

**Philosophical assumptions undermining responsible management education**

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| Journal:         | <i>Journal of Management Development</i>                               |
| Manuscript ID:   | JMD-08-2013-0103   |
| Manuscript Type: | Original Article   |
| Keywords:        | Business Education, Business Schools, Philosophy, Moral responsibility |
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## Philosophical assumptions undermining responsible management education

### Introduction:

Despite many efforts to integrate ethics and sustainability into management education, research has shown that most initiatives meet with mixed success. Though most deans indicate that the courses, research centers committed to this area have increased over the past 10 years, the majority of faculty members still believe ESGE<sup>1</sup> issues remain relatively peripheral to management education (Hommel, Painter-Morland, Wang, 2012). It seems encouraging that ESGE-related courses doubled in the last decade, but unfortunately a large percentage of them are still offered as electives only, and as such they 'preach to the converted'. Furthermore, although many schools claim to have 'mainstreamed' ethics into the curriculum, there are no real evidence of it being integrated into disciplines such as accounting and finance (Rasche, Gilbert, Schedel, 2013, p. 72).

The ABIS-EFMD survey on 'Sustainability and the Future of Management Education', which was conducted in 2012, found that some of the blockages to making progress in this area include: there is disconnect between academia and practice around ESGE issues; tenure and promotion processes do not create incentives for research and teaching in this area; and initiatives seem to be more focused on perception, rather than substance (Brassey, Hommel, Lejeune, Painter-Morland, 2013). In this paper, we explore the possibility that these blockages may in fact result from some of the assumptions that currently underpin management education.

This paper is an attempt at understanding the difficulties that we may be experiencing from the perspective of deep-rooted beliefs about what "is" (ontological assumptions), and how we come to know this reality (epistemological assumptions). It will be argued that the ontological assumptions about what management education 'is', influence what we understand as 'responsible management education'. Furthermore, the tools and metrics that are considered to be rigorous and sound within management education research, display some epistemological assumptions that may undermine our capacity to study and teach the phenomena related to the responsible management agenda. We will therefore pursue an analysis of the relationships between certain ontological assumptions, and the epistemological results of such assumptions. Seen together, they allow us to get a sense of the implicit barriers that thwart our attempts at furthering responsible management education.

To get a better sense of what we are up against in promoting responsible management education, we must critically assess our assumptions about the central goal of education, the nature of wealth, and our own sense of self. We will also need to understand the relationship between these conceptions and certain normative

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<sup>1</sup> ESGE issues refer to environmental, social, governance and ethics-related factors.

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4 concepts. In order to do so, we will explore how certain normative concepts come  
5 into existence, and how they are related to our real embodied experience of the  
6 world. This may help us to gauge how difficult it would be to fundamentally  
7 challenge some of our long-held assumptions and their relationship to what we  
8 consider normative. Drawing on existing literature, the paper will end by proposing  
9 certain key competencies for delivering responsible management education, and  
10 illustrate that some of these competencies are unlikely to be attained within the  
11 current paradigm.  
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### 13 14 **Ontological assumptions:**

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16 *Wellbeing = wealth: wealth = monetary wealth > wellbeing = monetary wealth*

