GOING BEYOND COMPLIANCE: EXAMINATION OF SUSTAINABILITY

EDUCATION PLANNING PRACTICES IN US MBA BUSINESS SCHOOL

PROGRAMS

by

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(Under the Direction of Laura L. Bierema)

ABSTRACT

A focus on over-industrialization of Western society has wrought a host of

intertwined and impending changes to people and the planet. Sustainability advocates

look to the U.S. education system, notably American business schools which help

develop business ideology, to participate in aligning sustainability principles with goals

of the modern corporation. Educators inside and outside of management argue, however,

just how progressive and aggressive they should be in introducing sustainability within

the organizational scheme of management education. Using the Cervero and Wilson

(1994, 2006) planning theory for adult education programming, the purpose of this study

was to examine the program planning processes of U.S. business professors and

administrators initiating, creating, and teaching sustainability programs in U.S. MBA

business school programs. The following questions form the basis of the research: (1)

What are the social and institutional mechanisms that constrain or enable the planning of

sustainability programs or courses by business school faculty and administrators? (2)

How do sustainability program planners identify stakeholders that affect the direction of

their program or courses? (3) How do business school faculty and administrative planners

negotiate the power and interests they encounter in planning? This study was conducted using one-on-one interviews with academic planners from selected U.S. business schools. Inductive and deductive qualitative research strategies were used for analyzing research using the constant comparative method to analyze transcribed interview data in order to develop a cogent understanding of sustainability planners' experiences. The research verified that sustainability has taken root in pockets of business schools where a few planners have established educational communities for advancing special curriculum and projects. Thus, this study proposes the following conclusions as a basis for a final discussion of the data: (1) Sustainability was an organizational innovation for which planners adopted either a revolutionary or incremental planning stance in order to achieve certain degrees of emancipatory change; (2) Planners' long-term intrinsic motivation and positional capital were central to continuing and strengthening sustainability's progress through the business school; (3) Planners' efforts to negotiate support, resources, information and knowledge varied based on the degree of administrator, faculty and external involvement and cooperation.

INDEX WORDS: Adult education, Business schools, Corporate sustainability, Curriculum design, Emancipatory education, Management education, Pedagogy, Program planning theory, MBA, Sustainability

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DEDICATION

To my parents, Marvin and Maxine Cannon, and my sister, Dr. Marjory Cannon for their

enduring love, patience, empathy and aid.

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GLOSSARY OF TERMS

carrying capacity – The maximum limit or load that humankind and other living species can impose on a habitat given the amount of resources available to support their existence and actions.

Cervero and Wilson's Curriculum Planning Process (1994, 2006) – Planning process which recognizes that adult education programs are constructed in social and political systems of structural inequality dictated by power and personal and institutional interest must be negotiated.

corporate sustainability – Corporate activity which fully incorporates the tenets of human and economic and ecological sustainability in its own operations and actively supports the application of sustainability principles throughout the rest of society (Dunphy, Griffiths and Benn, 2003 p. 62).

Critical Management Studies (CMS) – An area of management studies broadly informed by critical theory whose value lies in its ability to nurture the development of critical consciousness and less distorted communication, and whose strength lies in reflection that encourages emancipatory thinking, communication and change (Alvesson and Willmott, 1996, p. 190).

Critical Management Education (CME) – The attempt to pedagogically enact CMS principles into management learning environments such as business school classrooms.

eco-efficiency – A concept that weds ecology and economics by encouraging more efficient production processes that reduce waste and pollution resulting in better management of the Earth's natural resources and greater profits to corporations.

education about sustainability – A technocratic, technocentric, materialist, and reductionist approach to transmitting information about the environment to learners instead of transforming their views about the environment.

education in sustainability – A transmissive approach to transferring practical knowledge which creates awareness of sustainability concepts.

education for sustainability – Education programs which communicate a full sustainability discourse and include a critique of existing social, ecological, and economic paradigms. Presents a social context for and the political aspects of sustainability, providing learners with a critical approach to teaching and a problematized understanding of sustainability based on the vested interests of its many stakeholders.

emancipatory pedagogies – Adult education classroom content and processes designed to free learners from the forces that limit their options and control over their lives and move them to take action to bring about social and political change (Imel, 1999, p. 1).

ethical commitment – The responsibility of educational planners to fairly, equitably, and democratically represent the views of all relevant stakeholders.

human capital – Knowledge, technical know-how, and work efforts of people.

inter- and intra-generational equity – Achieving an equitable distribution of power, resources, economic and educational opportunities so that the needs of future generations and all levels of current generations can be more fairly met.

interests – Intentions, motivations, wants, and/or needs individuals bring with them to the planning table.

irreversibility – Point where cumulative adverse effects on the natural environment lead to permanent damage and drastic alteration of the biological and ecological landscape.

natural capital – Non-renewable and renewable natural resources.

negotiation – Meeting with others to consult on, bargain, and/ dispute program features.

neo-classical economics – Economic theory of the firm which posits that rational economic behavior will result in the market eventually finding efficient solutions that sate everyone's needs (Lebowitz, 2004), and depends on supply, demand, and price to most efficiently and effectively allocate the best resource.

New Paradigm Mode – Phase of business management education characterized by an attempt to gain academic legitimacy in the university by adopting more theory building, scientific research, and professionalism in the field (Ehrensal, 1999; Fornier & Grey, 2000; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), qualifying who should be practicing managers and what type of knowledge they should possess.

non-linearity – Process where random ecological and/or biological shifts produce sudden and unpredictable changes in the regular functioning of natural environmental systems.

Old Paradigm Mode – Phase of business management education characterized by the impartation of general knowledge about business conduct and specialized knowledge about the operations of specific industries (Schlossman in Mintzberg, 2004. p. 22).

person-made capital – Output of manufacturing or related economic activity.

planning table – A device used by Cervero and Wilson (1994, 2006) to symbolize the actual and metaphorical spaces where people come together over time to make decisions and judgments about what matters in developing a adult education programs.

postmodernism – Cultural evolution celebrating pluralism and diversity of thought leading to greater choice, variety, decentralization, and openness to new forms of technology and organizational structures.

Post Paradigm Mode – Present phase of business management education characterized by critique of over-theorization and overuse of scientism and professionalism that has left business schools out-of-touch with the more practical and evolving knowledge, values, and quality of the current business environment.

power - Authority to act based on the position one holds in an organization, the individual decision to exercise such power, and the art of negotiation among persons of equal, greater, or even less stature in a given interaction.

Precautionary Principle – Urges the examination of activities that have the potential to harm the environment.

Pre-Paradigm Mode – Phase of business management education characterized by the premise that knowledge of business education is best gained through hands on experience, guidelines, and everyday recipes and practices collected by practitioners in the workplace (Thomas, 1997, p. 688).

resilience – Measure of a system's ability to absorb disturbances to the natural environment caused by external shocks.

social capital – Culture, institutions, cooperative behavior, trust, and social norms of groups of people.

strong sustainability – Concept that assumes that natural capital is not easily substituted and the full potential of each type of capital is sought to be maintained.

sustainability – Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. (World Commission on the Environment and Development, 1987).

Systems Thinking – Requires consideration of the Earth as a closed system with finite resources where human activity and interactions are subsystems which positively or negatively affect the whole.

tempered radicalism – the philosophy of moving traditional organizations in the direction of progressive change incrementally, while remaining committed bringing about more democracy for work and social existence.

Tyler's Classical Curriculum Planning Process – A technical, rational, ordered, and logically comprehensible process of planning where educational objectives drive content selection and organized learning experiences evaluated for efficiency.

weak sustainability – Concept where the preservation of individual type of capital is not required if one type can make up the loss of another type.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Sustainability is an evolving concept that is still trying to find its niche in a

transitioning society. Much has been made of this new epoch of the emerging global

economy; the burgeoning of the Information Age; a more diversified and educated

workforce; and the rise of a high-tech culture. For some, these movements signal the end

of our industrial way of life into a post-industrial order. As an industrial society, we

depend and organize around our ability to, "…control labor in the production of goods"

(Hatch, 1997, p. 24). In a potential post-industrial world, "…society is organized around

the creation of knowledge and the uses of information" (Hatch, 1997, p.24).

Sustainability, caught in the middle, serves as an environmental and societal protectionist

movement meant to stave off any further harmful effects from economically driven

industrialization (Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2003). Although most industrialized

nations are enjoying great growth, wealth, and modernization, in doing so are pushing the

natural and human resources of our era to their limits. The world's quest for continuous

economic gain is starting to back us into a corner. Globalization, while contributing to

the expansion of new markets, is also contributing to cultural displacement of local

traditions, increasing the gap between the rich and the poor (in the US and abroad) and

contributing to environmental destruction (Wheeler, 2004). Some say even economic

health is waning despite best efforts to keep capitalism thriving (Johnson & Broms,

2000). With economic measures as our primary indicators of success, industrialized

methods, such as producing to achieve economies of scale, is butting against the natural environment's ability to continue to provide abundant resources. The more companies overproduce (wasting resources) the more they spend, increasing costs and reducing profit. In the long-run, they are only shortchanging economic prosperity (Johnson & Broms, 2000). As other foundations which support economic expansion begin to deteriorate, only select few are able to escape this blight, while a majority of people and other living systems are slowly squeezed by ongoing decline.

Obviously, information on the state of the planet is causing enough concern to stimulate dialogue about sustainability efforts. Cautious warnings have turned to urging by some scientists for society to rethink some of its values that they see as a trigger for serious consequences for the future of humanity. They point to a barrage of developments that they maintain if we do not recognize and contain now, will overwhelm us in the future. The following outlines some of the key trends they see needing attention:

(1) The world's natural living systems are steadily declining. Ongoing deforestation and loss of tropical forests threaten to wipe out at least half of the earth's plant and animal species who live there (Bradford & Dorfman, 2002; Sancton, 1989);

(2) A fivefold increase in economic output over the past 5 decades continues to drain the earth of its natural resources threatening a shortage, and creating enormous amounts of waste and unclean air (Cortese, 1999);

(3) Extreme economic output also increases global warming, excessive carbon dioxide emissions from manmade sources such as power plants and automobiles,

causing drought, rising sea levels, and more severe climate changes (Bradford & Dorfman, 2002);

(4) Extreme poverty pervades the world with ½ of the world's 6 billion people living in poverty, widening the gap between the world's rich and poor (Sachs, 2005). In 1960, the income ratio between the richest 20% to the poorest 20% was 30:1. In 1994, it was 61:1 (Cortese, 1999);

(5) Right now, at least 83% of the world's resources are being used by just 20% of the population. By the next century, energy will need to increase five- to sevenfold to equalize developing countries' consumption needs to that of the industrialized nations. Agricultural production will need to increase two- to threefold to serve the world adequately (Cortese, 1999);

(6) Overpopulation around the world, particularly in China and India, will bring more to bear on already overtaxed resources such as water supplies (Doppelt, 2003) and now potentially oil (Forney, 2004); The US is also facing a decrease in natural gas as a source of energy (Barlett & Steele, 2003);

(7) There are approximately 800 million unemployed or underemployed in the world who will need an astounding 2 billion jobs in 30 years to fill the gap. However, industries' increasing reliance on capital instead of labor may keep this from being realized – "Our thinking is backwards: we shouldn't use more of what we have less of (natural capital) to use less of what we have more of (people)" (Hawken in Cortese, 1999, p. 3);

(8) Globalization of an increasingly concentrated industrialized economy in the hands of a few is pushing many from developing countries to leave their homelands.

They seek employment in already overcrowded urban centers and in
industrialized nations, creating heavy migratory flow from east to west, and north
to south (Cortese, 1999);

(9) Continual restructuring and downsizing of jobs in a global economy place the
unemployed into a cycle of contingent (temporary) work and puts them in lower-
paying jobs ultimately reducing the middle class (Church, 1993; Korten, 1995;
Saporito, 1996).

By these events, it seems obvious that the global free market upon which
industrialized countries have planted their flag of success does have limits and
consequences. Of these potential environmental and social hazards, global warming
seems to be the most hotly and currently contested topic among international coalitions.
It is where science, politics, and business meet. Unfortunately, politically, the issue of
global warming does not bode well for the United States. As it turns out, the US is the
largest producer of Co2 emissions in the world (Boyd, 1992; Bradford & Dorfman,
2002), and both Bush administrations have failed to endorse either the Rio Summit
Treaty in 1992 or the Kyoto Accord in 2001. The European Union and partner nations
initiated these treaties as an agreement between nations to reduce carbon dioxide
emissions. The reason for opposition to these treaties cited by both administrations was
the severe economic damage to the U.S. economy and that these agreements would
unduly saddle U.S. industry directly or indirectly with implementing costly measures
(Business Times Malaysia, 2001; Revkin, 2001; Weisskopf, 1992). George H.W. Bush,
Sr. summed that feeling up in 1992 when he stated, "Growth is the engine of change and
friend of the environment" believing that, "environmental problems are challenging, but

not insurmountable" (Boyd, 1992, LexisNexis, p.1). The U.S. government's lack of prioritization around sustainability issues like global warming puts a heavier onus on corporations to decide whether they will voluntarily take up and implement sustainability measures (Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2003). The stakes are high as the world's population grows, resources get smaller, and people and companies come under increasing pressure to survive.

Proponents of pure economic growth still believe that the way to attain sustainability is to continue to grow the economy faster (Porritt in Sterling, 1996). However, unchecked capitalistic growth is a cycle the world cannot afford to continue. Sustainability proponents claim that deleterious effects from lingering industrialized corporate practices will continue unless corporations in conjunction with other stakeholders take it upon themselves to stem the erosion. The major message of sustainability is that "humans are part of nature and…all social, economic, and environmental systems are interdependent …. Perpetual growth as the defining characteristic of a healthy society is no longer tenable" (Cortese, 1999, p. 4). Sustainability "reveals the possibility of enjoying prosperous lifestyles while cultivating justice, equity, diversity, integrity, and health" (Cortese, 1999, p. 4). Therefore, sustainability advocates are pressing corporations to re-evaluate their commitment to shareholder value, quantitative measures, and wealth-building as their sole measures of success. Sustainability proposes to be the movement that can help corporations make the leap from an industrialized past to a post-industrialist future, as well as honor the new bottom-line of economic, social, and ecological well-being.

Background of the Problem

Despite the compelling argument for embracing sustainability's message, sustainability or its original term, sustainable development, still provokes tremendous debate. Even the use of the terminology itself, "sustainability" versus "sustainable development" is controversial. As a basis of distinction, some see "sustainability" describing a primary focus on the ecological environment, and "sustainable development," pushing for socio-economic growth, a paradox to the ecological movement (Dresner, 2002). For now, many choose to use the terms interchangeably (Banerjee, 2002; Dresner, 2002). Since there has been no agreement on how these terms should be adequately defined, this research will lean toward using the term "sustainability," as "sustainable development has become a less and less fashionable expression" (Dresner, 2002, p. 74) given the rebuff to its primary reference to economic growth (Banerjee, 2002; Dresner, 2002).

The only thing sustainability advocates tend to accept as a common starting point for discussions on the topic, according to Jacobs (1999), is the 1987 Brundtland Report, *Our Common Future* commissioned by the United Nation General Assembly's World Commission on the Environment and Development (WCED). The Commission, established in 1983, was created to conceptualize, "a new era of economic growth, one that must be based on policies that sustain and expand the environmental resource base" (WCED, 1987, p. 1). Jacobs (1999) cites five core ideas the Brundtland Report addresses as a basic definition of sustainability. The sixth he adds from a subsequent report, *Agenda 21*, the global action plan for sustainable development developed by the UN Conference on Environment and Development at the Rio Earth Summit in 1992:

(1)   Environment-economy integration: ensuring that economic development

        and environmental protection are integrated in planning and

        implementation;

(2)   Futurity: an explicit concern about the impact of current activity on future

        generations;

(3)   Environmental protection: a commitment to reducing pollution and

        environmental degradation and to the more efficient use of resources;

(4)   Equity: a commitment to meeting at least the basic needs of the poor of the

        present generation (as well as equity between generations);

(5)   Quality of life: a recognition that human well-being is constituted by more

        than just income growth;

(6)   Participation: the recognition that sustainable development requires

        political involvement of all groups or stakeholders. (p. 26)

Despite being a noble idea, sustainability is highly challenged at various levels. What most perplexes sustainability advocates, whether they are environmentalists, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), or corporations is interpreting and prioritizing these points for agreement on the purposes sustainability is supposed to serve, who it benefits, and how to operationalize the concept in practice (Banerjee, 2002; Dresner, 2002; Jacobs, 1999). The Brundtland Commission helped shape initial sustainable dialogue. Now its second-level interpretations are being shaped in a political forum, which will have to be sorted out among its many players (Gladwin, Kennelly, & Krause, 1995). Any large, emerging political idea like democracy, liberty, or equality is bound to be wrapped up in ambiguity until it can find common interests to carry it forward (Gladwin, Kennelly, &

Krause, 1995). Sustainability is a concept currently "up for grabs" (Dobson, 1999, p. 6),

by those who hold a vested interest in the direction of the movement. "For now, we are

forced to deal with the topic at a rather high level of abstraction. It surely will be some

time before the technical characteristics, operational indicators and moral injunctions of

sustainable development enjoy widespread consensus" (Gladwin et al., 1995, p. 878).

