20. In other words, built-in flexibility must exist in order to enable mature students to acquire specialized skills and knowledge. Examples are discussed in Datar et al. (2010).

21. In contrast to research-led business schools, teaching-led institutions emphasize employability of graduates and student satisfaction as part of their mission statements. It may explain why UK’s “new universities” are performing particularly well in this category on the basis of governmental surveys.

22. Depending on the employment regulations in place, deans and program managers may not even be able to access student feedback outcomes.

23. See for instance Arum and Roksa (2011); Bok (2006); Lewis (2006) for a critical discussion of the role of learning in university-level (undergraduate) education.

24. There is also a tendency for managerial failures to actually strengthen the managerial focus in school governance. Hence, one can even argue that the rising prominence of managerialism in higher education (e.g., Deem et al. 2007) is feeding on itself.

25. See also Wildavsky (2010) for a journalistic account how globalization is impacting the competitive environment of higher education institutions in general.

26. See also the debate on the pros (Zemsky et al. 2006) and cons (Slaughter and Leslie 1997; Slaughter and Rhoades 2004) of market orientation by higher education institutions. See also Kirp (2003) for a factual account of the rising importance of bottom-line orientation.

27. A fairly broad literature exists describing the trend toward the commercialization of higher education (e.g., Schrecker 2010), for instance as a result of college athletics (Duderstadt 2000, 2007) or R&D partnerships with (pharmaceutical) companies (Bok 2003; Greenberg 2007). It however still represents a largely U.S.-centric debate.

28. The other side of the coin is that for-profit business schools delivering highly standardized content are gaining in credibility in terms of qualification outcomes and are operating at significantly lower costs as faculty is not expected to produce significant academic research. See for instance Ruch (2001).

29. While Goodall (2009) has attempted to show that researchers are more effective university administrators/managers (of research-oriented institutions), we still lack convincing empirical evidence that this hypothesis holds true.

30. “Politics is a strong and slow boring of hard boards. It takes both passion and perspective. Certainly, all historical experience confirms the truth—that man would not have attained the possible unless time and again he had reached out for the impossible. But in order to do so, a man must be a leader, and not only a leader but a hero as well, in a very sober sense of the word. And even those who are neither leaders nor heroes must arm themselves with that steadfastness of heart, which can brave even the
crumbling of all hopes. This is necessary right now, or else men will not be able to attain even that which is possible today.” (Translated from Weber, 1973).

References


Empowering Students to Engage with Responsible Business Thinking and Practices

Roger Murphy  
University of Nottingham, UK

Namrata Sharma  
University of Nottingham, UK

Jeremy Moon  
Nottingham University Business School, UK

Abstract: The aim of this paper is to both consider what is meant by ‘responsible business’ and to explore pedagogical approaches which have been shown to lead to effective student engagement with this important area of modern business thinking and practice. The goal of experiential learning is to encourage students to reflect upon the complexities of responsible business education in authentic business contexts. The range of pedagogies which enable this sort of reflection is thought to be quite wide, and can include internships, practical projects, case-studies, group-work, and observing and participating in artistic performances or cultural events.

Key Words: experiential learning, pedagogy, management education

Introduction

The aim of this paper is to both consider what is meant by ‘responsible business’ and to explore pedagogical approaches which have been shown to lead to effective student engagement with this important area of modern business thinking and practice. It represents the outcome of some collaborative research between a
corporate social responsibility (CSR) scholar (Jeremy Moon) and two education-aliasts with specific interests in the use innovative pedagogies in higher education (Roger Murphy and Namrata Sharma).

The term ‘responsible business’ is, of course, a catch all whose core is the concept of corporate social responsibility which has both emerged as a management and as an academic concept (Crane, McWilliams, Matten, Moon, and Siegel 2008; Gond and Moon 2011). However, we recognise that in many national, educational and company settings responsible business is taught under a range of headings, including business ethics, corporate responsibility, corporate governance, social accountability, business and sustainability and much more.