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18 The normative force behind arguing for a concern for ESGE issues within business is  
19 related to the belief that the promotion of human wellbeing is preferable to focusing  
20 solely on organizational profit-interest that work to the detriment of society. In  
21 what follows, we will come to understand that our normative evaluation is  
22 intimately bound up with deeply-held beliefs about what wellbeing entails, and that  
23 our tacit assumptions in this area create some constraints for responsible  
24 management education. If human wellbeing is still defined in predominantly ~~in~~  
25 monetary terms, we are bound to be left with Friedmanesque beliefs that the single-  
26 minded pursuit of profit is ultimately good for society. H  
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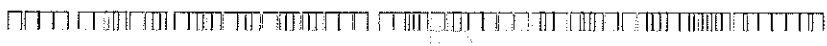
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30 Lakoff and Johnson (1999) draw on cognitive science research to unearth the  
31 embodied roots of our moral metaphors. As such, they help us to identify some of  
32 our most basic normative orientations and to recognize some of the assumptions  
33 that underpin them. For instance, they point out that one of the most basic  
34 structures of our moral language is the "Wellbeing is wealth" construct. It is  
35 generally agreed that it is better to be increase one's wellbeing than to have it  
36 decreased, and that having the resources to do that is good, whilst not having it, is  
37 bad. From this perspective, an intricate system of moral accounting emerges that  
38 underpin our understanding of our moral obligations, responsibilities and rights. H  
39 Our basic bodily need for wellbeing makes it inevitable that an increase in wellbeing  
40 is defined as a gain, and any impediment to wellbeing as a loss, or a cost. Consider  
41 how some everyday phrases, i.e. "investing in relationships", or "profiting from hard  
42 work", imply the normative importance of increasing one's wellbeing via a clear  
43 causal structure of input-output. A moral accusation, such as the claim that "Her  
44 insults robbed me of my dignity", clearly denotes a decrease in wellbeing, and  
45 designates someone as guilty of causing that decrease. When these metaphors are  
46 connected with event-structure metaphors, such as "He broke his mother's heart", a  
47 transactional structure emerges in which bodily affects are transferred from one  
48 person to another, causing some kind of loss, damage, or irritation.  
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54 Lakoff and Johnson (1999, Kindle edition Chapter 14 Location 7743) go further to  
55 argue that by that decreasing someone's wellbeing, one also incurs a certain moral  
56 debt, for instance you *owe* someone an apology for an insult. Just as economic  
57 transactions depend on financial bookkeeping, so our normative functioning relies  
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on moral bookkeeping. This 'moral bookkeeping' system is made up of a few basic elements, i.e. expectations of reciprocation, the possibility of retribution or revenge, and restitution or reparations. It also informs our understanding of notions such as karma, 'turning the other cheek', or altruism, fairness or rights. A reliance on the notion of 'moral accounting' informs our acceptance of moral arguments regarding the acceptability of 'trickle-down economics' or beliefs in the power of the 'invisible hand'. As long as something works to increase wellbeing/ wealth, it is morally acceptable.

It should therefore come as no surprise that it is very difficult for us to get beyond instrumental thinking when it comes to moral notions such as 'responsibility'. The 'right' thing to do is to increase well-being, the 'wrong' thing to do is to diminish it. The way in which our normative metaphors rely on some notion of bookkeeping, in a profit-loss scheme, links our conceptions of wellbeing closely to ideas around financial transactions. When well-being is defined predominantly as monetary well-being, it should therefore come as no surprise that realizing 'responsible management education' will depend on our ability to demonstrate that responsible managers and their companies are also more financially successful.



In trying to unpack the existing worldview that characterize management education, Giacalone and Thompson (2006: 266) distinguish an organization-centered worldview (OWV) from a human-centered worldview (HWV). They argue that that business schools promote and engender is the organization-centered worldview (OWV). The OWV positions business at the core, and teaches students to align their decision-making with the 'natural' gravitational pull of the central force of the organization's profit-interest. As a result, OWV is characterized by the self-interested materialism, and a value-hierarchy in which power, status and the accumulation of wealth occupy the top positions.

Organizational self-interest also dictates that the self-interest of the individual manager must ideally be aligned with the profit-interest of the organization. Within executive compensation, this has created the rationale for performance-based incentives, stock options and golden parachutes, all of which are designed to motivate executives to prioritize the organization's profit-interest (Harris, 2008).

Even when business schools teach prospective managers and executives to take ethics into consideration, the financial needs of the organization are used as prime motivator. Within CSR and ethics management there are multiple attempts to justify ethical decisions and actions principally in financial terms (Giacalone and Thompson, 2006, p.268). Students are offered 'the business case for ethics and CSR, or encouraged to understand the financial implications of 'nonfinancial' performance in terms of reputation, staff turnover and retention, risk management etc. From the perspective of OWV ethics is a mere insurance policy that tries to prevent Sarbanes-Oxley related financial wrong-doing.