The Business Case for Corporate Sustainability

The idea of 'Corporate Sustainability' comes from earlier corporate responsibility

movements, including sustainable development, intended to determine the extent of

business' commitment to contributing to the public good (Wilson, 2003). As Wilson

describes, corporate sustainability derives from four pillars, which support it as an

alternative management paradigm that re-examines the corporation's traditional function

as one of growth and short-term profit maximization. Each pillar makes its own unique

contribution to the concept. The first pillar, sustainable development (as described in

detail in the preceding section), is the philosophical core of the sustainability movement,

and one most closely associated with the corporate sustainability. It continues to uphold

the WCED's mission to preserve limited resources for the continued use of future

generations, and provides both business and society with a common purpose and a reason

for partnership. It originated the triumvirate focus on economic, social, and ecological

harmony, and the need to involve a wide-range of stakeholders from business, politics,

social and environmental science, and law to dialogue on solutions for change. The

second pillar and the oldest of these movements is Corporate Social Responsibility

(CSR), which says there is a responsibility on the part of business to consider the needs

of society. In principle, using CSR businesses listen to the stated needs of the public and

partner with community advocates to help do what is best for collective interests (Wilson, 2003). The third pillar, Stakeholder Theory, is a more recent concept that describes a company's relationship with its external constituencies. It says the stronger a company's relationship is with its external stakeholders, the better chance they will have of meeting their business objectives. Stakeholder theory is a tool to help companies find more sustainable ways of building competitive advantage (Wilson, 2003). Lastly, the fourth pillar, Corporate Accountability, upholds the implicit and explicit social, legal, financial, environmental, and ethical contract companies have with their stakeholders, whether these stakeholders are investors, regulatory groups, or the public. This is the pillar responsible for the sustainability accounting innovation of the "Triple Bottom-Line," which asks companies to equally weigh and manage its financial commitment in meeting economic, social, and ecological measures. Corporate accountability has also gained heavy interest with the recent the corporate financial fiascos of Enron, WorldCom, and Adelphia. Given these events, corporate accountability forms a strong case for the public reporting of corporate actions that might affect its stakeholders.

All pillars contribute to the sustainability discussion, with various theorists and researchers writing about issues and findings that affect each one. All pillars also provide reasons why corporations should participate in the sustainability effort (Wilson, 2003). Taken together, they ask corporations and their managers to, "…act with integrity, [stand] with courage for the planet, for a healthy society, and for future generations…" (Griffiths, 2003, p. 20).

Education for Sustainability

Radical sustainability educators make the case that effective sustainability education cannot be taught on a traditional transmissive pedagogical platform, but because of its political nature, requires a transformative foundation that entices learners to reflect, engage, and act with others on the profound implications sustainability holds for their current or future work (Fien, 1993, 2004; Hart, 1993, 2004; Huckle & Sterling, 1996; Springett, 2005; Thomas, 2005). Even though the concept of education _for_ sustainability, embodied in a critical education framework, is slowly gaining recognition, business education programs hedge in their acceptance of teaching a critical curriculum to management students. As one might expect, therefore, approaches to providing sustainability education in management vary across the board. Searching for sustainability curriculum, there is a visible distinction between critical and non-critical courses. Critical courses tended to embrace the education _for_ sustainability philosophy from a business management viewpoint, communicating a full sustainable discourse that includes critique of existing social, ecological and economic paradigms, while non-critical courses advance education _about_ or _in_ sustainability, generally taught with the aim of preserving existing managerial theory. Just as experts make the distinction between weak and strong forms of sustainability, Sterling (1996) too maintains that _in_ and _about_ do not pack the transformative potential of _for_. "While they have some value, through lack of critical reflection, these forms tend to support technocratic approaches to sustainability and an unproblematic view of sustainable development" (1996, p. 28).

Business Schools and Sustainability Education

Advocates argue that sustainability change efforts have the most chance of success if driven by business leaders who understand the implications of corporate operation on society (Doppelt, 2003; Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2003; Holliday, Schmidheiny, & Watts, 2002). As one of most prolific purveyors of business school professionals and future business leaders, business schools with expertise in management education would seem to be natural candidates for taking up the sustainability mantle (Boyle, 2004; Pesonen, 2003; Ryland, 1998). To their credit, some management education programs in the US and abroad have begun to pursue and implement curriculum relating to sustainability in their MBA programs. Unfortunately, sustainability courses are rarely folded into the core curriculum of an MBA program, but instead are relegated to the margins (Springett & Kearins, 2001; Willard, 2004). Reasons why management education programs do not fully embrace sustainability may lie in the fact that many schools have not legitimized sustainability as a topic directly related to strategic business outcomes (Cordano, Ellis, & Scherer, 2003; Thomas, 2005; Willard, 2004).

This response on the part of management education programs is likely linked to the market-driven values and goals still prevalent in the corporate sector (Springett & Kearins, 2001), which is hesitantly trying to understand and accept the implications of adopting sustainability measures. At the end of the day, many managers view the integration of environmental or social matters into business strategy beyond governmental compliance as an incremental cost, nuisance, burden, or added pressure to meet their financial targets. These attitudes are persistent in the industrialized north

among countries like the US, UK, and New Zealand. "Business leaders are good people, but they have been educated to think of the economic well being of their companies as being at odds with, or irrelevant to, the environmental and social health of the planet" (Willard, 2004, p. 269).

Cervero and Wilson's Planning Theory for Adult Education

More case study research from business school practitioners is emphasizing the perceived need for sustainability curriculum in management education. Some management education curriculum planners have found a way to incorporate sustainability concepts in varying degrees within their class offerings. Many of these cases describe the content, pedagogy and learning outcomes of these classes. In other words, they focus more on the final result or end product of their planning efforts rather than the process they went through to get there. There is nothing wrong with this; in fact not many might think it worth the effort to recount the trail it took for them to create a sustainability program.

However, it is precisely this study's aim to document the planning process of sustainability courses and curricula in order to examine the social relations that end up determining the direction of a sustainability offering. To do so, this study uses Cervero and Wilson's (1994, 2006) planning theory as a foundation to show that the influence of social relations in the form of power, interests, negotiation, and responsibility are all dynamics that help route the outcome of educational decisions. These four dimensions, according to Cervero and Wilson, are crucial to shaping decisions at what they see as literal and metaphorical "planning tables." Planning tables represent the struggle for knowledge and power in social and organizational settings. Organizational settings, in

which program planning typically takes place, are characterized as politicized centers of asymmetrical power and social relations where people push and pull with or against each other to attain educational outcomes suitable to their objectives. This idea of the planning table being an organic center of negotiation rather than static center of decision-making lends support to Cervero and Wilson's observation that "educational planning is not a neutral activity" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 19). Educational programs and their planning activities instead play a part in either changing or reproducing the existing structure of social life. Planners are instrumental in assessing how the power they wield in practice can affect the balance between the status quo and the swing toward social change. In their quest to build knowledge for their constituents, educational planners are also making decisions that will have political implications for them, their own organization, and the wider society. "This relational view, therefore, requires that planners ask that timeless political question about their efforts; Who benefits? Necessarily tied to this political question is the ethical one; Who *should* benefit? To assume neutrality in educational planning is disingenuous at best" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 20).

Statement of the Problem

Corporations are accused of being the greatest barrier to sustainability because of their historical and primary adherence to economic gain (Hawken, 1993). They could also be the most powerful force in society for contributing to environmental sustainability. Therefore, what the sustainability movement is asking of corporations is broadly twofold: To think beyond their economic paradigm to consider the consequences of their actions and operations on society and the environment; and to take steps to

change their mindsets and actions that will eventually enable progress toward full

sustainability participation (Cortese, 1999; Doppelt, 2003; Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn,

2003; Hawken, 1993).

In the wake of corporate responsibility for environmental issues, it makes sense

business schools, which specialize in management education, would be involved in

grooming a new generation of global leaders to further sustainability progress. This

consideration has prompted some management education programs, both US and

international, to examine their place in building a sustainable future by developing and

providing sustainability programs. Nevertheless, business schools' ability to incorporate

and teach the complexities of this highly charged topic faces scrutiny, as it has tended to

relegate sustainability to a peripheral course offering at best. The discourse around

management education sustainability programs was found not to be fully representative

of the sustainable concept, leaving one to wonder about the effectiveness of a

sustainability course, and whether U.S. business schools are socially and pedagogically

equipped to handle such a contested subject.

The question this raises then is how are sustainability programs and courses

successfully or non-successfully introduced and sustained in the organizational scheme of

management education? It would seem administrators and academics interested in

bringing sustainability to management students face substantial challenges in

incorporating a non-traditional topic like sustainability into the more traditional

environment of management education. As the management world adjusts to even the

idea of sustainability, educators run the risk of encountering backlash from school

administrators, other professors, educational sponsors, and students themselves who may

be opposed to learning a paradigm that makes them re-think the way business ideology is taught, researched, and practiced. This research stipulates, therefore, that it is worth studying the experiences of administrators and academic planners who have managed to include sustainability curriculum, research, or programming in business schools to raise awareness of the politics of sustainable educational development and implementation.

The current research available on academic planners' experiences of sustainable educational development is geared toward both management education and higher education in general. However, most of the research is in the form of descriptive case studies of a specific course, usually one the author is teaching and organizing. As well, there is a dearth of research that highlights the progress of sustainability management education in the United States, as sustainability is more popular abroad, including the UK, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. Finally, these studies do not systematically identify and cumulatively compare the interests, power relations, and parties relevant to negotiating aspects of a sustainability project from start to finish within their organizational context. They do not name the planning process as a social and political act where one or more persons or groups are actively and deliberately campaigning to secure their own desired outcomes, nor assess how conflict is raised and compromise is made in doing so. In order for administrative and academic planners to increase their chances of including sustainability as an important topic of discussion in management education, they must recognize the dynamics of social activity at play in their institution that conspire to either advance or thwart their efforts. Their responsibility as planners is to investigate and navigate the terrain as deftly as possible to cultivate a well-considered and value-added educational experience.

To account for this gap in the research, this study will use the Cervero and Wilson (1994, 2006) planning theory for adult education programming to look across several U.S. business school MBA programs to identify the actors involved in various sustainability planning processes; the interests and agendas each actor brings to the planning process, including that of the planners themselves; the power relations inherent in these planning relationships; and how the politicized process of negotiating *about*, as well as negotiating *among* and *between* interests is conducted by the academic planner in the context of specific business school cultures.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to examine the program planning processes of U.S. business professors and administrators initiating, creating, and teaching sustainability programs in the highly bureaucratic environment of U.S. business schools. The following questions form the basis of my research:

1. What are the social and institutional mechanisms that constrain or enable the planning of sustainability programs or courses by business school faculty and administrators?

2. How do sustainability program planners identify stakeholders that affect the direction of their program or courses?

3. How do business school faculty and administrative planners negotiate the power and interests they encounter in planning?

Significance Statement

This study has both theoretical and practical contributions to make to the areas of adult, management, and sustainability education. Theoretically it is intended to provide

further insight into the power of human agency to affect change in established organizations. Particularly, this study asks how a human agent manages the internal and external tension of introducing and implementing a potentially emancipatory ideal to an institution that typically supports an economic one. Wedged between two poles of thought, this research explores how adult (in this case management) educators deal with ethical and political dilemmas that arise in their position, and whether the tendency is to push for change or maintain the status quo. The willingness or unwillingness of human agents in adult education to exercise power can produce either result. This study then serves as an extension of existing literature documenting the struggle of adult educators to exercise their capacity to act in ways that responsibly educate adults to better the human condition.

The study will fulfill practical goals by creating a body of planning story literature documenting the actual planning achievements or setbacks of persons dealing with the complex subject of sustainability management education. It will help manage the expectation of planners and educators who participate in management education by providing a body of planning knowledge which can be used to guide the efforts of future planners, and help them understand that they may create gains in sustainability education through incremental measures, or continue to press for a full emancipatory sustainability agenda. Overall the intent and hoped for significance of this study is to provoke further dialogue around sustainability's potential impact on management education, and to encourage planners to openly articulate and examine what they do to represent the interests of sustainability and its stakeholders, thereby restructuring a future in

management education which embraces sustainability as a core management education construct.

This research is intended to speak to anyone associated with or has influence over MBA curriculum development. Notably, this would most directly concern business school faculty and administrators. However, this might also include indirect stakeholders connected to the business school who have an interest in seeing business school doctrine continue to become more compatible with the changing context in which it finds itself operating. Such groups might include corporations, NGOs, government agencies, MBA students, international organizations, etc. External as well as internal forces are both instrumental to shaping the ideals of any institution, so it stands to reason there will be a number of stakeholders involved in bringing business schools into a discussion about it place in fostering a sustainable society.

The goal of this research is to understand from the perspective of a planner what kind of intervention, resources and support is necessary to gain exposure for sustainability in the business schools' flagship offering, the MBA. If a case is to be made for its growth in the MBA program, interested stakeholders should be privy to the planning context inside the business school to be able to anticipate barriers, cultivate sympathizers, and petition appropriate support and resources. Although there is much discussion of sustainability in several business school academic forums about its relevance to business, its meaning and application, there remains still a great deal of uncertainty, hesitancy and rhetoric around sustainability's integration and operationalization in MBA curriculum. This study is meant to show how a small sector of planners is traversing the political and social context of the business school

environment to manifest sustainability's potential in the form of tangible subject matter that can be transferred into classroom knowledge and real-time experience. By sharing the planning stories of those who are attempting to incorporate sustainability into MBA coursework, this study hopes to shed light on the type of negotiation and navigation within the business school and university system to get sustainability properly recognized as an integral addition to management education. By doing this, their experiences may encourage further impetus and energy around the creation of an alternative MBA learning agenda that leads toward the adoption and embedding of a sustainable value system through business.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to examine the program planning processes of U.S. business professors and administrators initiating, creating, and teaching sustainability programs in the highly bureaucratic environment of U.S. business schools. The following questions form the basis of my research:

1. What are the social and institutional mechanisms that constrain or enable the planning of sustainability programs or courses by business school faculty and administrators?

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3. How do business school faculty and administrative planners negotiate the power and interests they encounter in planning?

This section will address several pieces of literature relating to sustainability and its areas of relation to this study, including: 1) Making Sense of Sustainability – History, Definitions, and Components; 2) Refocusing the Use of the Market: Making the Business Case for Sustainability; 3) Corporate Sustainability and Organizational Change: A Need for a New Era; 4) Profound Change through Education: Emancipatory Learning and Education for Sustainability; 5) Business School Education and its Impact on Sustainability; and 6) Integrating a Sustainability Curriculum through Planning Practice. My search for literature related to sustainability theory, pedagogy, and planning included

Google scholar searches; looking through the dissertation research database; ERIC

searches; and reviewing a variety of University of Georgia Galileo education,

environmental, management, and other social science databases. My search criteria

included combinations of the following keywords: MBA, sustainability, sustainable

development, sustainability education and implementation, critical theory, critical

pedagogy, business school planning, business school course development, and

management education. I also looked for books that might detail sustainability pedagogy

in management education and found the book, *Teaching business sustainability: From

theory to practice* (Galea, 2004), an edited examination of how sustainability is currently

being addressed in management courses in Western higher education systems.

Making Sense of Sustainability: History, Definitions, and Components

As far back as 18th and 19th centuries, philosophers, economists, natural

environmentalists, and social scientists have disputed the positives and negatives of

human activity on the social, economic, and ecological environment. Dresner (2002) and

others provide a historical account of sustainability's origins, which have led to the slow

convergence of a global effort toward formulating human environmental policy. In 1798,

Thomas Robert Malthus proposed a theory that unchecked and continued population

growth in the form of increased birthrates among the working class would always leave

this group hovering on the margins of existence, leading to ongoing shortages of the food

supply and other resources. He suggested that there was little hope for a better quality of

life for the working class, as even technological changes would not be able to offset this

cycle of subsistence living (Dresner, 2002; Rao, 2000). Philosopher John Stuart Mill,

citing theory from classical political economy, also felt that population must be

controlled, otherwise, "…profits and economic growth would ultimately decline over time as the limits to the productivity of land [are] reached" (Dresner, 2002, p. 17).

Karl Marx and Fredrick Engels argued against Malthus' theses, asserting that it would not be a tendency toward procreation that would challenge population growth and resource shortages, but the instead the capitalist system's demand for an abundance of low-level laborers that would perpetuate the conditions of the working class (Dresner, 2002):

> Marx viewed the problem of unsustainable development as a result of the class structure of the society. The sustainability of food supplies and the loss of soil fertility and land holdings were viewed as the limiting constraints of the food supplies. Marx considered that the capitalist mode of production would not allow sustained soil fertility. (Rao, 2000, p. 6)

In the 20th century, beginning from the late 1800s and up to the 1970s, sustainability was being defined by the natural environmentalist movement in the United States, which continued to be concerned with overpopulation; the effect unlimited technological innovation and economic growth was having on biodiversity (species development and loss); the use or misuse of non-renewable natural resources (those resources that are not easily self-replenished by natural earth cycles); and the overall quality of life for human inhabitants (Sachs, 1999). The century was marked by several influential groups and writings that shaped the modern-day natural environmentalist cause. It is worth noting, based on Dresner (2002), Green & Haines (2002), and the Rio +5 website's (2006), the assessment of some of these early environmentalist leaders and their contributions in-brief:

(1) At the turn of the century, John Muir and his "Preservationists" started the Sierra Club, and championed the protection of natural spaces against encroaching industrial development;

(2) A rival group to Muir's, the "Conservationists," advocated using natural resources in the pursuit of economic growth;

(3) Rachael Carson published *Silent Spring* in 1962, which raised the alarm about agricultural use of the insect pesticide DDT and its unintended consequences in destroying natural wildlife;

(4) In the 1970s, the metaphor, "Spaceship Earth" was revitalized from the 1950s to describe the feeling that the expanse of the world was no longer limitless – that technology and human activity had surpassed the scale of the Earth's ability to compensate for our growth, and that finding new frontiers for further expansion was no longer a viable option;

(5) Reminiscent of Malthus, the book *The Population Bomb* (1968) by Paul and Anne Erlich, predicted untold famine and immense ecological destruction in developing countries if trends in massive population growth continued;

(6) *Limits to Growth* (1972), by Donatella Meadows, was a study conducted by Meadows and her fellow MIT colleagues that tried to predict from computer modeling future environmental conditions. Also based on Malthusian principles, the team forecast that if exponential population growth and overuse of non-renewable resources continued to rise "the world would face severe shortages of food and non-renewable resources by the middle of the 21st century" (Dresner, 2002, p. 24);

(7) And finally, *Steady-State Economics* (1977) by Herman Daly was a challenge

to the conservative neoclassical economic paradigm, stating that at the point

where the biosphere of the Earth becomes limited in its capacity to absorb

man-made pollution, waste "production and reproduction should be for

replacement only. Physical growth should cease, while qualitative

improvement continues" (Daly in Green & Haines, 2002, p. 189).