As with other demanding concepts, which are crucial to higher education programmes, it is acknowledged that there are many ways of going about teaching them, but high levels of student engagement and empowerment may be more likely to be achieved where students are given an opportunity to undertake experiential learning related to authentic case study scenarios (Herrington and Herrington 2006).

In contrast to teaching and learning related to some of the core areas included in business courses such as: theories and concepts about; evidence-based understandings about; and practical tools for responsible business, our intention in this paper is to examine some of the more innovative pedagogical approaches, which have been developed to enhance the empowerment of students as they engage with responsible business issues. As Herrington and Herrington (2006) have argued allowing students to engage with and reflect upon authentic learning situations can provide a very powerful basis for deeper learning about critical concepts such as those associated with responsible business education. So in this work we set out to examine innovative pedagogies, which took some of the core principles of situated authentic learning (Herrington, Reeves, Oliver, and Woo 2005) in order to allow students to engage with some complex and profound issues linked to responsible business education. What we were looking for were teachers who had taken bold steps to establish novel learning situations, which were designed to promote deep engagement and learning in relation to this topic. Based upon experiences drawn from across areas of professional preparation we were interested to examine pedagogical approaches, which had used engaged experiential learning to encourage students to reflect upon the complexities of responsible business education in authentic business contexts. The range of pedagogies which enable this sort of reflection is actually thought to be quite wide, and can include internships, practical projects, case-studies, group-work, and observing and participating in artistic
permanently or cultural events. However, in all such situations it is important to explore the detailed processes which are used to ensure that such pedagogical approaches lead to the desired learning outcomes.

Our paper continues, first with an overview of developments in education for business; then with a brief overview of the pedagogic field of responsible business education; then with a reflection on innovations in this field; and finally with some conclusions.

**Education for Responsible Business**

*Patterns of Growth*

There is evidence of growth in responsible business education in very broad terms. This picture of growth has also been paralleled in institutional innovations specifically encouraging education for responsible business: e.g., Aspen Institute’s Beyond Grey Pinstripes index, the European Academy of Business in Society (now Academy of Business in Society), and most recently the United Nations Principles for Responsible Management Education.

There has been marked growth and consolidation of responsible management education particularly in North America and Western Europe, although there are also many distinctive patterns in these trends equally reflective of variations in national business and educational systems and educational institutions. Thanks to two comparable surveys of CSR in European business schools (Matten and Moon 2004; Orlitzky and Moon 2008), we are able to have some broad insights into the patterns of growth, key drivers and success factors, the place of research and teaching methods of CSR education in the period 2003–2007. These findings echo other evidence of a general development and maturation in the field among ‘leading’ business schools (Jones Christensen, Peirce, Hartman, Hoffman, and Carrier 2007; the Aspen Institute Beyond Grey Pinstripes Index http://www.beyongreypinstripes.org/). One qualification should be made and that is that the findings of both studies are probably only representative of those who see themselves as engaged in CSR education. This is because, first, we would imagine that there would be few incentives for the non-active to respond to the survey and, second, many of the respondents were from institutions which are members of networks and associations for encouraging CSR education.

The surveys reveal broad patterns of CSR education growth at the undergraduate, MSc / MA, MBA, Executive and PhD levels. This is broadly reflected in CSR programmes, modules and student enrolments. Respondents in both surveys
indicated that individual faculty members were the most important drivers both of the ‘introduction and development’ of CSR education and its ‘mainstreaming’ into core business education at the respective programme levels. An interesting trend since 2003, is that university leadership and the schools themselves are much more important drivers of both the CSR education in general and its mainstreaming. This suggests that notwithstanding the significance of individual, motivated faculty, the theme of CSR education is being taken more seriously at the institutional level. Equally, student demand is perceived as more important driver in 2007 than it was in 2003, suggestive of a strengthening of a market for CSR education. There was relative consistency in the key barriers to and success factors in mainstreaming CSR education. The presence of faculty interest and dedicated research centres were regarded as critical.

