory depending on the context in which they had been utilized (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Flyvbjerg, 2011). In response to situating a case study approach, careful and methodological consideration was taken to locate an appropriate definition for a case study. As a first step, this consideration involved closely reviewing salient literature from the following three prominent case study theorists: Robert K. Yin, Robert E. Stake, and Sharan Merriam. After identifying areas of convergence and divergence between these three theorists, a second step involved locating an appropriate approach that would align with the situated context of this study. This involved reviewing literature that offered operational guidance in arriving at an integrated case study framework for use in this study's situated context.

Yin's (2014) approach to case study design aligned well to the context of this current study in relation to the following elements: 1) there was a focus on how and why questions, attempts were made so that the behavior of the participants would not be manipulated, 2) the contextual conditions were believed to be highly relevant to the phenomenon under study, and 3)

the boundaries were not clear between the phenomenon under investigation and the context. In terms of defining the case, the primary research question for this study involved exploring “how” leadership evolved within the process of implementing IPE approaches into an innovative and collaborative professional practice. A background aspect of this research attempted to capture a glimpse of the processes that actively occurred throughout a defined period where a CoP was engaged in the enhancement of professional practice through shared background experience that was framed within the context of a scholarly initiative. A further and more particular dimension focused specifically on any identified individual leadership and distributed leadership trends and implications that emerged throughout this engagement process. A study of this nature would also consider leadership implications in relation to successes and challenges that the CoP experienced throughout their period of engagement.

The inherent and emergent aspects within this research’s context were seen to conflict with Yin’s positivistic epistemology and emphasis on design rigidity. Stake’s (1995) more constructivist approach, on the other hand, was found to align with concept of observing and collecting data from a CoP that would be deeply engaged in the process of social knowledge construction in a situated context. This was a context that would be unfolding and as such would follow a unique and unpredictable course. As such, a more flexible design was needed to allow for any sudden and unexpected changes that might occur throughout the research process. However, beyond emphasizing the need for the investigator to have two or three specific research questions, Stake’s (1995) overall approach appeared to be highly interdependent and as a result greatly lacking in needed procedural guidance and structure.

Similar to Stake (1995), Merriam’s (1998) qualitative case study was also found to be constructivist in epistemology and flexible in design. However, Merriam’s (1998) approach

employed more procedural structure to guide the investigator. Following a five-step design (literature review, theoretical framework construction, research problem identification, research question development, and purposive sampling), Merriam's (1998) framework seemed more systematic than Stake (1995), and thus allowed me a cohesive reference map to clearly describe my methodological approaches.

Merriam (1998) described the approach to the case study to be "characterized as being particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic" (p. 29). In terms of the "particularistic" dimensions, this study focused on a specific phenomenon that aimed at revealing insights from an identified CoP engaged in investigating how experiential teaching and learning practices could be implemented to enhance student learning within the context of their scholarly teaching and learning pilot initiative.

The "descriptive" dimensions were rooted in the need for reaping a deep description of the phenomenon and its participants through "a variety of lenses which allows for multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood" (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 544). In describing the rich operational aspects of a learning community, a variety of qualitative data sources (e.g., interviews, observations, and documentary evidence) were needed to fully articulate and comprehend the leadership phenomenon under investigation. Merriam (1998) acknowledged that the findings and data in descriptive and explanatory case studies are more aligned with qualitative than quantitative sources as the data requires a degree of literary description and analysis.

Finally, the "heuristic" qualities of this study were of particular focus and investigated in attempting to identify unpredictable, unrealized and otherwise undocumented relationships that

emerged from the learning community and the leadership phenomenon that was under investigation.

Perrault's (2008) extensive and thorough analysis of Stake (1995) and Yin (2014) illustrated the complex decision-making processes involved in attempting to find alignment to one particular case study approach. Having observed the fundamental theoretical stances of the two approaches, Perrault (2008) was able to situate the case study rationale at a mid-point between the subjective constructivist (Stake, 1995) and the objective post-positivism (Yin, 2014) lenses. I found this conceptual approach to locating a case study epistemology and design that was in alignment with a situated research context influential in the realization that it was possible for an investigator to sample elements from different approaches and construct an adaptation. However, the absence of Merriam's (1998) approach in developing this design left some important conceptual gaps that were necessary to consider for my study's situated context.

Baxter and Jack (2008) considered case studies to be flexible in investigating "individuals or organizations, simple through complex interventions, relationships, communities, or programs and supports the deconstruction and the subsequent reconstruction of various phenomena" (p. 544). In synthesizing seminal case study literature (again most notably Stake, 1995 and Yin, 2014), Baxter and Jack (2008) offered useful case study navigational guidelines, as well as an implementation framework from Baxter (2003) for prospective researchers. The framework that was provided was relevant to this study in terms of highlighting the importance of allowing themes to emerge before drawing relationships between the constructs.

Baxter and Jack (2008) referred specifically to a case study approach that was taken to "determine the types of decisions made by nursing students and the factors that influenced the decision making" (p. 545). This approach was adopted precisely because the "case could not be

considered without the context, the School of Nursing, and more specifically the clinical and classroom settings” (p. 545). Similarly, this research was highly dependent upon and relevant to the overarching transnational higher education branch campus landscape and, the nursing and medical education contexts where the CoP was situated and where the actions and decisions made were based on the conditions within this unique context. Although Baxter and Jack (2008) offered a contextually influential case study approach synthesis that helped to inform certain elements adapted for this study, a more comprehensive conceptual survey was missing as a result from the absence of Merriam’s (1998) approach.

In responding to the case study literature that I reviewed, I attempted to integrate different approaches into my own conceptual case study framework chosen for this study. Yazan’s (2015) juxtaposition of three case study approaches helped to consolidate and reaffirm my own conceptual approach as presented within six “dimensions of interest” that included situating the study in relation to its epistemology, definition, design, and data gathering, analysis, and validation processes. As a result, my case study position was constructivist and in close alignment with Merriam’s (1998) case study approach while allowing for contextual adaptability in relevant areas. One feature related to this contextual adaptability included considerations related to defining the case study in alignment to “how” and “why” questions (Stake, 1995) in a highly situated context (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Another feature related to this situated context involved allowing for a flexible design to accommodate for any sudden and unexpected changes that would likely occur in this study’s emergent nature.

Unit of analysis. Research (Cox, 2006; Jakovljevic et al., 2013; McDonald et al., 2012) in the areas of CoPs, distributed leadership, and faculty engagement had a strong concern with process in terms of both developing and sustaining the impact of this interrelated phenomenon.

Similarly, my research attempted to chronicle and examine the processes that an IPE CoP experienced during one intensive academic semester. It focused on how these processes impacted faculty involvement in attempting to enhance teaching and learning outcomes, and the implications of emerging trends of leadership that evolved throughout the process. Thus, the unit of analysis was defined by the dynamics of a voluntary and interprofessional assembly of individuals constituting a structured IPE CoP.

Bounding the case. The importance placed upon bounding a case has been a concern in helping to further focus and refine research objectives in case studies (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Creswell, 2014; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2014). Yin (2014) observed the process of bounding a system by clearly deciding what or who will be included and excluded. This vetting process also includes the hemming in of temporal aspects that define the time period of the case. The bounded system in this case study was comprised of participants operating within an IPE CoP between nursing, medical and simulation technical and content education experts in the broader confines of a transnational higher educational environment. This system was further bounded by the planning processes that occurred within the confines of this particular IPE CoP within a transnational higher educational environment during one academic term.

Type of case. In articulating the type of case study to frame this research study, Stake (1995) defined an “intrinsic” case where the researcher was seen to have a particular interest in the case and its outcomes. Furthermore, the intrinsic case study was one that was characterized by its uniqueness where results are neither widely encompassing nor theory building. As the researcher, I was a faculty member in one of the transnational higher education branch campuses in which the study was conducted and intrinsically interested in the results and the impact they

might have within the situated context of this study. In particular, I hoped that the results from this study would better inform strategies in fostering, supporting, and acknowledging faculty and technical staff based leadership initiatives within this unique environment. Results were not expected to be directly applicable to higher educational main campuses or even other transnational branch campuses, but would help to inform and contribute to similar studies undertaken in the future.

The intention of this research was to capture and explain a phenomenon occurring within one single and mutually supportive group comprised of five members from the respective fields of nursing education, medical education, and simulation technology and education. This intrinsic case study was further defined as being explanation building within a single case. In qualifying explanation-based cases, Yin (2014) observed that they were aligned to explaining “how” and “why” something happened without offering set conclusions. Rather, the explanation building single case provided a base from which to develop future cases. As the nature of this case was focused on a process that was intended to lead towards further iterations, an explanation building single case was considered efficacious to the situated context of this research.

Critiques of case study methodology. Criticisms lodged against case studies have been well documented and have come from both the physical and social sciences (Gable, 1994). The case study approach has largely emerged as a valid form of research both in its own right, and as a formidable companion with more traditional quantitative-based research methods (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Nonetheless, potential risks in the case study approach are apparent for the prospective case study researcher. Eisenhardt (1989) warned of a researcher’s tendency to overcomplicate analysis or lead to theories that are too “narrow and idiosyncratic” (p. 547) throughout the research process. Although the objectives of my research were not intended to be applicable to

other contexts or theory building, a considerable amount of rich data was gathered. Furthermore, as the researcher, I was offered rare access to a working group composed primarily of faculty and technical staff throughout the initial planning, development process, and ending of a teaching and learning trial initiative. As a result, there was a need to exercise parsimony in data collection procedures and analysis in this context due to the time limitations in accessing such a professionally engaged group.

There was also a need to address the central issue of whether the case study is indeed considered a methodology. Viewing the case study “label” as “woefully inadequate” as an identifiable methodology, Woolcott (2009) considered the case study as more of a data collection method that required the researcher to carefully detail selected procedural techniques. In positioning and articulating a case study in the context of this research, I referenced Creswell, Hanson, Plano Clark, and Morale’s (2007) view of the case study as a “methodology, a type of design in qualitative research, an object of study, and a product of the inquiry” (p. 245). I also referenced Hyett, Kenny, and Dickson-Swift (2014) in ensuring that my theoretical framework and methods were clearly described to enhance my methodological integrity. In reference to both this description and procedural explanation, I feel that my case study was well positioned to be considered as a methodology having followed a systematic qualitative approach involving the exploration of a case through the process of careful and detailed data collection, analysis, and case reporting.

Addressing a need to focus and refine approaches toward case study research, Pan and Tan (2011) proposed a “structured-pragmatic-situational” (SPS) approach in conducting case study research. The SPS approach aims to respond to the apparent gaps in case study literature that presently exist and cause researchers to fail in identifying meaningful and relevant

“contingencies” (Pan & Tan, 2011, p. 2) throughout the research process. Intended more as a guideline than a prescriptive and rigid method, the value of Pan and Tan’s (2011) SPS approach in this research context was in allowing for a measure of flexibility and encouraging iterative stages meant to support reflection during moments of the research process that could help to capture discoveries identified in a situated context. For this reason, Pan and Tan’s (2011) framework was chosen as an appropriate operational guideline for this explanatory building single case study approach.

In relation to potential problems in explanation building that were of specific concern for this research, Yin (2014) cautioned prospective researchers about the dangers of losing focus on the primary intention of the research and allowing an element of “selective bias” to enter into interpretation analysis (p. 150). In an attempt to lessen the potential of these threats, a regular and careful review of the research intent was routinely conducted. Support from a selectively chosen critical friend was utilized in an attempt to discuss “alternative explanations” than those perceived solely by the principal researcher (Yin, 2014, p.150). Further pertinent details relating to the input and support provided from this critical friend are offered below during the discussion on data analysis methodology.

Research Question

Findings from this study were intended to address and respond to the following overarching question:

- How does leadership emerge within an interprofessional community of practice focused on developing and trialing a simulated teaching and learning experience between nursing and medical students in a Middle Eastern transnational HEI context?

The following sub-questions were intended to further base and inform the main research question above:

- How is leadership represented through a community of practice convener?
- How are leadership roles distributed between community of practice participants?
- What factors contribute to the challenges and successes of community of practice initiatives in this study's situated context?

Population Sampling

The population targeted for this case study was comprised of nursing, medical, and clinical simulation educators. The research sample selected involved the voluntary enlistment five faculty members and one academic support staff participant from this population who had planned to engage in an interprofessional, collaborative, and scholarly teaching and learning initiative within a transnational higher educational context. Due to the very localized and situated nature of this study, a convenience sample was utilized. Creswell (2007) characterized convenience samples as those that represent “sites or individuals from which the researcher can access and easily collect data” (p. 126). Such sampling strategies are routinely open to criticism as they are felt to lack a degree of rigor and credibility when compared with their judgment and theoretical qualitative sample counterparts (Creswell, 2007; Marshall, 1996). However, integrity of such samples can be added if efforts are made to ensure participants selected are from differing backgrounds. Marshall (1996) provided a relevant example where a judgment approach was merged into a convenience sample as participants chosen “came from a range of clinical, academic, managerial and political backgrounds” (p. 524).

My study focused recruitment efforts in creating an interprofessional subject group in a similar manner as Marshall (1996). This was a selected sample that was represented from

nursing education, medical education and clinical simulation technology and education backgrounds. This particular group or community was further characterized through the members' shared mandate of enhancing student learning objectives and maximizing SoTL opportunities that are were in alignment with an overarching transnational regional focus on the integration of teaching excellence and scholarly research in higher education.

The sample consisted of a nursing educator, a director of clinical simulation and a simulation technologist who were all affiliated with a North American-based nursing higher education transnational branch campus. In addition, a Faculty of Medicine Departmental member from a North American-based medical higher education transnational branch campus was included in the sample. This sample garnered representation from professionals in each discipline in relation to specialized nursing (family assessment) and medicine (family medicine) content specialty areas, and simulation education technology (simulation nursing education and simulation technology). These were the key areas and disciplines identified to offer meaningful collaborative support for the fruition of this IPE teaching and learning initiative within this situated context. A final and highly valued addition to this sample was a "Professor Emeritus of Nursing" from the North American-based nursing transnational university's main campus. This member's enlistment was based on her vast experience in the area of family assessment; a knowledge-area that was crucial to the context of this initiative. In addition, this professor had extensive experience in both medical and nursing educational and workplace settings. As a result, the professor contributed to the community in both a collaborative and an overall advisory capacity.

The sample participants resembled a structured CoP committed to the shared goal of bringing nursing and medical students together to engage in an experiential teaching and learning

innovation within a clinical simulation environment. The definition and qualification of a CoP in this study's context were carefully informed by Cox's (2004) concept of a faculty learning community (FLC) and McDonald et al.'s (2012) concept of a modified community of practice (M-CoP), both of which have been identified as having special alignment to the higher educational context. Cox's (2004) FLC descriptor ideally included a "cross-disciplinary faculty and staff" community of ideally "eight to twelve" members who "engage in an active, collaborative, yearlong" curriculum focused on enhancing and assessing undergraduate learning with frequent activities that promote learning development, SoTL, and community (p.8). Wenger et al. (2002) have further identified and labeled an FLC as being a specific type of CoP that exists within the higher education context.

McDonald et al. (2012) characterized their M-CoP as one that had been created by staff and faculty and supported through "institutional resources such as room allocation, technology or funds" in order to "pursue institutional objectives," but is nonetheless still able to work collaboratively and independently within this framework (p. 21) in order to produce scholarly reflection and output. Following the Cox (2004) and McDonald et al. (2012) models, my study aimed to focus on the emergent process of a group of members constructing their own sense of a contextualized interprofessional learning community. For purposes of my study, the more encompassing term "community of practice" (CoP) coined by Lave and Wenger (1991) was ultimately felt appropriate as it was a descriptor that allowed for more flexibility for descriptive emergence in later qualifying and defining the collaborative unit who were collectively engaged within this particular research context.

Data Samples and Collection Methods

This section describes the qualitative data sources chosen for this study. Sandelowski (1995) observed that beyond the importance and considerations of the number of participants selected, sample size also refers to “numbers of interviews and observations conducted or numbers of events sampled” (p. 180). Accordingly, multiple qualitative data sources aimed at achieving “detailed descriptions of people’s activities, behaviors, actions” were selected in an attempt to achieve the deepest and richest understanding of each participant within the situated context of this study (Patton, 1990, p. 10). The use of multiple qualitative data sources was made in an attempt to ensure that protocols of triangulation were observed in “converging lines of inquiry” (Yin, 2014, p. 120).

The data sources for the case study were comprised of semi-structured interviews, observations of the CoP during active communication and engagement, documents generated by this community, and field notes. Stake (1995), Yin (2014), and Merriam (1998) have all cited the inclusion of interviews, observations, and documents to be central qualitative-based data sources for case study research. In relation to multiple sources of data collection, Yin (2014) has argued against the researcher’s over-reliance on one specific data source. Hence, the data samples and collection methods listed and described below were collected and analyzed by this study’s researcher with the intent of observing how these four sources complimented each other through the process of triangulation.

Interviews. Elliot and Timulak (2005) observed the merits of interviews in qualitative research as providing “elaborated accounts about particular experiences” (p. 150) deemed crucial in reaping rich and revealing data. Accordingly, this study involved the use of interviews conducted with five individual participants both pre- and post-study involvement during this

research period. Merriam (1998) makes a distinction between structured (specific data), semi-structured (a mix questions to gather specific and less predetermined data), and unstructured interviews (gathering less predetermined data of an exploratory nature). In particular, semi-structured interviews have been characterized for both their flexibility and ability in collecting rich data (Silverman, 2010).

Both pre- and post-study interviews were semi-structured in design as the initial phase of the study required gathering basic biographic and socio-demographic data to situate participants, and the latter phase of the study required some question items that related back to some of the more exploratory pre-interview question items. The pre-study interviews (refer to Appendix A for pre-study interview questions) served as a basis for orienting the study's participants prior to the commencement of the CoP meetings. Salient examples of exploratory pre-study questions included, "What do you think will be the return on participation in this community?" and "What type of challenges do you anticipate through your involvement in this CoP?" Post-study interviews (refer to Appendix B for post-study interview questions) were qualitatively analyzed for signs of any attitude shifts that occurred over the course of the research. Example post-study questions to follow-up on pre-study questions were, "What do you think was the return on participation in this community?" and "What type of challenges did you and/or the group face throughout the engagement process?"

Interviews (especially pre-study interviews) also served to establish understanding and good relations between the researcher and the research participants (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 1990). The individual pre-study interviews were conducted prior to the commencement of the study and CoP meetings (April, 2015), and were normally within the range of 60-minutes. The post-study questions were all conducted after the first iteration of the CoP's teaching and

learning trial stage (between January and March, 2016) and were also within the range of 60-minutes. The pre- and post-interviews were conducted at the convenience of the five participants. Locations included participant working offices, a café, and via Skype. Five pre- and post-study interviews were conducted in total.

Stake (1995) conceded that “getting a good interview is not so easy” (p. 64) and that “trying out the questions in pilot form, at least in mental rehearsal, should be routine” (p. 65). Furthermore, Stake (1995) observed the importance of researchers to develop comprehensive knowledge on good interviewing techniques and protocol from available literature. Merriam (1998) and Creswell (2007) both contributed seminal guidelines for conducting effective interviews in qualitative case study contexts. In conducting the interviews and following interview protocol (refer to Appendix C for sample interview protocol) for this study, the researcher referred primarily to Merriam (1998) and Creswell (2007) and other supporting literature referenced by Stake (1995) and Silverman (2010). The interviews were audio recorded in accordance with the higher education thesis process (Darke, Shanks, & Broadbent, 1998). Audio recording transcriptions were outsourced to a professional transcription company and sent to research subjects for content verification and approval. Approved transcriptions were then coded and analyzed by this study’s researcher with the assistance of a critical friend. The audio recording transcriptions have been stored electronically and are password protected by this study’s researcher.

Observations. Direct observations were conducted during participant meetings scheduled throughout the course of the study (refer to Appendix D for primary data collection timeline matrix). Merriam (1998) distinguished direct observations from structured interviews in that they “take place in the natural field” and also “represent a firsthand encounter with the

phenomenon rather than a secondhand account of the world obtained in an interview” (p. 94). Direct observations for this case study occurred during CoP meetings, resembling think tanks, where participants discussed planning and piloting strategies for their scholarly teaching and learning initiative. I carefully assumed what Merriam (1998) has referred to as an “observer as participant” role during the observations. This is a role where the researcher has inside access to the group, but does not actively take part in the meeting discussions or decision-making processes.

The planning sessions were mostly held in a designated boardroom at the transnational higher education branch campus. Additional observations were made during a classroom demonstration at the medical campus, as well as during the pilot teaching and learning workshop initiative conducted at the nursing campus. Systematic guidelines for conducting effective observations in the case study context have been well documented in established literature (Patton, 1990) and synthesized by Merriam (1998). In particular, Merriam (1998) advised that “a set of notes usually begins with the time, place, and purpose of the observation” (p.106). This involves adequate preparation on the part of the researcher in terms of carefully considering the context of the observations in order for the researcher to locate desired information efficiently. Appropriate preparations to abide by these and further suggested guidelines were taken into careful consideration during the course of this study. For example, prior to recording interviews and observations, I prepared an observation template (refer to Appendix E for sample observation protocol template implemented and followed procedurally in this study) to assist me in recording handwritten notes in the event that a response or comment may have inspired an idea or association with a previous observation. I also referred to Creswell (2014) in following a

structured interview protocol that involved the recording of documents in a log for easy reference and organizational purposes.

Document gathering. Yin (2014) regarded documents as playing “an explicit role in any data collection in doing case study research” due to their ability “to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources” (p. 107). Documentation generated and produced from CoP participants (in the manner of meeting reports, group emails, and lesson plans) were utilized to analyze the effectiveness of scholarly faculty-led planning objectives and helped to clarify observations made and recorded through field notes.

Field notes. Appropriate methods of interview and observation documentation, in the form of field notes, are integral in capturing moments as accurately as possible without the intrusiveness of taped recording (Merriam, 1998). Yin (2014) referred to field note taking as one of the four principles of data collection and possibly taking many forms such as “handwritten, typed, audiotaped, or in word processing or other electronic files” (p. 124). In the context of this study, field note taking encompassed audio recordings, as well as written notes from the meetings. I utilized field notes by attempting to capture any data that might have evaded the primary data recordings. Such data included nuances in participant body language and diagrams of conceptual relationships. I found that the field notes greatly assisted me in capturing relationships and conceptual connections that may have otherwise been overlooked by relying solely on the audio recorded interviews and observations.

I audiotaped my own personal reflections in order to catch the immediacy of my own thoughts at the time of the observations. These reflections were usually audiotaped immediately after my interviews and observations. The field notes that were gathered were then “organized, categorized, complete, and available for later access” (Yin, 2014, p. 125). Field note

documentation techniques including salient guidelines on the timeliness of recording (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984) and the importance of formatting (Merriam 1998; 2009) served to help inform procedures for this study. All field note documentation has been and is presently stored securely in both locked file cabinets and password protected electronic data files.

Data Analysis

As the majority of data collected for this study was represented through samples of social communication (textual and recorded), content analysis was used to analyze the data samples. The qualitative content analysis approach has been identified to align with introductory and exploratory studies where little is known (Green & Thorogood, 2004). Vaismoradi, Turunen, and Bondas (2013) further distinguished content analysis from thematic analysis in its specific focus on large amounts of communicative textual data that are analyzed in an attempt to determine emerging trends. Salient themes can be identified through the frequency of occurrence in the data and analyzed through a factist perspective lens.

In approaching the data samples collected, this study adopted a social anthropological approach (Miles & Huberman, 1994) that has been observed to be aligned with researchers who have “spent considerable time in a given community, or with a given assortment of individuals in the field” and are engaged with the task of analyzing “the ways people use or operate in a particular setting; how they come to understand things; account for, take action, and generally manage their day-to-day life” (Berg, 2001, p. 239). As the nature of this research involved evolving themes based on a lack of prior knowledge about the phenomenon under study, an inductive approach to content analysis (Elo & Kyngas, 2008) was adopted. The inductive analysis process selected for this study was based upon and adapted from the three main phases (preparation, organizing, and resulting) outlined by Elo and Kyngas (2008).

Although content analysis (alongside its closely related yet distinct thematic analysis counterpart) has been criticized for its lack of quality, Vaismoradi, Turunen, and Bondas (2013) consider it efficacious in exploratory research on “novel phenomenon” as well as containing “a defined sequence of analytical stages” that “provide researchers with clear and user-friendly methods for analyzing data” (p. 403).

Data gathered for this study’s analysis were revealed through semi-structured interviews, observations, documents, and field notes. The following sections detail how the data coding process was conducted and filtered in relation to Creswell’s (2014) recommendations.

Data preparation and organization. I closely checked all interview transcriptions for accuracy by listening to the audio files and reading through each of the transcripts. The individual semi-structured interviews (both pre- and post-) were sent to each interview subject for a verification check. Creswell (2014) cites the use of member checking as enhancing research validity by further ensuring accuracy. Four out of the five members in my study checked the interviews for accuracy. Data gathered from documents (such as meeting minutes and group emails) were organized by date and filed in both electronic and paper-based folders.

Data exploration and coding. The coding process for this research was informed through Creswell’s (2014) recommendation in observing Tesch’s (1990) “Eight Steps in the Coding Process”. However, the investigator took the liberty of adapting the steps to fit to the situated context of this study. As the qualitative data was gathered and transcribed, I began by conducting initial readings of the texts in an attempt to achieve a better understanding of the both the underlying concepts and the bigger picture that was beginning to emerge.

After this preliminary reading, I went through a process of an initial and general data organization sweep in an attempt to make the coding process more efficient and manageable.

Focusing on an example from the pre-study semi-structured interview, I divided the texts according to the answer items that were elicited from all five participants in relation to one particular question item. Question item 1b) that focused specifically on preliminary perceptions pertaining to leadership emergence within a CoP was stated as follows: “*How are potential leaders within the community going to be identified and/or chosen?*” After making a sweep through the five responses to this one question item, a new Microsoft Word document was created and electronically labeled (e.g. *preq1b*), including all five responses associated to that specific question. This allowed for organizational ease and focus when reading through pre-post qualitative interview data. The strategy chosen was to code data from the pre-post-study interviews in order to find prevalent themes to help inform and facilitate coding the meeting observation data which was far less structured and wider ranging in content.

Approaching initial coding and pattern coding. After a period of general data reading and exploration, an initial (open) coding process was chosen for a first cycle coding process as it aligned to the emergent nature of the study. It was also in alignment with Saldana’s (2013) recommended application contexts for “beginning qualitative researchers learning how to code data, ethnographies, and studies with a wide variety of data forms” and “as a starting point to provide the researcher with analytic leads for further exploration” (p. 101) as was the situation in this case study.