To some degree or other, all of these concepts contribute to the discourse on the

contemporary development of sustainability, although some, like the *The Population*

Bomb and *Limits to Growth* were deemed as unnecessarily doomsday in their outlook.

As far as the former, according to critics, the conditions prophesized failed to materialize,

and the predictions of the latter were updated and re-adjusted over the ensuing decades

(Dresner, 2002; Rao, 2000).

Soon, sustainability as a theory, practice, and term really started to evolve at the

global level. In 1972, Stockholm, Sweden hosted the first international discussion on

natural environmental management. The conference was primarily intended to encourage

agreement on how represented countries could economically and politically govern the

environmental harm they were causing across borders (Dresner, 2002). Leaders from less

developed countries, however, were not interested in environmental degradation, as they

considered that an elitist concern about which only rich nations could afford to worry.

Less developed nations were still struggling with the consequences of extreme poverty,

and therefore, were more interested in the concept of social and economic development –

building the resources and infrastructures of their countries to create more economic

stimulation, equity, and self-reliance (Cowen & Shenton, 1995; Dresner, 2002; Green &

Haines, 2002). The conference yielded several outcomes. First, it enacted several

guidelines on international environment coordination and diplomacy, as well as

established the UNEP, United Nation Environmental Programme (Dresner, 2002; Rao,

2000). Second, it emphasized the concept of ecodevelopment as a way to compromise on

the need for development, while protecting the ecology (Dresner, 2002). Third, it started

to highlight not only the issue of extreme poverty, but the tension between ecological

interests, economic priorities, and social agendas (Dresner, 2002). Finally, it brought to

bear closer examination of the word "development" – what it meant, and whether it was

really meant to benefit the interests of the people or agencies of power (Becker, Jahn, &

Steiss, 1999).

It was finally in 1980 when the phrase "sustainable development" was brought to

worldwide attention by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural

Resources (IUCN). According to Dresner (2002), the IUCN definition of sustainable

development was the forerunner to the WCED's (see Chapter One) eventual explanation

of sustainable development:

> It emphasized the importance of incorporating conservation into
>
> development planning at the beginning. It identified the main causes of
>
> habitat destruction as poverty, population pressure, social inequity, and
>
> terms of trade that worked against poorer countries. It called for a new
>
> international development strategy that would redress inequity, stimulate
>
> economic growth and counter the worst poverty. (Dresner, 2002, p. 31)

At the time, the definition was a point of compromise between environmental interests

and development advocates, "development" construed by this definition as attending to

improving the human quality of life (Adams, 1995; Dresner, 2002; Jacobs, 1999). Over time, however, confusion has arisen over development as also meaning to promote economic growth and self-reliance, which while meant to encourage the development of poorer countries to meet very basic needs, also roused suspicion among diehard environmentalists for its implied greenlight for continued growth among industrialized nations (Adams, 1995; Jacobs, 1999). Therefore, according to Dresner (2002), the IUCN's interpretation was generally ignored because it was crafted from the perspective of natural environmentalists, framed in a way that embraced values that did not entirely work from an economic developmental standpoint. Furthermore, the IUCN had not accounted for how such monumental changes would be operationalized through some form of political and economic consensus. By 1983, the Brundtland Commission had stepped in to pick up the torch where IUCN had failed.

By the time of Brundtland (see Chapter One), it seems every attempt had been made to synthesize most of the past thinking on economic, ecological, and social progress to come up with one definition or concept that might satisfy all nation-states, non-governmental organizations working with developing countries, natural environmentalists, and activists. At the same time, Brundtland attempted to forge guidelines for political and economic accountability for integrating and operationalizing sustainability among global and national systems.

Conceptualizing Sustainability

Part of the challenge of sustainability is pinning it down enough to conceptualize it – what are the key themes and principles that characterize this rather amorphous paradigm? Despite the fact that there are so many different interpretations of

sustainability within varying contexts, there are some underlying principles that help focus the discussion. These core ideas emphasize basic philosophies relative to the care of the Earth and its people, including what is termed the "Precautionary Principle," "Carrying Capacity," and "Systems Thinking."

Sustainability can also be defined more specifically at the ecological, economic, and social levels, although, as we shall see, the first two have received much more attention that social sustainability. Nevertheless, in an attempt to frame discourse and action around each pole, activists, economists, and scientists have each sought to capture identifying issues that explain each view. All concepts are described below.

Precautionary Principle

As evidence of human and natural environmental decay continue to mount, scientists and sustainability advocates are encouraged to employ a futuristic vision of the world to anticipate ongoing threats to the planet that might be averted before they have a chance to occur. The Precautionary Principle is intended to act as such a screen by encouraging the advance examination of event or activities that might have the potential to inflict harm on the environment. Such activities should not be ignored or go un-investigated simply because there is no scientific evidence at the moment to support any adverse impact (Rao, 2000; SD Gateway website, 2006). Using this type of foresight is seen as a risk-averse measure that has the possibility of minimizing catastrophic damage, even if it is necessary to sacrifice some forms of capitalistic or technological gain (Rao, 2000).

Carrying Capacity

Hawken (1993) and Rao (2000) define carrying capacity as the maximum limit or load that humankind and other living species can impose on a habitat given the amount of resources available to support their existence and actions. Given the unsustainable situations that have been forecasted, we are beginning as a species to far outstrip the number of resources available to support our progress on the planet. Carrying capacity acts as an indication as to when stresses on particularly our natural environment are proving dangerous. Ecological and biological stresses have a longer history of documented effect on changes on the natural environment. "Transnational companies, the World Bank, and politicians have not yet determinedly integrated the processes involved with the estimation of carrying capacity into the act of development" (Hawken, 1993, p. 25). Hawken also makes the point that our ability to exceed carrying capacity is not to be interpreted as a triumph, or that carrying capacity can be ignored. It simply means that the more we evade the issue, the more we expose humankind to greater risk.

Systems Thinking

Proponents of systems thinking asks us to recognize the earth as a closed system with finite resources under which human activity and interactions act as subsystems that have the ability to positively or negatively influence the operation of the larger whole. In other words, for every action, there is a reaction, which creates a larger change in the system. "These subsystems are connected together by intricate feedback loops. The science of complexity suggests that in some systems a very small occurrence can produce unpredictable and sometimes drastic results by triggering a series of increasingly significant events" (SD Gateway website, 2006, Characteristics of sustainable

development thinking). Therefore, the push and pull of the Earth's natural resources in the name of development need to be carefully considered and monitored so that the Earth can continue to regenerate and re-supply its inhabitants.

Ecological and Biological Terms and Definitions

Ecologists and biologists, in particular, have been able to clearly study and show the effects of human interaction over nature, and have developed three key ideas to illustrate the physical outcomes from such interaction. Rao (2000) carefully outlines these concepts to help guide the novice learner toward a better understanding of the science behind the signs. Unsustainability in our ecosystem, "the set of lifeforms and their physical environment, including the entire set of interacting entities between them" (Rao, 2000, p. 72), and our biosphere, "the segments of the Earth and its atmospheric surrounding that can support life" (Rao, 2000, p. 71), is triggered by the breakdown of certain structural phenomena that would typically explain how these systems are supposed to work. Rao explains the phenomena of non-linearity, resilience, and irreversibility.

Non-linearity describes a process where random ecological and biological changes often produce sudden or unpredictable behavior in the regular progression and functioning of natural environmental systems. Non-uniform disturbances in the system alter its evolutionary course, causing discontinuances, which throw it off-kilter, thus producing marked degradation and decline (Rao, 2000). *Resilience* describes a system by its ability to absorb disturbances to the natural environment caused by externalities. The more chaos brought into the system, the less able it is to adapt, thus lowering its resistance to further changes. At some point, when ecological and biological systems

have lost all resiliency, their structures typically devolve. And finally, *irreversibility* occurs when non-linearity and non-resiliency lead to continued and cumulative adverse effects on systems causing permanent damage, drastically altering the biological and ecological landscape. Such changes to the system are irreversible, unable to be renewed to its original state. Examples of irreversible conditions we are facing today include desertification (return of grasslands to desert), complete extinction of certain species, and a high accumulation of greenhouse gases.

Economic Concepts

In addition to ecological and biological conceptualizations of sustainability, two economic paradigms have also been constructed to highlight opposing viewpoints of how far the business sector should go to implement sustainability measures (Neumayer, 2003; Rao, 2000). Sustainable development allows for both weak sustainability and strong sustainability. The difference between these two rest on the degree to which they allow certain forms of capital (capital being the types of tangible and intangible resources needed to carry out further economic growth) to substitute for natural capital in the economic production and consumption of goods and services (Neumayer, 2003; Rao, 2000). According to Rao (2000), capital can be distinguished among four forms:

> (a) Person-made capital, based on manufacturing or related economic
> activities; (b) Natural capital, consisting of non-renewable and renewable
> resources; (c) Human capital [based on] knowledge, technical know-how,
> and health; and (d) Social capital [based on] culture, people's institutions,
> efficacy, and quality of various institutions, cooperative behavior, trust,

social norms, and people's participation in decision-making. (Rao, 2000,

p. 87)

In a comparison between weak sustainability and strong sustainability, Neumayer (2003) and Rao (2000) focus mainly on the degree of substitutability between natural capital and person-made capital. Weak sustainability says that preservation of different types of capital individually is not really necessary as long as any one can make up for the loss of another. This means that any loss of natural capital is not a disaster if it can be offset or replenished by person-made sources of capital. This form of sustainability is deemed weak because of its proximity in philosophy to traditional neoclassical economic thinking. It still allows for the rundown of the earth's resources in the pursuit of unlimited human growth, perpetuating the fallacy of man over nature – the anthropocentric view that humankind, through technology, does not have to consider its relationship to nature. Neumayer (2003) does point out two distinguishing features, however, that still permit its categorization as a sustainability concept. Weak sustainability, as opposed to present-value maximization "the reigning utilitarian paradigm of neoclassical welfare economics" (Neumayer, 2003, p. 23), does take into account the understanding that natural capital is a scarce commodity that if not preserved, must at least be reconstituted. Secondly, and also unlike present-value maximization, it works on the long-term view that our actions in the present affect the quality of life for both present and future generations, and thus requires that we leave behind a better legacy than the one we are creating. However, within the weak sustainability paradigm, capital is still unlimited. It simply represents a more efficient and manipulatable shift in the allocation of resources, without suggesting alternatives for how to better apply them.

Strong sustainability, on the other hand, attempts to retain the full potentiality of each type of capital. It assumes natural capital is not easily substitutable by any other form of capital, and thus must be kept intact. Person-made capital is more of a complement to, rather than replacement for natural capital. Strong sustainability does not presuppose that all of nature can be pristinely kept as is, but that at least natural functions in the ecosystem will not be totally damaged and reversed, and that very critical natural capital (capital not easily renewed on it own) is preserved. In essence, the regenerative capacity of natural capital should not be exceeded in economic production. Proponents of strong sustainability do not believe that traditional economic growth can sustain the future, and in fact, they reverse the view that the ecosystem is a tool or a subsystem of the economy. Strong sustainability sees the economy as a subsystem of a fragile and finite ecosystem that must work within the confines of the ecosystem to optimize the resources to which it has access. Neumayer proposes that instead of an efficient allocation of capital, strong sustainability strive for a "just" and intergenerational distribution and optimization of scale, implying equality of resource allocation between and within generations based on a balance of ecological and economic interests.

The Weakest Link with the Strongest Need: Social Concepts of Sustainability

The social or sociological context of sustainability is the one that is least explored among the ecological, economic, and social triad. Although the Brundtland Commission's definition of sustainability was initiated on the growing concern of global poverty, issues dealing with how to alleviate this condition, along with other matters pertaining to social justice, have taken a backseat to more prominent ecological and economic discourse, values, and strategies (Eichler, 1999; Rao, 2000). Sociologically,

sustainability is supposed to encompass establishing intergenerational (between generations) and some say intragenerational (within generations) fair and equitable distribution of natural, economic, human, and social capital and resources to protect the rights of the marginalized to give them voice and participation over their own destiny. This is done in the interest of passing on a legacy of social equality and abundant resources to ensure that humans can thrive in the next generation (Eichler, 1999; Rao, 2000; SD Gateway, 2006). Examples of unsustainable inequity often speak to the misuse of power and the exploitation of marginalized people by the dominant culture. This is "particularly in relation to race, gender, and class oppression" (Eichler, 1999, p. 191); environmental injustice that leaves poorer countries, regions, states, cities, or neighborhoods without access to basic needs, such as clean water, launching them into inadequate living conditions; and the historic and contemporary struggle of colonialism and post-colonialism of Northern developed countries over developing countries in the Southern regions of the world (Eichler, 1999; Green & Haines, 2002).

As disparity is perpetuated throughout our economic and political systems, sustainability warrants that systems across global, regional, and municipal contexts must reflect a change that promotes equal access to resources for all. Any change here will rest heavily on political will (Dresner, 2002), and business participation between and within countries (Sharma & Ruud, 2003). This includes examining the effect of unjust resource ownership, income distribution systems "and other structural and institutional impediments to judicious resource management" (Rao, 2000, p. 86). Unfortunately, Rao (2000) contends that so far most discussion has centered around the intergenerational concept without really applying it to solutions for attaining social equity, with most

attention focused on weak forms of sustainability or ecological pursuits. Indeed, this is illustrated by the outcomes of the 1992 Rio Summit with the political and economic spotlight primarily on emission reduction and climate change. Perhaps because of the enormity of the goal, the challenge of political relationships at any level, and the pervasiveness of the capitalist economic model, social sustainability remains more inoperable than its other paradigm partners.

Changing our Behavior and Processes: Production, Consumption, and Organization

Sustainability will not come without major transformative and innovative thinking in the way members of society work, shop and interact with each other. The SD Gateway website recommends three key measures by which citizens, public, and private interests will have to manage their professional and private conduct in order to embrace a more sustainable lifestyle in the form of production, consumption, and organization. Developed countries in particular will need to be greater stewards in these areas as they tend to overproduce and overconsume at much higher rates than their developing counterparts, although with exceptional growth in countries like India and China, these measures will be just as critical to observe in developing countries.

First, companies with a sustainable mindset are finding ways to become more careful and responsible in how they create goods and services during *production*. Although companies once had the option of wantonly overusing and discarding natural resources in their manufacturing processes, the gradual depletion of these resources signals that it is time for them to explore new production technologies that reduce waste and pollution. More on this will be covered in the next section on corporate sustainability.

Second, sustainability uses the term ecological footprint to describe the amount of *consumptive* pressure individuals and countries are placing on the planet through our increased need for material goods. Material consumption among the world's citizens was $24 trillion in 1998, six times as much as that in 1950 (SD Gateway, 2006). Countries such as the United States far outstrip less developed or less materialistic countries in their consumption habits: "The average American has an ecological footprint 1.7 times larger than a person in Sweden, 3.8 times that of someone in Hungary or Costa Rica, and more than 9 times that of an individual in India" (SD Gateway, 2006, Critical Actions). Material disparities within rich countries are just as great. Sustainability calls for a reasonable measure of the materials and resources truly necessary to meet our needs while still maintaining an enjoyable quality of life. Again, a fair amount of collaboration and innovation will be needed by private and public entities to establish methods that significantly reduce our ecological footprint.

Third, as mentioned many times, the responsibility of social, economic and political structures to initiate, encourage and enforce sustainable governance in society and in institutions will be a major component of sustainability's eventual acceptance and success (Rio +5 website, 2006; SD Gateway website, 2006). This means undertaking an effort to *organize* our systems differently to allow for re-education and public participation in civil society, as well as discovering alternatives to market rewards that tend to incentivize transgressions through the continuance of traditional business practices. Sustainable governance and organization prioritizes overall environmental well-being by rethinking enterprise, encouraging political discourse, and rebuilding social capital (SD Gateway website, 2006).

Summary: Making Sense of Sustainability

Although sustainability is a concept that could potentially help the world's

citizens work together toward reversing a culmination of environmental and social threats

we now face, it has become a highly debated and conflicted topic. In reality,

sustainability is a complex, multi-dimensional, global topic polarized by conservative to

radical interpretations (Jacobs, 1999). Sustainability supports both weak notions of

sustainability that lump the interests of human and natural capital into a growth paradigm,

and strong sustainability that treats them as separate issues; it tries to balance the issues

between the North and the South; it fosters ideas of environmental protection and

economic growth; it recognizes social equity as both a primary and peripheral outcome;

and demands either heavy political intervention or none (Adams, 1995; Boutilier 2005;

Jacobs 1999). It is a study in contrasts.

Refocusing the Use of the Market: Making the Business Case for Sustainability

Sustainability raises a specter of discomfort among business disciplines,

especially the field of economics upon which all business disciplines are based, which

scholars and practitioners may not yet be ready to embrace. For a long time, economic

principles have been sheltered within business schools away from the scrutiny of an

unaware public who takes for granted that unlimited economic growth is supposed to

secure a prosperous future for most of society; that everyone wins in a system run on the

platform of economic growth. In truth, economic principles have run the world for so

long that no one has seriously checked or challenged this assumption to see if it still

remains true, nor verified whether the way economics is currently structured continues to

fulfill needs in the best interest of the public, or if it has primarily become a vehicle for

private wealth-building. Society has come to a point in its development where it is important to ask perhaps not even necessarily if sustainability is the right growth paradigm for the world, but if neoclassical economics in its current form is the wrong one. As stressed by Jennings and Zandbergen (1994) in their application of institutional theory, until certain fields can agree on the meaning of a concept and its value to the system, then there will be little movement past the conventional paradigms shaping current conditions. Now that concepts like sustainability, plus our own gnawing instincts that something is not working, are raising question about our future, it seems now is a good time for academia to have such a discussion.