This brings us to the place of CSR research in the development of CSR education. It has been argued that one of the failures of management education is rooted in the failure to teach evidence-based decision making (Rousseau 2006; Hilmer and Donaldson 1996; Rousseau and McCarthy 2007). In this sense, teaching and research should be linked in any business school discipline or field, including CSR. Our findings suggest a close link between indicators of CSR education development and dedicated CSR research centres (58% of respondents, confirming Jones Christensen et al. 2007), and faculty involvement in CSR research more widely. Moreover, there also appears to be close cooperation between industry and researchers in CSR including to develop tools and information for mainstreaming CSR into core business practices and for developing collaborative learning projects.

Interestingly, although there has been some convergence of CSR research topics between 2003 and 2004, the framing of CSR research remains extremely diverse. However, within this diversity, it is worth noting the dramatic percentage increase in corporate social responsibility (CSR)/performance (CSP) research topics, particularly at the expense of those in business ethics. This heterogeneity reflects wider research findings in the CSR research field (Lockett, Moon and Visser 2005). This may appear a weakness to those who favour theoretical consensus in a research field (Pfeffer 1993), whereas others regard this diversity as constituting a strength (Van Maanen 1995).

Teaching Methods

Turning to the question of suitable pedagogical approaches to enhancing student engagement, it is interesting to note that business case studies were the most popular CSR teaching method used by the institutions in our two surveys (33%). This held
true across all programme types, but especially at the Undergraduate and MA/MSc levels in contrast to the MBA and Executive levels. Indeed, case studies have become yet more popular since 2003 (Matten and Moon 2004). This suggests, firstly, that teachers of CSR are keen to use teaching methods which enable students to put themselves in a context in which assumptions of ethics and business responsibility are in question. It might also suggest that the CSR field has matured in the period as there is an increasing availability of high quality case studies. For example, the European Case Clearinghouse (http://www.ecch.com) listed over 1,000 European cases related to either ethics, social responsibility, or sustainability.

Other widely used pedagogical approaches include the use of guest speakers, textbooks, research papers, and seminars. In contrast the use of audiovisual media and field trips enjoyed the lowest level of popularity among our respondents. This may reflect practical, timetabling and budget factors, not necessarily their relative value in the context of a whole suite of teaching techniques.

The decreasing reliance on guest speakers over the period (27% of institutions in 2007), particularly at the MBA level, may also reflect the maturation of the field, as business schools might be increasingly expected to rely on suitably qualified faculty to deliver a greater proportion of the modules and programs. While highly relevant and eminently helpful in some contexts (Metrejean, Pittman, and Zarzeski, 2002), practitioner contributions are often best used selectively. It may also be the case that schools are finding more experiential alternatives to bringing a speaker into the class, by taking the students out of the class.

Textbooks were just as widely used as guest speakers (27% of institutions), especially at the undergraduate /diploma / Masters levels. Research papers (25%), seminars (21%), audiovisual media (16%), and field trips (12%) came out as the other most common teaching approaches used.

It is worth also noting a more recent study of teaching methods which examined the ways in which the first 100 signatories to the United Nations Principles for Responsible Management Education integrated sustainability into their curricula, research and wider activities (Godemann, Herzig, Moon and Powell 2011). Certainly the majority of schools stressed the importance of critical thinking for sustainable business which is usually assumed to arise most powerfully from experiential learning. A large number of schools also tried to innovate by introducing business students to inter-disciplinary courses and new learning settings for teaching sustainability.

The surveys and the UNPRME analysis illuminate the overall strategies and balance of CSR teaching techniques deployed, but they do not enable fine-grained
insights into what works and why. As Windsor (2008) noted, research should investigate the effectiveness of program structure and course content for student learning. We still need to know more about the best pedagogies for teaching students to think—and later manage—responsibly.

Of course, this requires some specification of learning objectives. On the one hand it might be deemed appropriate to provide more evidence-based education concerning the benefits and the processes of CSR in management in order to make students aware of these issues. Equally, however, this may not be the best vehicle for responsible management. This might be better achieved through more innovative pedagogies. This brings us to the core of our paper.