An additional enhancement feature to this study was the use of a “critical friend” during this initial coding process. Critical friends, as defined in social science and educational research are individuals that can provide alternative perspectives for a principal researcher at crucial moments during the research process (McNiff & Whitehead, 2002). Ideal critical friends are those that can be identified as having relevant experience in research methods and methodology

and yet not be personally involved in the principal researcher's study. The critical friend I identified and enlisted in my study had previous experience in qualitative data coding and analysis. Having this background, I felt that my critical friend would provide me with some challenging perspectives as I worked through my own coding and data analysis process that would enhance the trustworthiness of my case study. In proceeding through the coding and data analysis process, my critical friend and I first examined and conducted a preliminary manual coding of a question-item answer separately. We then met and exchanged preliminary coding results, checking for consistency in identifying relevant themes. During these "coding sessions", my critical friend and I collated and organized our results into a series of coding script charts. Discrepancies at this stage were discussed and negotiated. A sample exemplar from this initial coding stage can be seen in Table 3.2

Table 3.2

Initial Coding Sample Exemplar

Transcript	Initial Codes
<p>I: How do you feel members can create their own sense of community identity within a CoP?</p> <p>P1: Well, I think that goes back to the idea that I really respect each person¹ as being their own expert in their own field². And so I think their identity is there. They come to the group with their own sense of identity³ and who they are, their expertise². And I wouldn't want to lose that. And I think that's where the respect¹ has to come. As a group, we have to respect each other's expertise², what our backgrounds are, and then sort of put it on the table⁴. And I think we've started that a bit in terms of talking about what each of us⁵... where we come from⁶ and what we're focused on in this whole idea of building it⁷. And I think honesty⁸ around that. I think if people are honest⁸ with this is why I'm here, this is what I have to offer, I think their identity³ comes out that way. And I think we can create that feeling⁹ in people I think just by making sure everyone feels that their voice is heard¹⁰.</p> <p>P2: I think that is a very good question. I think that I'm hoping that some of that will evolve on its own¹¹. But I think that we all really in some respect know what our healthcare roles are¹². So we are going to be working with medicine predominantly in this COP. And I'm quite certain that physicians and nurses do know each other's professions¹³. I think what is more misunderstood at times is other allied health professions¹⁴ and how they work within the healthcare team. So I'm hoping that... I think there needs to be clear communication¹⁵. I think there needs to be clear goals set¹⁶. I think it needs to be that constant communication¹⁵ and respect for one another¹ and clarity with issues that arise.</p>	<p>¹ "respect each person"</p> <p>² "expert in their own field"</p> <p>³ "own sense of identity"</p> <p>⁴ "put it on the table"</p> <p>⁵ "talking about each of us"</p> <p>⁶ "where we come from"</p> <p>⁷ "focused on in this whole idea of building it"</p> <p>⁸ "honesty"</p> <p>⁹ "we can create that feeling"</p> <p>¹⁰ "everyone feels that their voice is heard"</p> <p>¹¹ "evolve on its own"</p> <p>¹² "know our healthcare roles"</p> <p>¹³ "know each other's professions"</p> <p>¹⁴ "misunderstand other allied health professions"</p> <p>¹⁵ "clear communication" "constant communication"</p> <p>¹⁶ "clear goals set"</p> <p>¹ "respect for one another"</p>

After the initial coding process was completed, a second cycle pattern coding process was conducted. According to Saldana (2013), the purpose of pattern coding is to create and organize category labels during the process of identifying major themes that emerge from the data. Figure 1 provides an example of pattern coding from the transcript excerpts that were initially coded:

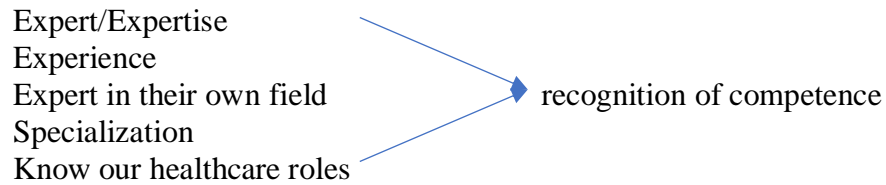


Figure 1. Pattern Coding Exemplar

As this was an inductive study, a particularly effective purpose of this second cycle coding process was to search for predominant “common threads in participants’ accounts” or significant “internal differences” when mapping and articulating the study’s findings (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014, p. 87).

After the pattern coding was completed, the prevalent and overarching themes were filtered through the study’s conceptual framework for purposes of clarity and structural presentation. This process involved a deep and cross-referenced understanding of Wenger’s (1998) and Wenger et al.’s (2002) “Community of Practice” structural model containing the following three elements: the domain, the community, and the practice. As a conceptual framework for this study, this structural model served as a lens for the organization and presentation of meta-codes that were identified during the pattern coding cycle. Pattern codes that were identified to align with each of the model’s elements were discussed and presented accordingly. Building on the example above, findings that corresponded to the pattern code

“recognition of competence” were discussed within the “Domain” element since competence was interpreted as an identifying feature within this element.

Ethical Considerations

This research study was granted ethics approval from the Conjoint Faculties Research Ethics Board (CFREB) at the University of Calgary as it pertained to the field of education. All CFREB ethics applications were submitted electronically through the Institutional Research Information Services Solution (IRISS) system.

Role of the Researcher

The role of the researcher in this study was one that needed to be clarified and transparent to the prospective research participants. As the researcher, I held the position of a “teaching and learning specialist” within the North American-based nursing transnational higher education institution that was involved in the study. Serving in such a position, I was well known to all potential research participants and often served as a professional mentor to fellow staff and faculty. Due to the close relationship and active participation I previously had in professional areas associated with prospective participants in the study, the study could have been vulnerable to perceptions of participant coercion and negatively influenced by misaligned power relations. Karnieli-Miller, Strier, and Pessach (2009) outlined five ethical guidelines (achieving complete participant understanding prior to and during the study, avoiding distortion of meaning, protecting participant anonymity, providing benefits, and ensuring non-maleficence) for prospective qualitative researchers. Informed with this information, I took great care in referring to and following these guidelines carefully throughout the course of the research process.

The intricate personal and professional relations amongst the participants and between the participants and the researcher could also have had a potentially negative influence on the

sharing of information during meeting observations and individual interviews. In order to maximize the free sharing of information during this study, attempts were made to ensure that participants had complete understanding of their roles in context of the study and felt comfortable to offer opinions and insights during the research period. I made efforts to closely observe the interview and observation protocols that Creswell (2014) and Merriam (1998) outline to better ensure a natural setting conducive to the free sharing of information. Participants were also asked to provide pseudonyms and assured of the protection of their anonymity during the dissemination of research results and findings.

I served as the primary researcher for data collection and analysis throughout this study, the perception of researcher bias could have negatively affected the integrity of the research. Yin (2014) observed that case study researchers are “especially prone to this problem because they understand the issues beforehand” and thus can attempt to “substantiate a preconceived position” (p. 76). In an attempt to minimize bias, I employed the help of a “critical friend” (Yin, 2014, p. 150) frequently throughout the data collection and analysis process. My critical friend assisted me regularly throughout my coding and analysis processes. Sessions with my critical friend enabled us to minimize what we referred to as the “Snuffleupagus effect” (observing a phenomenon that was not present). As I felt in isolation in the role of a researcher at times, meetings with my critical friend served as a much needed supporting mechanism throughout the coding and data analysis phases.

I also employed self-reflexive techniques that allowed for transparency of the relationship between the researcher and researched participants whenever relevant. Although reflexive techniques are often exposed to legitimate criticism for their apparent unrealistic access to total

subjectivity, these techniques were still felt to be helpful in clarifying my role within the research process (Finlay, 2002).

Trustworthiness

In relation to issues of trustworthiness in qualitative-based research, Creswell and Miller (2000) referred to the importance of the viewpoint or “lens” of the researcher for “establishing validity in a study” (p. 125). Such viewpoints included those from stakeholders of the study, the research participants themselves, and even from those who had no affiliation with the study. A common denominator in qualitative research literature is the agreement that procedures such as triangulation, member checks, and peer evaluations serve to greatly enhance the integrity of the internal and external validity, and reliability of a study (Creswell, 2007; Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998). For organizational purposes, this referenced strategies offered by Merriam (1998) to justify intended efforts that were made to enhance this study’s internal and external validity, and reliability.

Internal validity. This study employed the use of multiple sources of data in an attempt to better triangulate results into relevant themes and categories. This research also made use of member checks to confirm data collected with the participants where relevant and peer checks. Both member checks and peer checks are known to enhance research validity (Creswell, 2014). Since the research period extended beyond the course of one academic term, the time duration was seen to fulfill the requirements needed for long-term observations of the phenomenon under study. Full transparency of the intention of the research and my research orientation was exercised to lessen the prospect of researcher bias.

External validity. The use of rich textual descriptions from multiple data sources (interviews, observations, documents) attempted to add required depth to the findings. Efforts to

establish a typicality of views for measurement purposes was utilized from views gained from the initial surveys to inform interview questions (Elliot, 1990). As an explanation based single case study (Yin, 2014) in a situated context, the use of multisite designs was not pursued.

Reliability. Although the problematic issue of reliability in qualitative research is well documented in literature, Merriam (1998) proposed three techniques, which were observed to enhance consistency during this research. As the researcher, I exercised full transparency on the nature of the study's theory, the relationship between the investigator and the research participants, the rationale for participant selection, and the situated context of the study. Triangulation was ensured through the multiple data sources and analysis undertaken during the study. Finally, I ensured that procedures were explained in full detail in order to provide a clean audit trail for independent observers.

Limitations and Delimitations

Beyond the inherent limitations already identified above in the case study genre of research methodology (Gable, 1994), there were two additional limitations more specific to this study's situated context. The first limitation involved the nature of the participant sample chosen as well as the actual sample size itself. As already discussed above, convenience samples are limited in rigor and achieving results that can be applicable to other research contexts (Creswell, 2014). The fact that an important element of this structured CoP was intended to be observed for purposes of research may have had a negative impact on recruiting more qualified candidates. In addition, the small number of five participants involved in this study made this an extremely high risk study in terms of the prospect of participant attrition and the potential feasibility of successfully concluding the study cycle. Although this study did not experience any participant

attrition, the limited participant sample number compounded the fact that results from this study remained situated and contextual.

The second limitation was related to key qualitative data samples chosen for this study. As an example, interviews, observations, and documents all represented prominent sources of data in capturing salient moments from participants' views over the course of this study. Since the participants selected for this research study were aware of the nature of the lead investigator's research, the authenticity of participant responses may have been compromised. This might have occurred by participants offering misleading information based upon their own desire to cooperate with their interpretation and anticipation of the researcher's expectations. As a result, careful and consistent efforts to triangulate data collection and analysis were always considered and taken in order to enhance the reliability of the study.

This study was delimited to a specific structured CoP that included members from nursing, medical, and simulation education and technology departments. It was further delimited to the participants' strategic plans and products resulting from their participation in this structured CoP over the course of one academic semester.

Conclusion

In summary, my theoretical positioning to this single case study was aligned with Merriam's (1998) constructivist approach, but modified to allow for contextual adaptability. I was careful in observing proper case study protocol throughout the research period. In following a systematic approach that was clearly described, I considered this single case study approach to be a methodology and made attempts to strengthen the overall integrity of the study through the use of a critical friend, triangulation, and participant review when possible. I found it a personal challenge at times to maintain a silent observer's role during meetings as I was

occasionally asked for my opinions and in some ways encouraged to join the CoP as a member. During what I considered these personal trial testing moments, I reminded the CoP members about my role in relation to my research and that active participation on my part would damage the overall integrity of the research. I felt that the CoP members were generally respectful towards my role and supportive of my research interest.

Conducting a study in an often politically and economically unpredictable environment such as the Middle East carries its own inherent risks. As certain personal and contextual challenges presented themselves to members and their project throughout the research period, I realized that this study was potentially high risk in terms of sustainability and completion. I feel very fortunate and grateful for the participants' tenacity and their perseverance in completing the first iteration of their project and thus providing me with sufficient data to complete my own research. The next chapter presents my findings through the voices of these participants.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from a single case study that explored the emergence of leadership within a community of practice (CoP) engaged in piloting an interprofessional teaching and learning innovation. A description of the interprofessional CoP participants and their operational pilot project timeline is explained in relation to this initiative's transnational context. Specific findings in this chapter are presented through the conceptual filter of a CoP framework originally conceived from Wenger (1998), and further refined operationally in Wenger et al., (2002). In the context of this emergent case study, the data collected was rich and copious with themes widely dispersed throughout the interview and observation transcripts, as well as through my field notes. Using the CoP framework as a conceptual filter in this chapter enabled me to organize the findings according to their relevant elements for a closer understanding of how the data related to the research questions. Following this approach, I addressed the research questions in Chapter Five. The findings in this chapter are presented through the following respective framework elements: the domain, the community, and the practice.

Participant Profiles

The core community that was built during this interprofessional teaching and learning innovation consisted of five members; three of whom belonged to a nursing intensive North American-based transnational university branch campus, one of whom belonged to a North American-based medical transnational university branch campus, and one of whom was a professor emeritus in the field of family assessment based in North America. The following vignettes provide situational and contextual profiles for each of the study's main participants.

The five participants were represented by pseudonyms that they each selected in an effort to protect their identity.

Pearl. She identified herself during her pre-study interview as a Senior Instructor who was responsible for both nursing undergraduate and graduate teaching, and was also serving as a co-supervisor for two masters-level students at the North American-based transnational nursing university branch campus. She further described herself as a faculty member actively involved with both scholarship and extra service. As evidence of scholarship, Pearl made reference to her involvement with a Middle Eastern national research fund that focused on promoting opportunities for undergraduate research under the guidance of faculty members or professional researchers. In reference to “*extra service*”, Pearl cited her heavy involvement with curriculum renewal at her institution. She had just completed her first two-year contract at this North American-based branch campus and was now just starting into the first year of another two-year contract. Pearl came to the Middle East with experience and personal interest in family assessment in health care settings.

Sara. She had been with this North American-based transnational nursing university branch campus for four years and was about to enter her fifth year at the time of the study. She identified her role at this institution during her pre-study interview as the Director of the Clinical Simulation Centre. She further identified herself as being a “*simulation expert and educator*” describing her “*obligations in teaching*” as having to “*support best practice, experiential learning activities, and resources that would address the needs of [the institution’s] students*”. As Sara was considered a faculty member with additional *scholarly work* responsibilities, her role seemed to have involved a complex and demanding mixture of academic and administrative duties. Sara related her background experience as having “*been in nursing for 30 years*” with the

“latter 11 years in nursing education (clinical instructor/lab instructor/simulation coordinator) in an academic environment”.

JD. He described his position during his pre-study interview as a Simulation Technician and had been working at his North American-based transnational nursing university branch campus for the past three years. One of JD’s main responsibilities was managing the B-Line Medical video capture system (<http://www.blinemedical.com/>, 2015) for the simulation department at this institution. This system was used to support debriefing strategies during and after simulation scenarios for nursing students in healthcare education. Having extensive training with simulation mannequin maintenance, JD was also responsible for the maintenance of simulation mannequins at this institution. Previous to working at this nursing branch campus, JD had been *“involved with simulation for over 15 years, trained as a primary care paramedic, and worked for a critical care transport company”.*

Dr. Balzac. This medical doctor and educator was recruited to his North American-based transnational medical university branch campus in the Middle East to lead a family medicine program in 2007. He revealed during his pre-study interview that upon his arrival, *“there was no program,”* so he had to *“create a curriculum from the start, from scratch, and customize it to [the institution’s] needs”.* This was in conjunction with the branch campus’s corresponding main campus which already had an established curriculum. Dr. Balzac held the title of Director of the Primary Care Clerkship and was also an Associate Professor of Family Medicine. In addition to his involvement in various scholarly research projects, Dr. Balzac was also the Co-chair of the Admissions Panel and the Executive Committee. Previous to his residency, Dr. Balzac already had extensive experience as both a medical practitioner and educator in the United Kingdom and Canada.

LMW. She held the title of Professor Emeritus of Nursing at a North American higher educational institution (HEI) and was also an international speaker and clinician. During her pre-study interview, LMW revealed that she had a lengthy and scholarly career as a university professor in the area of “*family nursing and the impact that illness has on family*”. In addition to her academic career, LMW also served as a Family Nursing Unit Director in a North American-based clinic. She was the author of several influential books and journal publications in her field and was in the process of continuing a very active scholarly and professional career in the area of family clinical practice during the course of this study.

Context

Initial plans for the organization of an interprofessional collaboration around the subject of family assessment began in the early spring of 2015. The goal was to form an interprofessional working group between two North American-based transnational higher education branch campuses that would bring a sample of nursing and medical students together to work through simulation scenarios in the area of family assessment. Explorations into the need for such a teaching and learning innovation within the transnational educational context were found to be both timely and relevant based on the national focus surrounding the family unit in this Middle Eastern country. This concern has been the basis of joint national research grant initiatives sponsored by the Middle Eastern nation where this CoP was situated and was in alignment with specific national strategic priorities that were mandated within this country.

In the spring of 2015, a commitment to a piloting stage of this teaching and learning innovation was secured and a working timeline was established starting in the late summer. The piloting stage had an original focus on a full-day and immersive simulation-based workshop offering for selected nursing and medical students. As a call for December presentations at a

conference on IPE in healthcare contexts held at a local university in this Middle Eastern country was announced during the late spring of 2015, the group decided to submit an abstract in the hope of taking this opportunity to share preliminary insights and experiences from the workshop at this high profile scholarly venue. Conference acceptance was felt to have ensured an enhanced level of commitment from the IPE community in following through with delivering their plans.

Early and informal conversations with Pearl about this project's organizational intentions revealed that particular elements might be in alignment with Wenger's initial (1998) and Wenger et al.'s (2002) further articulated structural model of a CoP. Although the term "community of practice" was familiar and had been widely and frequently used amongst faculty at Pearl's nursing-intensive transnational HEI branch campus, there had never been a study conducted at this institution that had clearly identified and established the existence of such a group operating within this situated academic context. For the foundational purposes of my study, it was important that I clearly established relational qualities to the CoP structural model in answering the question: Did this interprofessional group actually resemble a CoP during the process of formation and engagement as defined in organizational and social learning theory or was it something else entirely?

During the pre-study interview, the research participants were asked about their own understanding of the term "communities of practice". This was considered an important orientation question in terms of establishing whether participants had any prior knowledge of CoP theory or if they had any previous practical experiences as CoP participants. Results revealed that although most participants had an intuitive understanding about certain aspects of the term, none of them had been exposed to any formal theoretical literature or had any

experiences in previously belonging to a self-identified and explicitly labelled CoP. A prevalent theme that emerged during the pre-study interview from participants involved the idea of people working together on “*common goals*” or “*common interests*”.

Although a CoP entity is predominantly focused on a shared domain of interest, both its formation and development can begin as a largely unconscious, organic, and emergent phenomenon. If this entity can at times lack a sense of collective self-reflexivity, it is then possible to be fully engaged in a CoP without being conscious of belonging to such a defined collective unit. As such and in accordance to the nature of my case study, the communal entity that was observed over the course of the research period resembled a type of emergent CoP that was in its early stages of development. More specifically and in relation to Wenger et al.’s (2002) stages of CoP development, the observation period followed this CoP’s trajectory from stage 1 (potential: discover/imagine) to a late stage 2 (coalescing: incubate/deliver immediate value).

Findings

The following qualitative findings from this case study were coded, analyzed, and will now be presented through the following three fundamental CoP framework elements: the domain, the community, and the practice.

The domain. The domain of a CoP “creates common ground and a sense of common identity”, and is “well-defined” through “affirming its purpose and value to members and other stakeholders” (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 27). A CoP’s domain is characterized through a process of mutual sharing in discovering its essential purpose or *raison d’etre*. Prevalent themes relevant to this CoP’s domain conception that emerged throughout this study and are presented in this

section focused on the recognition of a shared competence, the development of a shared vision, and a shared commitment in pursuing this vision.

Shared competence. Findings indicated that the CoP members each possessed a strong feeling of confidence in relation to their own professional competence. Throughout both the pre- and post-study interviews, members routinely made reference to the words “*expert*,” “*expertise*,” and “*experience*” in situating themselves and their colleagues within the core CoP. In the pre-study interview Pearl expressed confidence in the fact that all the “*individual members*” were entering the CoP “*with their own expertise and their own interest in being part*” of the initiative. This observation was validated when members shared their thoughts regarding their own roles within their respective institutions and the relevance this had on their participation with this CoP. Table 4.3 displays responses each CoP member had when asked about their specific roles within their own professional practice during the pre-study interviews:

Table 4.3

Participant Roles and Competencies

Members	Professional Practice Areas	Competency Self-Perceptions (Pre-Study)
Pearl	Nursing	<i>I see my role as I have the expertise in family nursing and family assessment. I've had many years of experience of doing this with students. I know how to engage them and get them going.</i>
Sara	Simulation Education/Nursing	<i>I'm a simulation expert and educator. And so that means that as part of my obligations in teaching in accordance with that, it has to do with ensuring that we support best practice, experiential learning activities, and resources that would address the needs of our students</i>
JD	Simulation Technology and Education	<i>...my area of expertise I guess is looking after the technical stuff, and putting that together and making it work.</i>
Dr. Balzac	Medicine	<i>I'm an associate professor of family medicine. And I'm also the director of the longitudinal curriculum. So I have multi roles which have evolved over the past 8 years in my tenure here...at this age and the job I've got, and what I'm doing and all the responsibilities, and all the experience...yes, I could have done things different. Yes, I could have done things better. But I have been successful and I have got to where I am right now.</i>
LMW	Nursing (Emeritus)	<i>Well, my present title, my formal title is Professor Emeritus of Nursing at [name of institution]. And so I have that distinction and lovely honour that they've given me. But I prefer to think of myself now as an international speaker and clinician...when I was at the university...my expertise was family...</i>

Based on both responses provided above and my own observations as a researcher during the pre-study interviews, all members appeared well-located within their roles and distinct practices

upon entry into CoP engagement. Findings throughout the study did not reveal any loss of confidence in relation to these professional self-perceptions throughout the course of the study.

CoP member self-perceptions were seen to be validated as findings revealed that CoP members held very positive opinions on the professional competence of their fellow core CoP members. In the post-study interview, Sara considered that it was precisely a recognition of Pearl's "*expertise*" as a family assessment nursing educator, that influenced Dr. Balzac in supporting Pearl and encouraging her to "*take the lead*" on the project. Sara further shared her thoughts on "*expertise*" as it both "*emerged*" and "*developed*" throughout the project. Sara felt that "*troubleshooting*" played an important role and served as a catalyst in moving members towards areas of expertise that they had not expected. She made reference to an incident where there was perhaps a "*poor understanding in the background of how things*" could come together, Sara suddenly felt the need to exert her own leadership in trying to find a solution to a potentially serious logistical problem that threatened the project. The unexpected nature of having to handle such a situation made Sara reflect that "*there were different times where there was troubleshooting involved that [she] felt that [she] did not see [herself] doing [something] at the very beginning,*" but nonetheless "*it ended up happening.*" Field observations indicated that displays of adaptability in these type of troubleshooting situations had a positive impact on the overall sense of community expertise within the CoP domain.

Reflections on expertise in relation to the diversity of CoP membership were revealed by both LMW and Dr. Balzac in the post-study interview. LMW largely attributed the success of the project to having "*expert*" representatives from each of the nursing, medical and simulation technology and education disciplines. Elaborating further on the specific contextual dynamics of this CoP, Dr. Balzac offered that

there was good working chemistry there. It was good. And people were diverse enough in their backgrounds not to necessarily tread on each other's toes. There weren't too many people... Nobody was in the same field. We all have our own different tasks and training and expertise. So it was complementary.

Dr. Balzac's observation seemed to imply that the IPE composition of the CoP had a special situated and contextual alignment to the group's shared purpose.

In their shared acceptance of one another's level of "*experience*", "*expertise*", and ultimately competence, a core operational CoP domain was constructed from three separate professional areas of practice: nursing, medicine, and simulation technology and education. This appeared to provide a contextual grounding to JD's insightful comment during his pre-study interview on the importance of a community having a "*cohesive balance*", sharing the sentiment that when members of mutual competence "*come together*", then "*the expertise of the one will help balance the expertise or contribute to the expertise of the other, and vice versa*". This observation contributed to the wider contextually important finding relating to shared competence where all core members in this CoP considered themselves and were mutually considered by their peers to be representational leaders from their respective practices. I believed that this finding had a positive impact on their relationships and how they professionally regarded each other throughout the course of the study.

Shared vision. A particular characteristic of this CoP's domain was that it was inhabited by unconventional practitioners from different, and yet converging, disciplines that united towards a common general vision. In the process of articulating this vision, the findings focused on three aspects: 1) The importance of a shared vision; 2) Developing a sense of identity around this vision; and 3) Situating this vision within a spherical model of influence.

The findings strongly indicated that there was a consensus on the importance of having an “*idea*”, “*a vision*” or “*a shared vision*” as a foundational focus to stimulate this group’s imagination. For example, in the very early stages of the community’s development, Pearl voiced great optimism in the potential of key member enlistment believing that participants would be

part of something very visionary, and something that can have a huge impact on practice in terms of bringing the two main professionals [nursing and medicine] together and strengthening their relationship of how to work together around not themselves, not their personal piece, but around supporting families or family assessment.

This concept of “*bringing medical and nursing students together around family assessment*” was a vision that LMW attributed to Pearl in the post-study interview when she shared that it was Pearl who “*had this idea in her mind three years ago*” and that she “*never let up on that idea, and provided the leadership...to get it going, to gather folks around her, to see who else might be interested*”. In this sense, Pearl appeared to be regarded as a leading impetus in cultivating a community around her own vision.

However, when evaluating this initiative during the post-study interview, Pearl would specifically attribute the presence of a “*shared vision*” as being the ultimate key to the community’s success. In moving forward with constructing an operational community around this initiative, Pearl acknowledged the crucial role of a “*catalyst*” in helping to bring her vision into a shared focus. Prior to embarking upon the pilot study, Pearl referenced Sara’s strength in drawing connections and in her ability to identify “*similarities*” was particularly valued in terms of having “*a vision*” of what could be done and was instrumental in brokering the initial contact between Pearl and Dr. Balzac.

Findings revealed that pursuing this collective vision had implications on developing patterns of shared leadership in the community. For example, LMW observed a leadership pattern that she saw “*shift and change*” during the study and commented that “*sometimes [she] felt [Pearl] was more leading*” while “*other times [she] felt like [Sara] was more leading in pursuing the communal “idea”*”. In his post-study interview, Dr. Balzac seemed to experience a more holistically integrated sharing occurring within the community where “*each had their own responsibilities*” and “*were able to support each other*” as “*a coherent teamwork effort*”. This led Dr. Balzac to the conclusion that the community members “*all had leadership roles in their own way*”.

Establishing a core definition around this vision was integral in helping to develop a sense of shared purpose and identity within the CoP’s domain. During the course of the study, a particular aspect of identity was located in the findings when the participants attempted to label or define their initiative. While the noun “*collaboration*” was frequently referenced by all participants throughout the collected data, there was more uncertainty when it came to modifying this noun using the contextual descriptors interdisciplinary or interprofessional. Pearl was observed to be conceptually wrestling with a descriptor during her pre-study interview when she reflected that “*the culture of bringing students together across universities so that inter...It’s not interdisciplinary... Well, it is interdisciplinary but it’s also intersectoral because we’re going across into...*” and then quickly recovered by offering “*But anyway, right now it’s interdisciplinary.*” During Sara’s pre-study interview, she commented that the term “*interprofessional*” would normally describe a collaboration that included “*more than two professions*”. Sara elaborated further that “*because we’re going to be focusing primarily on medicine and nursing, I don’t really see this really as interprofessional because it’s just the two*”.

disciplines” and preferred the working label “*interdisciplinary collaboration*”. Sara’s contextual explanation likely unintentionally ignored the important role that her own practice (simulation education) would play in supporting the initiative.