Neoclassical Economic Ideology: Revisiting Economic Philosophy

Some say business adherence to rampant capitalistic principles, that "netherworld in whose grip the activities of business are caught" (Heilbroner in Shaikh, 2004, p. 372) keeps us tethered to an industrialized state of mind. The interest of business is in monitoring and managing the activities of the market, the space in the capitalist system that allows for the voluntary of exchange of goods and services between interested parties (Lebowitz, 2004; Shaikh, 2004). The market rests specifically on the theory of neoclassical economics, which posits that ordered economic activity that assumes rational economic behavior will result in the market eventually finding efficient solutions that will sate everyone's needs (Lebowitz, 2004). Parallel national policies based on neoliberalism are carried out on behalf of neoclassical ideals (Cameron & Fairbrass, 2002; Fournier & Grey, 2000; Kalleberg, 1995; Lebowitz, 2004; Martinez & Garcia, 2000; Shaikh, 2004; Waddock, n.d.). Neoclassical economics operates on the basis of production, distribution and consumption (Kalleberg, 1995; Shaikh, 2004). Instead of

seeing the market as open to the disorder of external social pressures that might affect its functioning, neoclassical economics is a highly abstract and deductive theory that concentrates primarily on the internal variables of the economy. It regulates market prices through supply and demand to achieve the most efficient use of human and material resources (Kinchloe, 1999). If disorder does arise, neoclassical economics relies on the market's ability to recalibrate itself to a steady state using a set of rational, mathematical assumptions (Kalleberg, 1995; Kinchloe, 1999):

> Raise the price of a commodity, and the computer as consumer chooses less of it; raise the wage, and the computer as capitalist chooses to substitute machinery for workers …. Increase taxes on profits, and the computer as capitalist chooses to invest elsewhere. In every case, the question asked is, how will that individual, the rational calculator of pleasure and pain, react to a change in the data? And the answer is always self-evident – avoid pain, seek pleasure. (Lebowitz, 2004, p. 1-2)

At its most basic level and by ultimate design, the neoclassical economic paradigm is meant to protect private property and self-interests. It favors the rights of owners (of land, modes of production, or control of labor) to act on behalf of themselves. In business philosophy, neoclassicalism is conceptualized as an efficient utility of resources, creation of wealth through profit and shareholder value maximization, and edging out the competition (Cameron & Fairbrass, 2002; Waddock, n.d.). "In short, neither the interests of the community as such, nor the development of human potential are the subject of neoclassical economies" (Lebowitz, 2004, p. 1). At a policy level, this has led to the intensification of neoliberalistic national and international policies, based

on the free and unfettered rights of private enterprise, including, business operating with

minimal government interference; the concentration of wealth through privatization; and

the selling of public enterprise to private investors (Martinez & Garcia, 2000).

Neoliberalism typically works against the public good, for instance, by drastically

reducing public expenditure for social services (Martinez & Garcia, 2000).

Unfortunately, according to Kinchloe (1999), this means that economic issues are

considered apart from the larger context of the environment in which they operate.

Economic options are exercised almost as in a vacuum, away from the political, social,

ecological, and cultural contexts with which they are naturally intertwined. Inevitably,

"[a]s economics is striped from its social and political context, it is also extracted from a

moral context" (Kinchloe, 1999, p. 79), factoring out the effects of economic decisions

on people as social beings.

Once upon a time, however, neoclassical economics subscribed to the idea that its

methods, tools, and theories should be dedicated to the providing for social welfare.

According to Daly and Cobb (1994), Alfred Marshall, the founder of neoclassical

economics had a vision for its role in society. He mentioned that the overarching

contribution of economics was to help solve social problems, while enlarging its

capabilities based on advanced knowledge of the field. Marshall promoted the

application of neoclassical economics as one that was best used in a historical-empirical

context that could be monitored as external circumstances changed. He intended it as a

subject sensitive to its surroundings and time. Unfortunately, two things thwarted this

goal. First, Daly and Cobb (1994) say Marshall himself veered off-course when he let

the doctrine stipulate the social agenda instead of allowing social needs to guide the work

of economics. Marshall ended up focusing so much on trying to address the intrinsic issues of the discipline, that ultimately, his analysis of economics never permitted the inclusion of social questions. Thus, he nurtured the insular nature of the discipline. Second, in the 1940s and 1950s, neoclassical economics fate was sealed when researchers aggressively "scientized" economics in a bid to legitimize its academic standing, by sanitizing it properties. By 1954, when Leon Walrus published his definitive guide on the field called "Elements of Pure Economics," economics had chosen its path for the next 50+ years. Daly and Cobb quote Milton Friedman as saying in 1949 that, "We curtsy to Marshall, but we walk with Walrus" (Daly & Cobb, 1994, p. 30). This is all to say that economics had flourished in light of a clear vision (creating economics as a science) and attached meaning, values and goals through the agreement of a majority of people propelling it to new heights. Economics came into its own during a time after the war when technological prowess was on the rise, salaries and households wanted more modernity, luxury items and leisure time, and the US was on its way to becoming the next superpower. Though it was still missing environmental and social justice elements from its equation, for the time it made sense and it worked.

Economics, in particular, was adapted to function as a science and modeled, according to Daly and Cobb (1994), on the idea of the immutable laws of physics where any change in behavior in the society or the environment can be transmuted or predicted by a specific set of delegated principles. "That meant that economics had to focus on formulating models and finding laws 'governing present economic behavior rather than seeking laws 'governing' the changes of economic systems or asking about contingent historical matters" (Daly & Cobb, 1994, p. 30). Although this has "allowed economics to

guide and predict as not other social science has been able to do, at least during certain historical periods" (Daly & Cobb, 1994, p. 30), it also places economics in the position of being a social science that has abstracted social and environmental components from its scientific calculations. So instead of being able to observe, understand, account for, and adapt to changes as it encounters them, economics as a discipline has purified itself to the point where changes in society and the environment have been addressed and defined according to the theories or laws tailored to design the discipline. Or as Daly and Cobb more succinctly state, "observation of facts has been subordinated to the concerns of theories. Those facts not correlated to the theories have been largely ignored" (p. 31). The influence of physics had led economic principles to be distilled down to mathematical precision and to use methods that could quantify results. Economics subsequent success as one of the most important disciplines in academia and to business management makes it even more difficult to challenge or change its premise. This ongoing success creates a higher-level of disciplinary abstraction as the field solidifies and each generation socialized into economic discipleship builds upon the abstractions, "applying their conclusions to the real world without recognizing the degree of abstraction involved" (Daly & Cobb, 1994, p. 25). In reality, more and more researchers are realizing that science is malleable, valuative and changes over time. Models and theories are subject to refutation. Even economic theory's reliance on the market for steady and reliable feedback for correcting downshifts and upswings is not a sure thing. "The primary goal of science then is the creation of useful models whose utility and quality can be tested against real-world applications. The criteria by which one judges

the utility and quality of models are themselves social constructs that evolve over time"

(Costanza, 2001, p. 460).

Now the time and needs for society and the environment have changed.

Neoclassical economics, though still useful, needs an update, maybe even an overhaul.

Its value needs to be re-evaluated, the goals for its contributions revamped. Though

"conventional economic value is based on the goal of individual utility

maximization…other goals, and thus other values, are possible" (Costanza, 2001, p. 462).

Like sustainability, this will take public discourse worthy of such thinking and admittedly

might only happen if major power brokers are severely provoked to consider such a

scenario. One cannot earnestly examine sustainability without also deeply studying and

critiquing the economic roots of the world's infrastructure.

Reframing Economics as a Sustainable Proposition

Sustainability, despite the recalcitrant nature of the economic paradigm,

encourages academics to peek beyond their own disciplinary and theoretical boundaries

to pull in previously abstracted elements to understand other contexts. What they caution

is having sustainability fall prey to becoming a total cooptation of neoclassical economic

values. Ideally, sustainability would be the catalyst that would activate an honest

appraisal of society's economic foundations as sustainability advocates sort out optimal

definitions and interpretations. Some might venture to say sustainability cannot have the

impact it is intended to have without a reenvisioning of economics because sustainability

in its expanded form cannot adequately contribute to economics narrow field of

operation. In the end, any sustainability measures would be distilled into recycling (pun

intended) the same goal: delivering on a profit target. That will not change the social and environmental issues facing us now and in the future.

A large part of sustainability's philosophy supports ecocentric versus, anthropocentric thinking. Both viewpoints see nature and natural resources as providing great value, but for different reasons. Anthropocentrism reinforces the current neoclassic view of our world which espouses that nature is a catalyst for subsidizing human consumption and excessive living standards. Humans see nature as an unlimited source of production for goods and services that are intended to accommodate and perpetuate the human concern for technological advancement that maintains our modern lifestyles (Thompson & Barton, 1994). Ecocentric logic, on the other hand, values nature and all living things within it as a dimension that is worth conserving for its capacity to nourish the psyche of mankind. Nature is seen as an ecosystem that holistically supports its inhabitants if it is given the right feedback and care to continue its ability to sustain itself. Ecocentrism, "stressed connectedness between human and other aspects of nature (i.e. ecological settings and animals) that transcends the ability of natural resources to satisfy human material or physical wants" (Thompson & Barton, 1994, p. 150). From an ecocentric perspective, the economy is not thought of as the grounding phenomenon around which our society revolves, but is a subsystem that contributes to and is supposed to work in harmony with a coordinated supersystem of checks and balances. This supersystem is the biosphere, or otherwise understood as the earth, which when equalized properly and naturally supports "the long-term carrying capacity or survival of the system" (Jennings & Zandbergen, 1994, p. 1018).

Researchers from outside the field have reimagined the role of economics from the ecocentric point-of-view. An example of this viewpoint comes from Costanza (2001) who formulates an ecological-economic model that describes the economy as part of an ecological system where sustainability acts as an intercept, or a mediating tool that manages the interplay of economic and other subsystems in order to moderate their functions. Costanza contrasts the traditional vision of economics now with an alternative future vision for the role of economics based on its impact on the ecosystem and ultimately, the biosphere. Both of Costanza's models are reproduced below in Figures (1) and (2) as illustrations of the economy's abstracted and deductive view of its function by which it currently dominates society and the environment, versus a more inclusive function in which economics is meant to serve within an integrated whole.

The Conventional Model of the economy is a basic model of how the economy operated efficiently in earlier eras. Labor, land and manufactured capital (capital stocks) are the main drivers in the economic process producing goods and services measured as a country's gross national product (GNP). The current economy works mainly to serve or increase the welfare of the individual through the primary mode of consumption, which makes up the GNP. Consumption is based on fixed preferences, meaning consumer desire varies little, producing a wealth of easily reproducible goods and services for the market. Consumption helps to maintain and increase the three types of capital, which in this model, are loosely divided, meaning manufactured capital, labor and land are easily substituted one for the other. If land (natural resources) gives out, it can be reconstituted or supplemented by the other two forms of capital. Property rights are seen as either public or private and there is generally no room for negotiation on how those rights are

distributed. Constanza in a 2009 commentary for *Real-World Economics Review*, reinforces Daly and Cobb's (1994) focus on using economics as a historical guide. He admits that at the time it was developed, conventional economics worked efficiently because of the historical context of its use. The conventional model was created when human population was low and there was not a need for much physically constructed infrastructure to accommodate them. Calling this an "empty world" context, Costanza says manufactured or built capital was considered the scarce resource, while natural and social capital was still generous. So the model worked to propel the aggressive growth of the market as the main generator of resources for improving human welfare. Since environmental and social resources were abundant, they were not factored in as external entities or casualties of the market since any deviation from their structure could be easily repaired and replenished at the time. The market's most important and main function to produce goods and service for individuals was in good stead, as so many needed basic commodities to boost their quality of life.

Now, according to Costanza (2009), we are in a period of overconsumption, exploding populations, and where every square inch of land is taken over by built capital infrastructure, or is slated to be developed. Economic growth exists now simply for the sake of economic growth without much added benefit to humanity, and in fact, is aiding to its descent. Interestingly, Costanza notes that the goal of economics was always intended to improve human well-being and quality of life. Except now the things that also help ensure a good quality of life are in decline and the situation is reversed: built capital is free-flowing while natural and social capital is greatly reduced. This situation
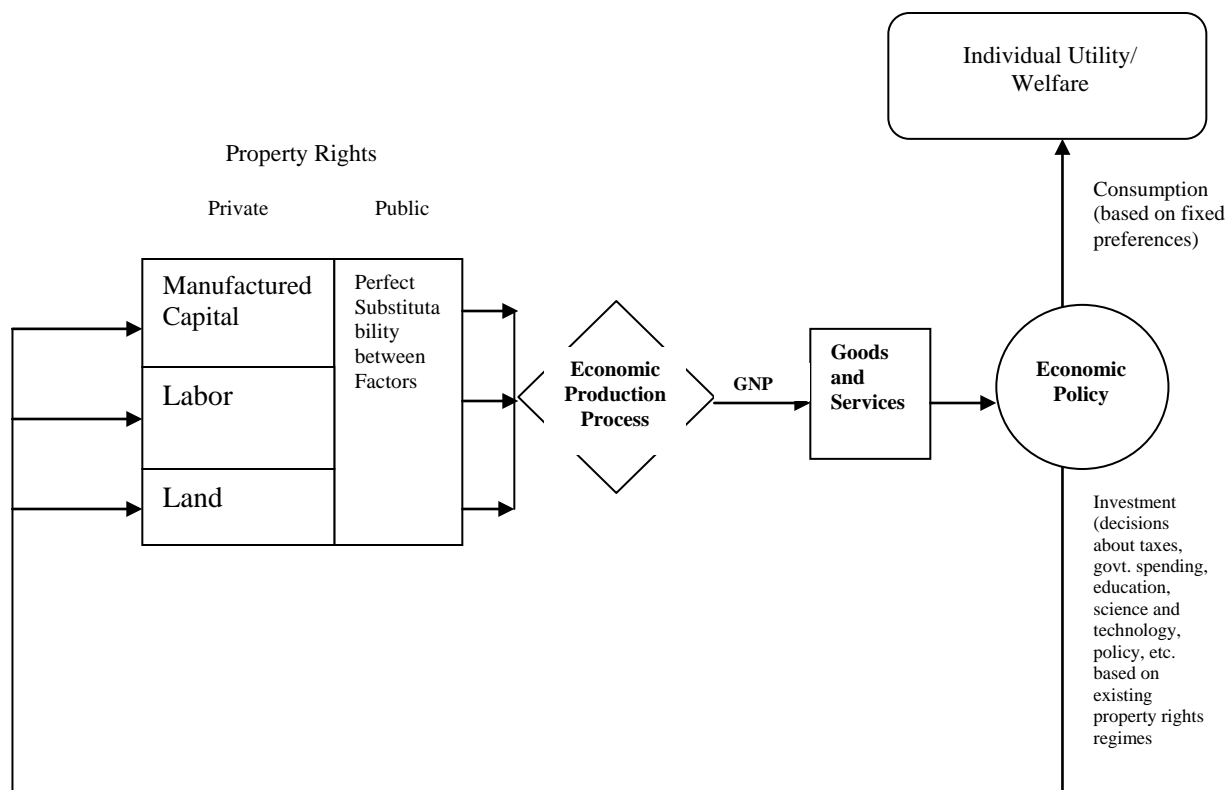
Figure 1. Costanza's (2001) Conventional Model of the Economy

Positive impacts on human capital capacity

being, doing, relating

Ecological
Services and
Amenities

having, being

Well Being (Individual
and Community)

doing, relating

having

Consumption
(based on
changing,
adapting
preferences

Complex Property Rights Regimes

having,
being

Individual   Common   Public

Solar
Energy

Natural Capital

Limited
Substitut
ability
between
Capital
Forms

Wastes

Evolving
Cultural
Norms and
Policy

Restoration
Conservation

Human Capital

Education,
Training, Research

Economic
Production
Process

Goods
and
Services

Institutional
Rules & Norms

Social Capital

GNP

Building

Manufactured
Capital

Investment
(decisions
about taxes,
community
spending,
education,
science and
technology,
policy, etc.,
based on
complex
property
rights regimes

negative impacts on all forms of capital
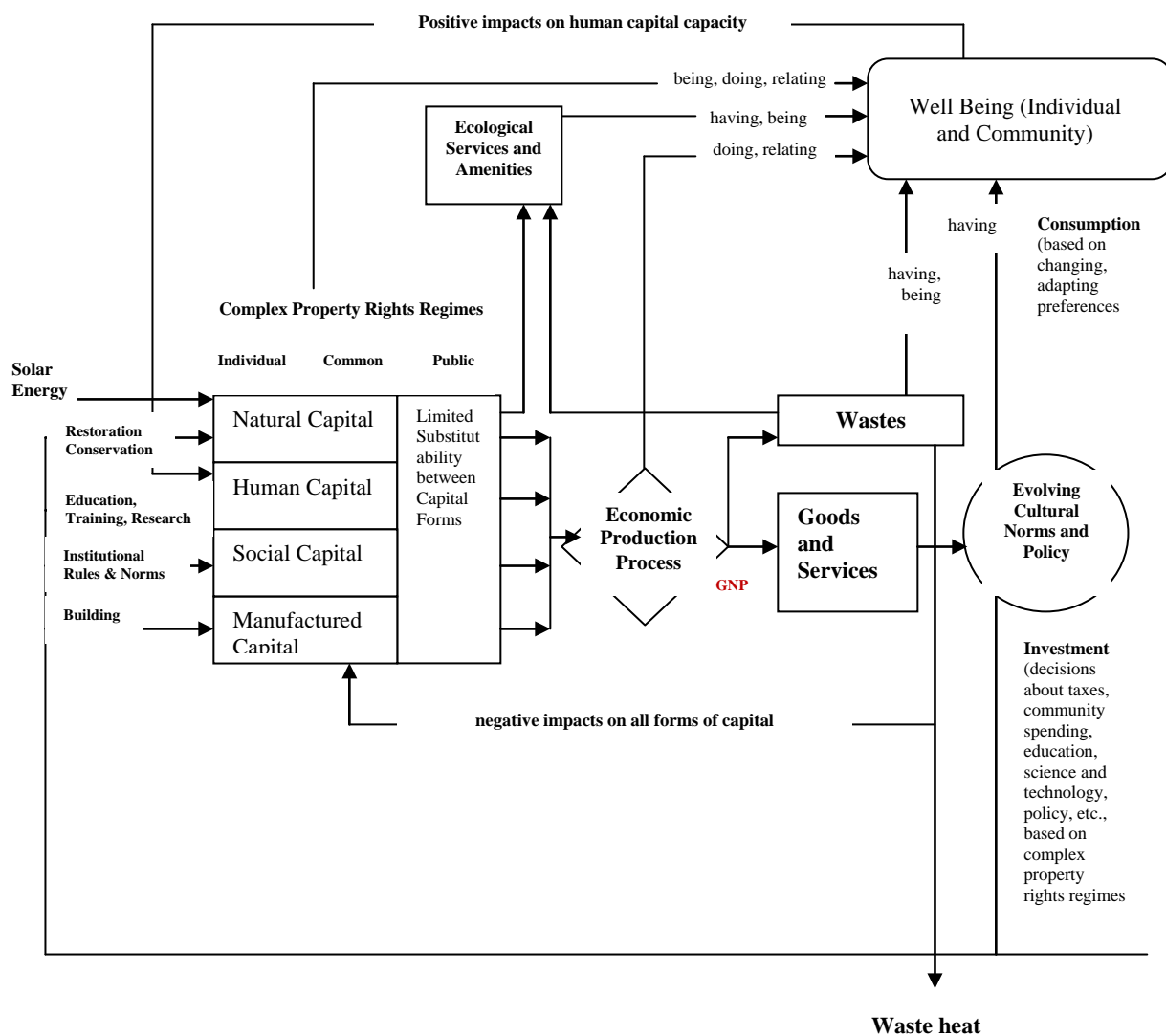
Waste heat

Figure 2. Costanza's (2001) Expanded Model of the Ecological Economic System

calls then for new measures that include a readjustment to an agreed upon and stated vision of ecosystem well-being to reset the balance between natural, social and economic capital.