The Pedagogic Field of Responsible Business Education

This review aims to reflect upon the use of innovative pedagogies in teaching responsible business. It will identify a range of pedagogies and material being used to teach CSR as outlined in previous mapping exercise (Coughlan 2008), and analyse these educational strategies within the broader academic literature on learning and teaching in Higher Education (Biggs 1987; Ramsden 1992). Questions have been asked as to whether ethics should be taught (Ricci and Markulis 1990)? Some have argued that traditionally businesses were sources of paternalism and philanthropy, and for Adam Smith, markets (as opposed to mercantilism) offered a mechanism to create value and a means to protect society as consumers. However, under the restraints of capitalism the responsibility of business towards its consumers and society is not always guaranteed, which has lead to a wide discussion on the need for teaching ethics in business curricula.

The debate about whether or not ethics should be taught is however not the main focus of this review. Instead we want to focus upon educational issues relating to how ethics can be taught in different settings and reflect specifically upon pedagogical innovations, which have been developed to allow this topic to be studied more effectively. Thus the main focus of this review is upon the various educational strategies, which are available to introduce social and ethical issues into mainstream business and management education. In doing this we will explore two key questions: What innovative educational strategies can be employed in the teaching of business ethics? How can we determine whether innovative pedagogies have a positive impact on student learning? These questions are both equally important as it is of no advantage to have spectacular curriculum innovations unless they genuinely lead to improvements over other methods in terms of the resulting gains in student learning.
Recently there has been a general trend towards teaching ethics in business responsibility through innovative methods such as role play, theatre and experiential learning in addition to lectures. These methods aim to engage with some of the complexities that arise in dealing with the normative as well as descriptive aspects of ethics at workplace. For instance, some individuals have argued for the need for students to develop skills for ‘practical wisdom’ within the taught programmes (Leonard and Swap 2005). There is however, very little published evidence to suggest whether or not any substantial learning takes place in teaching ethics through innovative methods or that they are better than traditional ones such as face to face lectures. In the wider literature about teaching at this level Martin in his work *Opposable Mind* (2009) argues the need for ‘integrative thinking’ that comes from providing students with well grounded conceptual and experiential knowledge. Biggs (1987) and Ramsden (1992) define learning into two main categories of ‘deep’ and ‘surface’ learning, providing some clues as to how learning can be deeper and more substantial. The following sections of this report will engage in some detail with these concepts. However, preceding our discussions on learning and teaching, it is useful to review the overall context within which learning ethics in business is taking place.

There is a common consensus that taught programmes on ethics must move on from shareholder value ideology (e.g., Ghoshal 2005). The most famous defender of shareholder value against business social responsibility is that of Economics Nobel Prize-winner, Milton Friedman in his 1970 essay in the *New York Times Magazine*. One of the main ripostes to Friedman’s view that the responsibility of the manager is to the shareholder and is therefore to maximise profits, is what has become known as the stakeholder approach to management. This has been most famously associated with Ed Freeman’s stakeholder approach (1984—see also Freeman, Harrison, and Wicks 2007). In essence, he argues that managers should reflect those who have a stake in the company because this both makes for ‘good management’ and is ‘the right thing to do.’

Another response to Friedman is that actually companies do have wider social responsibilities and that meeting these is perfectly compatible with business strategy. An early version of this argument is in Mulligan’s “A Critique of Friedman’s Essay” (1986). A term that has been increasingly used in literature on business ethics, CSR and various management theories is ‘value creation.’ Burke and Logsdon (1996) suggest that there are ways in which CSR programmes in firms can create strategic benefits for the organisation even when they are not readily measurable as separable contributions to the bottom line. Their research finds that linking CSR
activities to ‘value creation’ through the five dimensions of ‘centrality, specificity, proactivity, voluntarism and visibility’ can create conditions in which a firm jointly serves its own strategic business interests and the societal interests of its stakeholders. Describing ‘value creation as a strategic outcome’ the authors’ state:

The ultimate measure of strategic benefits from CSR activities is the value they create for the firm. Value creation refers to the readily measurable stream of economic benefits that the firm expects to receive. This dimension also most closely approximates the attempts by earlier researchers to find relationships between social responsibility and economic performance. Firms create or attempt to create value in their ongoing business activities through investments in new technology, new products, brand awareness, production facilities, training and customer service. To the extent that some of these also constitute or are integrated with CSR objectives or goals, these CSR programmes are among the most likely to create demonstrable economic benefits to the firm. . . . Once the concept of strategic CSR is accepted by executives as feasible, the next step is to develop methods of analysis and guidelines to capitalise on these opportunities. (Ibid., 499)

Kashyup, Mir, and Iyer (2006) suggest the need to rethink competitive advantage through a socially responsive strategy by broadening the concept of competitive advantage beyond cost advantage to a deeper understanding of long term sustainable goal. They also advocate the use of a pedagogical approach that can link social behaviour by firms to consequentialist elements of competitive advantage. Cramer, Heijden, and Jonker (2004) now among many others discuss ‘value creation’ as actions of a company oriented to involve three dimensions of ‘people,’ ‘planet’ and ‘profit’ through its activities.

Many writers agree that ethical education would be enhanced by an interdisciplinary approach, using resources from philosophy, religion, business, or literature departments (e.g., Adams, Harris, and Carley 1998). As a point of reference in educational pedagogy the term ‘value creation’ was coined more than a century ago by two Japanese educators, Tunesaburo Makiguchi and Josei Toda. The term ‘value creation’ or soka is a neology comprising the two Japanese words, value (kachi) and creation (sozo). Makiguchi like Emile Durkeim regarded value as existing in the relationship, but unlike Durkheim, Makiguchi saw value in the relationship between the subject and object (Bethel 1989). The Value Creation or Soka educational pedagogy is based on the understanding that value is created in the relationship between the subject (individual) and the object (with which it interacts). Value creation is a two step process of objective cognition of an object
or situation followed by a subjective evaluation of how that object informs our existence. It emphasises the need for objective understanding followed by subjective experience. The concept of value creation being used here is a pedagogic tool within educational theory arguing the need to integrate the use of reflection and experience in education.

In debates about alternative approaches to learning and teaching in Higher Education, dialogue and discussion have been proposed as effective techniques for facilitating reflective thinking (Brookfield 1991, 17 [in Nicholls 2002, 98]; Brockbank and McGill 2007). Morrell (2004) for example highlights the benefits of Socratic form of dialogue as an effective learning tool which weighs the benefits of CSR. In this respect it is interesting to note how discussion forms an important component within teaching tools such as structured role plays, problem based learning (PBL) and stimulation exercises that are presently used in some business programmes as means of promoting experiential learning among students² (Coughlan 2008). The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business requires that “ethical considerations” be part of the curriculum (Leob 1988), and more research in recent years has focussed on experiential learning as an alternative to teaching or lecturing on values (Kayes 2002). Studies show that as compared to the use of lectures in teaching ethics, stimulation exercises have proven to be a more effective pedagogical approach in terms of their impact on student’s ethical attitudes (Rest 1988; Ricci and Markulis 1990).

Deweyan methods of experiential learning via role plays, PBL or other strategies of teaching that facilitates dialogue and discussion all have potential to be used as the basis for pedagogical innovations in this field. Coughlan (2008), for instance explores, through a mapping exercise, the use of pedagogical tools currently being used by selected business schools and companies as positive examples of the range and diversity of innovative methods. The study shows that:

Experiential learning has become popular in adult education in recent years, and forms the basis for much of the innovative pedagogies currently being used in executive education—for a number of topics including corporate responsibility. (Coughlan 2008, 2)

This study adds:

Building on the tradition of educational scholars such as Dewey, Lewin, Piaget, James, Jung, Friere and others, Kolb (1984) developed a holistic model of the experiential learning process. Kolb defines experiential
learning as “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience.” (Ibid.)

The study highlights a variety of teaching methods being used in business school curriculum, emphasising in particular the experiential learning approaches. The following diagram presents the proposed learning cycle process (ibid: 3):

This cycle has been used to also reflect on individual learning styles, as it cannot be assumed that all learners will respond in a similar way to any one pedagogical approach. Nevertheless, Gibbs (1988) has set out in some detail a consideration of the conditions under which experiential learning can be most effective.