Other members seemed less concerned with semantics and even used the two terms interchangeably throughout the course of the study. LMW referred to collaborations such as these as representing “*interdisciplinary practice, inter-professional collaboration, all of that...*”, yet used the term “*interdisciplinary collaboration*” during a strategic meeting leading up to the November 2015 simulation workshop.

However, the CoP’s participation in the December conference saw an emergent identity shift resulting in the group’s stronger alignment with the interprofessional label. During a post-presentation debrief, Pearl referred to an image of multi-coloured doors that was included in their PowerPoint presentation and related:

And those are people living together in a community but bring their own unique take on what that is for them. And that’s what we did. Like we’re an IPE. We are in ourselves a multidisciplinary team, an inter-professional team. That was what was unique about us. You saw physicians, you saw nurses. But you didn’t see a team like ours that was interprofessional.

Sara, who had previously provided a carefully considered rationale for this initiative to be defined as “*interdisciplinary*”, was observed to have changed her conceptual stance during her post-study interview. Reflecting upon her own previous experiences collaborating within the healthcare profession, Sara acknowledged that “*Our whole project in working interprofessionally was based on this-working in healthcare as a team*”. Since Sara considered this stage in their initiative as focusing on “*the students and that interprofessional collaboration*” piece, moving

forward she suggested further research focusing on the institutional collaboration considering that this had been an emerging area of interest for her that she felt “*was incredibly unique*”.

An issue that is germane to the sustainability of a CoP’s vision is in its contextual relevance and alignment to the wider landscape of practice (Wenger et al., 2002; Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015). Findings revealed that the CoP participants reflected deeply on this issue throughout the study in terms of setting appropriate goals and mapping out their strategic plans to intersect to the needs and interests of their respective HEIs and the Middle Eastern country within which they were working and residing. All five members during the pre- and post-study interviews routinely referenced “*support*”, “*engage*” and “*engagement*” when relating the importance of connecting with locally and nationally situated stakeholders. As members of this CoP were presently in the positions of healthcare educators, their common operational approach to garner local and national support was to pursue and promote this initiative through the lens of academic scholarship.

On a local level, reaching out to HEI leaders and their stakeholders was a very early and key consideration for the sustainable success of this initiative. During her pre-study interview, Pearl articulated plans and efforts in this area by offering the following:

I think it’s really important that we have representation of people that are key so that it happens and that the project will support it. So that’s what we started talking about – who are the key people? So we’ve talked about who are the local people we need to engage that need to be part of this? So we’ve started looking at some names of people based upon the people around the table and what they know. So we recognize that to build the important elements of that community culture is making sure people are involved with our community that are going to be...that could help us to make this

successful, but yet recognizing there is a culture of how people work here, and it's important to have certain people involved.

Transcripts from the first official CoP meeting observation in June made immediate reference to the “*support*” that the group were hoping to receive from key stakeholders that were locally situated within and immediately close to their respective HEIs. These were key people that members of the CoP already had professional relationships with although at various ratios of intimacy. Examples of these key people were the Dean and CEO of the nursing HEI, fellow staff and faculty members, and some staff and faculty members working at partnering HEIs and healthcare institutes within this country in the Middle East.

Findings also revealed that these CoP members were keenly aware that their initiative also had to have a strong alignment to a more national level of influence that was located in a hierarchical sphere of influence. Dr. Balzac articulated this clearly during his pre-study interview in relation to the CoP letting practicality give way to blind enthusiasm when he voiced the need to “*be in-synch*” and cognizant “*with the needs for [local] priorities*” and warning against pursuing something “*grand*” that would not “*fit*” into any local “*model or ambition or plan*”. Referring to this Middle Eastern country’s “*master plan*”, Dr. Balzac voiced the need for the group’s vision to be in alignment with “*the policies and philosophies of the leaders in this country*” in order to be impactful and sustainable. This was a sentiment that was also echoed by Sara during her pre-study interview when she considered the scholarly context of their collective vision as being able “*to contribute to a knowledge-based economy*” that fit into one of the key mandates of this Middle Eastern country.

As a result, planning during the meetings also included brokering relationships with a higher sphere of influence that was representative of the state in the form of such institutions as

national and healthcare-based foundations, councils, and consortiums. It was observed that CoP members often had to utilize an established relationship in the second sphere to gain access to the third sphere. These were systems and networks that became increasingly more complex to envision and navigate as the project progressed.

In relation to cultivating “successful communities of practice”, Wenger et al. (2002) observed a relationship “where the goals and needs of an organization intersect with the passions and aspirations of participants” (p. 32). Establishing a vision based on a shared understanding of definition, purpose, contextual relevancy, and wider regional alignment helped in situating this CoP at an appropriate location to both inspire its participants and increase its potential as an entity to make an impact. This finding was important in locating the strength of this CoP’s vision and how it contributed to fostering an engaged culture moving forward. This, in turn, helped to ensure a required level of shared commitment from the core CoP members.

Shared commitment. Maintaining a sense of collective inspiration and enthusiasm in areas of inquiry within a domain are considered “the hallmarks of vibrant communities of practice” (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 32). Indeed, the findings from my study revealed a very high level of both inspiration and enthusiasm that fueled momentum and consistent progress for this IPE initiative. The idea of *passion* as a foundational affective component that had an impact on commitment resonated strongly with three of the five members in relation to more intrinsic motivational factors in CoP engagement. Pearl could already anticipate a level of passion that existed amongst the CoP members when she was interviewed pre-study and observed, “*They all have a passion for what they do. And I think together each person’s passion can build something really strong*”. In expressing this opinion, Pearl made reference to the relationship between the amount of value CoP members saw in the collaboration with the amount of passion they were

willing to invest. Her attitude post-study was seen to remain consistent as she made the following evaluation, “*We were committed to our passion. And I think that’s why [the initiative] worked. We weren’t about being competitive with each other or anybody. We were just trying to make this project work because we were passionate about it and making it happen*”. Indeed, findings indicated that the absence of any evident internal competition amongst CoP core members may have enhanced the level of mutual care and support that they had for one another.

Sara and LMW also attributed the success of the initiative at least partly to the level of passion emanating from the core participants. Sara made reference during her post-study interview to a “*shared passion and interest*” between Pearl and Dr. Balzac that she considered “*pivotal in moving the project forward*”. However, she also mentioned that all group members “*had a lot of similarities in what [they] were passionate about*” and that this had an impact on the group making “*time for the project*”. Offering an overall assessment of the group during her post-study interview, LMW shared that she had “*sensed right from the beginning...a tremendous commitment to the project*”. Tempted to use what she described as an “*overused*” word, LMK substituted “*passion*” for “*commitment*” and “*a strong belief*” in describing the CoP’s perception that their initiative “*could be revolutionary*”.

Nonetheless, findings appeared to indicate that passion led to a shared commitment in generating ideas to collectively inspire the group and move the initiative forward during the engagement process. In the context of *looking ahead* during the initial synchronous CoP meeting, Dr. Balzac offered the motif of “*running over hurdles*” when relating to the group that “*there may be 10 ideas we have, and 9 of them fall. It’s very important to keep thinking and looking at the feasibility of [these ideas]. But if you don’t generate these ideas, the ideas won’t happen.*” The CoP members were observed to nurture support for each other during key

strategic meetings by offering encouragement for good to great ideas. Such ideas proved to have substantial impact during meetings throughout the study included workshop facilitation, student recruitment strategies, project budget and funding sources, and external CoP engagement strategies. CoP members were focused and committed to their efforts in collaborative thought generation as Sara revealed during a November debrief:

We've all come with good ideas. And you know, then sometimes, you know, things, we try something, it works, sometimes it doesn't. But we brainstorm. I think it's been a collective kind of leadership that we've had. It's been very easy to work with everybody. I think, as I said, I think we honour and respect each other's ideas.

Whether ideas would come to fruition or not, the process of trial and error itself appeared to inspire the group and further strengthen the identity and confidence of the CoP's domain.

Their collective passion was seen to fuel a shared perseverance when the CoP was met with obstacles during the course of their collective engagement. Key vocabulary identified with obstacles referred to “bumps”, “roadblocks” and “bombs” that threatened the project's progress and ultimate operational survival. These moments were primarily revealed during strategic meetings and related to challenges and setbacks that were at times personal, but nonetheless had an impact on proceedings for the entire group. Pearl shared an example of such a situation during a meeting held in October. Austere budget cuts mandated by the national government forced leadership at Pearl's institution to break certain financial “promises” and suddenly add an additional teaching workload to Pearl's already demanding schedule. Pearl reflected to the group during the meeting that this sudden news

was kind of a bomb because it kind of stirs up a lot of things when you're expecting something, you're promised something, and you have a plan in place based upon that... so it affects things I've had laid out for timing.

Nonetheless, the passion already invested in this project garnered a renewed commitment from Pearl that the group was “*not to be discouraged*” and that they were “*still going to do what [they're] going to do this fall*”. Findings identified a cycle occurring that consisted of obstacles presented that carried negative implications, which resulted in core members having to psychologically adjust and then recommit to the vision of the CoP. Table 4.4 highlights three important situations where these cycles were observed.

Table 4.4

CoP Obstacles and Implications

Obstacles presented to the CoP	Implication	Psychological adjustment and recommitment
Compliance officer from the National Research Fund announces that all of the country's HEIs must have their own internal ethics review process based within the country.	This “ <i>big bomb</i> ” threatens to present challenges for this CoP to obtain ethics in a timely manner since no internal review process has been established.	Pearl: “ <i>I think we are going to keep going but maybe we have to rejig things a bit</i> ”. (October 14 th , 2015).
Further budget concerns may impact funding for LMW's visit to the Middle East to facilitate the workshop.	LMW's facilitation is considered a key component of the workshop and thus the entire project.	Pearl: <i>So I'm still confident we can do it. If for some reason we can't get her, we're still doing it. That's my bottom line.</i> Sara (in response): <i>Yes!</i> (October 21 st , 2015)
Student participants recruited for the Saturday workshop are suddenly unable to attend due to a mandatory accreditation class set by the local health authority.	Sudden timing of this “ <i>roadblock</i> ” will make it very difficult to find other eligible student participants for the study. Sara: “ <i>The bomb shell was dropped on us with no notice. And the poor volunteering students were so disappointed</i> ” (November 22, 2015).	Dr. Balzac (via email): “ <i>Don't fear. I will make this happen</i> ”. Pearl (in response): “ <i>He'll make it happen</i> ”. Sara: “ <i>Yeah, he will. He knows it's important</i> ”. Pearl: “ <i>Oh, he does!</i> ” Sara: “ <i>Because he knows that we've invested all this planning and money and all that stuff, right</i> ”. (November 22, 2015).

Reflecting on the success of the pilot project post-study, LMW offered that

I think it's always interesting to me how different groups will emerge within traditional faculties and have a particular passion about something or a particular commitment. And

if they really honour each other's talents, they can really make things happen. I mean it took each one of [the CoP members] to really make this happen. And so, I just thought it was quite remarkable.

LMW's observation appeared to have even more impact in terms of this study's non-traditional interprofessional context where sustained engagement and commitment were not always guaranteed. The concept of cultivating a sense of mutual honour as a precondition for CoP success pointed to the importance relationships in the CoP operating mechanism. In order to further understand the relationship dynamics that added both the successes and challenges of this CoP, it was necessary to view the role of "community" in this initiative.

Domain summation. A CoP's domain "has an identity defined by a shared domain of interest" and thereby distinguishes itself from "a club of friends or a network of connections between people" (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, n.p.). This interprofessional CoP's shared domain of interest focused on a guiding vision of bringing nursing and medical students together within a simulation education environment to build better learning relationships in order to enhance their overall learning objectives. The development of this domain involved enlisting members grounded with a sense of competence in their professional practice who would be committed to supporting each other in pursuing and promoting this vision to a wider scholarly audience. The next section will present findings related to community relationships that were built throughout this process.

The community. The culture of community in the CoP framework involves "a group of people who interact, learn together, build relationships, and in the process develop a sense of belonging and commitment" (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 34). Observing the development of this community throughout the duration of this study involved both how they interacted and built

relationships with each other and how they broached relationships beyond their core group. Key findings within the community element focused on the roles of the core community members within the CoP, and their internal and external interactions through the engagement process.

Roles. Findings related to the professional roles of the core members within their own practices were considered static throughout the study and presented in the domain as evidence of professional competence. Findings related to the roles of the core members within the CoP trajectory, however, revealed some subtle shifting and sharing in leadership during the community engagement process. Based on data obtained from both the pre-and post-study interviews, four out of the five members considered Pearl to be the CoP's operational leader with two out of the five referring to Dr. Balzac as a "*co-leader*" in terms of representing medicine. However, Pearl herself had the impression that Dr. Balzac actually wanted her "*to take the lead*" from the angle of nursing and that the innovation would be conducted in the nursing simulation lab focused "*around family assessment and family interviewing*". Data obtained from Dr. Balzac's pre-study interview supported this perception as he seemed to view his role as being collaborative yet largely "*consultative*". The relinquishing of a more defined leadership position during the initial development could possibly have been influenced by Dr. Balzac's demanding fall schedule.

Sharing a post-study reflection, Sara observed that "*there was definitely leadership that emerged at different times, and everyone I think had that role at different times throughout the project*". Rather than prescribed leadership roles, both Sara and Pearl felt that there was an "*intuitive*" element to assuming these roles throughout the course of the study. An example of this "*intuitive*" and perhaps logical element was observed during a systems failure incident prior to the November 2015 workshop. It was discovered that the simulation B-line system (a very

expensive and complex video capture system) was not working properly shortly before the simulation event. From Sara's perspective, "*this was a system we absolutely needed to video record*" and in real time "*actually visualize*" the simulation scenarios. Based on observations made during this time, Sara and JD's roles then became of crucial and technical troubleshooting focus with both Sara and JD taking the lead for solving this problem as it was naturally situated in their particular domain within the core CoP group.

Upon her arrival in the Middle East in November, LMW also emerged as an important leading and influential CoP member. Although she humbly described her role as merely "*coming to offer some knowledge,*" her stature as a leading expert in family nursing provided a very rich and valued-added dimension to both the group and overall project. This was evident during her own distinguished speaker lecture and her facilitation of the simulation workshop where the other core CoP members were seen to assume a quieter supporting role.

The concept of a loosely referenced "*shared*" leadership that modulated at times in ratio depending on the need and area of expertise, resonated with all five members with Pearl reflecting the following during her post-study interview, "*I think all of us were strong leaders in our own right and I think we shared the leadership. And I think we did a really nice job. I didn't see one person coming out as the dominant leader, I saw us all sharing it.*" This was a sentiment that Dr. Balzac shared in his post-study reflection relating to trends of emerging leadership roles stating that "*I think [the leadership roles] emerged. There wasn't any dominant figure. There had to be an organizer but everyone had a role. The main leaders, they were self-evident. There wasn't a nomination. It was really by acclimation in that sense but with everyone's approval and acceptance*". As an observer throughout the study period, I was able to witness a high level of mutual cooperation and a sharing of leadership that did indeed occur almost naturally and

intuitively between core CoP members. However, key observations made throughout the engagement process in relation to both the CoP's internal core interactions and their interactions with a wider external community also revealed more nuanced shifts in leadership that were not always obvious or transparent.

Internal cohesive interactions. Findings revealed that the cohesive interactive elements within the core CoP were attributed to the abilities in fostering a sense of mutual respect, ensuring inclusivity, and facilitating consistent communication channels amongst group members. The theme of mutual respect was predominantly referenced by all five members in both the pre- and post-study interviews that were conducted. In the pre-study interviews, participants shared perspectives that were based on expectations that the role of respect would have throughout the course of the study. For example, Pearl and JD both had expectations that members would have to “*respect each other's expertise*” and “*to demonstrate professional behaviour*” through the process of engagement. Building upon these sentiments, Sara considered demonstrating respect in relation to maintaining “*constant communication*” and ensuring “*clarity with issues that [might] arise*”. Meanwhile, LMW and Dr. Balzac shared similar sentiments about a “*collapse of hierarchy*” as a needed pre-condition to “*engender*” both “*trust*” and “*respect*” in building a healthy and productive “*community culture*”.

Perspectives collected in the post-study interview strongly indicated that participant expectations were met as all five members made mention of the mutual “*respect*” they experienced throughout the study and how this added to their feeling of inclusion. LMW made special mention of the “*tremendous amount of commitment and respect*” for “*each other's knowledge and roles*” as being “*really significant*” in the process of engagement. Dr. Balzac

experienced a positive and emergent trend where he thought of himself “*initially as a guest,*” but felt more “*respected*” as “*part of the team*” as time went on.

Interactions observed during core CoP meetings throughout the study appeared to be consistent with the positive reflections related to feelings of “*respect*” expressed above. For example, members were careful not to dominate during meetings and decisions were carefully and collectively negotiated. Members also came to meetings prepared and followed-up on tasks that were delegated to them. Finally, clear and timely asynchronous communication was intuitively utilized as members made sure to respond to email enquiries in a quick and timely fashion. These observations indicated that the core members had respect for each other’s roles and time as busy professionals.

It was interesting to observe that acts of respect were not always based on what members did, but rather what they did not do. One example was in anticipation of the workshop that LMW was scheduled to facilitate with the students and all core CoP members present on November 29th. Prior to the workshop, LMW was anxious whether Dr. Balzac would be able to “*take a one-down*” while she was facilitating or feel the need to have “*a big presence and contribute a lot*” during the workshop. Based on my own observations during the workshop, Dr. Balzac was both attentive and reserved. This was an observation also shared by LMW post-study when she described Dr. Balzac as “*a rare medicine man*” that she now much “*admired*”. LMW further shared, “*He did contribute, but never had the need to take over or suddenly do it...you know, take over the workshop or participate equally with me.*” An important element of respect then amongst this group of leaders was a willingness to forego ego levels at the appropriate moments and allow others to lead based on perceptions of their expertise and worth to the overall project.

Inclusivity throughout CoP engagement was also a crucial consideration for the core group. Findings revealed that all core members were concerned and focused on fostering what they considered were best practices of mutual engagement throughout the study and the implications this would have on helping to successfully finish the project. The issue of CoP membership size was mentioned by two of the members as a positive structural contributing factor to the cohesiveness of the group. In the post-study interview, JD reflected that a small core group was ideal citing that it is “*easier to form a solution if there’s an issue in a smaller group because you’re closer, you know what’s going on*”. Dr. Balzac seemed to agree with this sentiment sharing a personal observation that “*An odd number is better than even...it just works out that way. Three and five are good, better than four*”. Observations made during the course of this study supported these perspectives particularly in relation to accommodating challenging meeting logistics and facilitating effective decision-making within the core group.

Similar and somewhat predictable references from core members during pre- and post-study interviews in relation to ensuring a sense of membership inclusivity included fostering “*mutual support*”, “*mutual appreciation*” and “*compatibility*” within the CoP. However, observations and more interpretive readings of the data revealed interesting insights into the themes related to mutual recognition and involvement that contributed positively to the concept of inclusivity. Offering an aside during the pre-study interview, Dr. Balzac confided, “*There’s a downside to coming to work early. You know that, don’t you? No one ever sees you*”. This observation seemed to intimate a wider truth where most individuals in professional settings have a desire to be recognized for their participation and acknowledged for their contributions.

Findings obtained from my study did strongly suggest that members in my study felt that their contributions were mutually recognized and appreciated. As a result, members expressed

sentiments that they felt included and engaged throughout the study trial period. Reflections elicited from CoP members post-study made mention of the “*great bonding,*” “*cooperative decision-making,*” and “*cohesive teamwork*” that was developed through the engagement process. Member observations on inclusive interactions over the course of the study were positive with LMW observing “*that within the core group, there was tremendous support, commitment, and respect...for each other’s knowledge and roles. And I heard people saying that. Like they said, “Oh, Sara, you know about this” or “Well, JD, you know how to fix this” ...a lot of commending and praising each other’s contribution to the project and what each other could do*”.

Alternatively, there were occasions where potentially unwanted recognition and attention came as a result from something that went wrong. One incident involved JD, who felt partly responsible and thus compelled to help solve a crisis. He was observed to have spent hours of overtime leading up to the project attempting to coordinate appropriate support to repair the equipment. As a time-sensitive situation, JD was under much stress and was ultimately left feeling at least partly responsible when the problem was not completely repaired in time. Nonetheless, JD was acknowledged for his extra efforts with Sara remarking in support that he had “*spent quite some time*” on trying to solve the issue. Pearl also reflected sympathetically post-study that “*poor JD got a little stressed because we found out, like what was it, the night before the B-Line wasn’t working,*” but conceded that “*It all turned out okay*” in the end. Thus, a situation that could have possibly led to disappointment and member criticism was averted an acknowledgment of effort and even praise.

Another observation related to the theme of inclusivity was made by Dr. Balzac with an interesting qualification relating to the “*need to create a culture where everyone feels*

comfortable, respected, valued, wanted, and that they will be missed if they're not there, but they're not indispensable". This observation was found to possess a strong alignment with other member perspectives relating to inclusivity when analyzed. In terms of cultivating an inclusive community, key words and phrases from participants focused on feeling "*involved*", considering how best to "*support individuals,*" "*making sure everybody feels they have a voice,*" and "*making sure that everybody feels that what they have to offer is being listened to*". However, inclusivity during this project seemed to be contingent on the community supporting the shared domain at the expense of supporting one leading individual. As Pearl noted about the initiative post-study, "*It's acknowledging the community that's built it. So yeah, it came from the idea of someone but everybody's been involved with tweaking it in some way*". Member perceptions post-study were unanimous in attributing an important element of their success to this notion of cultivating an environment conducive to fostering collective involvement throughout the engagement process.

Internal diverse interactions. Despite indications of strong cohesion and inclusivity, this IPE CoP was comprised of members from three distinct professional practices: nursing, medicine, and simulation technology and education. This made diversity an inherent characteristic to this CoP entity. Findings and observations made throughout the study indicated that diversity was considered to be a positive attribute in relation to both CoP composition and member engagement. Three of the five core members shared views during their pre-study interviews that regarded diversity as engendering needed "*strength*" and "*creativity*" to socially construct any meaningful collaboration. Dr. Balzac spoke of the desire to find members who possess "*unlike thinking*" are "*disruptively innovative*" in order to spark innovation. In reference to building community, Pearl considered contributions by different members as a unique

opportunity to “*build*” and “*create something together*” that might end up looking “*different in the end*” than “*the goal in the beginning*”. This was a sentiment that JD seemed to share when he used a “*puzzle*” metaphor to illustrate how diversity can actually build a sense of “*cohesion*” as the pieces come together to build community “*identity*”.

Dr. Balzac returned to the importance of diversity in his post-study interview as he strongly stated, “*You’ve got to have different people. You’ve got to have diversity. And that’s strength. You can’t just have the same type as yourself and populate it, and then expect to get meaningful answers. It’s never going to happen*”. Observations made throughout the engagement process indicated that diversity in this study’s context did not contribute to any serious disagreements or conflict. Rather, this CoP seemed to possess the required “*common ground*” amongst diversity that Wenger et al. (2002) observed necessary to foster “*richer learning, more interesting friendships, and increased creativity*” (p. 35) within the community structural element.

A very key and central finding related to diversity and core group indicated that negative past experiences in the area of interprofessional community collaboration had a profound influence on ideological approaches and relationship perceptions. This issue was particularly germane from the nursing CoP participant perspectives. Pearl related during the pre-study interview that

what I’ve always found in my field of nursing, nurses and physicians are the two that are often together. And it’s well documented that they sometimes have the worst communication. I mean there’s been, you know, things written about the nurse-physician communication process. It’s well documented. Here in [the Middle East], it’s even more extreme. I noticed when I was out and about just how hierarchical things are. There’s

even like where I wouldn't be fearful to have a conversation, I noticed others. I'm thinking what is up here? Why are they so fearful to have a conversation with a physician? They're supposed to be working together.

Pearl's informed perception of a hierarchy existing between the practices of nursing and medicine was further explained by Sara as she related that

in times past, medicine has tended to be at the forefront of healthcare. And I think within this particular CoP, nursing is actually leading it. So I do believe that nursing should [...] there should be equal exposure and elements I think in representation and recognition that should be attributed.

These background sentiments were key and most crucial in understanding the professional and philosophical underpinnings of the initiative from the nursing perspective.

Due to LMW's practical and academic background in family therapy, she had a vast exposure to both the nursing and medical practice fields. Drawing from her own extensive professional experience, LMW had identified a tendency for medicine to dominate in similar collaborative and interprofessional initiatives. When sharing specific anecdotes based on her experience, LMW made references to "doctor-led" hospitals and clinics and the relegation of nurses in these environments as having to constantly "ask permission" from doctors in areas of workplace collaboration. Relating her history of working with her own students in these environments, LMW confided "*It's been all... You know, such a hierarchy. And that's why I didn't want... I really wanted the students to see, to internalize for their own identity that they could do this work, and that they didn't have to ask permission to anyone for being involved with families*". LMW further clarified the uniqueness of this pilot study's vision from her perspective by offering that this pilot

is being initiated and offered within nursing, within the nursing context, to me is gigantic. And that you have a physician who is open to that. I mean there's a lot of physicians I think would want it to be coming in medicine and you come to them. So you've got a unique...it sounds like a unique... You have to have people that are open to what nursing can do and to this kind of collaboration.

Elaborating further on the uniqueness of this current initiative, LMW pointed toward the importance of “*context*” and related:

I just can't say enough about the medical students who are coming to the nursing faculty to be taught a workshop by a nursing professor. It's just fantastic. I mean to me that is the only way that this is going to really happen, is if nurses are taking a leadership role and the hierarchy is being reversed sometimes. And to see what will happen with that kind of collaboration.

I considered LMW's perspective here to be very important in the context of this study as it appeared more radical than Pearl's by intimating a desire to see a hierarchy shift rather than the total removal of a hierarchy paradigm.

However, the strength of LMW's ideological perspective was somewhat modified as she was able to later reflect upon the very collegial and collaborative learning environment she had experienced during this trial. While still viewing the initiative during her post-study interview as having at least logistically “*flipped the hierarchy [between medicine and nursing] upside down*”, LMW was effusive in her appraisal of the medical institution's involvement in the collaboration.

For his own part, Dr. Balzac did not reveal any clear insights into his own thoughts on where this pilot might be located or whether he perceived any potential hierarchical conflicts in the CoP's basic vision. There was nothing throughout the study revealed in his words or actions that provided evidence of a desire to make the field of medicine sovereign. Rather, he tended to

be most comfortable contextualizing the vision as a “*collaboration*” in relation to pursuing “*An interest in finding out how one can mutually find common interests for a purpose*”. He also stressed the importance of being open to other ideas in the community context by stating “*you have to adapt. You have to adjust. You have to re-evaluate*” through the engagement process.