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4 Unfortunately, the debate as to whether “ethical concerns pay” is far from  
5 concluded, and based on the interest in this topic in the literature, it will continue to  
6 puzzle researchers in the future. In recent publications, scholars found a very  
7 ambivalent relationship between responsibility and business performance (Valor,  
8 2008; de Schutter, 2008; Bechetti and Ciciretti, 2009). There are others who argue  
9 for a downright positive relationship between financial results and social and  
10 environmental concerns, like Waddock and Graves (1999), Verschoor (1999, 2004;  
11 2005) and Tsoutsoura (2004). Dissidents like McWilliams and Siegel (2000) claim  
12 no positive correlation between social and environmental agendas and business  
13 result, and dispute the methodology of scholars who argue otherwise. Margolis and  
14 Walsh (2000) took a more nuanced stance. They argue that although the overall  
15 impression of 95 studies over 30 years has been that there is a positive relationship  
16 between social (ethical) performance and financial performance, lingering questions  
17 remain about the validity and the diversity of measures that assess social  
18 performance. One of the problems is also that it is by no means clear what is exactly  
19 denoted by ‘financial results’. Nonetheless, most scholars interested in the issue  
20 would, in spite of all these problems, probably concur with Carroll and Shabana  
21 (2010) or with Godfrey, Merrill, and Hanson (2009) when they argue in their  
22 reviews of the literature that there is growing support about a positive relationship  
23 between responsibility and business performance. As we saw above, the *wellbeing =*  
24 *wealth* constructs that underpin our normative orientations may make it even more  
25 important that they be proven right...  
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31 Yet there are others who follow Dewey in arguing that we need a more enlightened  
32 calculus of profit and loss than the purely economic (Starkey and Tempest, 2009, p.  
33 580). Could this be accomplished by changing the focus of our investigation? The  
34 literature that attempts to establish the link between ethical performance and  
35 financial performance remains firmly focused on the organization as the center for  
36 the equation. Giacolone and Thompson (2006: 270) argue the OWV must be  
37 replaced with a HWV (human-centered worldview), which is characterized by a  
38 concern for human wellbeing. They argue that whereas the OWV inevitably reduces  
39 ethics-related content within management education to the avoidance of trouble, a  
40 HWV will offer students more than just a vision of doom and potential guilt. In fact,  
41 it could offer them a vision of themselves and the world that inspires them. From  
42 the perspective of a HWV, business is only one of many components in a system, not  
43 the goal around which everything else revolves. A HWV would prioritize the  
44 promotion of social wellbeing as the core educational goal of management  
45 education. This sounds like a wonderful ideal, but unfortunately, we will proceed to  
46 argue that another set of assumptions stand in the way of yielding the benefits of the  
47 HWV, namely the belief that human wellbeing is also implicitly related to individual  
48 monetary wealth.  
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55 The appeal of the idea that we need to undergo a kind of a Copernican reorientation  
56 from organization-centered worldview to a human-centered worldview lies in the  
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4 promise that social wellbeing will be procured in the process. But the possibility of  
5 challenging the organization-centered worldview is undermined by the way in  
6 which individual self-interest has become fully bound up with organizational  
7 interest. This relationship seems to go beyond the incentive and performance  
8 management schemes that were mentioned above. In fact, the performance  
9 management schemes of corporations may be a reflection and solidification of this  
10 belief, rather than its source.  
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13 The true origin of this belief are to be found in the systemic assumptions about how  
14 capitalism functions. Consider here the multiple references in management  
15 literature to Mandeville's "Fable of the bees", which teaches us that the vigorous  
16 pursuit of self-interest also serves social well-being. This is echoed on Milton  
17 Friedman's belief that individual managers are solely responsible for profit-  
18 maximization and that the positive effects of this will trickle down to the rest of  
19 society via taxes, jobs, and individual charitable giving. From this perspective, the  
20 moral domain is seen as the private realm of individuals. While virtuousness is still  
21 seen as valuable in non-work environments, there seems to be an active  
22 stigmatization of goodness within companies (Giacalone and Promislo, 2013, p. 92).  
23 So much so that individuals who want to raise moral concerns are ridiculed as  
24 'bleeding hearts', who are misguided or in some other way deficient (Giacalone and  
25 Promislo, 2013, p.89).  
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30 It will come as no surprise that there have been quite a lot of discussion of the role  
31 of self-interest and individualism within management education. Some  
32 unapologetically celebrate an Ayn Rand inspired view of the world and a viable  
33 alternative to altruism (Locke, 2006). In arguing for the individual rights against  
34 demands made by the collective, individualism and altruism are pitted against one  
35 another as if they were to be mutually exclusive (Audi, 2009: 266). There is also  
36 evidence that students in schools of management increasingly display narcissistic  
37 personality traits (Bergman, Westerman, Daly, 2010: 119). Zhu (2009: 292) points  
38 out that by both Eastern and Western standards, both organizational and individual  
39 value-sets lack the equilibrium, or balance between logos/reason and caring that  