Therefore, Costanza's (2001) Ecological Economic Model is refashioned to reflect a much more complex set of interactions that hold the economy more accountable for its participation in the ecosystem. This version starts with the assumption that the goal is to achieve human and non-human well-being through ecological sustainability, social fairness and real economic efficiency. In the model, certain characteristics and elements of the conventional model remain, but overall, it has been altered to reflect ecosystem priorities. To capture ecological sustainability, the means of capital have been designated into more explicit categories, including natural capital, human capital, social capital and manufactured capital. The definitions of each are as follows from Rao: (a) Person-made capital, based on manufacturing or related economic activities; (b) Natural capital, consisting of non-renewable and renewable resources; (c) Human capital [based on] knowledge, technical know-how, and health; and (d) Social capital [based on] culture, people's institutions, efficacy, and quality of various institutions, cooperative behavior, trust, social norms, and people's participation in decision-making (Rao, 2000, p. 87). Because of overuse in the conventional model, these forms of capital are no longer generally substituted for one another, and once expended, they cannot be easily regenerated. The biosphere, at this point, can handle only so much continued expansion of material goods and services produced by the economy. In his 2009 commentary Costanza cites Frank (2007), who notes that overconsumption of material goods, especially large positional items like houses and cars create a "positional arms race"

where the ever-increasing pursuit of these status symbols inflate prices, fuels economic bubbles, like the recent housing bubble, and also increases income disparity, which erodes confidence among all income groups (my own personal two cents is that psychological confidence is diminished as well). The new model suggests that using consumption in a way that finds value in non-marketed goods and services, provided locally through natural and social capital or as Costanza labeled, "ecological services and amenities" will redirect the sole reliance on marketed goods and services through the economy. Waste from all production processes is of course accounted for in this model as well. Therefore, real economic efficiency is attained in tandem with the other two once ecological goods and services are factored into the system of production and can accommodate some of the environmental and social needs that the economic arms race cannot or has ignored.

The real change Costanza's Ecological-Economic Model encourages is more focus on fostering community care, development and maintenance. Social fairness is represented by a revised focus on overall individual *and* community well-being instead of just individual welfare. Consumption is still honored, but in a way that moderates consumption patterns in order to aim for more equity. Preferences are recognized as varied and changing. Costanza's (2001) Ecological Economic Model alternative also rearranges the system of property rights with the understanding that a third option to create "common" property rights again moderates the extremes of private/individual and public/no rights when resources have to be accessed to act in the interests of more than just a few. All of this is contingent upon cultural norms and policy that are continually evaluated in the face of meeting ecosystem needs, not just feeding economic ones that

address only economic policy. For this expanded system Costanza (2009) suggests that government not only stay involved in monitoring the privately marketed economy, but also develop the common property rights sector, especially as it pertains to understanding a non-marketed approach to creating ecological goods and services. Most importantly, government should act as a facilitator among sector stakeholders in envisioning and setting the goals and timeframes for implementing sustainably-sound ecosystems for a more stable biosphere (i.e., Earth).

Formulating the Business Case for Sustainability and Sustainable Development

Many businesses hesitate to embrace sustainable ventures without a proper business case to support such a move. A business case provides legitimacy for businesses to redirect resources toward additional corporate objectives. It is actually the value proposition that justifies their participation in a new enterprise, this one carrying the hope that wider society will also benefit. However, boiling sustainability down to a business case is not a simple feat given its complicated nature. A business case tends to be tethered to the demands of our current economic framework, so one must work against the inherent temptation to create a business case that continues to strongly preference a pure profit objective. The market, in pursuing sustainability, will play an unconventional role in order to accommodate the entry of environmental and social justice. Because of this, those who are capable or who have an interest in corralling, changing or even ignoring the market for attaining any degree of sustainability will have to alter their perception of using traditional business and economic measures to build a business case that shows true sincerity toward securing sustainable progress. In the following section, several descriptions of the business case for sustainability are presented, each

highlighting a range of goals and emphasis on how market values could be best used for achieving various sustainable outcomes based on authors' different interpretations of sustainability. Each suggests different ways of applying the market to address aspects of the economic, environmental and social issues presented by sustainability, from traditional processes to more radical rethinks. Business case arguments for sustainability come from several authors including: Holliday, Scheidheimy, & Watts (2002) of the WBSCD; Elkington & Hartigan (2008); Nicholls (2005); Porter and Kramer (2006).

The Business Case for Sustainable Economic Growth

Soon after the Rio conference in 1992, the interest in sustainability as a corporate function began to take shape (Holliday, Scheidheimy, & Watts, 2002), forming the notion of corporate sustainability. An industry council called the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), formed in 1990 to represent the business perspective at the Rio Earth Summit in 1992. Intended to be a temporary committee of 48 companies, it is still functioning with a membership of now about 170 companies (Holliday, Scheidheimy, & Watts, 2002; WBSCD website, 2005). They continue to build awareness among companies of the advantages of participating in sustainability, as well as the ramifications for not doing so. Because of this effort, many notable companies have adopted some sustainable practices, including Hewlett-Packard, Shell, SC Johnson, Xerox, and Ford. Corporate sustainability advocates like CEOs and Chairmen Holliday, Scheidheimy, and Watts (2002) of the WBSCD maintain that economic growth on a global scale in a sustainable fashion remains the key to pulling the world out of the overindustrialized rut in which it finds itself. Business must find a way to put its standing market expertise to support more inclusive agendas and better, more efficient use. The

WBSCD in 2002 actually recommended a list of 10 principles to boost the business case

for what they chose to term "sustainable development," one of the more controversial

phrases of the sustainability debate because of its emphasis on economic growth. A brief

description of how each of these factors into business strategy and operations follows:

The market. Holliday et al. see globalization as an inevitable part of

sustainability's success. Globalization should be seen as a vehicle for value chain

fulfillment, alleviating even the poorest economies in the world through the lifting of

trade barriers to make it easier for rich and poor countries to exchange goods and

services. Social gains may also be realized as trade globalization enhances democracy

and equality when citizens who participate in global markets have better access to

information, technology and finances to lobby for better living conditions.

The right framework. Arguments here rest on the need for governments and

governmental agencies to create better economic, social and political conditions for

business to be able to practice sustainable development on a global level and to attract

foreign investments. Such conditions include using market and non-market instruments

to "deliver more environmentally sound forms of production and consumption" (p. 60)

like: full-cost pricing, tax-reform, subsidy reductions, redefinition of property rights,

environmental market creation, effective democracy and governance, human rights

policies, reducing bribery and corruption, and greater government and corporate

transparency and accountability.

Eco-efficiency. Eco-efficiency combines the ideals of economics with ecology to

encourage more efficient production processes that will reduce waste and pollution, and

better manage the resources of the natural environment. Eco-efficiency involves four

suggested methods of efficient product manufacturing and processing: (a) De-materialization – understanding customer needs enough so that unwanted product is not produced when it is not needed; substituting knowledge flows for material flows; (b) Production loop closure – re-engineering production systems as a closed loop model where unused output is recycled for re-manufacture or reuse in nature; (c) Service extension – re-thinking the economy as demand-driven instead of supply-driven by providing consumers with flexible purchasing options, such as leasing rather than buying; and (d) Functional extension – providing products with enhanced functionality accompanied by product or service extensions to increase a product's shelf life (Holliday et al., 2002).

Corporate social responsibility (CSR). CSR is the ethical justification for integrating "corporate social concerns into the business strategy" (p. 103). Because global growth often means a clash of cultures, corporations need CSR to assess how their economic interactions affect social and environmental conditions and can be used as a measure of control for monitoring their reputations with employees and surrounding communities. "Three key benefits of CSR are brand value and reputation, improvements in human capital and revenue generation, particularly in large, and as yet undeveloped markets" (p. 112). Ultimately, CSR is touted to bring respect to a company the more it is tied to its core business strategy.

Learning to change. Holliday et al. say several organizational factors should be considered as corporations re-vamp their structures to become more sustainably sound. One, leaders should initiate a re-visitation of the organization's purpose and vision through open dialogue with employees and important stakeholders; Two, employees

should be empowered to continually articulate and find ways to act on newly created sustainable propositions; Three, companies should be ready to reorganize their management systems to reflect the formal integration of sustainable values and forms of measurement; and four, open and constant communication with external stakeholders should be maintained to address mutually-agreed upon priorities.

From dialogue to partnership. The WBSCD continues to be adamant about companies employing stakeholder engagement throughout the sustainable development process with players internal and external to the organization. Holliday et al. estimates that by unearthing common ground, partnerships can yield new policies, products, services, and market research. Stakeholders will have to be cognizant of respecting relationship dynamics by sorting out shared and opposing viewpoints; finding ways to bridge diversity; attracting and sustaining partnership involvement; addressing unequal relations of power; assessing both the costs and the benefits of partnerships; and managing how all partnerships will be governed.

Informing and providing consumer choice. Companies adopting a sustainable strategy should also be prepared to educate and be educated by the public about the benefits of producing and consuming sustainably. Using various channels of communication will be paramount in gaining consumer trust and feedback around supporting new patterns of consumption, including advertising, branding, appropriate labeling and enhanced supplier relationships for better retail packaging and promotion. Although those solicited for input feel is it not necessary or possible to lessen public consumption under this scenario, they do express confidence in at least being able to change the nature of consumption to be more responsible.

Innovation. Companies must be willing to amplify the effort and attention they put into practicing innovation as a regular part of their business in terms of creating significant technological, economic, social, political and institutional changes capable of redistributing resources and opportunity more equally. Innovation can be made easier through the implementation of infrastructures that support more open thinking, such as research; public and private funding; stakeholder engagement; new market-based performance measures; sharing and protection of intellectual capital between developed and developing countries; reporting of results, and recognition of the urgency in meeting the needs of the less fortunate.

Reflecting the worth of the earth. Part of the business case for sustainable development is that in order to protect the earth, a market value or cost will have to be assigned for denigrating its climate and its people in order for companies to be able to ultimately respect their impact on both. In order to make society and business understand the vast implications of earth as an ecosystem under threat, policies must communicate nature as a valuable asset. Some of the suggestions for market expansion are carbon-emissions trading, alternative energy options and carbon sequestration (underground carbon-storage). Once this kind of outlook on the ecosystem is applied, resources can be charged to finance conservation instead of being destroyed for free.

Making markets work for all. Poverty keeps people marginalized from essential needs like education, safe housing, transport, clean water, sanitation and healthcare, leaving a significant portion of the population out of the economy. This leaves the severely poor few options but to resort to activities that further undermine the stability of the ecosystem, including that upon which corporations rely upon to keep its mainstream

operations running smoothly. As well, as mainstream markets saturate and economic

conditions deteriorate, corporations find they run the risk of even those well-off being

less able to consume their products and services. Creating new markets for the poor then,

such as lower-entry goods and services, therefore is in the best interest of companies.

Companies will have to innovate to find ways to meet people where they are

economically so that they can begin to compete both as sustainable consumers and

eventually producers for their own communities.

The Business Case for Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Goddard (2006) and Porter and Kramer (2006) both make the case primarily for

the inclusion of sustainability in business strategy operations, using CSR as their main

gauge for defining the social impacts of sustainability issues. Porter and Kramer (2006)

see CSR as a broad category under which sustainability is just one area of engagement, as

opposed to those like Wilson (2003) and Holliday, Scheidheimy, and Watts (2002) who

see CSR as a subset of sustainability or sustainable development, as well as the main

thrusts of the movement. Porter and Kramer (2006), in particular, describe sustainability

as the arm of CSR that "emphasizes environmental and community stewardship" (p. 4).

Again, this is yet another example of the confusion of terms used to describe the

phenomenon. Nevertheless, most proponents use sustainability, sustainable development

or CSR to uniformly discuss the interdependence between business, society and the

environment, and the need to embody that connection solidly through business practice.

Porter and Kramer are dismayed by the fact that CSR has not been very effective

on social and environmental issues to date because it is still viewed more as a philosophy

than integrated as a true strategic measurement in business planning. Companies that see

themselves as "practicing" CSR still usually treat it as a distinctly different exercise from the more frequent evaluation of corporate competitiveness that takes place through the value chain, the vehicle that drives and justifies all of a company's reasons for doing business and subsequent activities it uses to participate in and make an impact on the market. Because companies lag in connecting their CSR efforts to the value chain or other evaluative measures that gauge their social and environmental effect on the market, and hence, society, most CSR projects end up being totally disconnected from the main focus of the business; tend to be reactive instead of proactive; have little to do with providing much meaningful change; and end up being mostly cosmetic window dressing for businesses (Porter & Kramer, 2006).

Both Goddard (2006) and Porter and Kramer (2006) make the business case for CSR expressing many of the same reasons as Holliday et al. as to why business should participate in building a sustainable market. Goddard (2006) underlines the merits of using social auditing and reporting to "validate corporate performance objectively, verifying actions against standards" (p. 64). He uses social auditing to bring together the business case and the social case for CSR. Goddard's case is less product and service-oriented than Holliday et al.'s case, instead focusing on the moral and image implications for becoming CSR motivated. According to Goodard, a social audit will look for adherence to several areas of business and social CSR including cause-related marketing; ethical relativism; reputation management; competitive advantage; social justice; stakeholder theory; moral obligation; and an exchange of values from other sectors.

Though Porter and Kramer (2006) touch on these factors and consider them important, their business case focuses on advising companies to stick to using their

existing business instruments as a guide for incorporating CSR into their mainstream activities. Using key business models as the framework for CSR decisions will help, according to Porter and Kramer, ease the divide between what a business does and what it should be doing as a part of its responsibility in helping to balance the ecosystem, per Costanza (2001). In doing so, companies can work with civil society to find points of shared value that create mutual dependence so one does not supplant the importance of the other.

Porter and Kramer start by encouraging companies to revisit their value chain to explore what they call *inside-out* linkages; understanding how each part of the value chain impacts the outside community or world. Their value chain assessment will depend upon the particular location of each company, its size, the social context within which it operates and how it typically anticipates the evolving relevance of its products and services, as well as needs of its customers. Then there are *outside-in* factors to consider; those things that make-up the competitive context of a company that directly or indirectly affects how it runs its business on a day-to-day basis. Examples include labor, education, housing and healthcare; government policies; local demand for a product; and the availability of supporting industries. Any of these can decide to what extent CSR should be an integral part of a business. Second, Porter and Kramer advise companies to be savvy about which social issues will best complement, intersect or can be best addressed by their business. Companies should not overextend themselves just because a generic need exists, but should be cognizant of where they can genuinely contribute and where other sectors, industries or businesses can do better. This case is best made for companies that can participate in certain CSR issues giving preference to those that have

value chain impacts which would be "significantly affected by the company's activities in the ordinary course of business" (p. 9), or tackling *social dimensions of competitive context*, issues in a company's external environment that might have severe consequences on strategic competitiveness should they go unchecked.

Third, companies should be proactive in creating a corporate social agenda that does not just take preventative measures to offset social or environmental damage, but that actively produces a strategy meant to advance economic benefit through targeted social progress. This is pushing social responsibility to its outer limits by encouraging companies to practice a strategic form of CSR where major resources are allocated to developing projects that yield tangible results and measurable goals and whose "benefits are large and distinctive over a specific period of time" (p. 11). This is where innovation would play a big part in discovering new opportunities for growth and social change.

Fourth, in making strategic CSR really effective, practices governing and overseeing inside-out and outside-in influences should be applied in tandem so that "activities in the value chain can be performed in ways that reinforce improvements on the social dimensions of context" (p. 12). Integrating the two across a designated social agenda instead of working each separately further coordinates and strengthens a company's ability to develop and commit to CSR as part of their everyday mode of management.

And lastly, Porter and Kramer believe that companies that can actually cohesively tie their unique value proposition ("a set of needs a company can meet for its chosen customers that other cannot" (p. 13)), to a chosen social dimension making it a key focus and function of their business have created the ultimate connection between business and

society; where every aspect of the value chain fulfills or answers to a socially-responsible agenda. Companies like Whole Foods who operate on a fully sustainable basis, from what it buys, to what it sells, to how it recycles and to whom it serves, the impacts on planet and people are figured in every aspect of the work from production to retail to consumption. Companies who are able to operate like this or who can begin to envision a business like this, will attain a wide competitive advantage as sustainable needs and interests continue to morph.