Although there was a common consensus built around a fundamental vision for this initiative, it was evident that the prospect of conflict due to hierarchy was always mildly present and may not have proven as successful with other members. The success in building and sustaining positive relationships within the core was viewed then as being largely “*context driven*” with LMW believing that “*Context drives what kind of collaboration you’re going to have*”. This was a sentiment that Dr. Balzac was observed to share during his post-study interview on “*compatibility*” in the community. Claiming success based on the absence of “*incompatibility*” in the community, Dr. Balzac also conceded that it “*could have been a challenge for another set of people*”. One observation I made that I considered most impactful in the context of this study was that if nursing practice was indeed seen to have been “*leading*” the community and project, medicine could also be regarded as a leader by being able to “*take a one-down*” and supporting the greater vision of the project.

External relationships: Building networks and erecting barriers. As community engagement began to develop, important decisions related to engagement with members external to the core group emerged. Findings from this study indicated that the core members were initially open and optimistic to the prospect of recruiting additional members they considered “*key*” asset builders to their core group. During her pre-study interview, Pearl made mention of wanting to “*involve other people*” and the need to “*pull in some strategic people*” in order to “*support*” the project.

However, during the September meeting, Sara raised the motion that the group should “*keep it small*” for the trial iteration with the prospect of engaging external members during “*phase 2*”. CoP members present agreed with Pearl on record replying “*I think it’s a good idea. It’s manageable. It’s more manageable*”. Nonetheless, the core group would still reach beyond the inner confines of their own community for advice and general support, most notably from the Dean and CEO, and the Director of the teaching and learning centre at the North American-based HEI nursing branch campus.

The group’s appetite for a potential wider engagement was observed to change even more dramatically during the engagement process through perceptions of external subterfuge that were perceived as threats to the CoP and the project itself. In the post-study interview, Pearl made reference to some “*big crunches*” that began to occur in “*mid-October*”. These challenges seemed to be rooted in both individual and collective warnings that were attributed as coming from Dr. Balzac in the initial planning stages of the project. As Sara related in her post-study interview, “*Dr. Balzac warned us that, you know, this could be a research study and to keep things quiet and low profile*”. Pearl shared similar recollections post-study as she quoted Dr. Balzac as saying “*Pearl, as soon as [information about the project] gets out there, you watch*”. JD interpreted and articulated the main message of these warnings post-study as being “*if others get wind of [the project], then they could scoop that, if you will, and call it their idea when, you know, they didn’t really come up with it*”. This led to a general awareness and understanding that covert politics may be at play within a unique transnational landscape that appeared to lack a globally standard best practice roadmap and was perceived to be rife with “*competition*” and “*jealousy*”.

A significant meeting in November that included Pearl, Sara, and JD raised alarm about perceptions that external efforts were trying to derail the project. The most specific and potentially damaging threat emerged with the news that the ‘third-year clerkship’ medical student group that Dr. Balzac had recruited to participate could suddenly no longer attend the workshop scheduled for November. As Sara related “*what’s happened is that...those students have to attend a mandatory accreditation class on the day we’re doing our workshop*”. The suddenness of this change of plan led to a degree of speculation amongst the group members that this may have been a deliberate external move from someone high ranking on the medical side that might have been opposed to the initiative. Although speculations and perceptions of this kind were never able to be proven and validated, there remained an emerging atmosphere of anxiety that pervaded the CoP and made their work additionally challenging within this transnational landscape.

Further data collected from a meeting in November indicated that CoP members in attendance considered “*competition*” and professional “*jealousy*” as ongoing and inherent characteristics of their contextual transnational landscape. Focusing on a “distinguished speaker” lecture that LMW was provided at the North American-based nursing HEI that the nursing and clinical simulation practice members of the CoP were hosting, Pearl and Sara made comments regarding the lack of collegial support they experienced. When Pearl approached a colleague about attending the lecture with her students, the colleague replied “*Oh, I don’t know, we’ll be busy that day. Class finishes at 11:00 am [scheduled time for the lecture] but we’ll be busy*”. That led Sara to comment “[This colleague] *is doing an IPE presentation in this [upcoming IPE conference], you know, with [colleagues from the US-based medical HEI]. That’s why I have a feeling that there has been some jealousy in all this. There always is in this*

environment". Situations like this led Pearl and Sara to deduce that some fellow faculty members were jealous that a distinguished scholar such as LMW was part of their CoP. As a result, the core CoP members were becoming more cautious about what they were sharing and with whom they were sharing certain information and resources.

Deeper discussions revealed perceptions of jealousy and competition around the issue of intellectual property, scholarship, and competence. Pearl related a time when she had shared a teaching and learning idea involving the "*blending*" of classes with some other faculty members only to discover that they began doing a "*project*" on this idea. Pearl shared that she thought it was "*odd*" that the group did not ask if she wanted to "*be a part*" of the project since it was her idea and she had a depth of required experience to contribute. Sara responded to this story by attributing this behaviour to a lack of knowledge and understanding amongst faculty members who were regarded to be "*inexperienced*" and "*novice*" and who appeared to be lacking in guidance on how to follow best research practices in a collegial environment. This was considered a contextual issue in a transnational environment where many young and inexperienced educators were building professional experience to further their careers.

Indeed, during their post-study interviews, both Pearl and Sara regarded external threats they encountered as being "*unique*" to the transnational environment that they were located in during the project and contributing to a greater desire to build protective barriers around the community. However, Pearl shared during her post-study interview that she felt that these types of threats and challenges may have actually enhanced the community's commitment to its shared purpose offering that "*all of those things that happened to us throughout our experience didn't stop us. It was almost like going to this was like our little refuge*". Thus, another contextual key

finding related to the composition of this particular community was that it was inhabited by individuals Pearl considered were “*extremely resilient*” in the face of adversity.

Community summation. The community element of the CoP framework involved examining how relationships were built, maintained, and protected within the core community and navigated other individuals inhabiting the external landscape. While the relationships within the core CoP community were found to be generally cohesive, perceived threats from the external community caused a degree of anxiety and apprehension at various moments during the study. A key contextual finding was that these threats were perceived to be somewhat unique and due to certain identified characteristics that were considered inherent to the transnational landscape within which members of this CoP were engaging. The next and final section will present findings related to the community’s practice, involving how the community was able to build their knowledge through mutual interaction.

The practice. The final but very central element in Wenger et al.’s (2002) CoP framework focuses on the actual practice within which the community engages. As an external observer, this involved an examination of the community’s engagement *in situ* and how they interacted within their own distinct practices and within their shared domain of practice. This was an area where techniques and resources were constructed and shared through both tacit and explicit elements of learning and knowledge. Findings in the practice element of the CoP framework are presented within this section through the salient sub-elements that I identified in relation to mutual practice engagement, shared repertoire, and negotiation of practice.

Mutual practice engagement. While engagement in the community element focused on relationship building within the CoP, engagement within a practice involved closely examining how the CoP core members mutually engaged with their activities and tasks at hand. Pearl had

identified during her pre-study interview that a central problem for this CoP was going to be “*time*” and “*logistics*” since all members had “*busy*” careers and were not all physically located close to one another. This presented an inherent challenge since, as Sara noted during her pre-study interview, “*clear communication*” and “*meeting frequently*” were going to be “*key*” in facilitating mutual engagement throughout this pilot initiative. Thus, there was a need to establish feasible and effective communication channels and meeting opportunities to provide the community with an environment within which they could engage. Relevant findings in relation to the community’s engagement with their practice identified in this study were obtained by observing how the core group utilized both synchronous and asynchronous communication infrastructures in making the necessary arrangements to move their project forward.

For a community that united and effectively coalesced their expertise around a shared vision, it was interesting that all group members would actually meet together face-to-face only once during the course of the study. This meeting occurred in November where all members would be physically present and participate in the family assessment workshop. Resigning to the likelihood that all members would not be present for every meeting, Pearl nonetheless strongly felt pre-study that members would “*have to feel a part of it and feel they have an important part to play*” and that it would be crucial to “*engage [any absent members] by letting them know what we’re doing*”. As Pearl and Sara were able to be present for all of the seven official synchronous meetings, this left them in a dual leadership position in terms of driving the meeting agendas and delegating resulting action items. Since three of the five core CoP members were based at the same institution, the seven scheduled synchronous meetings were held at the North American-based nursing HEI.

Although data collected from each of the seven meetings indicated inclusivity with references made to all five core members, Pearl and Sara were at times selective in the information that they chose to disseminate through the CoP. Sara related in her post-study interview that as the engagement process developed, *“There were certain things that maybe particular members of the group were only privy to”*. Sara made reference to certain perceived *“catastrophes”* that were presented and addressed through the meetings that both she and Pearl decided not to *“share”* based on their shared conviction that they *“could handle”* these *“operational issues”*. An example of such an issue was raised during a November meeting shortly before the workshop. Sara explained to Pearl that she had just discovered that the B-Line AV system was not working due to a *“power outage”* in the simulation department. This caused Sara a high degree of anxiety as she considered that *“this was a system...absolutely necessary to video record”* the simulated workshop scenarios. As the simulation technology specialist, JD was tasked with trying to coordinate repairs for the system, but unfortunately was not able to resolve the problem in time for the workshop. As a result, Sara, Pearl, and JD worked on an effective back-up plan without feeling the need to involve or worry either Dr. Balzac or LMW who had both been absent from this November meeting. In relation to these type of issues, Pearl offered an intuitive rationale for this approach post-study by relating that she *“didn’t say”* to the other members who were not present that she *“was worried”* but certainly *“worried about it”* herself and would do her best to find a solution.

Asynchronous channels of communication were predominantly facilitated by email and were observed to increase in frequency starting from mid-October until the end of the study period. This trend appeared natural at a particularly busy period in the academic term which began to converge with timely planning requirements needed to complete the trial project.

Where the synchronous meetings allowed more time in talking through plans and fostering a sense of face-to-face camaraderie, asynchronous communication was utilized as a support channel to keep members engaged and updated on relevant project plans they may have missed. It was also utilized in times of an emergency or when pressing problems were presented to the group. An example was again observed during the November 22nd meeting when Dr. Balzac sent news that the students he had recruited for the workshop had suddenly been required to attend a mandatory accreditation class. In relating the situation, Sara told Pearl that she had “*sent him an email how important this was*” since they had already secured funds and paid for all the workshop arrangements. Dr. Balzac apparently responded quickly via email, reassuring Sara not to worry and that he would “*take care of*” the situation by finding “*some other students*” to recruit for the workshop. Prompt and timely responses via email were observed to strengthen a sense of both trust and inclusivity within the CoP as members were confident that their questions and concerns were being listened to and quickly addressed.

Although findings revealed that organizing synchronous communication was a challenge, there was no evidence that this created any miscommunication or led to any negative implications for the CoP’s mutual engagement. Rather, there was evidence of a collective acceptance to the contextual realities of this CoP and a mutual desire to make things work despite locational limitations. Post-study, Sara shared the following:

I mean we all have very, very busy workloads. And, in particular, Dr. Balzac certainly does, being at [his institution]. So it was always the timing and getting everybody together. Dr. LMW was, you know, like 10 hours behind in time. So it was arranging Skype conferences and making sure that we were keeping everybody in the loop. It was challenging in that regard but that all worked out.

In evaluating how communication channels were steered during the pilot, LMW praised the CoP's organizational leadership efforts at inclusivity by utilizing technology to create a synchronous meeting environment whenever possible. Assuming more of a consultant role within the CoP, LMW felt that she would have felt as if she had just "*parachuted in*" if she was not included in Skype calls and emails throughout the planning process. This was a sentiment that Dr. Balzac shared post-study as he made reference to the "*inviting and respectful approach*" that the CoP's organizational leadership employed in making him "*feel involved and part of the team rather than just being a guest*" throughout the engagement process. A key and emergent finding then was related to the contextual issue of finding an optimal balance that could be leveraged between synchronous and asynchronous communication channels for busy professionals engaged within a CoP.

Shared repertoire. Although the core CoP members were all involved professionally in healthcare education, the CoP itself represented three distinct practices: nursing, medicine, and simulation technology and education. A fundamental element of this interprofessional initiative was the ability of the CoP participants to share their knowledge and special approaches in constructing a collective scholarly product. Findings in this area were gathered through observing the community members as they engaged in activities that were located within each practice. As they engaged in these activities, they were seen to share stories, special terminology, and teaching and learning approaches that contributed to the development of a unique and shared culture.

During one meeting in September, Dr. Balzac extended a special invitation to his fellow CoP members to observe two medical clerkship orientation sessions. Dr. Balzac's personal intention for these sessions was to foster best practices in "*professionalism*" and "*teamwork*" for

his students by appealing to their affective domain of learning. The impetus for this approach was referenced back to a professional epiphany he had interacting with a family that was dealing with a loss. In explaining his pedagogical philosophy to his fellow CoP cohort, Dr. Balzac related, “*I think the students need to see reality. And it’s not a weakness. You’ve got to actually... You’ve got to feel that way, even though you’re involved as a professional*”. His strategy involved implementing a series of active experiential learning approaches and activities that were considered unconventional in a typical medical clerkship orientation context.

There were two pedagogical highlights that occurred during these orientation sessions held at Dr. Balzac’s institution. The first activity involved a balloon passing activity where students were arranged in a circle and given the task to start passing one balloon to each other. This task’s level of difficulty increased as other balloons were gradually added to the circle with the group encouraged to keep all the balloons moving within the group. A key to succeeding in this activity was reinforcing the value of respect in teamwork by addressing cohort members by their names as the balloons were being passed. The second activity was focused on reaching a deeper affective domain through the use of storytelling and music. Dr. Balzac played an excerpt from a symphony by Rachmaninoff as he read through a script that dealt with an emotional exchange between a doctor and a patient. The more dramatic movements from the symphony were timed to coincide with the more emotive content contained in the script. The purpose of this activity was to draw upon a student’s emotions in order to reinforce the concept that feeling was “*not a weakness*” in a professional context and that it should be valued as part of the human experience.

This experience of being allowed to visit and observe Dr. Balzac *in situ* and within his own professional practice, proved to be a very impactful and tacit learning experience for the

CoP members present. Post-study, Pearl related on how she initially considered herself and her other invited colleagues as “outsiders” and observers in this new environment. However, as the orientation session developed, she began to understand how Dr. Balzac “*built community with the students*” and felt a part of this community as he “*introduced*” them to the students and she began to feel “*respected as part of the group*”. Sara described her experience post-study as having the effect of eroding her own stereotypes about medical education practice. Relating the visit from her perspective, Sara shared the following impression:

So when JD and I were invited to Dr. Balzac’s class, I think that was incredibly an aha moment for me, was that I was really surprised at how he taught his students. It was very different from the way medicine typically does educate their medical students – usually in the form of a lecture. Dr. Balzac did so many experiential learning strategies that I was just like dumbfounded. I was in shock at how he approached, how he taught his students.

Elaborating further on her own revelatory incident of learning, Sara explained that she realized that there was a stronger kinship between her and Dr. Balzac as both practitioners valued “*hands-on experiential learning*”. This also reinforced to Sara that Dr. Balzac was “*a really good fit for our group*”.

Dr. Balzac and his professional medical education colleagues were invited in kind for a special nursing symposium presented by LMW at the North American-based nursing HEI. This symposium drew upon LMW’s work in emphasizing the role of conversations and communication in fostering “*love and healing*” within the nursing practice. The title of the presentation was significant in that it was an inspired decision by LMW, Pearl, Sara, and JD during their October 26th meeting via Skype. Making references to a sense of heightened “*creativity*” and “*synergy*” around this planning time, Pearl recollected how CoP core members

“fueled each other” with inspiring ideas that seemed to have a perfect fit to the messages they were trying to convey to a larger audience. In reference to the title, Pearl shared *“When we were trying to come up with a title for LMW’s talk... What’s Love Got To Do With It? And it was like we got all excited-Yes, we like that! And then JD said, ‘Well, I could play the music from Tina Turner’”*.

Being invited to this symposium and learning more about LMW’s work and the deeper elements of nursing practice appeared to have a lasting impression on Dr. Balzac. Reflecting post-study, Dr. Balzac made reference to the *“supportive”* role LMW assumed in sharing her practice with the wider local professional community. In relation to feedback, *“the representatives”* from his own practice that attended the symposium provided, Dr. Balzac mentioned, *“they were warmly taken and saw themselves as being part of a group with a coherent team”*. This aligned with Dr. Balzac’s deeper feeling about his own experience being invited into the nursing practice as he shared that *“there was an inviting and respectful approach to me. So I was made to feel not a guest. I was made to feel involved and be part of the team rather than being a guest, if you like in that sense”*. This sense of being part of the team was edified during the CoP’s presentation at their Middle East Interprofessional Education conference when they included music from LMW’s presentation as background theme music on their collective product.

As another distinctive practice in this IPE initiative, simulation education appeared to have a strong supporting and brokering role between both nursing and medical education practices. During her post-study interview, Pearl reflected that it was precisely Sara’s *“relationships through her simulation world”* that then enhanced the connection between nursing and medicine practice. As such, it was natural and appropriate that the November 28th

workshop was specifically hosted and located within the simulation educational practice environment. As such, both medicine and nursing were invited into a unique environment to bring their IPE initiative into fruition. In her role as Director of the Simulation Centre, Sara contextualized the role of simulation pre-study as being relatively young and emergent in healthcare education. Elaborating further, Sara explained that “*simulation has largely been focused on human patient simulation with the advanced computer technology to run the mannequins, and our students then using a lot of clinical decision-making skills and prioritization*”. As such, she saw simulation education’s role in this initiative in terms of highlighting to students the importance of “*communication, and how each role communicates with another*” within a working healthcare team.

Most of the language referenced in this situated simulation environment throughout this study was technical involving the use of “*standardized patients*” (SPs), sophisticated “*video capture technology*” (B-Line System), “*low*” and “*high fidelity*” simulation, and “*debriefing*” strategies. This was language that became important for the core CoP members to collectively understand in order to appreciate core mechanisms supporting the simulation environment, as well as the efforts and challenges that were occurring within this practice and ultimately making contributions to the broader IPE initiative. One prevalent challenge again references the occasion when the B-Line System experienced a system failure before the workshop. Pearl reflected post-study that she knew it was important to Sara to have “*it all working...because that was her role to support us through the Centre,*” but was also confident that a solution would be found. However, as simulation assumed such a supporting role throughout this initiative, there were elements of practice that were not always readily visible to all CoP members. “*It’s not just simulation education,*” Sara shared “*it’s operational issues, it’s dealing with things behind the*

scenes with vendors, with the procurement officer, like with the finances". Sara pointed to "making sure the SPs received the scenarios in time, were prepared for them" and "that they got paid for the event" as three crucial operational issues she had to manage behind the scenes within her practice that enabled a successful workshop.

During her post-study interview, both LMW and Pearl appeared to learn about the effectiveness of simulation practice through observing the impact on the student participants. Acknowledging the "tremendous amount of work" that was involved in setting up the simulation scenarios, LMW observed the students as being "excited and engaged in the process" and as a result found herself "part of it all" and immersed in the environment. Pearl's reflection on this experience was even more specific in attributing the simulation environment as facilitating a learning experience that "built [student] confidence" and interprofessional understanding. In particular, Pearl observed in the initial stages of the workshop that the medical students did not seem to "realize what the nurses were taught" while "the nurses had a good idea of what the physicians were taught". However, by the end of the workshop, Pearl felt that the medical students demonstrated an enhanced understanding of nursing education and impressed that it was of such a high caliber. Pearl's observation indicated a learning moment where she was able to reconceptualize simulation practice in not only a supporting position but ultimately in a leadership position by being able to broker interprofessional knowledge and relationships. In a broader sense, this acknowledgement implied that simulation was a crucial adhesive element in the CoP that assisted in bringing all three practices together.

Negotiation of practice. As a novel initiative in IPE, the design and engineering of this CoP's enterprise involved making important conceptual decisions to maximize the intended impact and of this project's scholarly integrity. As a strongly cohesive group, the CoP core

members were observed to reach a collective consensus on these decisions throughout the course of their engagement in this pilot initiative. However, key decisions that were negotiated and made throughout the study were also observed to influence emergent leadership trends within the core CoP. Three specific examples of negotiation that were observed involved choosing a conceptual framework for the workshop, planning for operational considerations, and navigating external constraints and challenges.

The choice of a guiding conceptual framework was a central negotiated decision that significantly raised the profile of nursing practice within this interprofessional initiative. During her pre-study interview, Pearl made reference to a seminal Canadian nursing “*Family Assessment Model*” that core community member LMW had designed and developed. Pearl had found it effective and used it frequently in her nursing educational settings to “*build*” student “*interviewing skills*” in an effort to “*facilitate interaction among family*” members in sensitive clinical situations. Pearl and Sara both felt that using the model as a guiding framework and having LMW present during the workshop to facilitate debriefing strategies would be value added for both the nursing and medical student participants.

Although Pearl had mentioned the family assessment model to Dr. Balzac during their initial meeting, it was not until the September 14th meeting that the prospect of adopting the model for use in the study was officially broached. Pearl was observed to humbly advocate the merits of the model and its potential use at several moments throughout the meeting. Although verbally non-committal to any one model, Dr. Balzac was observed to welcome the idea of LMW facilitating the workshop and enthusiastic about participating in this interprofessional collaboration. Towards the end of the meeting Pearl conceded that perhaps it was unnecessary to

“focus on the model,” but “just focus on working together with families around assessment” as a foundational step.

However, as LMW’s involvement with the CoP intensified throughout October and November, the decision to use the model as a guiding framework evolved and was eventually utilized in the workshop. Post-study, Pearl reflected on the significance of Dr. Balzac’s cooperation in agreeing to the use of the model in relation to leadership:

And we used that model. [Dr. Balzac], that’s where I think he really let go. I mean he could have said no, we’re going to use a medical model. But he didn’t. He said, ‘You take the lead on this.’ He was very gracious. Just so gracious and wanted us to get...you know. So he could have said no. And we could have said, okay, we’ll take a little bit from both. But we really wanted to bring [LMW] in because our students, that’s the model they’re taught. So when we brought the medical and the nursing students together, there’s leadership there too. Not one group or the other seemed to take over, even though it was a nursing model. They seemed to share it.

This was a sentiment Sara also shared during her post-study interview as she attributed the success of the initiative in great part to Dr. Balzac’s willingness to allow Pearl to take “*the lead*,” which involved trusting her decisions on methods and approaches to follow. For his part, Dr. Balzac was observed to downplay the significance of his role in making any valued compromises through engaged negotiation. Post-study, Dr. Balzac attributed such engagement as the process where “*the workhouse generation of ideas*” were offered with members being allowed to “*add their expertise without interference*”. Nonetheless, it appeared that the lack of interference within this particular CoP core mechanism was particularly novel in the wider context of nursing and medical collaboration where hierarchical and adversarial relations are often so inherent.

Joint negotiations in the operational aspects of the initiative were also observed and appeared to contribute to the overall resolve and cohesion of the CoP. Key observations of these aspects were made during the September 14th and October 28th meetings, both of which were considered fundamental catalysts in building the logistical blueprint for the pilot. On September 14th, when Pearl began to initiate discussion on potential dates for the workshop, Dr. Balzac was engaged and allowed Pearl to continue replying “*What do you feel is best? Because I’ve got an opinion around it*”. After hearing her ideas, Dr. Balzac brought forward “*3 points*” that served as both caveats and compliments to Pearl’s ideas. These three points related to the difficulty in having the students attend during the weekday, considering the restrictions on students who “*can’t come*” if others were allowed during the weekday, and considering the issue of a non-monetary or graded “*incentive*” for students to participate on the weekend. Ultimately, Dr. Balzac considered that hosting the workshop on the weekend would be “*better logistically*” in ensuring sufficient recruitment. This instance of negotiation resulted in the decision to host the workshop during the weekend and offering students “*gift vouchers*” for their efforts.

Further negotiation during this meeting centred on suitable participant numbers and appropriate gender distribution. Pearl suggested that three participants each from nursing and medicine with Dr. Balzac suggesting that it might be better to add a fourth or fifth member as “*a back-up*”. This proved to be a wise decision as there was in fact one member attrition on the date of the workshop. During negotiations around gender distribution, Pearl had suggested trying to recruit an even “*mix*” to counter the conventional notion that “*those in medicine are male and those in nursing are female*”. This led to an interesting revelation emerging in practice where Dr. Balzac offered that in fact since 2007, every year except one in his medicine program had “*had more females than males*” and that nationals from this Middle Eastern country represented

“30%” making them “*the largest represented country*” enrolled in the program. This information appeared to add more contextual depth to the initiative in relation to breaking down established demographic stereotypes in the fields of both nursing and medicine. Overall, the findings and indicated that the CoP employed best practices in collective negotiations during their workshop plans and that cohesion in this area of engagement had a positive impact on the overall success of their initiative.

Throughout the course of the study, the CoP was also observed to design and develop their practice by adjusting to various external constraints that were often beyond their control. These external constraints at times manifested themselves in the forms of threats to the CoP’s integrity and sovereignty of knowledge. One example was situated around conflicting perceptions of scholarship and how best to engage in it. In the initial stages of the initiative, the CoP had planned to apply for ethics clearance in order to gather data during the first phase of their study and present preliminary findings at the December conference. Discussions moving forward with an ethics submission were referenced throughout the June 10th and September 4th meetings with all members either updating or completing their TCPS 2 Tutorial Course on Research Ethics (CORE) certification.

In early October, this Middle Eastern nation’s “Research Fund” announced new and stricter guidelines on research conducted within their HEIs. As a result, branch campuses were no longer allowed to conduct research with ethics clearance solely granted from their main campuses. Rather, they were now required to have their own internal research ethics boards and processes within their branch campuses. Relating this news to CoP members present at the October 14th meeting, Pearl felt that this “*big bomb*” would now force the group to suddenly “*rethink*” their scholarly approach to this initiative. Based on advice provided from the nursing

HEI's research officer, the group felt that they could continue their initiative under the guise of a "teaching innovation" without collecting any qualitative data from the students. LMW would offer similar advice during the October 28th meeting in framing the project under "practice-based evidence". This would allow the group to disseminate their own reflections based on their experience in running the workshop.

When news of this new direction reached senior leadership at the North American-based nursing HEI branch campus, support for the project was perceived to wane. Nursing members of the CoP had the impression that leadership at their institution felt that rigor and impact would be compromised if the group proceeded without ethics and that it might be better to wait until the proper mechanisms were in place to address the ethics dilemma. Post-study, Sara expressed the feeling that institutional leadership "was very supportive," but nonetheless "really wanted this to be a research project". Elaborating further on the course of core CoP decision-making, Sara pointed to the "time factor involved" in getting "ethics approval in time" and how the group "just decided that, you know what, we'll do this as a teaching innovation".

As a lead on the research part of the project, Pearl recalled post-study that this was a time filled with "enormous pressure" and disappointment since it felt that "there were people from the outside trying to...tell us what to do". Pearl revealed feeling a distinct lack of "support from that higher level of leadership" around this time and a wider feeling of alienation from fellow professional colleagues who "just kind of disregard what you're doing". Although the core CoP were involved in negotiating this new direction, Pearl appeared to take particular onus in making the ultimate decision as she revealed "So we had to sit back and say...And I remember that day because...I talked with Sara...and I said you know what, I'm not [waiting for ethics clearance]. If we do it that way, it won't happen".