40 most philosophers prescribe.  
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44 There is also increasing evidence that individual self-interest is understood in terms  
45 of the increase of a person's money and power. Giacalone and Promislo (2013, p. 88)  
46 describe the dominant languages within business schools as 'econophonics' and  
47 'potensiphonics', which are clearly characteristic of a materialistic worldview.  
48 Within 'econophonic' language, money is used to dictate and justify all actions.  
49 Within 'potensiphonic' language, the emphasis is on power and supremacy.  
50 Aggressive business metaphors like "blowing the competition out of the water", is  
51 characteristic of this language. Schoemaker (2008, p. 199) also highlights the self-  
52 centered careerism that is implicitly supported by most contemporary management  
53 education. The focus of management education is on equipping the individual  
54 manager with the analytical and cognitive skills to fulfill certain managerial  
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4 functions and to pursue individual career advancement. The importance of 'winning  
5 at all costs' and personal wealth-creation seem to come with the territory.  
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8 Schoemaker (2008, pp. 120-121) argues that this is the result of some historical  
9 developments within management education. Whereas business schools offered  
10 'vocational training' in the early fifties, it started suffering from 'science-envy' and  
11 has since become preoccupied with displaying the scientific credentials of the hard  
12 sciences. Buchholz and Rosenthal (2008: 199) argue that the scientific model was  
13 adopted in response to two studies sponsored by the Ford and Carnegie  
14 Foundations in the 1950s, which were very critical of the 'practical wisdom' that  
15 formed the core of the vocational training that was dispensed at business schools  
16 during that time. In a bid to restore their respectability, business schools adopted  
17 the scientific model, which privilege the use of financial and economic models,  
18 statistical analysis and the occasional use of laboratory psychology.  
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21 Though some, like Bennis and O'Toole (2005) would make the case that we would  
22 be better served by business school if management could be reconceived as a  
23 profession, with the main goal of serving society, it seems an unlikely possibility. In  
24 the first place, management does not display the core characteristics of a profession:  
25 one cannot identify an accepted body of knowledge that has to be mastered to gain  
26 entry to the management field, management practitioners is not governed by a code  
27 of ethics, not subject to a certifying body, and most importantly, the most important  
28 goal of management is not to deliver a service to society that is directly related to  
29 the public good (Buchholz and Rosenthal, 2008, p. 203; Starkey and Tempest 2008,  
30 p. 384). Mintzberg (2009, Kindle Location 208 of 6324) also argues that  
31 management is not a profession because it is less of a science, and more an art,  
32 which is especially rooted in practicing a craft.  
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35 Furthermore, the way in which the business school system has come to function  
36 make it unlikely that the ethical parameters that characterize professional training  
37 could be fully integrated. Rasche, Gilbert and Schebel (2013, p. 79) point out that  
38 most business schools risk decoupling rhetoric from reality when it comes to the  
39 integration of ethics-related education into the MBA. This essentially means that  
40 schools add ethics-related courses, or claim mainstreaming, while in reality shying  
41 away from structural change. These authors indicate decoupling is particularly  
42 likely in a competitive context, within which schools face rising external  
43 institutional pressures. Though the demand for ethics education has increased  
44 significantly since the accounting scandals in the early 2000s, this did not seem to  
45 change the tide significantly.  
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50 Another external factor is the pressure that comes from accreditation agencies.  
51 Though all three major agencies (AACSB, EQUIS and the Association of MBAs) have  
52 all emphasized the importance of the integration of ethics, their commitment still  
53 seems to be a matter of dispute (Swanson, 2005). This may be the result of the fact  
54 that these agencies do not prescribe *how* ethics-related content should be  
55 integrated, only *that* it should be integrated. Giacolone and Thompson (2006: 272)  
56 argue that despite its attempt to enhance the relevance of management education  
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3 and improve its attention to ethics-related content, AACSB's focus is myopic. The  
4 authors argue that the reason for this is that it only deals with how to address  
5 external, financially oriented problems, rather than the ethical problems and  
6 opportunities that business schools create for the external environment.  
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9 There is also evidence that some aspects of the rankings and accreditation  
10 undermine a focus on ethics-related content. Schools need to show that they can  
11 attract the top applicants, and deliver the graduates that do them proud. For  
12 instance, within the FT ranking-system, the starting salary of the graduates of  
13 business schools is a significant criterion. One can see how the pursuit of skills or  
14 orientations that place a priority on anything besides enabling the student to further  
15 profit-generation, becomes difficult to justify. *Quote*  
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18 In what follows, we highlight how the ontological beliefs about who we are as  
19 human beings and how wellbeing is created, impact the epistemological  
20 assumptions that underpin our pursuit of science and education.  
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## 22 **The epistemological implications:**