The Business Case for Social Entrepreneurship

As part of their business cases for sustainability, Holliday et al. (2002) and Porter and Kramer (2006) have acknowledged that poverty, as one of the most intractable social problems of our age, as well as the other issues that result from it, is a foremost reason for companies to divert some of their resources and energy to addressing it. However, there are some who wish to use business to agitate for radical and extreme social change in the most forgotten pockets of the world, and therefore, chose to make poverty and other catastrophes that threaten to affect human survival their main business proposition, the driving force behind their whole enterprise. The phenomenon called social entrepreneurship and the social entrepreneurs creating the momentum for this growing market model are breaking free from constraints that might otherwise hold back large corporations from pursuing such an aggressive social agenda. Social entrepreneurs will take chances other companies cannot or will not attempt, feeling unencumbered enough to experiment in finding the right complex combination of market forces, funding and stakeholders that would contribute significantly to the successful participation of the poor in local and global markets. Social entrepreneurs are eager to cultivate the high volume,

low margin markets from which larger, more established companies might otherwise shy away. Social entrepreneurs also believe that natural connections should be fostered between private enterprise, the public sector and civil society to leverage the capabilities of all three toward building an accessible means of economy and the motives for enforcing social justice. For social entrepreneurs, profit is secondary, if not tertiary in some cases; they do not wait to act before all the evidence is in, the research reported or the business case for change is made. They seek ways to change market dynamics that respect natural, social, human, intellectual and cultural forms of capital; they innovate regularly; and they look for long-term gains over short-term advantages. In other words, according to Nicholls (2005):

> Social entrepreneurs are the disruptive agents of the social sector; mission-driven opportunity seekers who are constantly searching for innovative solutions to social problems. They are risk-takers who add social value on behalf of a range of stakeholders. In these characteristics, the social entrepreneur and conventional entrepreneurs share much in common. The key difference lies in the form of the entrepreneurial objective, with the social entrepreneur focusing on social outcomes, not financial outputs. (p. 4)

Both Nicholls (2005) and Elkington and Hartigan (2008) describe several different business models that would propel the expansion of and case for social entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurs are more flexible in the way they interpret the market's potential or failures, and therefore, rely on a range of organizational structures to accommodate a breadth of ideas and issues. Being able to find the right funding

mechanism for social entrepreneurship ventures is a key issue since many social missions start out as a response to crisis and evolve to become more structured as needs grow.

The first model is the most familiar to those involved with social change. A non-profit or not-for-profit model usually provides entry for social needs too removed from the business psyche or reach to be adequately addressed by any market. Non-profits are a foothold for a community or cause to simply get attention and to be heard. Non-profits then heavily rely upon outside advocates to fund their missions through donations or grants. Non-profit entrepreneurs tend to be on the ground floor working with beneficiaries of the communities they are trying to serve, eventually empowering them to "assume ownership of the initiative, enhancing its longer-term sustainability" (Elkington & Hartigan, 2008, p. 33). Although non-profits often touch many underserved people and places, their proliferation has stretched the supply of donation and grant monies available, leaving many underfunded and unable to create additional capacity and scale to expand their services. This is why most social entrepreneurs are moving to the second model, which is a non-profit hybrid. If the entrepreneur is really determined and the social need is great, they can sometimes manage to turn the non-profit venture into a partially self-funded organization by having figured out how to develop an internal source of income. In non-profit hybrids the entrepreneur expects to make some profit from the venture by delivering goods and services that meet the most immediate needs of the poor and the reinvest those funds back into the business. Under this scenario, the venture is run more like a business. The entrepreneur still relies on funding from other sources, but broadens the call for investment monies to include public and private lenders, as well as philanthropic donors, so they can increase their base of operation. The

non-profit hybrid model does bring more stability to the venture. However, Elkington and Hartigan (2008) do caution that one, non-profit hybrids take effort to get launched and entrepreneurs will have to be prepared for a lot of ups, downs and uncertain outcomes. Secondly, by getting private enterprise involved as a funding source, social entrepreneurs using a hybrid risk the private investor pushing them toward becoming a mainstream business. Social entrepreneurs must be careful that such collusion does not tempt them to stray from their original mission of creating benefit for underserved markets.

The third model of social entrepreneurship is developing, although it is still quite rare in the US. These are businesses that are purely for-profit ventures, but use all of their profit and income to scale the business large enough to drive major social and environmental transformations across a wide population or area. They are enterprises that "are fully self-sufficient…either through exploiting profit opportunities in their core activities or through developing distinct businesses through which the social mission may be funded" (Nicholls, 2005, p. 4). The for-profit model allows social entrepreneurs to better manager debt and equity so that self-funding is not easily hampered. Mainstream investors are readily drawn to this model and may be willing to work with for-profit ventures since they are open-minded about using traditional sources of capital. This type of business requires, however, that entrepreneurs not only heed the hazards of the non-profit hybrid, but also must take on a stronger leadership role to deal with the everyday issues of running a business including profit and loss statements, human resources, issues of succession, etc. since these enterprises are totally dependent on themselves to make money. Companies that fall into this category have an opportunity to show large

corporations how such a model can be managed for social advancement through financial leverage.

Summary: Refocusing the Use of the Market

In order for sustainability to be solidly effective in its entirety while managing ecosystem interactions, policymakers, academics, scientists, educators, corporations, and the public would need to, if not totally accept that an ecocentric view of governing and living would possibly yield better sustainable outcomes in the long-run for the environment, economy and society, they would at least have to acknowledge that such a view exists and is worth understanding and debating as an alternative to the overshadowing dominance of neoclassical economics. Acknowledging the role an alternative view could play in the world and having a serious discussion about the possibility is essential to getting a handle on how economy can establish a closer harmonic relationship to other subsystems of activity. Costanza (2001) says that open discourse is vital to creating a shared vision of what the field (in this case, sustainability and economics) is supposed to accomplish in the public sphere and for whom. In other words, stating what their overall meaning should be, as well as the value of these two areas and what their intended goals are, separately and together, will help clarify and coalesce any agendas deemed necessary for creating higher-level, systemic and paradigmatic change in favor of a more sustainable state. Discourse around shared values and an alternate view would lay the foundation for more businesses to be able to justify their role in creating and managing new objectives that support a balanced ecosystem, giving them room to incorporate long-term planning strategies geared toward reorganizing patterns of production and consumption. The business case for

sustainability provides the reasons and means for engaging in sustainable practices, but being able to first agree upon, understand, and reorder economics place in the world relative to larger needs, will provide the greater impetus for achieving a sustainable mindset.

Corporate Sustainability and Organizational Change: A need for a new era

Where sustainability really meets its toughest challenge is in overcoming resistance to the concept within the corporate sector, which for a long time, debated the veracity of issues like global warming and corporations' responsibility for contributing to environmental decay. But as evidence of social and environmental degradation continued to be exposed, corporate sustainability emerged as a new term to recognize the effects of industrialization (Wilson, 2003), by outlining principles for voluntary corporate involvement to operate more efficiently and responsibly in production, fiscally, and administratively (Holliday, Scheidheimy, & Watts, 2002). However, some critics say the so-called "greening of industry" described by corporate sustainability is clearly defined to limit the amount of action taken toward sustainability and to offset the radical slant that demands more accountability (Welford, 1997, 1998). Therefore, the concepts of sustainability and corporate sustainability have separate meanings, and the actions taken by corporations to re-envision the way they do business become fodder for debate as to what is enough or not enough to accomplish a sustainable objective.

Currently corporations, policymakers, and sustainability advocates alike are struggling with how willing and how capable corporations are in their ability to confront the sustainability issue. They are all asking the same questions: To what degree should the US or corporations acknowledge the need for sustainability measures? How far

should they go to help offset planetary changes? Again, the debate is all over the map.

Dunphy, Griffiths, and Benn (2003) reflect that there are those who completely deny

industrialization is having any adverse effect on ecological and social well-being.

Dyllick and Hockerts (2002) and Senge and Carstedt (2001) observe that others believe

organizations should maintain economic dominance, with subordinate attention to

ecological and social measures, as well as those who believe corporations should give

equal attention to implementing ecological and social responsibility, along with economic

sustainability (Dyllick & Hockerts, 2002; Senge & Carstedt, 2001). Banerjee (2002)

belongs in a camp with those who believe corporations are completely corporatizing the

sustainability movement, dictating the terms of sustainability to appear 'green' and to

avoid too much public scrutiny. And Korten (1995) announces his lack of faith in

corporations' ability to enact any real progress in fulfilling authentic sustainability

measures, and espouses that such a task is best left to activists or community groups.

From this, it's easy to surmise that getting corporations to acknowledge a social

role in society is a developing process. Today, many companies still see themselves as

being forced to comply with environmental and societal mandates to act on behalf of

sustainability (Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2003; Holliday, Scheidheimy, & Watts, 2002).

At the end of the day, a majority of corporate managers view the integration of

environmental or social matters into business strategy beyond governmental compliance

as an incremental cost, nuisance, burden, or pressure to meeting their financial targets.

These attitudes are persistent in the industrialized north among countries like the US, UK,

and New Zealand. A UK study by Fineman (1997) of automotive managers, directors,

and executives show that this group is rather blasé about environmental issues seeing the

issue as "overhyped" and too "apocalyptic." They showed little concern in integrating an environmental ethic into their personal or professional lives and generally rejected any radicalism or active environmentalism (Fineman, 1997). Springett (2003) undertook a study to examine New Zealand business leaders' level of understanding of sustainable development. She discovered that they rarely understood or acknowledged its more radical critique of capitalism as the primary means of production and consumption; its connection to the tension between industrialized and developing countries; or its roots in a larger democratic discourse with affected stakeholders. Business leaders, for the most part remained stuck in the corporate co-opted eco-modernist stance that simply encourages production that is more efficient and a localized sense of employee and community welfare (Springett, 2003). To industry's credit, there are some companies trying to reverse the corporate image into one of concern and responsibility. But although corporate sustainability advocates like the WBCSD acknowledge progress, the council realizes businesses need to step up the pace. The WBCSD feels, "The challenge is to move away from a compliance-focused crisis-avoidance mentality, to seeing good environmental and social performance as the essential foundation for the market and public reputation" (Holliday, Scheidheimy, & Watts, 2002, p.95). Proactive organizational change is going to play a key role in changing attitudes and action toward business sustainability.

The Modern vs. Postmodern Role of Corporations

Debate about the level of corporate adoption of sustainability as a guiding principle naturally prompts speculation about the organizational structural and cultural changes that would need to occur to accommodate such a different premise. Although

the social interests still bombard corporations with arguments for sustainability action and policy, corporate reaction is still within a modernist framework of change. Typical responses range from holdover attitudes from the 80s of outright rejection and non-responsiveness, to minimal compliance, to beginning acceptance of sustainability as an efficiency measure if it reduces cost or produces a cost benefit (Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn 2003). According to Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, many larger corporations are at the last point, as they can no longer afford to risk the complacency of rejection or non-responsiveness. Few corporations have reached a level of actually embedding sustainability as a strategic and value commitment within their operating, value, and culture systems. However, most still see sustainability as a reactive condition, fueled by the modernist view of complexity, change, and uncertainty (Hatch, 1997). Corporations are facing a new environment of high complexity, trying to understand how to respond internally. The information perspective of organization-environment relations argues that, "…managers feel uncertain when they perceive the environment to be unpredictable, and this occurs when they lack the information that they feel they need to make sound decisions" (Hatch, 1997, p. 90). Mapping the corporate struggle with sustainability, corporations are likely undergoing moderate to high uncertainty as their environments are high in complexity and rapidly changing (Knowledge@Wharton, 2003), and managers are weighed down by the prospect of having to interpret too much information, or keep up with changing data (Hatch, 1997). From a modernist perspective then, corporations are still beset by the view that corporations only have so much power to respond to environmental changes, and thus, will only react to change when forced to. No doubt, corporations are perplexed by the "new story" emerging about business and the world

(Berry in Senge, 2001, p.26). The old story was natural resources exist to further industrial progress. Now corporations have to face the possibility that those resources are finite. Yet, according to some at the Wharton Business School, you won't find too many corporations opposed to sustainability efforts. What you will hear are comments that denote puzzlement as to how to get started, such as, "We just don't know how to measure this," or "This is very hard for big industrial companies to get their hands around" (Knowledge@Wharton, 2003, p 2 & 4). Senge likewise senses corporate consternation: "Businesses seeking sustainability can easily feel like a trapeze artist suspended in the air. They have [to] let go of a new worldview, without know what they can hang onto" (Senge, 2001, p.27).

However, sustainability advocates still push for change. The first suggested change that they put forth is for corporations to move proactively from a static to a dynamic way of being. As change speeds up, dynamic models of organization can more quickly help corporations anticipate environmental needs and stay ahead of the curve, or at least keep pace (Hatch, 1997). This will be especially key in order to participate in sustainability, as advocates are looking not just for a few fundamental tweaks in existing corporate systems, but a whole shift in spirit and conscience. The ultimate goal of those who want to see more sustaining corporations is to create organizations that,

> …will act both locally and globally, will put a premium on speedily repositioning themselves strategically to take advantage of new market opportunities and will add value through providing new levels of customized service…They regard their success as dependent also on the 'intellectual and skill capital' of their workforce. Therefore, they systematically develop the skills of those in the core workforce

and contribute to skill development in the workforces of suppliers and alliance

partners. (Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2003, p. 65)

They clearly understand this will require a dramatic shift from a "dying" organizational

perspective:

We contrast this world…where organizations were discrete, and enduring entities

with clear boundaries, were primarily cost-driven, emphasized hierarchy and

control, and maintained traditional ways of doing things, resisting change unless

the traditional ways were clearly failing. (Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2003, p.65)

Dunphy, Griffiths, and Benn (2003) like others, espouse organizational re-invention.

They want corporations to initiate transformational change at the deepest levels of

organizational belief, vision, culture, and structure. Only transformational change can

transition business beliefs to another plateau, fundamentally altering organizational

assumptions about its relationship to the environment (Cummings & Worley, 2001;

Weick & Quinn, 1999). Leaders that decide to undertake sustainability are asking

employees to break the mold and create a new reality. Sustainability means no longer

doing business as usual and that the status quo will be challenged (Doppelt, 2003).

Whether sustainability's agitation for change indicates that we are in or

experiencing movement toward a postindustrial society, one cannot be sure. Senge, as a

sustainability advocate, champions the move to a postindustrial era, but he contends that

we are still far from that ideal. To him, this "New Economy" of globalization is

industrialization on a larger and more complex scale. New technologies are only

repeating history, not re-inventing it, as new industries replacing old ones still operate

under the same economic, industrialist framework. Despite the complexity they face,

organizations have not compensated for the shift in their structures, cultures, and values. He asks and answers, "What would constitute the beginnings of a truly postindustrial age? Only fundamental shifts in how the economic system affects the larger systems within which it resides – namely, society and nature" (Senge, 2001, p.24). In other words, according to Senge, we still have a long way to go to realize true post-industrialism and thus, sustainability.

Forming the Ideal Organization for Sustainability

Nevertheless, Senge and other organizational theorists believe that recent changes in the economic, technical, social, and cultural environment will eventually lead to new postindustrialist ways of organizing that will meet sustainability and other organizational ideals (Hatch, 1997; Senge & Carstedt, 2001). These ideals are often cited by sustainability advocates and represent the sweeping change they hope to see that make sustainability measures easier to implement. Highlighted in the following sections are a few areas of change that organizations serious about sustainability should try to address to best support ecological and human development.

Corporate structure. A strong characteristic of a postindustrialist society cited by sociologists and futurists is, "the abandonment of hierarchies in favor of communication networks with a consequent shift from vertically to horizontally structured organizations" (Hatch, 1997, p. 24). Therefore, many sustainability advocates feel the same about traditional hierarchy and the complexity of corporations – They simply do not suit sustainable objectives. Griffiths and Petrick (2001) say there are three reasons for this. One, traditional corporate architecture does not effectively allow information to reach decision-makers. Because management tiers are so fragmented and siloed, there is no

specialized point of entry that permits decision makers to attend to sustainability issues.

Secondly, the hierarchical nature of organizations favors a dominant ideology, protecting

a status quo threatened by new sustainable innovations. Third, the traditional structure

bars access to social stakeholders outside the realm of traditional shareholders, as they are

thought to disturb the focus on organization performance (Griffiths & Petrick, 2001).

Griffiths and Petrick suggest alternative architectures more accommodative of

sustainability, such as networked organizations. Networked organizations are flatter,

with horizontal communication, under informal rules and control (Griffiths & Petrick,

2001; Hatch, 1997). Several small independent firms or smaller outsourced firms

operating around a larger core firm usually comprise a networked organization. Virtual

organizations are another sustaining alternative. They take advantage of the benefits of

the information society by linking key corporate functions through a technology network

operated by a core staff. Organizations can use virtual technology for all or part of their

operations. Together, these architectural types represent smaller, decentralized entities

built for speed, flexibility, and information access. They leave a "minimal environmental

footprint" (Griffiths & Petrick, 2001, p.1579), support continued product and service

innovation (Dunphy et al., 2003; Griffiths & Petrick, 2001), and encourage customer and

continuous quality improvement (French & Bell, 1999). Most importantly, these

structures are a "non-hierarchical, continuously evolving net of interrelated groups and

individuals" (Dunphy et al., 2003, p.70) functioning as a whole, and strongly integrated

and aligned with their environment.