The CoP continued upon their negotiated path with the initiative and eventually went through a self-assessed successful first project iteration. JD felt post-study that this allowed promise for a future iteration that would have “*more meat and substance*” with ethics clearance where “*student comments*” could be shared with a wider scholarly audience. Dr. Balzac never revealed any specific thoughts on the implications of changing the course of the initiative for the first iteration. Rather, he appeared more philosophical considering that it was “*important to press*” forward and pursue the wider vision of the project. Referring back to one of the active learning activities he had facilitated with his students when the nursing CoP members were present, Dr. Balzac contended that “*the ball must be kept in the air. Yes. The balloon...If you drop the balloon, the thing goes out*”. Findings over a six-month period concluded that this CoP was able to overcome any external discouragement and was ultimately successful in maintaining the needed momentum required to complete their trial initiative.

Practice summation. The practice of a CoP involves building and sharing “a basic body of knowledge that creates a common foundation, allowing members to work together effectively” (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 38). Although the CoP was observed to be confronted with adversarial threats, key findings indicated that they were able to construct their own unique foundation by developing their resources and negotiating their own approaches through a process of mutual engagement. This, in turn, established a necessary and positive foundation to proceed with further future collaborative iterations in the area of IPE.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I presented the findings of the study through the conceptual lens of Wenger’s framework in relation to the three following CoP framework elements: 1) the domain, 2) the community, and 3) the practice. The construction of an effective domain was found to

rely upon a depth and diversity of professional competence, a shared vision, and a strong level of shared commitment. Community engagement observed the complexity related both to the internal core CoP relationships that were both cohesive and diverse and their relationships with a wider community which influenced a building of networks or the construction of barriers. Finally, the practice element revealed both explicit and tacit learning through mutual engagement, the development of a shared repertoire, and a negotiation of practice. In the next chapter, I will respond to each of the research questions drawing on the data and discussing the findings in relation to relevant literature.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

Introduction

In this chapter, I discuss the findings in relation to the research questions for this study. The three sub-questions that examined leadership represented through the presence of a systems convener, the leadership roles that were distributed, and the related challenges and successes that this community of participants experienced throughout their period of engagement will first be addressed. The chapter concludes with a response to the overarching question on how leadership emerged within a community of practice (CoP) engaged in the development of an interprofessional education (IPE) scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) initiative in a transnational higher education context. This overarching research question is situated within the Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) landscape of practice framework. I have drawn on the data and relevant literature in response to each question.

Systems Conveners

The first sub-question (*How is leadership represented through a community of practice convener?*) addressed leadership representation through a systems convener within a CoP. In relation to CoP “systems conveners” operating within complex landscapes of practice, Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) identified that these individual leaders envision a diverse “social landscape” and “spot opportunities for creating new learning spaces and partnerships that will bring different and often unlikely people together to engage in learning across boundaries” (p. 99). Findings from my case study revealed that Pearl (a Senior Nursing Instructor) ultimately emerged as the lead systems convener within both this CoP and in the broader context of the first iteration of this interprofessional initiative. In this role, Pearl was observed to possess the

prototypical qualities that Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) attributed to CoP systems conveners.

From the beginning of the study, it was evident that Pearl was inspired and driven to move what she regarded as her “*idea*” forward. For example, during her pre-study interview, Pearl made reference to her role as a “*catalyst*” in “*building a community of practice around a common focus of family assessment*”. She also made reference to the “*passion*” she felt in pursuing this opportunity. In this respect, she was observed to be engaged on a personal mission that involved drawing upon her own extensive professional experience with the aim of constructing innovative scholarship. Findings revealed that her fellow core CoP members were confident in her leadership abilities and accepted her as a logical leader for this initiative. Sara (Director of the Simulation Centre) revealed post-study that from the beginning the group had intuitively “*agreed that Pearl would take the lead*” and that Dr. Balzac (Medical doctor and educator) had even “*verbalized that he wanted [Pearl] to take the lead*” since the initiative primarily rested within “*her area of expertise*”. This provided a sense of negotiated and democratic legitimacy to Pearl’s role as a systems convener.

As the nature of this vision involved multiple players from diverse professions, Pearl realized that this was an initiative she would have to manage and share with other professionals. On this level, she realized that she needed support from members belonging to different practices in order to “*build a community*” around her idea. Diversity has been identified in the literature as being a particular challenge to navigate in a CoP convener role (McDonald et al., 2012). However, Pearl was observed to have relied upon her own knowledge and experience in selecting partners who she felt had the required passion, competence, commitment, and integrity

to contribute to the success of the initiative. As a result, the core membership of the CoP appeared to be conducive to Pearl's leadership style.

Pearl's success as a systems convener depended on her ability to actively inspire, engage, and empower the other core members of the CoP. Literature relating to leadership trends in CoP management references a great likelihood of leadership failure if conveners have a propensity towards power domination and micro-management (Cashman et al., 2015; Coenders et al., 2015; Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015). Although never explicitly stated, observations made throughout the study indicated that Pearl seemed successful in avoiding any negative inclinations often related to leadership control and follow best practices in her role as a CoP convener. Such practices included her ability in continually conveying an appreciation for her partners' mutual "*enthusiasm*" and "*respect*" in relation to the level of "*integrity*," and "*commitment*" they jointly placed upon the initiative (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, p. 112). As a result, she was observed to have garnered a great level of confidence and support from her fellow core CoP members.

Pearl was also observed to emerge as what Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) described to be as a type of "maverick at the edge" (p. 113) of her own institution. In this role, she remained committed to both her institution and her unique vision throughout challenging periods that threatened the initiative's success. These trial periods for both Pearl and her core CoP members occurred mainly through external threats ranging from perceived institutional politics to systematic policies and economic changes. Nonetheless, Pearl was observed to instill a collective confidence that the core CoP's initiative would succeed. "*I mean yeah, we got hit...we got punched down a little bit by different things that happened,*" Pearl shared during her post-study interview, "*But then we'd say, okay, give us a day to catch our breath, or a few*

days...And everybody would say just give me a little bit of time just to kind of get collected and then we would go back at it again". This collective resilience seemed to stem directly from Pearl's influence and her ability to remain what Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner describe as being "upbeat and persistent" (p. 115) in the face of challenges.

In her operational role as a convener, Pearl was able to navigate through the "three modes of identification" (imagination, engagement, and alignment) that Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015, pp. 104-109) outlined in conceptualizing a new, and in this context, interprofessional landscape for the CoP. In relation to the imagination mode, Pearl was successful in recruiting members that strongly identified with her vision and essentially played a part in co-creating a collective narrative around this interprofessional initiative. Within the engagement mode, Pearl was able to lead by understanding the strength of diversity in maximizing learning across boundaries within an interprofessional landscape. Finally, Pearl was cognizant of the various levels of alignment required between the core CoP participants and external stakeholders to sustain this trial initiative. These are three modes that were also leveraged by the collective CoP entity and will be explained in more detail when addressing the main research question.

Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) identified conveners as having an inherent "systems view of the landscape" and thus are adept at "forming heterogeneous learning partnerships to transform existing practices or create new practices" (p. 97). They do this most effectively by building a community to serve as an "intervention" in the landscape "in order to transform practice" (p. 97). Possessing passion about pursuing an idea within such a landscape did not ensure Pearl's success as a lead CoP convener. Pearl needed to work at fostering the collaborative atmosphere that proved to inspire, engage, and empower her community

throughout their process of mutual engagement. This is a role that involves resilience and perseverance in the face of adversity. By having an understanding of how to successfully navigate through three modes of identification (imagination, engagement, and alignment), Pearl was able to emerge as a systems convener in having a prevalent influence in the creation of a new and interprofessional practice within her transnational landscape. The next section will address how her community were able to self-regulate themselves through the practice of distributed leadership.

Distributed Leadership

The second sub-question (*How are leadership roles distributed between community of practice participants?*) addressed the manner in which leadership was distributed amongst CoP members throughout their process of engagement. In avoiding rigid and normative comparisons between distributed leadership models, Gronn (2009) called for a more hybrid and integrated approach in offering a more systematic analysis of these leadership configurations. In carefully considering the four prevalent distributed leadership models surveyed in the literature review, findings from this study were considered best presented within the three encompassing modes (spontaneous collaboration, intuitive working relations, and institutionalized practice) of Gronn's (2002) concertive action framework for organizational purposes. My analysis was informed by an integrated approach that included relevant elements from the other three frameworks (Leithwood et al., 2006; MacBeath et al., 2004; Spillane, 2006) and supporting literature where applicable.

Spontaneous collaboration. Gronn (2002) qualified this first mode of concertive action occurring when small groups of “individuals with differing skills and abilities” are able to “pool their expertise and regularize their conduct to solve a problem, after which they may disband” (p.

430). Members of the CoP from my case study were indeed observed to quickly form around the vision Pearl had through a series of splintered “*initial*” and “*informal discussions*”. The nucleus of the CoP was essentially brokered by Sara who seemed to have wider contextual knowledge and understanding of the key players who had converging interests within this transnational landscape. As a result, Sara was instrumental in providing the opportunity and impetus for founding this IPE CoP that united the practices of nursing, medicine, and simulation technology and education. Dr. Balzac added fuel to this formation by informing Pearl that if they “*didn’t work on it [soon], other people were going to*” because it was a “*definite issue*” emerging within their collective landscape.

The subsequent decision to enlist JD (Simulation Technician) and LMW (Professor Emeritus of Nursing) was based on reasons MacBeath et al. (2004) would refer to as being primarily strategic. These strategic considerations involved having an understanding of the required enlistment components that would help to make this initiative a success and also having a knowledge that the individuals being enlisted were able to cohesively collaborate within a CoP structure. JD and LMW both brought with them special skills and depths of experience that were of great value to the initiative and at some levels essential. For example, having a simulation technician in the CoP was considered essential since plans for the project involved the operation of some highly technical equipment. Even though LMW’s enlistment may have added great prestige to the project, the project could have been successfully completed without her direct presence and participation. This was a fact that Pearl herself admitted when LMW’s involvement was threatened due to institutional budget cuts. Pearl was observed to be adamant that the project would still go forward if funding for LMW was withdrawn as she felt she had the required basic experience to lead the November workshop. Nonetheless, LMW’s continued

presence and participation in the CoP added another strong pillar of internal leadership that was utilized strategically and appreciated throughout the engagement process.

Once assembled and organized, the CoP's strength within this mode of spontaneous collaboration appeared to result from their ability to regularize their interactions through strategic meetings and shared activities where they mutually engaged in their collective practices. Findings from my study revealed that as busy professionals, these CoP members were able to engage in their routines by successfully leveraging Spillane's (2006) framework modes related to collaborative (working together in time and space), collective (often working separately but interdependently), and coordinated (working in sequence) leadership distribution. They managed to do this in harmony and with no obvious signs of internal conflict.

Leithwood et al. (2006) offered a list of associated "values and beliefs" (p. 63) that provide support for their spontaneous alignment pattern. Findings from my case study indicated that associated values and beliefs that were considered contextually relevant and present in my case study's context the following:

- Commitment to shared CoP vision and goals;
- Shared trust in CoP member leadership motives;
- Cooperation and shared consensus in moving the CoP initiative forward.

These were values and beliefs that were not only present, but also were contextually strong and as a result contributed to the strength of their collaboration and conjoint leadership.

Intuitive working relations. In relation to intuitive working relations, Gronn (2002) observed that "intuitive understandings are known to emerge over time" between collaborators and that "leadership is manifest in the shared role space encompassed by their partnership" (p. 430). Findings revealed that intuition was well referenced by CoP participants and played a key

role in supporting distributed leadership channels throughout this pilot initiative. As active professionals who were all engaged in hectic weekly work rituals, the CoP participants had an inherent challenge in maintaining regular communication. As a further complication in this interprofessional landscape, two of the five CoP members were physically and institutionally isolated from the other three CoP members. This contextual reality indicated that strong intuitive capacities served as a pre-condition to success in leadership. This locational mapping did indeed appear to have a profound and yet positive influence on the patterns of distributed leadership that were observed to occur throughout this case study. These patterns were observed on both synchronous and asynchronous levels.

Spillane (2006) observed collaborative distribution as occurring when members are engaged in a leadership endeavor together in both time and space. This level of leadership was observed during synchronous strategic meetings and collaborative activities. During the meetings, the CoP members were mainly focused on the broad plans and timelines for the IPE workshop that was scheduled for November. This often involved discussions related to logistics and budgeting concerns. However, the meetings also served as a venue to collectively inspire and at times console the CoP members in adverse times. Pearl referred to these meetings post-study as serving as a type of “*refuge*” where the members were “*constantly...regrouping and reassessing*” and coming up with collective navigational and coping “*strategies*”. As time progressed, stories and metaphors also began to add colour to the CoP’s collective history. Dr. Balzac and LMW were both particularly adept at sharing inspirational stories from their own professional experience that were contextualized and observed to provide comfort to the other group members. These stories became collective reference points for the other members and ultimately wove a narrative for the group.

Collective activities and demonstrations provided important moments where certain member talents and expertise were showcased. The medical classes that Dr. Balzac invited the other members to were moments where leadership was exhibited and found to be inspiring to the other participants. *“When Roger and I were invited to Dr. Balzac’s class, I think that was incredibly an aha moment for me”*, Sara revealed during her post-study interview. Sara added that she *“was really surprised at how he taught his students”* noting that his approaches were *“experiential”* and *“very different from the way medicine typically educates their students”*. Yet, inspiring certain members were at times, there was never a sense that one member became more or less regarded than another. This allowed for members to willingly share the proverbial stage and help support one another at different and crucial times. An example was observed during the morning workshop led by LMW where Dr. Balzac was observed to actively contribute without feeling the need to dominate. *“He did contribute but never had a need to take over or suddenly do it...you know, take over the workshop or participate equally with me,”* shared LMW post-study and adding that this *“really [said] a lot about him as a person in his own comfort with his own knowledge and what we were trying to accomplish”*. Pearl post-study offered a similar assessment in relation to all the CoP members when she offered the following:

I didn’t feel that we were the type of people working together that had to be the stars. I felt that we were all about sharing. I didn’t feel that one person overpowered the other. I mean I think at different times we all had to say, okay, I’ll do this, I have to do that. I think we all took our time, and we had to do that. But we just naturally seemed to respect each other.

These various synchronous and positive interactions experienced by all CoP members seemed to instill and strengthen a sense of mutual trust and respect throughout the engagement process.

Collective distribution occurs when members work separately but still interdependently (Spillane, 2006). Collective distribution was observed in this case study through various asynchronous channels as members took leadership over tasks and issues that fell within their own professional practices. Bennet et al. (2003) observed that “time” and “distance” were two “challenges” to “physically disperse teams” and that “effective communication is essential if such teams are to achieve their goals effectively” (p. 47). Communicating at a distance was somewhat of a contextual reality for these CoP members due to their busy schedules and spatial locations. Observations did not indicate any particular obstacles that distance played in terms of their ability to lead and communicate with one another. In fact, CoP members were observed to have intuitively leveraged communication technology well and appeared to respond to one another quickly and respectfully via Skype, telephone and/or email. CoP members were also observed to have ensured a sense of communal inclusivity by often utilizing the carbon copy (Cc) email function. CoP members’ shared ability and coordination in maintaining high interaction and keeping each other abreast of any developments helped to ensure falling into communication gaps that can contribute to CoP failure (Probst & Borzillo, 2006).

Due to the interprofessional composition of this CoP, leadership through collective distribution was observed to be both effective and efficient. During her post-study interview, Pearl attributed the “smooth” process of leadership distribution to the “*level of experience of the people involved with the project*”. As a result, she observed the nature of leadership shifting and emergence as being largely “*intuitive*” and that members “*didn’t have to explain much to each other*”. Dr. Balzac attributed CoP collective leadership distribution success to the members’ desire to cooperate and having a clear and intuitive understanding of “*their own responsibilities*”. As a result, Dr. Balzac felt that the members “*all had leadership roles in their own way*” and that

“there wasn’t very much overlap” when it came to engaging in tasks. My own observations made throughout the study seemed to validate both Pearl and Dr. Balzac’s leadership assessment in this area as members individually managed challenges that arose within their own practice areas and collectively solved problems that affected the CoP’s shared domain.

The values and beliefs informed from Leithwood et al.’s (2006) framework in relation to intuitive working relations found in this case study were:

- Trusting instincts as the basis for good decision making;
- Cooperation rather than competition in promoting productivity;
- Idealistic beliefs about and trust in the capacities of member’s leadership colleagues;
- Open communication and a commitment to shared organizational goals.

These were values and beliefs that were not only present, but were also contextually strong and as a result contributed to the strength of their collaborated and collective leadership distribution.

Institutionalized practice. Gronn’s (2002) final mode of concertive action focused on institutional mechanisms to formalize collaboration in the form of working groups or committees. This mode has the implication to view leadership as hierarchical in its wider institutional design and yet distributed in operation within the various collaborative groups. Leithwood et al. (2006) compared this to a “planful alignment” (pp. 61-62) to support the management and goals of the institution. As the inherent nature of a CoP is bottom-up and voluntary, alignment in this study was a phenomenon that emanated from the CoP itself. Although this CoP was observed to carefully consider that their actions were institutionally and nationally aligned, there were key situations where what Leithwood et al. (2006) refer to as “spontaneous misalignment” (p. 63) occurred. These situations will be discussed in relation to leadership decisions that contributed to hierarchical and lateral misalignment.

This IPE initiative was identified to be of timely and contextual importance within the CoP's landscape, which had a national mandate in pursuing innovation within an integrated system of education and health care. Findings revealed that Pearl, Sara, and Dr. Balzac were all cognizant of the need to align their efforts with the interests of their respective institutions and the needs of the country within the GCC region in the Middle East where the project was being pursued. They were also all aware of the importance of sharing their efforts and results with a local and wider audience. During her pre-study interview, Pearl spoke about the importance of “*getting the word out*” and that “*the dissemination piece was huge*”. As scholars, they realized the importance of having ethics clearance for collecting data and also realized that appropriate institutional support and funding would be provided if they conducted scholarly ethics-based research on their initiative.

Plans for ethics clearance were abruptly obstructed with the news that they would require an additional institutional internal review process. As this was a process that had not been institutionally implemented, the CoP had to decide whether to proceed with a less impactful and reflective study or wait until the proper processes were institutionally in place. Pearl admitted to taking the lead on this decision as she revealed post-study that she “*just made the decision*” and that she “*took this leadership role because of [her] experience with research*”. This was a decision that led to a degree of spontaneous misalignment with at least the institutional leadership within the North American-based nursing institution. As a result of this decision, findings revealed that the CoP subsequently felt much less supported and that the project was somewhat institutionally marginalized.

Findings revealed that the CoP members also acutely felt a degree of lateral misalignment with their fellow institutional colleagues. One of the key leadership decisions that was made and

may have influenced this misalignment was restricting CoP recruitment and membership to the five core members. Although findings indicated that the CoP was initially open to adding more members and courting external involvement, they incrementally began to withdraw from the wider community in an attempt to protect their initiative. This was a decision that was observed to have been primarily influenced by Pearl, Sara, and Dr. Balzac for short-term and pragmatic reasons. However, mystery around this collaboration was perceived by the CoP core members to have resulted in a series of “covert” and “political obstacles” that were considered potential barriers and threats to the initiative.

In relation to distributed leadership theory, the leadership decisions that were made regarding hierarchical and lateral alignment were identified as involving a degree of “pragmatic distribution” (MacBeath et al., 2006, pp. 37-38). These decisions were heavily influenced by CoP member perceptions about their challenging external conditions such the presence of professional politics and a lack of appropriate institutional processes to support scholarly initiatives. Although the decisions themselves were carefully and contextually considered, they ultimately resulted in spontaneous misalignment. The decisions that were made had an obvious influence on the flavour of relationships between CoP core members and their external peers, and the outcome of the trial initiative. For example, different relationship patterns and outcomes may have existed if the group had decided to include more members and/or waited for until the institutional conditions were ripe to engage in an ethics-based trial cycle.

The values and beliefs that influenced decision-making and resulted in a degree of spontaneous misalignment (Leithwood et al., 2006) identified in my case study were:

- Reflection and dialogue as the basis for decision-making about appropriate approach and sphere of influence;
- Mistrust in the motives and capacities of external agents;
- Over-commitment and focus upon the CoP's domain, but not on the wider concerns of the institution's goals;
- Competition rather than cooperation as the best way to promote productivity within the institution and across the wider transnational landscape.

These were values and beliefs that are contextual features for this single case study.

In summary, trends of distributed leadership observed throughout this single case study were presented above within three modes (spontaneous collaboration, intuitive working relations, and institutionalized practice) related to Gronn's (2002) concertive action framework. Within each mode, an integrated approach was taken in discussing the prevalent findings according to related distributed leadership theoretical models (Leithwood et al., 2006; MacBeath et al., 2006; Spillane, 2006). The next section features a discussion on some of factors that contributed to both the challenges and successes of this CoP initiative.

Challenges

The first part of the final sub-question (*What factors contribute to the challenges of community of practice initiatives in this study's context?*) addressed challenges of community of practice initiatives in this study's context. Although findings indicated that all five CoP core members considered their engagement in this initiative to have been a largely successful and positive experience, there were many factors that were considered to serve as obstacles to CoP leadership throughout the study. Some of these challenges were observed to threaten future CoP sustainability. This section will focus on CoP core member perceptions and key contextual

realities in relation to the challenges that were observed to be present and inherent within their unique landscape throughout their engagement process.

Participant perceptions. Findings consistently indicated that all CoP core members were intrinsically engaged in contributing to the success of this IPE initiative. This was evident in the level of commitment they mutually invested within their CoP throughout their own engagement process. The findings also revealed that on an extrinsic level, a sense of institutional support and respect was an important factor in fueling and maintaining the group's motivation. This was particularly relevant to Pearl who often took the lead in directly appealing for moral and financial support through leadership within her nursing institution. In relation to her experience garnering "*institutional support*", Pearl confided pre-study that the CoP "*needs to feel supported*" and pointed to the fact that "*you can get involved with doing some things but nobody supports you*" and "*then it's hard to do it because you're busy doing other things*".

Findings indicated that institutional leadership was very engaged in helping to support Pearl's vision at least in the early stages of this trial initiative. During these initial stages, there was great momentum and a sense that while institutional leadership was clearly in charge at a higher level, the CoP were provided with enough creative freedom to engage with their initiative. This has been an optimum environmental condition cited in literature relating to a more top-down institutional leadership structure that is active and engaged in fostering learning communities (Hannah & Lester, 2009).

However, Pearl later perceived that institutional support waned when she had made the decision to go through with the trial without ethics coverage. During her post-study interview, Pearl remarked on sensing an "*adverse*" climate and even feeling that leadership might be "*working against*" the CoP due to following this course. Although the findings revealed no clear

evidence to support this perception, the importance of institutional support as a needed ingredient to CoP sustainability has been cited in literature (McDonald et al., 2012) and alignment to institutional mandates has been cited as a strength in sustaining CoP mechanisms (Wenger et al. 2002). The perception that institutional leadership was at times not supportive and was beginning to constrain the CoP's sovereignty over the project was observed to have created disappointment and a questioning of whether the initiative was worth pursuing.

On a more lateral level, the CoP was observed to be motivated in leading institutional culture change in attitudes towards IPE collaboration between nursing and medical educators, and students. Findings indicated that CoP members considered that support and recognition from colleagues was important in terms of contributing to the impact and sustainability of this IPE initiative. Sara made mention during her pre-study interview of the “*need to involve other members*” and remaining “*inclusive...of other healthcare educators and practitioners so that [their work] continues on*”. However, their decision to restrict CoP enlistment to the core five members may have contributed to their feeling of collegial isolation during the process of their engagement. Again, their inability to engage certain members from their wider professional practice led to feelings of disappointment and professional rejection. Pearl made mention post-study that this type of rejection created some “*obstacles*” in influencing a wider community which made the group feel like an “*underdog*” during the process and wonder if all “*this work [was] worth it*” or should they just have said “*to heck with it*”.

In relation to practice alignment, Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) observed that “it is a two-way process of coordinating enterprises, perspectives, interpretations, and contexts so that action has the effects we expect” (p. 21). A degree of misalignment towards hierarchical institutional leadership levels and lateral peer levels was then observed to have

possibly been a result of the decisions that the CoP made itself. Findings in this area appeared to align with Roberts' (2006) stance on the potential limitations of CoP effectiveness in relation to issues of power, trust, and community predispositions that can influence CoP decision-making and ultimately serve as disabling factors. The decisions made by CoP leadership resulted in some challenges that may or may not have been mitigated by cooperating more with the wishes of the institutional leadership and/or allowing for more peer engagement and participation. These were also decisions that may have influenced the extent of their project's prospective impact and longer-term sustainability.

Contextual realities. In addition to facing challenges that were in the group's level of control, there were also three external factors that were beyond the CoP's control. The first factor related to the contextual transnational landscape in the Middle Eastern country within which they were operating. As a somewhat politically and economically volatile area of the world (Romani, 2009), there was always a level of unpredictability present throughout the CoP's trial period. One example captured in the findings was the negative influence economic factors had on this IPE initiative as a result of plunging natural resource prices. Where early into the study there had been more national interest and funding targeted to the health and education sectors, the decline in oil revenue had a dramatic impact on the nation's strategic priorities. Sara commented post-study that *"There's not a lot of money now being put into healthcare here...or education"* and that this *"could have negative implications...for moving [the initiative] forward"*. Pearl illustrated the extent to which this directly impacted her own working environment as she revealed that her staff *"would have to go to meetings about budget and about job cuts"*. This pointed to an emerging contextual misalignment where Sara astutely observed,

“We can have our own vision of what we would like to do, but whether or not the country continues down that road is certainly a conversation for another day”.

A second contextual factor related to the inherently unstable nature of transnational higher education employment and careers (Davidson, 2013; Wilkins et al., 2017). In an education system where the workforce is located in distant and developing countries and where limited contract employment is the norm, the transnational education landscape is inhabited with a somewhat transient workforce even in the best economic circumstances. *“It’s the nature of the work here that as expatriates...you know, it’s contract work,”* Sara shared during her pre-study interview, indicating that none of the core CoP members were planning to professionally remain in this environment indefinitely. In validating this sentiment, two of the four members of this CoP and most of the nursing institution’s branch campus senior leadership members who were living and working within this transnational landscape during the course of this study have already returned to Canada to resume their professional and academic careers.

Finally, a third external factor was related to career instability as a result from contextual transnational realities. Findings indicated that this factor may have contributed to a sense of collegial competition that resulted in perceived negative politics occurring within the landscape. *“I think people are so concerned about survival here. They’re trying to grab as much as they can,”* Pearl reflected post-study in the context of competition. This behaviour existing within the landscape posed a perceived challenge for CoP members in maintaining ownership and leadership of their own initiative.