### 23 *Utilitarian objectivism*

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25 One of the implications of an Ayn Randian individualist paradigm is the insistence  
26 on objectivism that characterizes a simplistic utilitarian calculus. As one of the main  
27 defenders of Ayn Rand's position argues, 'life' is the standard, and hence the  
28 individual must benefit from his/ her own moral code. Objectivism allows the  
29 individual to advance self-interest as moral (Locke, 2002, p. 195). Within  
30 metaphysics, objectivism holds that reality is real, independent from the observer,  
31 and that it obeys causal laws. From an epistemological point of view, objectivism  
32 asserts that all knowledge of reality comes from the senses and reason. Reason is  
33 the human faculty that integrates sensory material into concepts, and when they are  
34 formulated as such, concepts are objective (Locke, 2006, p. 196).  
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40 Objectivism has distinct implications for the study of what is moral. The ongoing  
41 calculation that is implicit in determining whether the individual still benefits from  
42 his moral code, dictates a quantification of what preserves his/ her 'life'. In the first  
43 place objectivism demands a clear-cut, objective definition of what constitutes 'life'.  
44 Furthermore, the teleological process that is essential to reaching this goal, also  
45 assumes the identification of strict cause-and-effect relationships. And thirdly, the  
46 strict correlation between input and output yields a conception of justice that is  
47 based on reward for individual effort. As a result, input has to be quantified so that  
48 the fair reward or output can be determined.  
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51 In terms of its implications for thinking through ethics and CSR in the corporate  
52 realm, it has implications on various fronts. In terms of performance management, it  
53 dictates individual performance review, based on clear metrics and measurement.  
54 In the CSR environment, each investment must be justified, either in terms of  
55 reputation value, staff morale, or otherwise by the displayed 'worth' of those who  
56 receive philanthropic help. Spence and Thomson (2009, p. 372) explain that within  
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the corporate philanthropy discourse, the master metaphor of 'altruism' is always accompanied by mentions of 'the deserving poor'. One can clearly recognize the moral accounting that is at work in this contention, but it tends to have conceptually incoherent implications. The fact that charities have to prove themselves 'deserving' of contributions clearly contradicts the discourse of altruism. Within the realm of 'strategic philanthropy' this leads is also an intense preoccupation with measurement technologies. Furthermore, the way in which corporations extract surplus value from participation in philanthropic activities and mine the emotional commitment of various stakeholders to certain causes in order to build a certain brand, have to be questioned (Spence and Thomson, 2009, p. 385). But the overall result is that whatever cannot be measured and reported on, is deemed without value.