  Human capital. The logic of business has shifted. Companies are relying less on

physical assets and resources to address the radical changes in our economic and social

conditions, and more on intangible assets found in a number of "New Economy" constructs, including a growing service economy and evolving knowledge in information and postindustrial societies (De Geus, 1997, Pawlowsky, 2001). To move toward sustainability, companies will need new knowledge to innovate new technologies from which both society and the ecology can benefit, and a workforce as flexible as their changing environment. Therefore, people and their intellectual capital should represent a boon for corporations. Unfortunately, the traditional corporate-employee relationship has caused disconnect between the two. Cost cutting, though downsizing, has created a world of independent free agents and entrepreneurs (De Geus, 1997; Senge & Carstedt, 2001). Enticing employees with a carrot on a stick in the form of pay for services rendered is no longer enough to maintain employee loyalty, and the paternalistic, authoritarian management style of traditional hierarchy is almost out of favor with employees (van Marrewijk & Timmers, 2003; Senge & Carstedt, 2001). In the knowledge society, employees are experiencing a renaissance of creativity, mobility, and freedom. They want to be rewarded with meaningful work and autonomy, as well as good pay (van Marrewijk & Timmers, 2003; Senge & Carstedt, 2001). What is becoming more important to people today is an alignment between their personal values and an identified corporate commitment (van Marrewijk & Timmers, 2003; Senge & Carstedt, 2001). "Consequently, human resource management strategies become critical for building a high-performance culture that provides challenge, work satisfaction, and effective career development" (Dunphy et al., 2003, p. 71). For sustainable corporate and personal vision to align, corporations that create the capacity for structural change will simultaneously have to create the capacity for individual commitment. HR strategies that

stimulate organizational learning and employee involvement are important goals, as

bottom-up, middle-up-down, and top-down engagement will motivate long-term change

(Doppelt, 2003; Hatch, 1997; Nonaka, Toyama & Byosiere, 2001; Senge & Carstedt,

2001).

Additionally, human capital changes are not relegated to internal success.

Corporations should encourage the same relational partnership with multiple, outside

stakeholders, such as customers, suppliers, and advocate groups. In a modernist view,

they are agitators of change, and from a postmodern perspective, represent opportunities

for open and democratic discourse, prompting possibilities for change (Hatch, 1997).

Encouraging ongoing synergy between internal mission and external needs combines

ethical responsibilities with good business sense (Dunphy et al., 2003).

Ecological capital. Based on systems theory, sustainability advocates creating

new production processes that simulate a living system in tune with the give and take of

the environment (Senge & Carstedt, 2001). One of sustainability's most prominent

messages is that corporations seek to reduce ecological damage caused by a "take-make-

waste" economic system (Doppelt, 2003; Senge & Carstedt, 2001). Take-make-waste

production systems are based on linear processes that generate an inordinate amount of

waste by taking more resources than what they need from the earth (often using

hazardous materials in the extraction process that further pollute the environment), use

what they need in production, and then output the rest as unusable waste (Doppelt, 2003;

Senge & Carstedt, 2001). Thus, only about 10% of what manufacturers extract from the

earth is turned into product, and 90% is discarded, again in the form of hazardous

material (Senge & Carstedt, 2001). Sustainable production methods, on the other hand,

are based on a circular cycle of "borrow-use-return" where raw materials (eventually with

decreased dependency on finite resources such as fossil fuels) are removed without risk,

used efficiently in production, and re-circulated into new products or processes that the

earth can reuse without harm to the environment (Doppelt, 2003). Using this ecological

model, production becomes organic, acting as a living organism dependent on its

environment (and its environment dependent upon it) for survival. This organic

metaphor of production demonstrates that the more a living organism takes from the

environment now, the less it will have to sustain itself (Hatch, 1997). Organic

interdependence ensures that production systems give back nutrients to their

environments, generating resources for the future. In this way, the living system

continues a healthy existence, and helps sustain the equilibrium of the environment. One

should note that the organic metaphor as applied to sustainable production has modernist

roots. It continues to play off of the organization's tendency to react to change in a

hostile environment, instead of the postmodern approach of, "provoking the viewer to

change his or her accustomed ways of seeing and experiencing the world" to "redefine

issues of power and change" (Hatch, 1997, p. 54-55). Therefore, a postindustrialist

perspective does not influence all organizational solutions. Nevertheless, sustainability

advocates seem to welcome this view for its clarity. "All living systems follow cycles:

produce, recycle, regenerate" (Senge & Carstedt, 2001, p. 28). "Why should industrial

systems be different?" (Senge & Carstedt, 2001, p. 28).

Models for Sustainability Movement

Levels of interest in sustainability obviously vary. Business scholars who study

corporate sustainability tend to define its acceptance in terms of organizational change

and implementation (Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2003; Hart, 2005; van Marrewijk & Werre, 2003). They believe that corporations typically pass through stages of transition in mindset and behavior as they adopt the tenets of sustainability. These scholars agree that in winding through phases and stages of adoption, the expressed goal should be to ascend to a place where they can fully embody sustainability as an integrated philosophy or otherwise, way of being. Sustainability is to exist as a core operating principle on which leaders make business decisions supporting profit, people and the planet (van Marrewijk & Werre, 2003).

To help corporations visualize and actualize change within their organization, Dunphy, Griffiths, and Benn (2003), Hart (2005), and van Marrewijk and Werre (2003) have each created models of organizational phases of change to reach full sustainability. These models demonstrate the importance placed in measuring the progress of sustainability in business. The authors reiterate the conundrum facing the world's population if change is not implemented, preferably in a drastic manner. However, they also realize that the majority of companies are not willing or in a position to completely overhaul their organizational systems and ideology for immediate transformational change. Therefore, sustainability phase models are designed to recognize where businesses are in the present, while at the same time, trying to anticipate their future state. Dunphy, Griffiths, and Benn (2003) and van Marrewijk and Werre's (2003) models are somewhat similar. Both highlight a six-phase approach toward significant change. van Marrewijk and Werre created a color-coded model which outlines several levels of organizational ambition toward a company's willingness to implement sustainability. According to van Marrewijk and Werre, they base their work off of the Graves Value

System that says societal value systems are formed and adapt to different environmental

stimuli that are perceived as threats to existing ways of life. "Entities will eventually

have to meet the challenges their situation … provides, or risk the danger of oblivion or

extinction" (2003, p. 108). Using six of the Graves Value System's original eight color

codes, van Marrewijk and Werre refashion the Graves model to describe corporate

responses to ecological, economic, and social instability. At 'red' (pre-CS), companies

have no ambition to address sustainability issues. They have no inclination to introduce

sustainability into their thinking. Subsequent levels in the van Marrewijk and Werre

model include 'blue' (compliance-driven); 'orange' (profit-driven); 'green' (caring);

'yellow' (synergistic); and 'turquoise' (holistic). Dunphy, Griffiths and Benn's phase

model is a little more intuitive. It outlines six steps on what they describe as a path to

sustainability. These steps include rejection, non-responsiveness, compliance, efficiency,

strategic proactivity, and finally, the sustaining corporation. Like van Marrewijk and

Werre, Dunphy et al.'s version captures organizational commitment to ecological and

human sustainability. Both paint a picture of the organizational internal and external

effects on profit, people and the planet. That is, they both describe the effect internal and

external drivers and incentives have on organizational decisions to participate in certain

levels of sustainability activism. Dunphy et al.'s framework drills deeper, however, into

internal change primarily from a human resource and organizational development

standpoint. Although it acknowledges the external conditions pushing organizations

toward sustainability, its objective is to explain the internal structural, operational,

workforce, leadership, and competency adjustments needed across all paths to remain

successfully competitive. Table 1 details and compares the two models.

Hart (2005) approaches the progression of organizational sustainability a little differently. He posits that companies must assess their current desire, ability and resources, or in other words, the capability of their sustainable value portfolio to deliver sustainable outcomes. Hart's depiction of a sustainable value portfolio is in the form of a 4-celled matrix that measures the internal and external preparedness of an organization against the present and future goals of sustainable business and society. The matrix outlines suggested stages of operational and strategic readiness companies should consider in order to meet emerging criteria for sustainable production including pollution prevention, product stewardship, clean technology, and sustainability vision. Each quadrant acts as a guide for corporate action and all four are described separately (See Table 2). For instance, based on "Today's" immediate needs to stem material waste, overconsumption, and pollution, companies can examine how to reconfigure their internal operations to reduce costs and environmental damage from excess manufacturing. Hart calls this quadrant *Pollution Prevention,* which represents eco-efficiency, the starting point from which companies serious about engaging in sustainability are most likely to start their journey. Starting here helps companies realize some easy financial gains through lowered compliance, liability, disposal, and raw material costs. In some cases, eco-efficiency and pollution prevention can result in faster production cycles and higher worker productivity (Hart, 2005). This quadrant would roughly correlate to van Marrewijk and Werre and Dunphy et al.'s profit-driven and eco-efficiency levels accordingly.

Continuing to look at the current state, Hart's next quadrant underscores the importance of also looking outside the organizational context to deal with key external

stakeholders who can influence product development, manufacturing, and distribution. Hart calls this *Product Stewardship* where businesses actively engage with groups like suppliers, customers, regulators, communities, NGOs, and the media to broaden the effect of desirable environmental impacts across a product's life cycle from creation to consumer usage, disposal, and re-use. An added benefit of product stewardship is enhanced legitimacy and reputation for the firm through transparency in communication and participation in selected partnerships.

Where companies typically have a harder time projecting internal and external energy toward sustainability is in the future part of the matrix, "Tomorrow." Just as with van Marrewijk and Werre and Dunphy et al.'s stage models, moving to a transformative level of organization change within Hart's model is challenging because it asks companies to look past the known into the unknown to transverse standard product life-cycle beliefs.   Instead of being an adjunct to business processes, businesses preparing for tomorrow re-imagine operations and strategy to directly produce sustainable outcomes. Sustainable progress is no longer incremental, but a revamp of the whole system. This requires a great deal of commitment, innovation and re-invention on the part of business.

Internally, businesses should begin to take advantage of what Hart calls disruptive technologies that enable companies to replace their dependence on fossil fuels, natural resources, and toxic material by exploring alternative ways to produce substitute resources and energy for *Clean Technology*. Companies are challenged to disrupt the core technologies they use to traditionally fuel economic growth like petroleum, petrochemicals, coal, and nuclear energy, to find and work with technologies that will produce longevity for both corporations and environmental life. These alternative

technologies might include solar, wind, or other renewable energy; fuel-cell power for automobiles; or biologically-based polymers that allow renewable feedstocks like corn to be used in the manufacture of plastics (Hart, 2005).

Externally, a *Sustainability Vision* of tomorrow, Hart's fourth quadrant, is built on a global vision of supporting the product needs of those Hart describes at the "Base of the Pyramid," the poor and disenfranchised of the world and the market undertaken by the most intrepid of social entrepreneurs as described in the last section. Hart maintains that new business models are needed so that capitalism does not consistently market goods, services, and opportunities to the well-off, but create specialized markets that enable those in poverty to participate in the marketplace at a level realistic for them. Companies that adhere to traditional business models miss the chance to build on the creativity and innovation to be gained from offering value-added services to both lift the poor out of their dire circumstances and create a new product niche. Hart specifically points to a banking model in India that instead of lending money to people who have the most, lend money to people, particularly women, who have the least to allow them to start much needed enterprises in their villages and communities. With this opening, women were able to create work for themselves and others to move them past poverty, and at the same time, fully repay the loans. This quadrant, therefore, tackles the largest and toughest priority of all: business helping to narrow the gap of poverty and inequity.

What each of these models provides for corporations is the benefit of a roadmap toward the possibility of embracing a wholly sustainable objective that emphasizes a primary concern for a better quality of life while fulfilling expectations of profits and shareholder value. Not overly complex in their design, the models reflect the

understanding that although revolutionary change in business systems may be needed, companies still lag in their desire to make those transformative changes. The stringent capitalistic framework by which Western nations have abided for centuries slows down the rate of change necessary to move to the more radical end of the sustainability scale.

Whether it's Hart (2005) who sees "Capitalism at the Crossroads," or Senge and Carstedt (2001) who speculate on whether we are in a postindustrialist age, they, along with other sustainability advocates, all agree that in order to meet real sustainable goals, companies will have to drastically revise the modernistic assumptions under which they have been operating for a century or more. This will depend on the willingness of companies to first, recognize the problems we face as a society; acknowledge their part in helping to reverse course; taking steps to reset strategic and operational protocols; and finally, reframe and broaden reasons for doing business. Thus, sustainability dictates a more "inclusive form of commerce, one that lifts the entire human family, while at the same time, replenishing and restoring human nature …. Only those companies with the right combination of vision strategy, structure, capability, and audacity will succeed in what could be the most important transition period in the history of capitalism" (Hart, 2005, p. 24).

Summary: Corporate Sustainability and Organizational Change

Moving from compliance to fully sustaining organization is ultimately a gradual and long-term process that will require the patience and cooperation of all committed stakeholders. It will not be achieved by transformational leaps alone, but will also require incremental change processes that work at regularly and deliberately shifting perspectives at every level, everyday (Dunphy et al., 2003). Therefore, although

Table 1:

Stages of Sustainable Organization Change Comparison Table between Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn (2003) and van Marrewijk & Werre (2003).

Stages of Sustainable Organizational Change

Marrewijk & Werre (2003)	Pre-CS (red):	Compliance-driven (blue)	Profit-driven (orange)	Caring (green)	Synergistic (yellow)	Holistic (turquoise)
	Companies have no desire or intention to implement sustainability, unless outside forces vigorously demand that they do so.	Companies at this level recognize a basic responsibility to society as a law-abiding entity to enforce environmental and human welfare regulations within the organization, including charitable contributions "CS is perceived as a duty, obligation or correct behaviour" (2003, p. 112).	The adoption of a profit-driven CS model depends on the ability of social, economic and ecological concerns to contribute to the financial well-being of an organization. Corporations actually keep a traditional operation model, while considering ways to fit sustainable options to help support or enhance it.	Corporations are more actively examining and experimenting with social, ecological and economic alternatives as factors that simultaneously promote internal health and external welfare.	Sustainability as a notion is considered important to establishing satisfactory outcomes for internal and external stakeholders, as well as a foundation for strong corporate performance.	Corporations have taken the final leap to integrate all of their knowledge about sustainability into their core operating principles. Sustainability is an organization's promise to help support and sustain a symbiotic relationship among all living entities on the planet for the present and the future.
Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn (2003)	Non-responsiveness	Compliance	Efficiency	------------------------------	Strategic Proactivity	Sustaining Corporation
	This level of sustainability is the business-as-usual approach. Companies act more out of unawareness or disinterest in acquiring a sustainable outlook. Like Marrewijk and Werre's Pre-CS category, non-responsiveness lies in the desire to do nothing outside of the realm of practicing conventional business, assuming the standard business model as the given way of managing business affairs. Non-responsiveness lacks rejection's more malcontent protestations.	As with compliance under the Marrewijk and Werre definition, Dunphy, Griffiths and Benn also describe compliance as the legal responsibility of a company to provide a healthy environment for people and other life inside and outside of the firm. Likewise, companies do not voluntarily focus on developing sustainable systems, but instead wait to be directed to meet minimum requirements.	Efficiency in this case demonstrates a corporation's entry into the sustainability arena with the realization that sustainable practices can increase operating and financial efficiency. Efficiency is the first level of recognition of sustainability as a viable solution for better business practices.		Once companies become more comfortable in the realm of sustainable possibility, they begin to view it as a long-term strategic proposition for competitive advantage. Sustainability turns into a way to expand their capability that enables them to be a lead provider in sustainable principles and products. Dunphy et al. note that although companies are committed to sustainability at this level, they still see it as "embedded in the quest for maximizing longer term profitability, that is, motivated by intelligent corporate self-interest" (p. 16).	A company's graduation to the final stage of sustainability reflects an almost complete change in business ideology. While companies still see the importance of providing a return on investment for shareholders, their outlook has shifted from integrating sustainability for competitive advantage to looking at the means to advance industry for the overall benefit of society. The grand mission is deliberately focused on opportunities to recreate a company's business model to pursue ecological viability and social justice.

Table 2

Hart's (2005) The Sustainable Value Framework

Drivers	Tomorrow		Drivers
o Disruption o Clean Tech o Footprint	**Strategy:** **Clean Technology** Develop the sustainable competencies of the future *Corporate Payoff:* Innovation & Repositioning	**Strategy:** **Sustainability Vision** Create a shared roadmap for meeting unmet needs *Corporate Payoff:* Growth & Trajectory	o Population o Poverty o Inequity
Internal	**SUSTAINABLE VALUE**		**External**
o Pollution o Consumption o Waste	**Strategy:** **Pollution Prevention** Minimize waste and emissions from operations *Corporate Payoff:* Cost & Risk Reduction	**Strategy:** **Product Stewardship** Integrate stakeholder views into business processes *Corporate Payoff:* Reputation & Legitimacy	o Civil Society o Transparency o Connectivity
Drivers	**Today**		**Drivers**

Note: From "Capitalism at the Crossroads," by Stuart Hart, 2005, p. 65, Wharton School of Publishing.

corporations are not quite near the post-industrial ideal, we can still think of them as

organizations on the way to becoming models of sustainability, or as Tsoukas and Chia

(2002) would simply term them, organizations becoming. Organizations in the midst of

becoming are marked by continuous change that is emergent, self-organized, constant,

evolving, and cumulative (Tsoukas & Chia, 2002; Weick & Quinn, 1999). It is change

that is "processional, without an end state … eternal" (Weick & Quinn, 1999).

Organizations in continuous change respond steadily to their environment, and although

it might not be a visible experience, change keeps the organization constantly in motion.

Therefore, organizations are not just brick and mortar manifestations. They are

organizing organisms capable of exchanging information with its environment, and

reweaving their social reality based on the daily interactions among stakeholders inside and outside their walls (Tsoukas & Chia, 2002). Constant environmental changes and social interpretations of organizational experiences produce enough continual change over time to shift the prototypical organizational model, in sustainability's case, the modernist corporation, into a slightly new spinoff of its former self, re-shaped by the factors of its new reality (Tsoukas & Chia, 2002). Thus, organizations are not simply static organizations, but organizations becoming; organizations that are constantly re-organizing as an adaptive response. For our purposes then, this symbolic-interpretivist view likely leaves sustainable organizations somewhere between the fading industrialist tradition and post-industrialist utopia. New modern, postmodern, or late modern, given sustainability's message, how we define the next generation of industrialism is up to us.