Pearl attributed some of the lack of collegial *“support”* to a sense of rivalry and jealousy that emerged within the landscape. *“All of a sudden people started coming out of the woodwork that were interested for their own selves. They weren’t interested in supporting us,”* Pearl

confided post-study adding that this situation was a “*unique*” and inherent challenge the CoP faced throughout their initiative within this transnational landscape. However, Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) considered such political positioning as an inherent presence within landscapes of practice where “competing voices and competing claims to knowledge” (p. 16) exist. This observation points to a more universal challenge CoPs have in negotiating politics and power dynamics (Roberts, 2006).

In summary, key challenges that were identified throughout the study were observed through lenses that were both subjective and objective. Operating within the closed confines of their transnational landscape, core community members often shared their challenges and frustrations filtered through their own personal perspectives. These perspectives were often interrelated with the more contextual and external realities that were inherent throughout their landscape. It was important to examine these perspectives in order to determine the extent to which these challenges may have been merely perceived and possibly avoidable or real and tangible. In the first case, some challenges may have been mitigated by some adjustments in approach and practice. In the second case, more coordination with external partners and leadership stakeholders may have been required.

Successes

The final part of the third sub-question (*What factors contributed to the successes of community of practice initiatives in this study’s context?*) addressed contextual factors that contributed to the successes of CoP initiatives in this study. On an obvious and observable level, the CoP were able to successfully follow through with their well-conceived plans of completing their workshop and presenting their preliminary results at their IPE conference in the Middle East. These were successes that were neither predetermined nor to be taken for granted.

However, on a less obvious and observable level, the CoP's greater success was in their intuitive ability to navigate around some prevalent bad practices that Probst and Borzillo (2008) have outlined in surveying twelve unsuccessful CoPs. The underlying leadership practices that influenced the successes of this CoP will be presented in response to Probst and Borzillo's (2008) five "main reasons for failure of CoPs" (lack of a core group, low member interaction, competence rigidity, lack of CoP identification, and practice intangibility) with relevant supporting literature.

Maintenance of a core group. Probst and Borzillo (2006) observed that the lack of collective core group engagement contributed greatly to CoP failure. Findings indicated that this CoP consisted of core members who were actively engaged and willing to participate regularly in strategic meetings. Members were also mutually supportive and attributed "*respect*" and "*trust*" as key "*bonding*" ingredients of their CoP. These ingredients played a crucial role in mitigating any potential internal conflict throughout the course of this initiative.

In reference to the engagement process, Sara shared post-study that "*there was a great bonding that took place*" and that their "*relationships were all enhanced for the better-professional and personal,*" but also admitted that "*it could have gone either way when you don't know each other*". Dr. Balzac cited during his post-study interview that "*compatibility*" and "*good working chemistry*" served as additional ingredients, but also agreed that such a collaboration "*could have been a challenge for another set of people*". As an interprofessional group of highly experienced people, internal conflict was indeed always a possibility, but members were observed to have naturally been good listeners and open to new ideas put forth by members.

In her role as a CoP convener, Pearl was observed to have been successful in cultivating a harmonious community around her vision and fostered an environment where leadership could also be successfully distributed. “*I think we really did build a community together,*” Pearl shared during her post-study interview, “*And I think each of us had our own leadership role*”. This was a sentiment shared by Dr. Balzac during his post-study interview as he shared his observation that CoP members “*all had leadership roles in their own way*” and that the process was successfully facilitated through a “*cohesive team work effort*”. This ability to foster an environment of mutual trust, commitment, and understanding have been referenced as key convening abilities in successfully engaging CoPs comprised of members from different backgrounds and professions (Coenders et al., 2015).

Interaction between members. Findings related to internal cohesive interactions indicated that communication was key in facilitating desired levels of positive interaction amongst CoP members. This involved facilitating and maintaining consistent communication channels between CoP members. Findings related to the practice component of the CoP framework strongly indicated that members were able to maximize engagement both synchronously and asynchronously throughout their period of engagement. Maintaining effective interaction and communication amongst members in professional collaborative groups has been observed to contribute to goal achievement (Bennet et al., 2003) especially with members from different professions (Davison et al., 2013; Probst and Borzillo, 2006).

Integration of competencies. Findings strongly indicated that CoP members were open to new approaches and willing to implement them into their own practices. This was often observed to a process that worked best when mutually negotiated. A prevalent example in the findings was the joint adoption of the nursing family assessment model that was used as a tool in

the November workshop. In this situation, Dr. Balzac trusted the instincts of his nursing colleagues and was receptive to using their chosen model. This example of negotiation involved an ability for group members to adjust their own leadership roles accordingly in order to accept new approaches that were in alignment to the overall success of the initiative. This type of negotiation was evidence that the CoP had firmly entered into what Wenger et al. (2002, p. 82) referred to as a “coalescing” development stage where mutual trust within the CoP was building. This is a stage where a systems convener can provide good internal steering through uniting community members toward collective ways of thinking in order to find a solution to an issue or problem. Success in this situation was determined through the way in which the model was both shared and accepted by collective community.

Identification with CoP. In relation to lacking an identification with a CoP, Probst and Borzillo (2006) qualified that this occurred when “members do not view participation in their CoP as meaningful to their daily work” (p. 343). During the course of this study, the CoP members were observed to maintain consistent mutual engagement throughout their trial trajectory leading up to their simulation teaching and learning workshop. Dr. Balzac attributed this “*willingness*” of all CoP members intrinsically wanting “*to be involved*” to an “*ambiance of creation and teamwork*” that was mutually fostered throughout the trial initiative.

LMW used Dr. Balzac as an example of identifying with the CoP as she made reference to his committed involvement to the CoP and the workshop. “*He was incredibly supportive by getting his students there, by him being present,*” LMW shared during her post-study interview adding, “*you know, he could have said, ‘Well, I won’t attend the workshop, I’ll just send my students’, But the fact that he was there gives the students a powerful message that this is important*”. This collective identification to the CoP in a situated learning environment was

observed to strengthen through practice as individual members made the journey from “novices” to “full members” of the community through engaging in a “pattern or order of activities” that provided a scaffold to their final project (Kempster & Stewart, 2010, p. 209).

These moments of mutual learning strengthened what Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) referred to as “relationships of identification” (p. 21) through a sense of shared engagement, imagination, and alignment. This identification was particularly relevant in this IPE context as it helped members appreciate the presence and co-habitation of other interrelated practices. This enabled the members to understand where their competences converged in achieving a new level of knowledgeability that could be collaboratively constructed.

Tangible practice. Handley et al. (2007) contextualized situated learning environments as those that are involved in active practice and within social settings. During the trial period, CoP members were observed to have developed an enhanced understanding and appreciation of how other member’s professional practices aligned with their own professional practices in such situated learning environments. As a result, members were not only open to learning from each other, but were able to become inspired through mutual engagement. This process drew them closer to fellow CoP members and served to strengthen their understanding of the CoP’s overall tangibility to their own practices.

An example of this understanding was observed when Sara made reference to her own “*aha moment*” from being a guest in Dr. Balzac’s class and observed how he was able to effectively implement “*experiential learning*” strategies into his teaching. “*I was thrilled that he did that kind of teaching*”, Sara reflected during her post-study interview as she previously thought that, “[his approaches were] *very different from the way medicine typically educates their medical students*”. Sara recognized a kinship in approach through her participation in his class

and reflected after her experience that she “*knew he was going to be a really good fit for our group*”. Prior to this experience, Sara had respected Dr. Balzac from an objective stance as an experienced medical practitioner. However, through active participation in his teaching and learning environment, Pearl was drawn closer into his practice and finding alignment with her own practice.

Mutual engagement through immersion into other practices ultimately led to co-constructing a collaborative IPE practice. Moments when members realized the extent to which their practice was tangible with other practices occurred when members engaged in practice boundary exchanges. These moments of authentic cross-disciplinary engagement leveraged diversity through the concept of “boundary encounters” that provided important moments for “unexpected learning” (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, p. 17) and produced visual supports and learning products that could be mutually shared. Due to a lack in shared professional history, these boundary encounters created new opportunities where competencies could be connected. This led to important moments of self-reflective practice where participants had to engage with different professional perspectives. This engagement contributed to the development of new levels of knowledgeability, which seemed to provide inspiration for the CoP community members.

In summary, key successes throughout the study were identified and qualitatively analyzed in relation to the five prevalent CoP failure sources that were reviewed in the literature (Probst & Borzillo, 2006). Successes in avoiding these common CoP failure sources held important implications in mapping the community’s navigation process and knowledge construction through their transnational landscape. Further success was achieved through the members’ collective ability in intuitively following approaches that have been cited in key CoP

and faculty learning community (FLC) literature as enhancing scholarly interest and fostering cross-discipline collaboration (Coenders et al., 2015; Cox, 2004; Davison et al., 2013). The next section will address the main and overarching research question related to CoP leadership emergence within a transnational landscape of practice.

Leadership Emergence in a Landscape of Transnational Practice

The discussion in the above sections focused on the intricate and interpersonal leadership dimensions as they emerged within this CoP through the representation of a systems convener and through the practice of distributed leadership. The challenges and successes that faced CoP leadership throughout the course of this case study were also examined within the context of interpersonal leadership relations. The following discussion addresses the main research question (*How does leadership emerge within an interprofessional community of practice focused on developing and trialing a simulated teaching and learning experience between nursing and medical students in a Middle Eastern transnational HEI context?*) and approaches the wider concept of an interprofessional CoP leadership operating within Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner's (2015) landscape of practice framework and addresses the overarching question on leadership emergence within an interprofessional CoP. In this study's context, the CoP's trajectory through this landscape had an additional dimension of complexity as the interprofessional CoP itself was comprised of the following three distinct practices: nursing education, medical education, and simulation technology and education. This was observed to have had a complex leadership dynamic for the CoP both internally and externally.

The following discussion first defines this study's interprofessional CoP in relation to its own form and its institutional location. The discussion then broadens to explore CoP leadership

emergence and how it was navigated within Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner’s (2015) three key landscape of practice characteristics.

IPE CoP: Identification and landscape location. In identifying and defining communities of practice in higher education, McDonald and Star (2012) referred to a “progression of CoPs from simple to complex and informal to formal” (p. 21) situated W-CoPs as informal and unstructured and M-CoPs as more formal and structured. In the context of my case study, the interprofessional CoP was identified as an “IPE M-CoP” as it was led internally by a systems convener and was cross-institutionally recognized and supported by both the North-American based nursing and medical higher education institutes. As such, it was also embedded cross-institutionally within an overarching state-sponsored hierarchical configuration and in likely competition with other unstructured and structured CoPs. Figure 2 offers a visual depiction of the M-CoP in my case study and its locational placement within this transnational landscape:

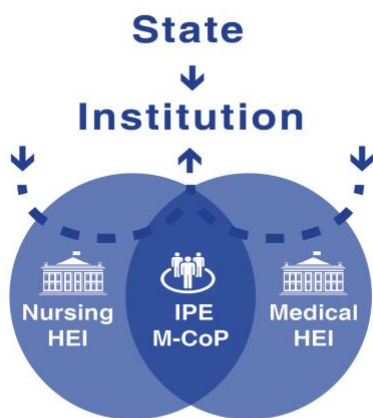


Figure 2. M-CoP Locational Placement

This locational placement informed what McDonald et al. (2012) referred to as the “type and contextual” (p. 22) placement for this particular IPE M-CoP. A feature of this CoP was its

typological positioning amongst organic, nurtured and supported, and created and intentional CoP models. Table 5.5 situates the IPE CoP contextual typology for my study:

Table 5.5

IPE CoP Contextual Typology

Type of CoP	Organic	Nurtured/Supported	Created/Intentional
Structure	_____	Modified bottom-up	_____
Support Level	_____	Minimal institutional funding	_____
Membership	_____	Voluntary/suggested	_____
Themes	_____	_____	Guided issues and interprofessional
Agenda	Self-determined	_____	_____
Timing for Outcomes	_____	Self-determined with some contextual and funding related considerations	_____

Note. Contextually adapted from “Identifying, Building, and Sustaining Leadership Capacity for Communities of Practice in Higher Education” by McDonald et al, 2012, p. 21. Copyright 2012. Adapted with author’s permission.

The locational placement, type, and contextual structure of this IPE M-CoP had direct implications on its leadership and operational capacity in the wider transnational landscape. Although this CoP entity was theoretically free to engage in its IPE vision, it was somewhat restricted by having to be accountable to both the institution and the state. This held some inherent and at times unavoidable areas of conflict in relation to the direction and funding of the initiative between CoP and institutional levels of leadership. Inherent contextual realities of this transnational landscape also had an impact on the potential longevity and sustainability of the initiative. This again related to the general short-term contractual employment situations that are unique features of transnational education (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006).

The discussion above provided an initial contextual location for this study's CoP based on the findings in addition to some operational considerations in relation to its identification within the landscape. The remaining sections will take an integrative approach in illustrating the IPE CoP leadership navigation through their trajectory within the transnational landscape of practice according to the following characteristics: power dynamics, local practice, and practice boundaries.

Power dynamics. The political characteristics in a landscape of practice have been situated in relation to “various practices” that “have differential abilities to influence the landscape through the legitimacy of their discourse, the legal enforcement of their views, or their control over resources” (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, p. 15). An issue that has been germane between nursing and medicine practices is the hierarchical position that medicine has assumed in this relationship (Duffy, 1995). This has often resulted in adversarial relationships and misunderstandings between medical and nursing practitioners (Price, Doucet, & Hall, 2014). A key and impactful finding that resulted from this study was not only was it possible for nursing and medical practitioners to successfully collaborate, but that the nursing practice emerged as a leader in the context of this trial collaboration.

As a vision that was inspired from nursing practice, the role of CoP systems convener was placed upon Pearl. In this role, Pearl was observed to have taken the lead in designing the blueprint and mapping out the timeline for the first cycle of this initiative. The design of the first cycle of this initiative culminated in a workshop that was led and facilitated by members of the nursing practice within a nursing educational institution. This was a fact that LMW again highlighted both in her pre-and post-study interviews observing that the initiative “*was held within the faculty of nursing*” and “*not within the faculty of medicine*” and that this “*punctuated*

the collaboration and flipped the hierarchy upside down". Ultimately, nursing practice emerged in a dominant leadership role over medical practice with simulation practice providing even and steady support in the backdrop.

From the literature in the area of cross-discipline collaboration and leadership has referenced the importance of cooperation and negotiation in avoiding community conflict and fragmentation (Coenders et al., 2015; Davison et al., 2013). As a hierarchy coup, this practice shift in landscape dominance was successfully negotiated mainly due to the collective nature of the leadership practice distribution. Leadership success was not measured solely in practice-centred assertion, but equally measured in selfless compliance for the initiative's greater good. This compliance was never explicitly stated but implied through Dr. Balzac's non-verbal actions as LMW observed:

He's a rare medicine man who enabled... And that really says a lot about him as a person in his own comfort with his own knowledge and what we were trying to accomplish. I really admired that about him - that he didn't have the need to be the leader there. But he could be a participant. He was incredibly supportive by getting his students there, by him being present. You know, he could have said, 'Well, I won't attend the workshop, I'll just send my students.' But the fact that he was there gives the students a powerful message that this is important.

Thus, leadership emerged through an intuitive and professional collaboration expertise and as a delicate balancing act that was brokered from all sides. However, the success of this collaboration was both situated and contextual and highlighted Dr. Balzac's post-study observation that "*we mustn't forget that it can be a challenge*" for a different set of interprofessional actors. This was a view shared by LMW post-study when she shared the

opinion that without this unique core membership she was “*quite confident* [the initiative] *wouldn't have been as successful*”. As a result of a unique core membership that was able to successfully negotiate power dynamics to achieve a larger collective vision, an exemplar of IPE collaboration was achieved.

Local practice. In illustrating “the pervasive power of a hierarchy of knowledge”, Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) offered an anecdote revealed in an “ethnographic study in a hospital” that “when a group of nurses have an idea about what to do about a patient” they would “make sure that it [looked] as though the idea came from the doctor” (p. 16). The broader intent of this anecdote was to illustrate that as “the nurses had their own understanding of the patient” from their professional perspective, “all practices are practices” and that one practice can never colonize another practice within this landscape. A particular strength of this CoP was that the members all respected and recognized each other’s practices as being legitimate and as a result they were able to construct a new interprofessional domain identity that had its own “internal logic and local claim” to its own knowledge.

Although the participating practices within the IPE CoP were never observed to have engaged in internal colonization, external representatives from different practices were perceived to have tried to influence and colonize aspects of the IPE CoP’s decision-making processes. Again, this was observed to occur when the CoP decided to proceed with their initiative without proper research ethics clearance. Institutional leadership within the North American-based nursing HEI attempted to dissuade the CoP from continuing the project without ethics clearance. Pearl recollected post-study that this was a period filled with “*enormous pressure to do* [the project] *another way*”. Nevertheless, the CoP decided to trust their inner instincts and proceed with their chosen course with Pearl assessing that “*when we did it our way, it turned out*

fabulous". Trial periods such as this one seemed to strengthen the CoP's collective identity to lead as a legitimate practice within the landscape.

As three distinct practices formed into a collective IPE CoP, a new collaborative practice was created. This was a practice that began to develop a unique culture with its own internal logic and what Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) referred to as "a local claim to knowledge" (p. 16). An important observation made during this study then was how collective leadership within this IPE CoP was able to resist attempts at colonization within its transnational landscape.

Boundaries of practice. In characterizing the landscape as a place of great diversity, Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) considered boundary encounters between practices as places for "unexpected learning" (p. 17). Boundary encounters that were observed throughout the course of this study involved an internal interplay between the three distinct practice realms within the IPE CoP: nursing, medicine, and simulation technology and education. Findings revealed that these boundary encounters resulted in rich learning experiences for the CoP members that Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) have referred to as constructing reified "learning assets" (p. 18).

Throughout the formation and development of the IPE CoP itself, there were intersected and overlapping boundaries where CoP members would be invited and visit as guests or peripheral members. The three specific occasions when these boundary visits occurred were during the classroom observations at the medical university, the nursing practice symposium that was held at the nursing university, and the IPE workshop that was held within the simulation suites within the nursing university. During these occasions, the visiting CoP members were observed to have been located between the boundaries of their own practice and other

corresponding practices. Figure 3 illustrates the three internal CoP boundary crossing encounter configurations:

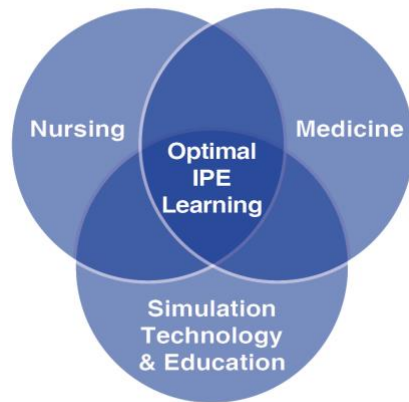


Figure 3. CoP boundary crossing encounters.

Findings revealed that these boundary crossings were situated learning opportunities where participants from other practices were able to capture insightful elements of their corresponding host's practice through a peripheral lens. A particularly impactful example was when Pearl made reference in her post-study interview of the impact her visit to Dr. Balzac's class had on her as she felt "*respected as part of the group*" with the realization that as visitors within another practice she and her colleagues "*were definitely outsiders*". Through her own observations within this class, Pearl remarked on her enhanced level of learning and how she made a connection of how this converged with her own interests and practice:

It was so fascinating because once again we saw [Dr. Balzac's] passion for being creative in his teaching. Because he shared an example of how he combined music with a case study. In our work that we did in our simulation was cases. But I was sitting there thinking, I'm thinking, oh my goodness, we could do something even more creative if we

wanted to do another project. So by continuing and sustaining that engagement among each other, it's like it gives you other ideas to do other projects.

Dr. Balzac expressed similar sentiments after having attended the nursing symposium led by LMW with some of his colleagues from the medical institution. Describing LMW as being “*supportive*” within a welcoming atmosphere, Dr. Balzac related that he and his colleagues were “*warmly taken over and saw themselves as being part of a group with a coherent team*”. Thus, through border encounters such as in this example, future possibilities in producing new learning assets and even new professional relationships were created. This holds very positive implications for the potential sustainability of this IPE CoP.

Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) observed that “Knowledgeability entails translating this complex experience of the landscape, both its practices and their boundaries, into a meaningful moment of service” (p. 23). This involves a depth of competence often involving knowledge in “one or more core practices”. Another important issue that was observed through border crossings was the role and importance of identity and knowledgeability as some of the members had experience within more than one of these practice components. For example, although Sara was currently serving as a Director of Simulation Technology within her institution, she was also a registered nurse. As such, she had knowledge that intersected with both the nursing and simulation technology and education practices. Likewise, LMW had worked closely in both nursing and medicine practices as an educator and as a result was professionally located closer to the boundary between nursing and medicine. Figure 4 illustrates the interprofessional CoP situating the five members according to their practice knowledge orientation:

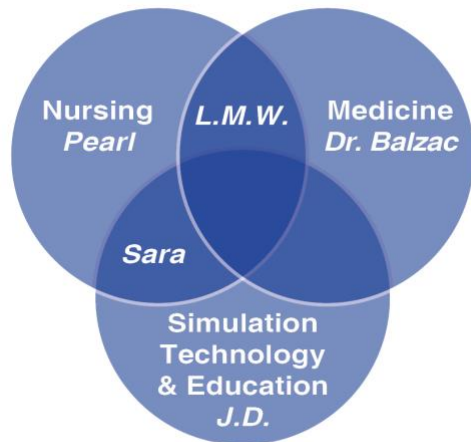


Figure 4. CoP member practice knowledge orientation.

The inclusion of members professionally located between the boundaries of two practices was unique and added a depth of interprofessional understanding. This placed such members in the position of knowledge leaders within the landscape. However, being in this position was also observed to cause moments of dis-identification when certain CoP core members engaged between practice boundaries with agents who were external to the core CoP. An example of this type of identity modulation was observed when Sara expressed frustration with some of her fellow nursing instructors who were resistant to her advice in engaging effectively and economically with simulation education:

When [the nurses] did their hospital simulation, it was an enormous amount of work.

And I knew that we were never going to be able to do this continuously because first of all, it's costly, it's resource-intensive. It's just there's so much work to it. Simulation doesn't have to be that much hard work.

As a leading representative from the simulation technology and education practice, Sara then explained how she would have to suggest alternative classroom approaches that would fulfill the same learning outcomes.

Although Sara felt professionally isolated and dis-identified with her fellow nursing instructors during this boundary encounter, her ability to utilize her knowledge from both practices also held her to be accountable to both practices. However, she ultimately took the stance of aligning more strongly with her simulation education practice. A similar inner-conflict was identified in Kempster and Stewert (2010) where an individual moves from one community and enters another. This results in a process where an individual is observed to be in the process of constructing a new identity. This situation was an important example of how “crossing a boundary” forced Sara to “marginalize aspects” of her own identity as “one context conflict[ed] with claims to competence in another context” (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, p. 25). Expressing knowledge leadership in this situation, however uncomfortable, helped to Sara situate herself in a unique location within this landscape which in turn strengthened her accountability.

Navigating through modes of identification. Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) offered three modes of identification (engagement, imagination, and alignment) as “ways to make sense of both the landscape and our position in it” (p. 21). These are three modes that can foster identification and dis-identification both within practices and across boundaries within the landscape. In summary, findings indicated that this IPE CoP navigated through these modes in tandem and on multiple layers throughout the course of the study. Through engagement, the core CoP were found to build an identity by engaging in their mutually constructed IPE practice. At times, however, they were found to dis-identify with colleagues within their own practices and at higher institutional levels due to a reluctance to engage beyond their CoP domain. They identified strongly with a belief in their own vision, but at times dis-identified with external agents who were not able to use their imagination to share in the value of this vision. Finally,

they were able to locate themselves within the landscape at times when they found their imagination aligned with institutional and national visions, but dis-identified with this landscape when they felt misaligned from the wider context of the landscape.

Summary and Conclusion

In this chapter, I have addressed each of the questions that guided my inquiry that explored the emergence of leadership as represented through the presence of a systems convener and through the practice of distributed leadership. Related challenges that this community of participants experienced throughout their period of engagement were then explored through community members' perceptions and the wider transnational contextual realities inherent in this landscape. A discussion on community successes was provided in relation to overcoming standard caveats that pose a failure risk for CoPs. The chapter finally concluded by responding to the overarching question on how leadership emerged within a CoP engaged in the development of an IPE SoTL-based initiative in a transnational higher education context. In answering my research question, the CoP was seen to be exposed to a landscape with implications related to politics, localized practice, and diversity. This had a formative impact on how the CoP was able to navigate through the three modes of identification in making sense of their location within this landscape.

Chapter six provides a summary of key findings with related implications in the area of educational leadership. Recommended areas for future research that emerged throughout the process of this study will then be presented in the hope of contributing further scholarship in relation to CoP leadership capacity.

CHAPTER SIX: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

This final chapter brings closure to the dissertation and will begin with a brief summary of prevalent findings in relation to the research question. As part of the chapter, I discuss implications of practice from the following three perspectives on leadership support in a transnational context: the institution, the faculty, and educational development. Personal reflections on successes and challenges within the contextual parameters of this single case study will then be shared. The chapter concludes by providing some future directions for research in the area of fostering leadership in communities of practice within a transnational landscape of practice.

Summary of Findings

This single case study traced leadership trends that emerged throughout the engagement process of a community of practice (CoP) united in transforming practice through an interprofessional education (IPE) scholarly initiative within a transnational landscape. The literature informed the study, which contends that leadership represented by both a systems convener (Cashman et al., 2015; Coenders et al., 2015; Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015) and a strong internal distributed leadership network (Bennett et al., 2003; Davison et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2013) within a CoP is integral in fostering the necessary supporting structure to make such initiatives impactful and sustainable. The systems convener identified in this study emerged as a visionary who built a community around an idea by inspiring, engaging, and empowering her fellow CoP core members. The presence of a strong internal distributed leadership was identified as having emerged through a process of spontaneous collaboration and by engaging with one another in relative alignment to accepted institutional practices that were

informed by strategic priorities set within their locational context in the Arabian Gulf region. The presence of both an effective leadership steward and a community that was self-regulated and self-facilitated through an integrated distributed leadership model contributed to the overall strength and success of this CoP in achieving their collective vision. It also greatly assisted this CoP in navigating through the ostensible challenges it faced as a collective entity throughout its trajectory within its unique transnational landscape.

Situating the operational location of this CoP in reference to literature (McDonald et. al, 2012) as a “modified community of practice” (M-CoP) held certain implications on institutional supports needed to empower an influential learning community. If the vision of an M-CoP is in alignment with its broader institutional vision, then the institution stands to gain on implementing appropriate supporting mechanisms to help support scalable and impactful change. The presence of appropriate educational leadership supports and incentives also helps in creating a culture that fosters innovation in areas of teaching and learning scholarship that assists in enhancing student learning outcomes. With such supports, faculty and staff can feel empowered and encouraged to engage in endeavors that ultimately help institutions become sustainable and emerge as leaders within the landscape.

Implications for Practice

Implications for practice are examined from the following three perspective levels: the institution, educational development, and faculty and academic support staff.