### *Fact versus value*

The implications of the move from professional / vocational training to scientific training within management education are evident in the preoccupation with scientific credentials that many contemporary business schools pursue. In a response to the negative evaluation that business schools received in the 1950s, business schools increasingly started to draw their graduate students from the 'serious' disciplinary undergraduate programs in pursuit of displaying scientific rigor. New faculty was also recruited from disciplinary training (Augier and March, 2007, p.134). The expectation was that these faculty members and their graduate students would produce research that could lead to fundamental scientific advances. In order to be published in leading journals, business school academics are forced to adopt positivist methodologies in their research and steer clear of any normative perspectives.

In viewing management more as a science, and less of a clinical art, as is characteristic of most professions, management education has fallen prey to a number of pitfalls. Schoemaker argues that it "has come to focus more on well-defined problems rather than the messy ambiguities of the real world". As a result, it suffers from an over-utilization of analytical techniques, an over-reliance on static economic models and a focus on stylized markets rather than on social networks. This has led many to question the relevance of business schools for offering students insight into the complex social and human factors involved in business decisions (Buchholz and Rosenthal 2008, p. 200).

It becomes clear that the rational reductionist mindset that is typical of much of management education serves firms well in terms of stability, but fails when discontinuity, complexity and crisis become pervasive. From the perspective of responsible management education, it in fact undermines responsiveness to change and to the messiness of the ethical dilemmas that business faces during these times. The fact that business school curricula are divided along functional lines undermines an integrative perspective (Currie, Knights and Starkey, 2010, p. S1)

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4 The assumptions that fact is more important than value, that quantification is the  
5 more reliable way of measurement, and that scientific rigor trumps practical  
6 relevance has also been widely critiqued. A counter-revolution in the 1990s, led by  
7 the business press and certain elements of the business school community, critiqued  
8 the abstractions of academic knowledge and demanded business relevance (Augier  
9 and March, 2007, p. 137). However, it seemed to be impossible to truly turn the tide.  
10 Disciplinary rigor has since become too firmly institutionalized via journal ranking-  
11 systems and tenure and promotion processes.  
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### 13 *Measurable = valuable*

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16 The epistemological assumption that is directly tied to the wellbeing = monetary  
17 wealth assumption, is that only that which can be measured, can be valued. From  
18 the perspective of Augier and March (2007, p. 138), the idea of utility suggests some  
19 kind of metric for business school 'relevance' that, in combination with a measure of  
20 likelihood, makes it possible to measure expected value, which would also allow  
21 comparisons of various alternatives. Unfortunately, this kind of preoccupation  
22 raises problems on all fronts: the definition of relevance is ambiguous, its  
23 measurement is imprecise, and its meaning ambiguous. In fact, utility, and the  
24 corresponding insistence of relevance, is often only possible within a myopic  
25 context. As such, it is ill-suited for advancing agendas that seek a long-term goals,  
26 such as sustainability and the pursuit of ethical business cultures.  
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30 The conflation between monetary wealth and moral wealth is clear in the kind of  
31 instrumental reasoning that is central to 'moral accounting'. It also breeds moral  
32 contempt for any form of unjustified expenditure, as this entails a loss of wealth and  
33 wellbeing. Furthermore, it breeds intolerance for anything that cannot be justified in  
34 instrumental terms from a monetary perspective. We see this preoccupation in  
35 attempts to rationalize philanthropy as a form of 'enlightened self-interest'. This  
36 done by means of tying philanthropy directly to strategy, or by embedding philanthropic  
37 activities more explicitly within a defined CSR strategy. The paradoxical effect of this  
38 is that the more firms become "socially responsible", the more the discretionary  
39 scope of philanthropy is limited (Spence and Thompson, 2009, p. 373).  
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### 41 **Building the desired competencies for responsible management:**