1. Learners are involved in an active exploration of experience. Experience is used to test out ideas and assumptions rather than to obtain practice passively. Practice can be very important but it is greatly enhanced by reflection.

2. Learners must selectively reflect on their experience in a critical way rather than take experience for granted and assume that the experience on its own is sufficient.
3. The experience must matter to the learner. Leaders must be committed to the process of exploring and learning.

4. There must be scope for the learner to exercise some independence from the teacher. Teachers have an important role in devising appropriate experiences and facilitating reflection. However, the transmission of information is but a minor element and the teacher cannot experience what learner experiences or reflect for the learner.

5. Experiential learning is not the same as ‘discovery’ learning. Learning by doing is not simply a matter of letting learners loose and hoping that they discover things for themselves in a haphazard way through sudden bursts of inspiration. The nature of the activity may be carefully designed by the teacher and the experience may need to be carefully reviewed and analysed afterwards for learning to take place. A crucial feature of experiential learning is the structure devised by the teacher within which learning takes place.

6. Openness to experience is necessary for learners to have the evidence upon which to reflect. It is therefore crucial to establish an appropriate emotional tone for learners: one which is safe and supportive, and which encourages learners to value their own experience and to trust themselves to draw conclusions from it. This openness may not exist at the outset but may be fostered through successive experiences of the experiential learning cycle.

7. Experiential learning involves a cyclical sequence of learning activities. Teaching methods can be selected to provide a structure to each stage of the cycle, and to take learners through the appropriate sequence.

These arguments, highlighting the advantages of experience-based learning methods, do not obviate the use of lectures as an effective teaching tool. In fact, as some studies suggest, a series of lectures can be useful points of reference, such as, for students before they are situated in stimulation tests (ibid., 145). At the same time, as Ricci and Markulis (1990) point out, the efficacy of stimulation exercises needs to be tested through further research as there is still little evidence to be certain of “the effect of having participated in this stimulation will have the next time these students/future professionals are confronted with an ethical dilemma” (ibid., 141). The question of whether learning which occurs in one setting can be transferred to other settings is a key educational question which is highly relevant here. Thus in
Martin’s work on integrative thinking, for learning to be successful, both conceptual and experiential knowledge are an essential component of learning. Various other studies have endorsed this view including Moberg (2006), who draws upon other research to emphasise:

What business ethics students need to know about organizational contexts falls into two broad categories: declarative knowledge and tacit knowledge (Polanyi 1966; Leonard and Swap 2005). The former includes models and ideas that lend themselves to conceptual representations and abstractions, and the latter are mastered largely through experience. The challenge is to integrate the two types of contextual knowledge into ethics instruction. (Ibid., 308)

At the same time Adams (et al. 1998) describe some of the challenges in teaching business ethics as:

In summary, the key elements missing from many textbook presentations of ethical decision making are the following: the cases rarely deal with ethical decisions on the individual level, focusing instead on corporate decision making; the material available for individual decision making is most often presented in a theoretical manner; and potential ethical dilemmas are rarely embedded in the context of other aspects of the workplace. (Adams et al. 1998, 1327)

Teaching ethics in CSR is therefore a complex issue and the various pedagogic approaches need to be used in carefully thought through ways in order to enable people to make sense of the given problem. Weick (1995, in Cramer et al. 2004) describes this as follows:

In real-world practice, problems do not present themselves to the practitioners as givens. They must be constructed from the materials of problematic situations that are puzzling, troubling and uncertain. In order to convert a problematic situation into a problem, a practitioner must do a certain kind of work. He must make sense of an uncertain situation that initially makes no sense. (Cramer et al. 2004, 3)

Whilst the role of individual experience is of importance, as White (1996) and others argue, teaching value or ethics can also work most effectively through a whole school approach. An example of this has shown to be a school’s endorsement to the Earth Charter or through embracing institutional change in working with