The institution. The literature reviewed cited financial, reputational, and academic goals as key drivers in relation to engagement in transnational branch campus establishment (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2009; Shams & Huisman, 2012; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). These are key drivers that were in no way found to be mutually exclusive with variables that affected one

driver inevitably having an impact on the other two in this transnational landscape. In relation to academic goals in the context of higher education institutions (HEIs), Shams and Huisman (2012) stressed that “teaching [the curriculum] and research are the core activities of an HEI, and the quality of these services largely depends on the quality of staff” (p. 110). This implies that a transnational branch campus’s financial capital and reputation can benefit from investment that promotes and supports the concepts of educational development and educational leadership that is aimed at enhancing student learning standards and disseminating results to a wider scholarly audience.

Literature that has addressed ways forward in institutional leadership support for learning community formation and development has made recommendations including the assurance of an optimum level of creative freedom to ensuring participant acknowledgement and recognition (Hannah & Lester, 2009; Jakovljevic et al., 2013; McDonald et al., 2012). Transnational institutional leadership needs to make efforts in recognizing the potential impact of faculty- and staff-based CoPs in leading a transformation of practice that has a positive influence on teaching and learning culture within an institution. From the literature, higher educational institutions have made gains in encouraging more organic peer-led professional communities in the area of developing teaching and learning innovations in preference to more traditional hierarchical inspired leadership practices (Beach & Cox, 2009; Cox, 2004; Davison et al., 2013; McDonald et al., 2012). These benefits have included enhanced professional and career development, which can lead to a sense of faculty and staff empowerment.

Institutional recognition of SoTL as a valued and legitimate source of scholarship also needs to be embraced by leadership in trying to encourage more pedagogical innovation in transnational contexts. In order for this type of support to be effective, it needs to be formally

integrated within an institution. This involves an institution to become more informed about the positive impact of SoTL in changing a culture that focuses more closely on enhancing teaching and learning. Awareness in this area involves keeping abreast on the latest developments and theoretical frameworks emerging from the SoTL field and how it may be applied to situated institutional contexts. As an example, Miller-Young et al., (2017) developed a SoTL leadership framework that was contextualized to their “institution’s particular cultures, policies, procedures, values, attitudes, and norms, both explicit and tacit” (p. 3). The framework integrates both macro-level institutional supports and the emergent nature of its teacher and learner-based micro-cultures. This type of framework may find contextual application alignment in transnational settings in terms of building a more empowered SoTL culture that influences institutional supports.

Once a culture conducive to collaborative learning and SoTL research is established, adequate institutional infrastructural mechanisms need to be in place to support and facilitate the generation and development of these scholarly innovations. Transnational higher education institutions (HEIs) need to be proactive in being both socially and culturally aware of their host country’s expectations and processes. This involves maintaining current knowledge on such processes as national research ethics standards and ensuring clarity around these processes. This would likely involve a degree of communication and coordination with appropriate knowledge sources within transnational HEI hosting countries in further enabling faculty and staff to successfully pursue their own scholarly initiatives.

Educational development. Kenny et al. (2007) situated educational development involved at “multiple levels” and engaging with a complex mixture of frontline “players” and “stakeholders” (p. 1). The emergence of educational development’s more established and

integrated role in HEIs has raised its profile and range of influence. In achieving more traction in this influential role, Kenny et al. (2007) has called for more scholarly outputs in the areas of the scholarship of educational development (SoED). Outputs in this area are considered to be effective in a two-fold capacity by bringing attention to both educational development and SoTL practice. In this capacity, educational developers can play an instrumental role in persuading institutional leaders to develop active strategies in engaging more faculty members to engage in collaborative SoTL-based research.

An example of some foundational SoED scholarship has already been identified in a transnational context. Looking from a SoED lens, Ryba and Johnson (2015) highlighted the important implications SoTL had on locating their teaching and learning centre as a valuable supporting mechanism for faculty in their transnational branch campus context. In this regard, teaching and learning centres and their associated faculty/staff who often work under the title of “Educational Developers” position themselves in crucial roles for providing faculty with opportunities to engage in SoTL-based research. Ryba and Johnson (2015) brought attention to the role that HEI-based educational development centres can play in fostering community around SoTL and offering opportunities for it to flourish institutionally. Some key areas where centres were found effective in providing sustainable leadership were in promoting and supporting institutional CoPs, providing programs to instigate and acknowledge SoTL-based initiatives, and serving as brokers between faculty and institutional leadership in securing more institutional supports for faculty.

CoPs have been identified as effective collaborative learning organizations that empower faculty through lateral distributed leadership, which align well with interdisciplinary scholarly initiatives (Davison et al., 2014). As such, cultivating CoPs within transnational HEIs can create

a positive institutional culture change that can encourage more interdisciplinary interest in teaching and learning. Educational developers serving within educational development centres can take a leading role in helping to coordinate and establish venues for faculty to collectively discuss and engage in potential scholarly teaching and learning initiatives. Educational developers can also take a lead role in facilitating the development of these learning communities and ensuring that best practices in collaborative scholarly SoTL-based research are observed to lessen potential inter-institutional conflict that can arise from perceived professional jealousy and competition.

Educational development centres can also be instrumental in designing programs and creating opportunities to showcase faculty SoTL initiatives. Hubbell and Burt (2006) reported increased faculty engagement through a CTL's work in developing a SoTL faculty certificate program aimed at enhancing theory-practice integration. In implementing a SoTL-based certificate program within their own transnational institution, Ryba and Johnson (2015) were able to provide the foundations for faculty to collaborate on research initiatives that resulted in twenty faculty members showcasing their projects at an institutional teaching and learning conference. In order to effectively implement and sustain such programs, Hubbell and Burt (2006) provided educational developers with a ready framework that encourages continual iterative program development and evaluation strategies. This framework can serve as a helpful foundational reference for transnational educational development centres located within branch campuses that tend to be earlier in their institutional development stages than their western-based main campuses.

Building sustainable micro-culture community support is most effectively achieved through transparent macro-institutional policies (Miller-Young et al, 2017). In a transnational

context, this involves communication and negotiation between educational developers and their institutional leaders on defining the appropriate institutional parameters of SoTL and how this aligns to the wider interests of the host country. Helping to create such alignment patterns optimizes the institutional effectiveness and impact of CoPs and their research (Wenger et al., 2002).

Faculty and academic support staff. The assembly of HEI-based faculty and staff members into a CoP have been known to range in conception from a bottom-up and organic style to a form that is more institutionally mandated. However, literature has identified that CoP success and capacity in HEI contexts has been found to greatly benefit from a measure of institutional support (Jakovljevic et al., 2013). Beyond funding, such institutional leadership support has involved promoting and acknowledging the merits of CoPs operating within an institution. Nonetheless, there is a delicate balancing act involved in ensuring that CoPs have the right measure of support and liberty to maintain their creative edge within an institution. As a result, CoPs located at a modified mid-point (M-CoP) have been inherently characterized as having a degree of ideological autonomy that is often balanced by both institutional and wider contextual realities (McDonald et al, 2012). Despite some challenges and restrictions, these M-CoPs are often well situated in having a required level of support to navigate through landscapes where power dynamics exist between various and distinct local practices. An M-CoP's own survival within this landscape depends on strong internal community mechanisms can ensure leadership capacity through the presence of a capable systems convener and well integrated distributed leadership network.

In order to inspire the creation of a CoP, a prospective systems convener needs to have a vision that they can communicate to their community. These community catalysts can only

become effective when their vision is fueled with passion but tempered with the contextual realities inherent within their landscape. Such realities are often experienced by having a breadth of creative freedom that is somewhat constrained by a top-down institutional leadership structure (Hannah & Lester, 2009). This situation should not be viewed as a compromise, but rather a contextual precondition that requires proper care and management. A convener's ability to inspire, engage, and empower a community within this context depends largely upon their own inherent qualities and attributes. This involves the perseverance to move a community ahead while sincerely believing that all members need to be valued and respected for their contributions to the collective CoP narrative throughout the engagement process.

A CoP's level of self-determination and ultimate success depends heavily on their ability to successfully distribute leadership amongst members in an effort to achieve their shared vision. This involves many levels of intuitive understandings that develop through a community's sense of shared trust in their collective cooperation, motives, and decision-making abilities. Collective CoP attributes that strengthen a collective CoP identity involve a distributed effort in fostering a sense of mutual respect, ensuring inclusivity, and facilitating consistent communication channels amongst group members. An underlying foundation involves the presence of community members who individually possess a high level of professional competence and an ability to mutually recognize and appreciate the expertise of their fellow core CoP participants. Without having this required and collective competence to socially construct a cohesive domain, the successful conditions for facilitating distributed leadership channels are greatly compromised.

In summary, implications to the above perspectives related to the institution, educational development, and faculty and academic support staff indicate that context plays a crucial factor in considerations and recommendations in managing CoP leadership concerns within a

transnational landscape. The next section will now focus on some prevalent successes and challenges that I had managing my own research process within this unique landscape.

Successes and Challenges

This section offers a reflection on some of the prevalent successes and challenges that I encountered as a researcher. This was the first time I had applied a case study approach to systematic research, I considered myself a novice in relation to this methodology. Nonetheless, I also considered myself well informed through the amount of preparatory research reading that I had invested prior to my data collection and made an attempt to build upon this knowledge as I went through the research process. As a result, I was able to approach this qualitative-based study with an appropriate level of rigor and integrity.

Case study successes. I was initially drawn to conducting research on a CoP engaged in collaborative scholarly research through my own past professional success in participating in collaborative research. As my own career path had led me into a position as an educational developer within a Center for Teaching and Learning, I was intrinsically interested in learning more about how to support faculty-based CoPs within an HEI context and the leadership implications that emerged through observing this emergent phenomenon. During the initial recruitment phase, I felt fortunate to have identified a colleague who was in the early processes of trying to assemble such a group and was willing to engage with my research. This early success provided me with the rare potential opportunity to observe a complete iteration of an IPE CoP from its inception to the end of its first negotiated iterative cycle. This allowed for what I considered to be a neatly bounded and sufficient six-month window to collect data and report my findings.

I also felt privileged to have access to a group of busy professionals throughout the course of this case study. The five members were gracious in allowing their time to engage in lengthy pre- and post-study interviews and provided me with rare access to collect data during their strategic planning meetings. Most members also accommodated my request to engage in member checks, which I feel greatly added to the integrity of my research findings. Although this was a time-consuming endeavor, this procedure offered members with an opportunity to clarify any statements made during the interviews and observations.

Considering the relatively small sample size and the relatively constrained time for data collection, I was anxious about the amount and depth of data that I would be able to collect. I was very pleased to find that I had attained a sufficient and rich quantity of data to code and analyze. All of the participants appeared to treat my interview questions seriously and contributed deep insights into their own practices. They also freely contributed deep and revealing perceptions of what they were experiencing throughout the process of their engaged collaboration. As they did this with much grace and candor, I feel they were able to greatly contribute to the enlightening narrative that emerged throughout this research.

Case study challenges. One of the main challenges I experienced during the course of my research related to a conflict between my professional position, as an educational developer within one of the institutions that was represented in this study, and maintaining my position as an objective and unbiased case study researcher. As an institutional educational developer with a substantial amount of experience in experiential pedagogy, I was routinely asked by my research subjects for my opinions regarding their methods and general approaches to their own study. Although it was tempting to start feeling as part of the team, I had to remind myself and my research subjects about the need to maintain my neutral role in this research and refrain from

making any specific recommendations or contributions that would positively or negatively influence the course of this study. I was ultimately able to maintain my role as a neutral observer and that my research subjects were respectful and supportive of my position.

As the research began, I became acutely aware of the amount of risk involved in this type of study. Since my focus was on one small group of five busy professional individuals assembled together as a CoP, I felt that any member attrition would have minimized the size and impact of my data. An even greater risk was focused on external threats to the project itself. These were threats that could have ultimately derailed the project or at the very least significantly delayed the project's timeline. There were two situations during the study when these existential threats arose. The first situation was when the CoP discovered that they were unable to obtain ethics clearance for their project. At that time, the group seemed to be heavily persuaded by institutional leadership to stop work on their project until they were able to receive ethics clearance. The second situation occurred when the medical students that Dr. Balzac secured were unable to participate in the workshop due to a sudden conflict that arose. As a doctoral student, I had my own timelines to consider and any potential delays or derailments due to sudden obstacles would have had a severely negative impact on the progress of my own research. Thus, considering the professional location of my research subjects, the sample size, and the context, this study held some great inherent risks.

A final challenge was securing time for the fairly lengthy pre- and post-study interviews. Although the research participants were very generous with their time and supportive of my research, their demanding schedules had a negative impact on their availability. This became a particular concern with one member during the final round of post-study interviews. Unable to secure a time for this one interview, I was anxious that my data would be incomplete and be

vulnerable to a lack of thoroughness and integrity. Fortunately, I was able to secure this last post-study interview within the latter period of my study's timeline. As a result, I was able to collect sufficient data that appropriately bounded my study despite this logistical challenge.

Future Research

This section will focus on three areas of future research in the areas of leadership emergence during CoP engagement in teaching and learning initiatives. These areas represent a research opportunity that currently exists and is being pursued by the participants of this study, and two additional possibilities that could be explored.

Educational development and educational leadership. Subsequent to my case study in 2015, the CoP participants involved in this research were awarded a teaching and learning scholarship grant to engage in another iteration of their IPE initiative. This second opportunity will finally allow the CoP to engage in an ethics-based study where they will be able to collect and analyze their data. This action research qualitative-based study will take a similar approach as the first iteration and will focus on the following research question:

- How can our teaching approaches best support interprofessional experiences that facilitate nursing and medical student learning related to their future roles as health care practitioners with families?

The CoP has invited me to become a more active participant in this second iteration. Having this opportunity to actively engage and plan intervention strategies, I would plan to take a Scholarship of Educational Development (SoED) approach in investigating the role of educational development in fostering collaborative faculty-based educational leadership. The rationale for this approach is timely and has been considered for the following contextual reasons:

- The IPE CoP is still active in a collaborative SoTL-based initiative;
- There is currently a call for more research in determining how SoTL/SoED “continue to shape the practice of educational development” (Kenny et al., 2017, p.12);
- There is a call for more research on educational development and faculty-based leadership in transnational branch campus contexts (Johnson & Ryba, 2015).

This is a study that could be informed by both Felton’s (2013) principles of SoTL framework and Kenny et al.’s (2017) seven-principles of SoED framework in helping to answer:

- How does educational development foster and facilitate educational leadership for a CoP engaged in a SoTL-based initiative within a transnational branch campus landscape?

Such a study could implement an action research methodology to capture the more reflective and qualitative components from an educational developer’s perspective.

Cognitive proximity. Hautala (2011) observed, “Cognitive proximity (CP) is one dimension of proximity, along with geographical proximity, which facilitates learning and knowledge creation” (p. 601). Past research focused in the area of CP has examined the optimal cognitive distance (CD) needed to create new knowledge with members represented from different knowledge bases. This is research that would align well with and could be applied to a similar IPE CoP within a transnational context for the following reasons:

- An IPE CoP includes members with different knowledge bases;
- There is a call for studying CP as a process and at a collaborative group level (Hautala, 2011);
- CP has been identified as an area of interest in the field of knowledge management;
- Leadership in the area of achieving optimal CP within interdisciplinary groups has been identified as an area of interest;

- There has been a dearth of literature addressing these issues in a transnational higher education context.

Based upon these current observations, a possible approach to future research might build upon suggestions put forth by Hautala (2011). Possible research questions in a situated context could be framed as follows:

- How does an interprofessional community of practice in a transnational landscape become cognitively more proximate or maintain their distance?
- How does leadership emerge within a community of practice during the cognitive proximity process?

Previous studies (Heringa et al., 2014; Huber, 2011) have employed a mixed methods approach utilizing surveys and likert scales to collect quantitative data as a base for more qualitative exploration. The benefit of this approach would be to possibly widen the sample pool which might allow for a more comprehensive multi-site study with comparative data on spatial interactive relationship contrasts between different CoPs. This approach may assist in obtaining results that are more transformative and theory building.

Value creation. Value creation in CoP literature is not a new concept and has already been referenced in Wenger's (1998) earlier work, later developed as a formal evaluative framework in Wenger (2011) and operationalized in Booth and Kellogg (2015). This would be an area of interest within transnational higher educational contexts where a considerable amount of funding and resources continue to be invested. Research focused on the applied value (cycle 3 of Wenger et al.'s, 2011 evaluative framework) of a future IPE project iteration with the same IPE CoP observed in my study could make use from any lessons learned through this first

iteration where a foundation of “knowledge capital” (p. 20) was produced. Current contextual features which makes this research timely are as follows:

- The IPE CoP from my study are actively planning for a second iteration;
- CoP conveners and members benefit from learning how their efforts contribute to maximize value creation;
- Institutional leaders learn more about how CoPs contribute to an institution’s value creation and how to better support their initiatives;
- There is a call for more research-based value creation stories;
- There is presently a dearth of research-based value creation stories in a transnational branch campus context.

A study could examine CoP leadership implications based on the following research question:

- What changes in innovation were achieved through the leveraging of IPE CoP knowledge capital created during the initiative’s first cycle phase when applied to the initiative’s second cycle phase?

Assessment research related to this second cycle would involve closely exploring any changes in practice that may have occurred as a result of an earlier cycle of research. In this context, I would propose to use relevant qualitative reflective data collected from the first cycle phase in my study as a baseline in measuring any further innovations in practice that occur throughout a second iterative cycle with the same IPE CoP.

Conclusion

The intention of my research was to contribute to the growing literature on leadership issues in the area of communities of practice in higher education. This is an area that is itself emerging as more educators are choosing to engage in scholarly collaboration in response to

increased workloads and research demands. An additional contextual contribution is that this study was situated within a transnational higher education landscape. This is the first identified study of its kind that has been approached in such a context. As increasingly more efforts are being made by transnational branch campuses to recruit educators (Wilkins et al., 2017), a call for more research involving social learning collaborations within this landscape is encouraged.

During one of my final post-interviews, I asked the question about “elements of community culture” that may have been “recognized or represented” within the community throughout the engagement process. Expecting some expansive and thought-provoking reflections from this probe, I was disappointed to receive the answer that “*There didn’t seem anything extraordinary*”. As a researcher, this response plagued me for months until one day walking along a corniche by the Persian Gulf, I realized that perhaps an extraordinary element of the community’s engagement from a researcher’s perspective is that it did not seem extraordinary to the community members themselves. This community intuitively found an optimal balance where their leadership could thrive within their unique transnational landscape in this situated context. From this study, it is hoped that lessons learned will inform prospective community catalysts in fostering and leading a community of practice as part of educational development within a transnational higher educational institution.

REFERENCES

- Adams, P. (2009). The role of scholarship of teaching in faculty development: exploring an inquiry-based model. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 3(1), 1-22.
- Allal, L. (2001). Situated cognition and learning: From conceptual frameworks to classroom investigations. *Schweizerische Zeitschrift für Bildungswissenschaften*, 23(3), 407-422.
- Allen, J. F. (2014). Investigating transnational collaboration of faculty development and learning: An argument for making learning culturally relevant. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 8(2), 17.
- Allen, M. N. & Field, P. A. (2005). Scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching: noting the difference. *International Journal of Nursing Education Scholarship*, 2(1), 1-14.
- Altbach, P. G. (2010). Why branch campuses may be unsustainable. *International Higher Education*, 58(2), 2-3.
- Amin, A., & Roberts, J. (2008). Knowing in action: Beyond communities of practice. *Research policy*, 37(2), 353-369.
- Amundsen, C., & Wilson, M. (2012). Are we asking the right questions? A conceptual review of the educational development literature in higher education. *Review of educational research*, 82(1), 90-126.
- Anderson, J. R., Reder, L. M., & Simon, H. A. (1996). Situated learning and education. *Educational researcher*, 25(4), 5-11.

- Arrowood, R. J., & Hitch, L. (2016). The centrality of the faculty role in transnational partnerships: a research agenda. In *University Partnerships for Academic Programs and Professional Development* (pp. 39-54). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- B-Line Medical. (2015). Retrieved from <http://www.blinemedical.com/>.
- Barr, H. (2002). *Interprofessional education*. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The qualitative report*, 13(4), 544-559.
- Beach, A. L., & Cox, M. D. (2009). The impact of faculty learning communities on teaching and learning. *Learning Communities Journal*, 1(1), 7-27.
- Becker, R. F. J. (2009). International branch campuses: New trends and directions. *International Higher Education*, 58, 3-4.
- Beerkens, E. (2003). Globalisation and Higher Education research. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 7(2), 128- 148. doi: 10.1177/1028315303007002002
- Bennett, N., Wise, C., Woods, P., & Harvey, J. A. (2003). *Distributed leadership: Full report*. Nottingham,, UK: National College for School Leadership.
- Berg, B. L. (2001). *Qualitative research methods for the social science* (4th ed.). London: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bergman, J. Z., Rentsch, J. R., Small, E. E., Davenport, S. W., & Bergman, S. M. (2012). The shared leadership process in decision-making teams. *The Journal of social psychology*, 152(1), 17-42.
- Bolden, R., Petrov, G., & Gosling, J. (2009). Distributed leadership in higher education rhetoric and reality. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 37(2), 257-277.

- Booth, S. E., & Kellogg, S. B. (2015). Value creation in online communities for educators. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 46(4), 684-698.
- Bowden, R. G. (2007). "Scholarship Reconsidered": Reconsidered. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 7(2), 1-21.
- Boyer, E. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate*. Princeton: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
- Brandi, U., & Elkjaer, B. (2011). Organizational learning viewed from a social learning perspective. In M. Esterby-Smith and M.A. Lyles (Eds.) *Handbook of organizational learning and knowledge management* (2nd ed.), 2, 23-41.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1994). Ecological models of human development (Vol.3). *International Encyclopedia of Education*.
- Brown, J. S., Collins, A., & Duguid, P. (1989). Situated cognition and the culture of learning. *Educational researcher*, 18(1), 32-42.
- Brown, J. S., & Duguid, P. (1991). Organizational learning and communities-of-practice: Toward a unified view of working, learning, and innovation. *Organization science*, 2(1), 40-57.
- Buring, S. M., Bhushan, A., Broeseker, A., Conway, S., Duncan-Hewitt, W., Hansen, L., & Westberg, S. (2009). Interprofessional education: definitions, student competencies, and guidelines for implementation. *American journal of pharmaceutical education*, 73(4), 59.
- Cash, P. A., & Tate, B. (2012). Fostering Scholarship Capacity: The Experience of Nurse Educators. *Canadian Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 3(1), 1-19.

- Cashman, J., Linehan, P. C., Rosser, M., Wenger-Trayner, E., & Wenger-Trayner, B. (2014). The IDEA Partnership. *Learning in Landscapes of Practice: Boundaries, Identity, and Knowledgeability in Practice-based Learning*, 132.
- Chick, N. L. (2014). 'Methodologically Sound' Under the 'Big Tent': An Ongoing Conversation. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 8(2), 1.
- Cobb, P., & Bowers, J. (1999). Cognitive and situated learning perspectives in theory and practice. *Educational researcher*, 28(2), 4-15.
- Coenders, Marc, Robert Bood, Beverly Wenger-Trayner, and Etienne Wenger-Trayner. "Convening stakeholders to reinvent spatial planning." *Learning in Landscapes of Practice: Boundaries, Identity, and Knowledgeability in Practice-based Learning* (2014): 119.
- Contu, A., & Willmott, H. (2003). Re-embedding situatedness: The importance of power relations in learning theory. *Organization science*, 14(3), 283-296.
- Cox, M. D. (2003). Fostering the scholarship of teaching and learning through faculty learning communities. *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching*, 14(2/3), 161-198.
- Cox, M. D. (2004). Introduction to faculty learning communities. *New directions for teaching and learning*, 2004(97), 5-23.
- Cox, M.D. (2006). Phases in the development of a change model: Communities of practice as change agents in higher education. In A. Bromage, L. Hunt, & C.B. Tomkinson (Eds.), *The realities of educational change: Interventions to promote learning and teaching in higher education* (pp. 91-100). Oxford, UK: Routledge.

- Cox, M.D. (2009). What is a faculty and professional learning community. Retrieved from <http://www.units.miamioh.edu/flc/whatis.php>
- Creswell, J. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design*. CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches* (4th ed.). London: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative enquiry. *Theory Into Practice*, 39(3), 124-130.
- Council of Europe. (2014). *Code of good practice in the provision of transnational education*. http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/recognition/code%20of%20good%20practice_EN.asp. Retrieved July, 2014.
- Darke, P. Shanks, G. & Broadbent, M. (1998). Successfully completing case study research. *Information Systems Journal*, 8, 273-289.
- Davidson, C. M. (2010). The higher education sector in the Gulf: History, pathologies, and progress. *The EU and the GCC: Challenges and prospects under the Swedish EU presidency*, 61-78.
- Davison, A., Brown, P., Pharo, E., Warr, K., McGregor, H., Terkes, S., & Abuodha, P. (2013). Distributed leadership: Building capacity for interdisciplinary climate change teaching at four universities. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 15(1), 98-110.
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Education and experience*. New York: Macmillan.
- Drew, S., McCaig, C., Marsden, D., Haughton, P., McBride, J., McBride, D., Willis, B., & Wolstenholme, C. (2007). *Trans-national Education and Higher Education Institutions: Exploring patterns of HE institutional activity*. Centre for Research and Evaluation and

- Centre for Education and Inclusion Research, Sheffield Hallam University. Retrieved from: <http://www.shu.ac.uk/assets/pdf/ceir-TransnationalEducationDIUS-RR-08-07.pdf>
- Duffy, E. (1995). Horizontal violence: A conundrum for nursing. *Collegian*, 2(2), 512-917.
- Dunn, L., & Wallace, M. (2006). Australian academics and transnational teaching: An exploratory study of their preparedness and experiences. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 25(4), 357-369.
- Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Building theories from case study research. *Academy of management review*, 14(4), 532-550.
- Elliot, R. & Timulak, L. (2005). Descriptive and interpretive approaches to qualitative research. In J. Miles & P. Gilbert (eds.) *A Handbook of Research Methods in Clinical and Health Psychology* (pp.147-159), Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of advanced nursing*, 62(1), 107-115.
- Emirbayer, M., & Mische, A. (1998). What is agency? 1. *American journal of sociology*, 103(4), 962-1023.
- Engeström, Y. (1999). Activity theory and individual and social transformation. *Perspectives on activity theory*, 19-38.
- Felten, P. (2013). Principles of good practice in SoTL. *Teaching and Learning Inquiry: The ISSOTL Journal*, 1(1), 121-125.
- Felten, P., Kalish, A., Pingree, A., & Plank, K. M. (2007). Toward a Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in Educational Development. *To improve the academy*, 25(1), 93-108.
- Finlay, L. (2002). “Outing” the researcher: The provenance, process, and practice of reflexivity. *Qualitative Health Research*, 12(4), 531-545.

- Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five misunderstandings about case-study research. *Qualitative inquiry, 12*(2), 219-245.
- Fox, S. (2000). Communities Of Practice, Foucault And Actor-Network Theory. *Journal of management studies, 37*(6), 853-868.
- Fox, W. H., & Al Shamisi, S. (2014). United Arab Emirates' education hub: A decade of development. In *International education hubs* (pp. 63-80). Springer Netherlands.
- Fuller, A. (2007). Critiquing theories of learning and communities of practice. In Hughes, J., Jewson, N., Unwin, L. (Eds.), *Communities of practice, critical perspectives* (pp. 17-29). London: Routledge.
- Gable, G. G. (1994). Integrating case study and survey research methods: an example in information systems. *European journal of information systems, 3*(2), 112-126.
- Getty, L. J. (2011). False assumptions: The challenges and politics of teaching in China. *Teaching in Higher Education, 16*(3), 347-352.
- Gherardi, S., Nicolini, D., & Odella, F. (1998). Toward a Social Understanding of How People Learn in Organizations: The Notion of Situated Curriculum. *Management learning, 29*(3), 273-297.
- Gieselman, J. A., Stark, N., & Farruggia, M. J. (2000). Implications of the situated learning model for teaching and learning nursing research. *Journal of continuing education in nursing, 31*(6), 263-8.
- Glassick, C. E. (2000). Boyer's expanded definitions of scholarship, the standards for assessing scholarship, and the elusiveness of the scholarship of teaching. *Academic Medicine, 75*(9), 877-880.

- Glassick, C. E., Huber, M. T., & Maeroff, G. I. (1997). *Scholarship Assessed: Evaluation of the Professoriate. Special Report*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass Inc., Publishers.
- Göksoy, S. (2015). Distributed leadership in educational institutions. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 3(4), 110-118.
- Greeno, J. G. (1997). On claims that answer the wrong questions. *Educational researcher*, 26(1), 5-17.
- Gronn, P. (2000). Distributed properties: A new architecture for leadership. *Educational management & administration*, 28(3), 317-338.
- Gronn, P. (2002). Distributed leadership as a unit of analysis. *The leadership quarterly*, 13(4), 423-451.
- Gronn, P. (2009). Leadership configurations. *Leadership*, 5(3), 381-394.
- Handley, K., Clark, T., Fincham, R., & Sturdy, A. (2007). Researching Situated Learning Participation, Identity and Practices in Client—Consultant Relationships. *Management Learning*, 38(2), 173-191.
- Hannah, S. T., & Lester, P. B. (2009). A multilevel approach to building and leading learning organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(1), 34-48.
- Harris, A. (2003). Introduction: Challenging the orthodoxy of school leadership: Towards alternative theoretical perspectives. *School Leadership and Management*, 23(2), 125-128.
- Hautala, J. (2011). Cognitive proximity in international research groups. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 15(4), 601-624.
- Heringa, P. W., Horlings, E., van der Zouwen, M., van den Besselaar, P., & van Vierssen, W. (2014). How do dimensions of proximity relate to the outcomes of collaboration? A

- survey of knowledge-intensive networks in the Dutch water sector. *Economics of Innovation and New Technology*, 23(7), 689-716.
- Hodges, L. C. (2013). Postcards from the Edge of SoTL: A View from Faculty Development. *Teaching and Learning Inquiry: The ISSOTL Journal*, 1(1), 71-79.
- Holmes Report. (1986). *Tomorrow's teachers*. Washington: Holmes Group.
- Hong, J. F., & Fiona, K.H.O. (2009). Conflicting identities and power between communities of practice: The case of IT outsourcing. *Management Learning*, 40(3), 311-326.
- Huber, F. (2012). On the role and interrelationship of spatial, social and cognitive proximity: personal knowledge relationships of R&D workers in the Cambridge information technology cluster. *Regional studies*, 46(9), 1169-1182.
- Hubball, H. T. & Burt, H. (2006). The scholarship of teaching and learning: Theory-practice integration in a faculty certificate program. *Innovative Higher Education*, 30(5), 327-344.
- Hung, D., Looi, C. K., & Koh, T. S. (2004). Situated cognition and communities of practice: First-person 'lived experiences' vs. third-person perspectives. *Educational Technology & Society*, 7(4), 193-200.
- Hutchings, P., & Shulman, L. S. (1999). The scholarship of teaching: New elaborations, new developments. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 31(5), 10-15.
- Hutchinson, S., Fenton-O'Creevy, M., Goodliff, G., Edwards, D., Hartnett, L., Holti, R., MacKay, E. McKeogh, S., Sansoyer, P., & Way, L. (2015). An invitation to a conversation. In Wenger-Trayner, E., Fenton-O'Creevy, M., Hutchinson, S., Kubiak, C., & Wenger-Trayner, B. (Eds.) *Learning in landscapes of practice: Boundaries, identity, and knowledgeability in practice-based learning* (pp. 1-9). London, United Kingdom: Routledge.

- Hyett, N., Kenny, A., & Dickson-Swift, V. (2014). Methodology or method? A critical review of qualitative case study reports. *International journal of qualitative studies on health and well-being*, 9(1), 23606, DOI: 10.3402/qhw.v9.23606
- Ibnouf, A., Dou, L., & Knight, J. (2014). The evolution of Qatar as an education hub: Moving to a knowledge-based economy. In *International education hubs* (pp. 43-61). Springer Netherlands.
- Jakovljevic, M., Buckley, S., & Bushney, M. (2013). Forming Communities of Practice in Higher Education: A Theoretical Perspective. In *Active Citizenship by Knowledge Management & Innovation: Proceedings of the Management, Knowledge and Learning International Conference 2013* (pp. 1107-1119). Zadar, Croatia: ToKnowPress.
- Janke, K. K., Seaba, H. H., Welage, L. S., Scott, S. A., Rabi, S. M., Kelley, K. A., & Mason, H. L. (2012). Building a Multi-Institutional Community of Practice to Foster Assessment. *American journal of pharmaceutical education*, 76(4).
- Jarvis, P. (2012). Learning from everyday life. *HSSRP*, 1(1), 1-20.
- Johnson, B., & Ryba, K. (2015). Cultivating a Culture for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning. *Journal on Centers for Teaching and Learning*, 7.
- Jones, S., Lefoe, G., Harvey, M., & Ryland, K. (2012). Distributed leadership: A collaborative framework for academics, executives and professionals in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 34(1), 67-78.
- Kakavelakis, K., & Edwards, T. (2012). Situated learning theory and agentic orientation: A relational sociology approach. *Management Learning*, 43(5), 475-494.
- Karnieli-Miller, O., Strier, R., & Pessach, L. (2009). Power relations in qualitative research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 19(2), 279-289.

- Kempster, S., & Stewart, J. (2010). Becoming a leader: A co-produced autoethnographic exploration of situated learning of leadership practice. *Management Learning, 41*(2), 205-219.
- Kenny, N., Popovic, C., McSweeney, J., Knorr, K., Hoessler, C., Hall, S., & El Khoury, E. (2017). Drawing on the Principles of SoTL to Illuminate a Path Forward for the Scholarship of Educational Development. *The Canadian Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 8*(2), 10.
- Kerno Jr, S. J. (2008). Limitations of communities of practice: a consideration of unresolved issues and difficulties in the approach. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 15*(1), 69-78.
- Knight, J. (2011). Education hubs: a fad, a brand, an innovation? *Journal of Studies in International Education, 15*(3), 221-240.
- Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kreber, C. (2000). How university teaching award winners conceptualise academic work: Some further thoughts on the meaning of scholarship. *Teaching in Higher Education, 5*(1), 61-78.
- Kreber, C. (2002). Teaching excellence, teaching expertise, and the scholarship of teaching. *Innovative Higher Education, 27*(1), 5-23.
- Kreber, C. (2005). Reflection on teaching and the scholarship of teaching: Focus on science instructors. *Higher Education, 50*(2), 323-359.
- Kreber, C., & Cranton, P. A. (2000). Exploring the scholarship of teaching. *Journal of Higher Education, 71*(4), 476-495.

- Lane, J. E. (2011). Importing private higher education: international branch campuses. *Private Higher Education and Public Policy: A Comparative Global View*, 13(4), 367-381.
- Lave, J. (1988). *Cognition in practice: Mind, mathematics and culture in everyday life*. Cambridge University Press.
- Lave, J. (2008). Epilogue: Situated learning and changing practice. In Amin, A. & Roberts, J. (Eds.), *Community, economic creativity, and organization* (pp. 283-296). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Leithwood, K., Day, C., Sammons, P., Harris, A. and Hopkins, D. (2006). *Successful School Leadership: What It Is and How It Influences Pupil Learning*. Nottingham: DfES Publications.
- Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Hollywood, CA: Sage.
- Lisko, S.A., & O'Dell, V. (2010). Integration of theory and practice: Experiential learning theory and nursing education. *Nursing Education Perspectives*, 31(2), 106-108.
- McBroom, J.R. (1992). Women in the clergy: A content analysis of the Christian Century, 1984-1987. *Free Inquiry in Creative Sociology*, 20(2), 205-209.
- McBurnie, G., & Ziguras, C. (2006). *Transnational education: Issues and trends in offshore higher education*. Routledge.
- McBurnie, G., & Ziguras, C. (2007). Trends and future scenarios in programme and institution mobility across borders. *Higher Education to 2030*, 2, 89-108.
- McBurnie, G., & Ziguras, C. (2009). Trends and future scenarios in programme and institution mobility across borders. *Higher education to 2030*(2), 89-108.

- McDonald, J., Nagy, J., Star, C., Burch, T., Cox, M. D., & Margetts, F. (2012). Identifying and building the leadership capacity of community of practice facilitators. *Learning Communities Journal*, 4, 63-84.
- McDonald, J., & Star, C. (2008). The challenges of building an academic community of practice: An Australian case study. In *Proceedings of the 31st HERDSA Annual Conference: Engaging Communities (HERDSA 2008)*. Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia (HERDSA).
- McKinney, K. (Ed.). (2013). *The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in and Across the Disciplines*. Indiana University Press.
- McLellan, H. (1996). Situated learning: Multiple perspectives. In McLellan, H. (Ed.), *Situated learning perspectives* (pp. 5-17), Englewood Cliffs: Educational Technology Publications, Inc.
- McNiff, J. & Whitehead, J. (2002). *Action research: Principles and practice*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- MacBeath, J., Oduro, G.K.T. and Waterhouse, J. (2004). *Distributed Leadership in Action: A Study of Current Practice in Schools*. Nottingham: National College for School Leadership.
- Macpherson, A., & Clark, B. (2009). Islands of practice: conflict and a lack of ‘community’ in situated learning. *Management Learning*, 40(5), 551-568.
- Manning, P.K. & Cullun-Swan, B. (1994). Narrative, content and semiotic analysis. In Denzin, N., & Lincoln Y. (Eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 463-477). London: Sage Publications.

- Marquis, E., Healey, M., & Vine, M. (2016). Fostering collaborative teaching and learning scholarship through an international writing group initiative. *Higher Education Research & Development, 35*(3), 531-544.
- Marshall, M.N. (1996). Sampling for qualitative research. *Family Practice, 13*(6), 522-525.
- Mayes, C. (1998). The Holmes reports: Perils and possibilities. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 14*(8), 775-792.
- Mazzarol, T., Soutar, G. N., & Seng, M. S. Y. (2003). The third wave: future trends in international education. *International Journal of Educational Management, 17*(3), 90-99.
- Merriam, S.B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, S.B. (2009). *Research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mezirow, J. (1997). Transformative learning: Theory to practice. *New directions for adult and continuing education, 1997*(74), 5-12.
- Middendorf, J., & Pace, D. (2004). Decoding the disciplines: A model for helping students learn disciplinary ways of thinking. *New directions for teaching and learning, 2004*(98), 1-12.
- Middendorf, J., & Pace, D. (2007). Easing entry into the scholarship of teaching and learning through focused assessments: The “Decoding the Disciplines” approach. In Robertson, D. R. & Nilson, L. B. (Eds.) *To Improve the Academy: Resources for faculty, instructional and organizational development, 26*, 53-67.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. New York: Sage.

- Miller-Idriss, C., & Hanauer, E. (2011). Transnational higher education: offshore campuses in the Middle East. *Comparative Education*, 47(2), 181-207.
- Miller-Young, J. E., Anderson, C., Kiceniuk, D., Mooney, J., Riddell, J., Schmidt Hanbidge, A., & Chick, N. (2017). Leading Up in the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning. *The Canadian Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 8(2), 4.
- Miller-Young, J., & Yeo, M. (2015). Conceptualizing and communicating SoTL: a framework for the field. *Teaching and Learning Inquiry: The ISSOTL Journal*, 3(2), 37-53.
- Naidoo, V. (2009). Transnational higher education a stock take of current activity. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 14(2), 117-142.
doi: 10.1177/1028315308317938
- Nickerson, M. & Shaefer, S. (2001). Autonomy and anonymity: Characteristics of branch campus faculty. *Metropolitan Universities*, 12(2), 49-59.
- Nooteboom, B., Van Haverbeke, W., Duysters, G., Gilsing, V., & Van den Oord, A. (2007). Optimal cognitive distance and absorptive capacity. *Research policy*, 36(7), 1016-1034.
- Onda, E. L. (2012). Situated cognition: Its relationship to simulation in nursing education. *Clinical Simulation in Nursing*, 8(7), e273-e280.
- Orr, J. E. (1996). *Talking about machines: An ethnography of a modern job*. Ithica, New York: Cornell University Press.
- Paige, J. B., & Daley, B. J. (2009). Situated cognition: A learning framework to support and guide high-fidelity simulation. *Clinical Simulation in Nursing*, 5(3), e97-e103.
- Pan, S. L., & Tan, B. (2011). Demystifying case research: A structured–pragmatic–situational (SPS) approach to conducting case studies. *Information and Organization*, 21(3), 161-176.

- Parker, B., & Myrick, F. (2010). Transformative learning as a context for human patient simulation. *The Journal of nursing education, 49*(6), 326-332.
- Patton, M.Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Pearce, C. L., & Conger, J. A. (2002). *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership*. Sage.
- Perrault, E. L. (2008). *Community-university interorganizational collaboration: A case study of the important factors for success* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Calgary).
- Piaget, J. (1995). *Sociological studies*. London, UK: Psychology Press.
- Price, S., Doucet, S., & Hall, L. M. (2014). The historical social positioning of nursing and medicine: implications for career choice, early socialization and interprofessional collaboration. *Journal of Interprofessional Care, 28*(2), 103-109.
- Probst, G., & Borzillo, S. (2008). Why communities of practice succeed and why they fail. *European Management Journal, 26*(5), 335-347.
- Richlin, L. (2001). Scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching. *New directions for teaching and learning, 2001*(86), 57-68.
- Roberts, J. (2006). Limits to communities of practice. *Journal of management studies, 43*(3), 623-639.
- Romani, V. (2009). The politics of higher education in the Middle East: Problems and prospects. *Middle East Brief, 36*(1), 1-8.
- Saldaña, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Sage.
- Sandelowski, M. (1995). Sample size in qualitative research. *Research in Nursing and Health, 18*(2), 179-183.

- Shams, F., & Huisman, J. (2011). Managing offshore branch campuses: An analytical framework for institutional strategies. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 16(2), 106-127.
doi: 10.1177/1028315311413470
- Shulman, L.S. (1998). Course anatomy: The dissection and analysis of knowledge through teaching. In P. Hutchings, (Ed.), *The course portfolio: How instructors can examine their teaching to advance practice and improve student learning*. Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education.
- Silverman, D. (2010). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook*, 3rd ed., London: Sage.
- Southwell, D. (2012). Good practice report: Revitalizing the academic workforce. Australian Government Office for Teaching and Learning. Retrieved from <http://www.olt.gov.au/resource-revitalising-academic-workforce-2012>
- Southwell, D., & Morgan, W. (2009). *Leadership and the impact of academic staff development and leadership development on student learning outcomes in higher education: A review of the literature: A report for the Australian Learning and Teaching Council (ALTC)*. Strawberry Hills, NSW.
- Spillane, J.P. (2006). *Distributed Leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Steinert, Y. (2010). Faculty development: From workshops to communities of practice. *Medical teacher*, 32(5), 425-428.
- Steinert, Y., McLeod, P., Liben, S., & Snell, L. (2008). Writing for publication in medical education: The benefits of a faculty development workshop and peer writing group. *Medical Teacher*, 30(8), e280-e285.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stoll, L., Bolam, R., McMahon, A., Wallace, M., & Thomas, S. (2006). Professional learning communities: A review of the literature. *Journal of educational change*, 7(4), 221-258.

- Strauss, A. L. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social sciences*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schwartz, B. M., & Haynie, A. (2013). Faculty development centers and the role of SoTL. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, 2013(136), 101-111.
- Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1984). *Introduction to qualitative research methods*. (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Teeter, C., Nancy Fenton, Karen Nicholson, Terry Flynn, Joseph Kim, Muriel McKay, Bridget O'Shaughnessy, and Susan Vajoczki. "Using Communities of Practice to Foster Faculty Development in Higher Education." *Collected Essays on Learning and Teaching (CELT)*, 2011.
- Trigwell, K., Martin, E., Benjamin, J., & Prosser, M. (2000). Scholarship of teaching: A model. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 19(2), 155-168.
- Vaismoradi, M., Turunen, H., & Bondas, T. (2013). Content analysis and thematic analysis: Implications for conducting a qualitative descriptive study. *Nursing & health sciences*, 15(3), 398-405.
- VanWynsberghe, R., & Khan, Samia (2007). Redefining case study. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 6(2), 1-10.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind and society: The development of higher mental processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Walker, G. E., Golde, C. M., Jones, L., Bueschel, A. C., & Hutchings, P. (2009). *The formation of scholars: Rethinking doctoral education for the twenty-first century* (Vol. 11), New York: John Wiley & Sons.

- Wells, G. (2000). Dialogic inquiry in education. In C. D. Lee and P. Smagorinsky (Eds.) *Vygotskian perspectives on literacy research* (pp.51-85). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Wenger, E. (1996). How we learn. Communities of practice. The social fabric of a learning organization. *The Healthcare Forum Journal*, 39(4), 20-26.
- Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning and identity*. Cambridge University Press.
- Wenger, E. (1998b). Communities of practice: Learning as a social system. *Systems Thinker*, 9(5), 1-10.
- Wenger, E. (2000). Communities of practice and social learning systems. *Organization*, 7(2), 225-246.
- Wenger, E. (2006). Communities of practice: A brief introduction. Retrieved from: <http://wenger-trayner.com/theory/>
- Wenger, E., McDermott, R., & Snyder, W. (2002). *Cultivating communities of practice*. Boston: Harvard Business School.
- Wenger, E. & Snyder, W.M. (2000). Communities of Practice: The organizational frontier. *Harvard Business Review*, 139-145.
- Wenger, E., Trayner, B., & De Laat, M. (2011). Promoting and assessing value creation in communities and networks: A conceptual framework. Rapport 18, Ruud de Moor Centrum, Open University of the Netherlands.
- Wenger-Trayner, E. & Wenger-Trayner, B. (2013). *Leadership groups: Distributed leadership in social learning*. (pp. 1-26). Retrieved from <http://wenger-trayner.com/resources/leadership-groups-for-social-learning/>

- Wenger-Trayner, E. & Wenger-Trayner, B. (2015). Learning in a landscape of practice: A framework. In Wenger-Trayner, E., Fenton-O’Creevy, M., Hutchinson, S., Kubiak, C., & Wenger-Trayner, B. (Eds.) *Learning in landscapes of practice: Boundaries, identity, and knowledgeability in practice-based learning* (pp. 1-9). London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Weston, C. B., & McAlpine, L. (2001). Making explicit the development toward the scholarship of teaching. *New directions for teaching and learning*, 2001(86), 89-97.
- Wilkins, S. (2010). Higher education in the United Arab Emirates: an analysis of the outcomes of significant increases in supply and competition. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 32(4), 389-400.
- Wilkins, S. (2011). Who benefits from foreign universities in the Arab Gulf States?. *Australian Universities' Review, The*, 53(1), 73.
- Wilkins, S. J. (2013). *The antecedents and consequences of student perceptions of university image and student-university identification in transnational higher education* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Bath, United Kingdom.
- Wilkins, S., & Balakrishnan, M. S. (2012). Student perception of study at international branch campuses: implication for educators and college managers. Retrieved from <http://ro.uow.edu.au/dubaipapers/208/>
- Wilkins, S., Butt, M. M., & Annabi, C. A. (2017). The Effects of Employee Commitment in Transnational Higher Education: The Case of International Branch Campuses. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, doi: 1028315316687013.

- Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2014). Factors affecting university image formation among prospective higher education students: the case of international branch campuses. *Studies in Higher Education*, (ahead-of-print), 1-17.
- Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2012). The international branch campus as transnational strategy in higher education. *Higher Education*, 64(5), 627-645.
- Wolcott, H. F. (2009). *Writing up qualitative research* (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Wyrostok, L. J., Hoffart, J., Kelly, I., & Ryba, K. (2014). Situated cognition as a learning framework for international end-of-life simulation. *Clinical Simulation in Nursing*, 10(4), 3217-e222.
- Yazan, B. (2015). Three approaches to case study methods in education: Yin, Merriam, and Stake. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(2), 134-152.
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Ziv, A., Wolpe, P. R., Small, S. D., & Glick, S. (2006). Simulation-based medical education: an ethical imperative. *Simulation in Healthcare*, 1(4), 252-256.

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Pre-study Interview Questions

Appendix B: Post-study Interview Questions

Appendix C: Sample Interview Protocol

Appendix D: Primary Data Collection Timeline Matrix

Appendix E: Sample Observation Protocol Template

Appendix F: Copyright Permission

Appendix A: Pre-Study Interview Questions

Background Questions (initial orientation)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) How would you describe your title/role at your institution? b) How long have you been employed at your current institution? c) What is your understanding of the term “CoP”? d) Have you ever participated in a CoP? If yes, can you describe your previous experience? What role(s) did you have? e) What do you hope to achieve through your participation in this CoP?
1) How does leadership emerge in a CoP?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) How are potential leaders within the community going to be identified and/or chosen? b) What are some important elements of community culture that you feel should be recognized and represented in this CoP? c) What are some emerging roles you feel that individual members could play within the community? d) How do you see your potential role in this CoP?
2) How is leadership distributed or shared in a CoP?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) How will community identity be formed and shared? b) How do you see roles within the community being defined and supported throughout the engagement process? c) How should knowledge and products be shared within the community? d) How should knowledge and products be shared beyond the community?
3) What factors contribute to the success or failure of CoPs in this context?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) What do you think will be the return on participation in this community? b) What type of challenges do you anticipate through your involvement with this CoP? c) How do you feel members might be recognized or rewarded for their contributions? d) How can the community support members throughout the process?

Appendix B: Post-Study Interview Questions

<p>1) How does leadership emerge in a CoP?</p>	<p>e) Were members able to create their own sense of community identity?</p> <p>f) How were leaders within this community identified or chosen during the engagement process?</p> <p>g) What were some important elements of community culture that you felt were recognized and represented in this CoP?</p> <p>h) What were some of the emerging roles you felt individual members played within this community?</p> <p>i) How did you view your role in this CoP?</p> <p>j) How do you think other participants viewed your role?</p>
<p>2) How is leadership distributed or shared in a CoP?</p>	<p>a) How was community identity formed and shared?</p> <p>b) How did you see roles within the community being defined and supported throughout the engagement process?</p> <p>c) How were knowledge and products shared within the community?</p> <p>d) How were knowledge and products shared beyond the community?</p>
<p>3) What factors contribute to the success or failure of CoPs in this context?</p>	<p>a) What do you think was the return on participation in this community?</p> <p>b) What types of challenges did you and/or the group face through the engagement process?</p> <p>c) Do you feel that members were recognized or rewarded for their contributions?</p> <p>d) Do you feel that members were adequately supported throughout the process?</p>

Appendix C: Sample Interview Protocol

Community of Practice Interview Protocol

Date:

Location:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

Intro Script:

Good morning/afternoon/evening. Thank you for taking the time to participate in my research study entitled *A Case Study on Leadership in Communities of Practice*. The University of Calgary Conjoint Faculties Research Ethics Board has approved this research study. The semi-structured interviews are expected to take approximately 30 minutes. There will be a pre-study and post-study interview for each participant. By participating in these semi-structured interviews, you have given consent for me to use your data as part of this study. Please note that the data you provides will be coded and your personal contribution will be anonymous. Approved data provided from these interviews will be coded and analyzed. Any personal information and possible identifiers will remain anonymous. Please feel free to ask for clarification at any time for any questions you do not understand. Do you have any questions before we begin the interview?

Closing Script:

This concludes our interview today. Do you have any questions or additional comments you would like to raise?

Thank you once again for taking the time to participate in this interview and in my doctoral research study.

Appendix D: Primary Data Collection Timeline Matrix

Data Collection Dates 2015-2016	Data Collection Type and Context
June 10 th 2015	Observation-Foundational meeting to discuss the IPE initiative and timeline targets
August-September 2015	Pre-study interviews (with individual participants)
September 6 th	Observation-Strategic planning meeting
September 14 th	Observation-Strategic planning meeting
October 14 th	Observation-Strategic planning meeting
October 21 st	Observation-Strategic planning meeting
October 28 th	Observation-Strategic planning meeting
November 18 th	Observation-Strategic planning meeting
November 22 nd	Observation-Strategic planning meeting
January-March 2016	Post-study interviews (with individual participants)

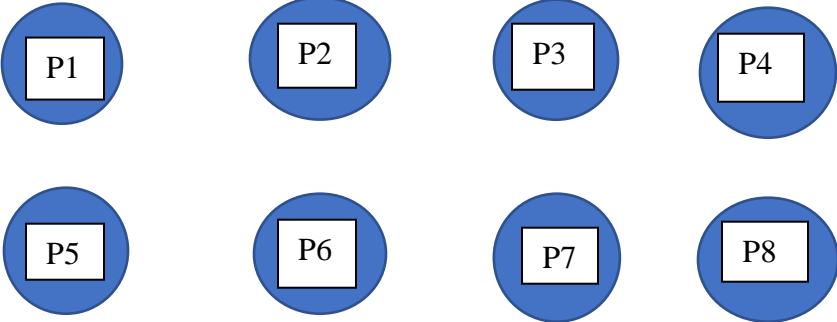
Appendix E: Observation Protocol Template

Community of Practice Observation Protocol

Session Number:

Date:

Community of Practice Relationship Sketch



Observation Notes

Leadership	Behaviours
Facilitation	
Shared leadership	
Conflict	
Agreement	

Observation Reflections and Perceptions

1. Summary of what happened during the session:
2. Flow of interaction:
3. Did any one member or members take a facilitation role? What were the indicators?
4. Was there evidence of shared or distributed leadership? What were the indicators?
5. Was there any evidence of conflict? What was the source?
6. What were the main areas of agreement during this session?

Appendix F: Copyright Permission

Copyright permission was granted by Dr. Jacquie McDonald for the adapted use of table 5.5 (refer to pg. 166 in this thesis) on November 29th, 2014. In enquiring whether I could use the table for my thesis, Dr. McDonald kindly replied by email “Hi William, Yes, you can use table 5.5 with permission or whatever copyright citing is required”. Thanks again to Dr. McDonald for her very kind assistance and mentorship throughout the process of my dissertation.