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44 Criticisms of the way in which business schools go about management education are  
45 in no way new. A lot of work has been done on critiquing the irrelevance of  
46 management education paradigm and suggesting solutions. Mintzberg's (2010)  
47 ongoing challenge to management education started already in the 1980s. In  
48 multiple books and articles he makes it clear that business schools' focus on  
49 disciplinary excellence and development of 'leadership' skills do not prepare  
50 students with the perspectives they need to navigate the world of management  
51 practice.  
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55 Other authors have attempted a challenge of the reigning assumptions that  
56 underpin management education. Audi (2009, p. 266) makes a convincing case that  
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4 analysis. It pursues an understanding of the stakeholders within a specific system,  
5 and the contextual dynamics that impact the system in concrete terms.  
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7 Seen together, these relational and systemic thinking capacities promote [REDACTED]  
8 In their research, De Dea Roglio and Light (2009: 159) describe the thinking  
9 competencies of the reflective executive as 1) connective thinking; 2) critical  
10 thinking, and 3) personal thinking. Connective thinking is based on systems  
11 thinking, and the focus is on linking specific elements that compose a specific  
12 problem, and identifying links between ideas and facts to come up with creative  
13 solutions. Critical thinking allows for the reframing of mental models, and as such,  
14 students have to be made aware of their own tacit mental models, question them,  
15 and identify and critique the dominant mental models of groups. Personal thinking  
16 relates to concepts such as personal mastery, the overcoming of illusions or  
17 misconceptions, and the capacity to overcome the gap between reality and one's  
18 own vision.  
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22 It has become clear that the challenges that contemporary organizations face  
23 demand a reorientation in management education. A rationalist, reductionist  
24 mindset served business in times of stability, but different capabilities are needed  
25 when business managers are confronted by ambiguity (Schoemaker 2008, p. 122).  
26 In fact, the challenges that businesses face make seemingly paradoxical demands,  
27 like being strongly committed to a direction, while keeping one's options open;  
28 maintaining focus, while scanning the periphery; competing, while at the same time  
29 collaborating; being committed to success, but accepting the possibility of failure  
30 (Schoemaker, 2008, pp. 123-125).  
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34 The conclusion that Hault and Perret (2011, p. 294) come to regarding management  
35 education, is that there is a need to balance authority and collaboration in the  
36 classroom. This can be done by embracing the principle of equality, as articulated by  
37 Rancierre, which allows the ability and intelligence of all individuals to be  
38 acknowledged and leveraged. This however does not mean that management  
39 education becomes the pursuit of consensus and collaboration. Instead, by making  
40 room for dissensus, the questioning of the existing order becomes possible (Hault  
41 and Perret, 2011, p. 295). The creation of open spaces for debate, contestation and  
42 mutual challenging is therefore crucial in various types of management education.  
43 This can be done in the classroom, within learning networks and communities  
44 outside the classroom, and also online. Ferreday, Hodgson and Jones (2006, p. 223)  
45 underscore the importance of dialogue in the construction of identity within  
46 networked management learning. The problem is that open dialogue is often not  
47 welcomed within a system preoccupied with scientific rigor and control. Instead,  
48 Starkey and Tempest (2009, p. 578-583) argue for the development of narrative  
49 imagination via dramatic rehearsals that engage with past, present and future and  
50 are actively engaged with others in seeking new interpretations.  
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55 It therefore becomes clear that fostering the desired competencies for responsible  
56 management will make a number of demands of management education. When  
57 dealing with any complex system, certain paradoxes have to be accepted, and it is no  
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3 different in fostering responsible business management in complex corporate  
4 settings.  
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9 The hardwiring and soft-wiring that characterizes the wellbeing = wealth constructs  
10 make this assumption resistant to change. The question that may be more important  
11 to ask is whether it is possible to reevaluate our conception of wealth to include  
12 various other forms of 'value'. Also, it would be important to challenge the strict  
13 utilitarian calculus that underpins our thinking about the relationship between the  
14 individual and the system. It seems to me that more insight into the functioning of  
15 organizations as complex adaptive systems may offer us some hope here. Since the  
16 cause-and-effect relationships between various elements and dynamics within the  
17 system is not entirely linear and hence non predictable, it may be possible to steer  
18 managers away from simplistic cost-benefit analyses.  
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21 It may also allow us to preserve attention to empowering individuals within  
22 management education without making them individualist profit-maximizers.  
23 Insight into systemic leadership dynamics, and the role that individuals play within  
24 the emergence of normative congruence, may offer alternatives to demand-control  
25 leadership approaches, and individualist performance metrics.  
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30 To foster responsible management education, schools will have to be allowed to find  
31 the balance between the depth that specificity offers and the breadth of insight that  
32 interdisciplinary analyses foster. In this regard, allowing schools to focus on  
33 fostering responsible management in *specific industries* may offer a part of the  
34 solution. Instead of trying to be everything to everyone, the heads of programmes  
35 could arguably perform more detailed analyses of the normative challenges within a  
36 specific context and design a more coherent curriculum within which ethics-related  
37 content is not a mere elective, nor lost in the mainstreaming exercise. The goal  
38 would be infuse ESGE-related cases, materials, analysis and tools into the  
39 mainstream management disciplines in a way that would tie the normative elements  
40 of the programme together in order to enhance students' systemic insight into a  
41 specific industry's normative challenges. A related paradox is the need to balance  
42 long-term versus contingent evaluation within a complex system. This requires the  
43 gauging emergent patterns over time and the role that various individuals and  
44 groups play in this process over time.  
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50 Much of what we have read about business schools' preoccupation with scientific  
51 credentials is created, sustained, and reflected within the accreditation and  
52 rankings systems within which they function. If accreditation agencies focus on the  
53 general MBA, and disregard specialized MBAs, the balance between depth and  
54 breath will remain elusive. The problem that we face is that accreditation agencies  
55 demand a commitment to a generalist approach to the MBA, and pursue comparison  
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4 on a few general scales, which does not allow recognition of specificity and  
5 contextuality.  
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9 There is little doubt that the scientific credentials of schools will remain an  
10 important criterion going forward, but it is clear that this will need to be combined  
11 with a concern for teaching and research that are practically relevant, reflexive, and  
12 creative. Much of the focus on scientific rigor over and against relevance and  
13 practical wisdom starts in how our doctoral programmes prepare the next  
14 generation of teachers and thought leaders. Giacalone and Thompson (2006, p. 273 -  
15 274) argue that not only should business schools recruit new faculty from a broader  
16 range of disciplines, but all doctoral programmes should incorporate training in  
17 values, ethics and critical thinking. It should guard against promoting narrow,  
18 careerist thinking and reinforcing a destructive materialist orientation that spill  
19 over into how faculty will eventually teach their students and pursue their research  
20 agendas.  
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24 In terms of the accreditation agencies' assessment of how well schools do in  
25 promoting responsible management education, they seem to focus on the facts of  
26 what has been taught, rather than on the effect that this has on students' lives. In  
27 this regard, Giacalone and Thompson (2006, p. 273) argue that accreditation  
28 agencies should create a blue ribbon committee to enquire into the implications of  
29 teaching and engineer the discussion with interested parties to effect change. On the  
30 positive side, some important developments that facilitate the integration of the  
31 ESGE agenda in accreditation assessments are underway, and hold much promise.  
32 Industry associations could play an important role in assessing the consistency of  
33 the normative patterns emerging within their industry practice. More practical  
34 suggestions like these should be sought if the system is to be reoriented in  
35 meaningful ways.  
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#### 39 **Conclusion:**

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41 It seems that the only way in which the assumptions that underpin management  
42 education can change is if the broader system within which it functions precipitates  
43 this change. A complex array of push factors that lead to a redefinition of what is  
44 considered 'wealth' and by extension, 'wellbeing' is necessary. This will only  
45 happen when interactions with businesses, students, accreditation agencies,  
46 governments and peers create the necessary insights, pressures and incentives. This  
47 seems to be a typical chicken-versus-egg problem, because for these drivers to be  
48 activated, individuals, groups and organizations need to be shaped and informed in  
49 different ways. Business schools have an important role to play, but as it stands the  
50 odds seem to be stacked against these institutions' ability to bring about systemic  
51 change. Someone has to take the first step, and unfortunately writing papers  
52 pleading for these first steps to be taken, may not suffice.  
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