<div align="center">**Profound Change through Education:**</div>

<div align="center">**Emancipatory Learning and Education for Sustainability**</div>

Since corporations alone cannot fulfill the whole promise of sustainable development, many sustainability advocates are now also looking to our educational systems to produce teachers, professors, and students who can speak to and create reflection upon sustainable principles (Huckle & Sterling, 1996). It is hoped education at all levels can contribute to not only informing children, citizens, and executives of the current situation at hand, but also of our common responsibility to achieve sustainable outcomes. Huckle and Sterling (1996) mention four assumptions that need to be recognized to ensure a comprehensive and productive education _for_ sustainability campaign. From their perspective, they believe that:

…societies are faced with making an unprecedented and historic change in a short period of time if they are to achieve a sufficiently sustainable form – environmentally, socially, and economically; education will have to play a key role in any such transition; education will itself be transformed in the process; and it is necessary and possible to build on the limited progress already made. By education, we mean a lifelong process of learning, action, and reflection involving all citizens. (Huckle & Sterling, 1996, p. xiii)

Emancipatory education is a model of democracy that proposes to "free learners from the forces that limit their options and control over their lives and move them to take action to bring about social and political change" (Imel, 1999, p. 1). It is designed to question dominant assumptions based on positivist science, capitalism, and bourgeois liberalism (Brookfield, 2005). "All of these have lent themselves to the deterioration of community, the establishment and furthering of dominance in relationships, the mutilation of nature, and erosion of moral values" (Brookfield, 2005, p. 103).

However, an emancipatory objective still evokes mixed reactions in adult education. Adult educators do not agree upon their on their role, responsibility, or ability to help abort the effects of our society to bring about transformation (Heaney, 1996; Imel, 1999; Merriam & Brockett, 1997). Some question whether it is their place to change established views of the world. Also, emancipatory intent in adult learning is a complex concept to characterize (Tisdell, 2005). As adult education has sought to become more inclusive of different epistemological and pedagogical alternatives, its application to the aims of education has been re-made, modified, and re-interpreted through these new

theoretical, philosophical, and practical assumptions. Most reformulation of emancipation has centered on postmodern / poststructualist, and feminist theory and practice (Brooks, 2000; Cunningham, 2000; Gur-ze'ev, 2001; Imel, 1999; Inglis, 1997; Tisdell, 1998; Tisdell, 2005).

What this part of the literature wishes to explore, therefore, is whether sustainability in management education can embrace the notion of an emancipatory model, that seems to be so badly needed, and how can it do so? We need to know if classroom pedagogy can realistically support such an ideal. We need to know if rhetoric around sustainability theory is capable of enabling practice. Is it possible to teach toward the elimination of oppression and inequity? This section seeks to explore the positions of doubt, hope and compromise for learner emancipation in sustainability.

Theoretical Underpinnings of Emancipatory Learning

Emancipatory intent became rooted in Marxist philosophy, when Marx unveiled his theory of revolutionary change for a better world through the struggle for self-consciousness among working men and women, those in the labor class he called the proletariat (Alway, 1995; Brookfield, 2005). Marx's attempt to engage in such a project was theorizing with practical intent. "Theory with practical intent seeks not only to understand the world, but also to transform it" (Alway, 1995, p. 2). Practical intent recognizes the need for social actors to intervene on behalf of such a goal by taking specific action. Marx's purpose for undertaking this study was to understand man's place in history, and to recast human beings as active agents in the shaping of that history. Marx believed humans were subjective beings who had the self-conscious ability to re-direct history as needed to realize the true aim of human activity, which he saw as social

change. In the Marxian tradition, this meant a complete overhaul of the existing capitalist

structure.

When Marxists realized this theory was not going to materialize, The Frankfurt

School of Critical Theory emerged to recast Marx's vision of emancipation. While the

Frankfurt School founders wanted to preserve Marx's intent to building a better world

through revolutionary change, it instilled a separation between theory and practice moved

by the school's desire to imbue a socio-philosophical quality to critique (Kellner, n.d.) by

answering "the great fundamental questions about human social life, questions

concerning the individual's relationship to society, the constitution of communities, the

role of meaning and culture, and the quality and status of social existence" (Alway, 1995,

p. 24). Although Frankfurt School founder Max Horkheimer maintained that critical

theory's primary interest was still complete emancipation, "he warned against a simplistic

translation of the theory's tenets into schemes for emancipatory action. In his view,

'philosophy must not be turned into propaganda even for the best possible purposes' …"

(Brookfield, 2005, p. 26). By examining society through empirical research in order to

expose and critique dialectical tensions, the researchers at Frankfurt were still hoping to

find conditions of possibility that could lead to social change. Unlike science steeped in

the positivism of objective facts that reinforce and reify the technical-instrumentality

(actions determined by the realm of work and the means by which to accomplish that

work) of industrial society, Frankfurt theorists were looking for positive truths that would

help the society overcome its limitations in order to achieve forms of human liberation

(Kellner, n.d.; Paris, 2001), as well as reasonable conditions of life (Alway, 1995; Paris,

2001). Eventually, however, the school lost hope with humankind's ability to bring about

such a grand vision of change, conceding that humankind was hopelessly absorbed in bureaucracy, and indeed, was doomed to continued domination by a system of technical-instrumentality and positivist science (Alway, 1995; Kellner, n.d.; Paris, 2001). Humankind's quest to dominate nature, instead of living harmoniously with it, leads civilization to turn it into an object to be manipulated for self-interest, and in turn, the beauty of human nature is denied (Alway, 1995).

Habermas – Emancipation through Rationality

Jurgen Habermas was the leader of what is considered the second generation of the Frankfurt School. Habermas' contribution to Critical Theory was that he attempted to resurrect the hope for emancipation that the original founders could not fully realize. However, according to Paris (2001), Habermas' plan for re-emancipation effectively manages to finish stripping the Marxist vision of materialistic critique, which focused on analyzing economic domination by forces manufactured by a capitalist society. He contends that by the Frankfurt School wrapping their whole critique around Marx's revolutionary prospect for complete annihilation of the capitalist system, they cripple the ability for any change, leaving no other alternative than to close off all options to counterdiscourse (Paris, 2001). Habermas' way out of this morass is to moderate critique by exposing potential for emancipation within the modern state, not outside of it. Habermas' aim was not to overturn the system itself, but to recognize it as a force whose subsystems should still be subject to questioning (e.g., legal, economic, and political constructs). For according to Habermas, "despite all the talk of postmodernity, there are no visible rational alternatives to this form of life. What else is left for us then, but [to] at least search out practical improvements *within* this form of life?" (Habermas in Paris,

2001, p. 19, emphasis in the original). Indeed, Habermas wanted to create a model of systemic and social learning that rationalized the power structure within which we live in order to produce "conditions that favor political power for thought developing through dialogue. The redeeming power of reflection cannot be supplanted by extension of technically exploitable knowledge" (Habermas in Welton, 1995, p. 28).

Habermas started to reconstruct critical theory in some of his early essays, framing his work around psychoanalysis through a process of self-reflection where the subject becomes interested in autonomy and responsibility in his or her general pursuit of knowledge. Habermas asserted that reason based on emancipatory-cognitive interests leads to an enlightened self-reflection (Alway, 1995; Outhwaite, 1994). Enlightenment is not dead, but is located within the individual's desire and potential to change. Emancipatory knowledge, according to Habermas competes with two other kinds of knowledge bases, technical interest, which is again steeped in humankind's control of nature, and therefore, ruled by the empirical-analytical sciences, and practical interests, which constitutes gaining a mutual understanding of humankind's environment based in historical-hermeneutical sciences (Alway, 1995; Outhwaite, 1994).

However, Habermas, not satisfied with the limited explanation behind this view of emancipation, led him to create his theory of communicative rationality and action, which represents the core of his shift from (and final blow to) Marxist emancipation and even the philosophical examination of consciousness re-crafted by the Frankfurt School (Paris, 2001). Habermas' theory contends that we must look to the potential of communicative rationality, a renewed dialogic (social interaction through language) process, to re-orient our institutions toward democratically and ethically-driven systems

that support non-distorted, non-restrictive, or suppressed communication that has and

could continue to lead to the dogmatic, mechanized and meaningless existence foisted

upon our public spheres of human interaction (Alvesson & Willmott, 1996; Welton,

1995). Communicative rationality struggles against the clouded lens of bureaucratic and

economically besieged conversation, posited in the world of objective facts by trying to

allow us to engage in a new enlightened way of seeing and questioning the world through

the space of human inner subjectivity (Outhwaite, 1994). This is the space where critique

is formed, when traditional assumptions are examined and validity claims by

"authoritative" sources are challenged. Communicative action, part of the concept of

rationality, predicates that language is a primary medium of social interaction that

attempts to shift human thinking to a form of rational consensus (Alvesson & Willmott,

1996; Alway, 1995; Outhwaite, 1994; Welton, 1995) that works toward a "cooperative

search for truth" (Alway, 1995, p. 106), instead of the imposition one dominating reality.

This is the ideal Habermas proposes in terms of practice that de-centers the world in

order to free our institutions from dogmatically-rooted, traditions unchallenged by

communicative action (Alvesson & Willmott, 1996; Alway, 1995; Welton, 1995).

Education <u>for</u> Sustainability: The Case for an Emancipatory Approach

These different interpretations of sustainability in education arise from the field's

trajectory starting with the interest in the conservation, preservation and rehabilitation of

the nature and the environment given the growing and publically vocalized concern over

slowly eroding natural resources and biodiversity in the 1960s and 70s in North America

(although environmental issues have been of interest and studied since the 18th and 19th

centuries). This was the Environmental Education (EE) faction of the movement, which

remains a prominent strand of thinking in sustainability today. Around the same time, the

conversation shifted to embrace international issues and voices as the developing

countries began to seriously evaluate educational and economic development issues in

their countries in order to become more economically competitive like their Western

counterparts. Thus, development education, also known as critical pedagogy, sprung

forth from the likes of Friere and Giroux, emphasizing empowerment, conscientization,

participation, democratization and social action" (Sterling, 2004, p. 45) to address

poverty, anti-rascism and human rights. The two threads of thought found overlapping

areas of interest in education for change initiatives that had transformative potential for

learners. Their union was solidified during the 1980s and 90s during a series of seminal

conferences that produced several terms and definitions to name the emerging field,

notably the World Commission on Environment Development or WCED in 1987, and the

Rio Summit in 1992, which coined the terms "Education for Sustainability" (EFS) and

"Education for Sustainable Development" (ESD). Unfortunately, Sterling points out that

in 30 years from 1972-2002, the progress made was miniscule "where the dominant

conception of the purpose and goals of education (its broader context) have, as a whole,

remained largely either unchanged or oriented toward economic goals" (p. 47). These

terms are still in an evolving state as sustainability filters through the narrow cocoon of

environmental education (EE), the wider scope of education for sustainable development

(ESD) and the broader yet (according to Sterling) education for sustainability (EFS).

Calls continue to grow for education to become proactive and conscious in

institutionalizing clear, sustainable change.

Under the education *for* sustainability framework, radical thinkers in the area of sustainability education support the need for an emancipatory, and particulary, a critical-emancipatory contribution or approach to teaching sustainability (Huckle, 1993; Wals & Jickling, 2002; Wals, 2004). Bearing in mind the contested and political nature of sustainable development, sustainability educators warn that the concept will demand an educational approach that allows learners to explore its intricacies (Fien, 1993, 2004; Hart, 1993, 2004; Springett, 2005; Sterling, 1996). Critical education *for* sustainability presents a social context for and the political aspects of sustainability, providing learners with a problematized understanding of sustainability based on the vested interests of its many different stakeholders (Fien, 1993, 2004).

Education *for* sustainability, a movement toward radical sustainable development championed in the UK and New Zealand portends to accomplish this. Education *for* sustainability is based on a strong sustainability platform, a radical "green" critique of sustainability, which questions the capitalist premise upon which we operate and seeks an egalitarian solution to bring about ecological balance and social justice (Adams, 1995). The green movement proposes to turn over traditional structures through ecological anarchism, eschewing large industrial, state, bureaucratic, and market-driven models for smaller community and bioregional entities more attentive to social and environmental concerns (Kearins & Springett, 2003). The green movement distinguishes between two radical camps, which Sterling (1996) describes as the radical democratics (red-greens), and the radical ecologics (deep greens). The radical democratics follow the philosophy of critical pedagogues who strongly campaign for "social justice, equity, and structural change (particularly with regard to power and wealth), the democratizing duty of

government and the importance of mutual relations and community" (Sterling, 1996, p. 29). Radical ecologics "emphasize the integrity of the environment as both a micro and an encompassing metasystem (Gaia) the necessity of seeing all human activities as having an impact within the system … and the importance of personal change and transformation" (Sterling, 1996, p. 29). Postmodern-influenced theorists are more likely to espouse this view, like notable scholar Paul Senge (Senge & Carstedt, 2001). Others seek a space in between, or reformulate traditional pedagogies to blend the two perspectives. All in all, the green movement wishes to create development paradigms that are self-reliant, culturally grounded, and ecologically aware (Adams, 1995). The green movement is differentiated from weaker forms of sustainability based on the technocentrist lens, which says the earth's resources can be managed, regulated, and utilized through more responsible and efficient use of resources for economic development (Adams, 1995). Kearins and Springett (2003) characterize a technocentrist view of environmentalism that's good for business, "a maneggiare approach … where business controls both the language and practice of sustainable development with its own, usually economic interests firmly to the fore" (p. 190). Critics accuse eco-efficiency of falling into this category.

In the context of sustainability, the critical approach to education _for_ sustainability is based on the New Environmental Paradigm (NEP), which is viewed as, "broadly democratic, more ecocentric, socially concerned, and integrative" (Sterling, 1996, p. 20). It is distinguished from education _about_ sustainability (EE) based on the dominant social paradigm, or DSP (Sterling, 1996) of neo-classical and liberal/progressive education (Fien, 1993, 2004; Sterling, 1996), "which is broadly technocratic, technocentric,

materialist, and reductionist" (Sterling, 1996, p. 19). Neoclassical education *about* sustainability concentrates on transmitting information to learners instead of transforming them, emphasizing facts, and concepts about processes or problems (Fien, 1993, 2004). A liberal/progressive framework, or education *in* sustainability (ESD), can take two forms, one engaging students in more personal classroom exercises such as decision-making, role-plays, or value-seeking activities to help learners experience their own relationship to the natural world. Or it attempts to involve learners in inquiry-based investigations, which challenge them to use multi-disciplinary approaches to solving a problem. Fien (1993, 2004) and Sterling (1996) make the point that these teaching philosophies are good and not to be abandoned. However, they contend that they also do not go far enough in orienting learners to the full historical, social, political, economic, global, and ecological issues surrounding sustainability, giving students only a partial picture of its implications.

Springett (2005) asserts that "the critical theorization of education for sustainability, then, aims to develop the skills to interrogate existing knowledge claims … while employing a 'language of possibility' to help students become empowered through a sense of agency" (p. 148). Others like Huckle (1993), using Habermas' early model of knowledge-constitutive interests, feel that while technical knowledge inherent in education *about* (the management of) sustainability, and practical knowledge representative of education *in* (the awareness and interpretation of) are equally necessary and influential elements to environmental education, emancipatory intent provides a potential release from dominant ideological constraints, so that all options for change can be considered. "Together … empirical, hermeneutic, and critical sciences facilitate the

basic human activities of managing and controlling the environment, interpreting the environment, and transforming the environment" (Huckle, 1993, p. 4). Additionally, according to Wals (2004), emancipatory methods in education help educators and administrators of sustainability programs determine if they have or are capable of providing a sincere learning environment for potential change. This calls for a rethinking of classroom evaluation methods typically based on standardized, acontextual, and value-free sources of measurement. And finally, Wals and Jickling (2002) support an emancipatory approach for sustainability education because it allows for an adaptable learning framework that embraces the fluidity and highly contested nature of sustainability among varying contexts. As well, its premise encourages the development of "a very transparent society, with action competent citizens who actively and critically participate in problem-solving and decision-making, and value and respect alternative ways of thinking, valuing and doing" (Wals & Jickling, 2002, p. 225).

From Theory to Practice: Emancipatory Pedagogies for Sustainability

Just as the aims within sustainability are broad and complex, so too are the critical-emancipatory methods that can support it. In this case methods refer to pedagogies, what Fenwick (2006), quoting Bernstein, defines as the social, political, and cultural process of knowledge mediation and reconstruction inside or outside of the classroom. It is "the active human meaning-making which adapts, reconfigures, and re-invents text and ideas" (Fenwick, 2006, online version, p. 2). Fenwick classifies most adult education pedagogies as political, tending to "assert a specific educational purpose, often of an emancipatory flavour conflating political agenda with classroom practice," usually evoking a "revolutionary call to some moral order" (Fenwick, 2006, online

version, p. 2). These would include critical, feminist or Freirian pedagogies. Each has

had its own place in adult education and one has often been critical of another's form of

practice. Each is borne from the critical traditions of Marx and / or the Frankfurt School

of Critical Theory with distinguishable variations. A description of some of the more

notable adult learning pedagogies follows below:

Transformative Learning for Emancipation

Mezirow used emancipatory intent in his development of the process of

transformative learning, acknowledging Freire's concept of conscientization as a part of

the change of mind people go through during their learning transformation. However, he

relied more heavily on Habermas' work, using first his early work on defining domains

of technical, practical, and emancipatory learning, and drawing on self-reflection to

release the emancipatory intent of transformative learning. As Habermas' work shifted

toward communicative action, Mezirow refocused his emancipatory intent as well, to

transformation through discourse. However, Mezirow's theory has been accused of

mixing metaphors, so to speak, using a theory of social change to ground his ideas in

what is primarily a psychological view or personal model of change. Transformative

learning starts with the concept of perspective transformation, which describes how

adults use prior knowledge to re-interpret or make meaning of a new experience to

influence future action (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Perspective transformation

encourages individual learners to develop new attitudes and beliefs or shift their whole

way of knowing by taking stock of long-held ideas, based on psychological and cultural

influences that have otherwise distorted their understanding of their lives. It is a process

that supports critical awareness of the limitations of prior feelings and how one might

reconstruct those presuppositions to help achieve "more inclusive, discriminating, permeable, and integrated perspectives" as adult learners (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 320). Participating in this type of critical reflection is supposed to lead to transformational learning if the shift in perspective is powerful and meaningful enough. Discourse, "validate[s] the [new] critically reflective insight, and then the learner follows-up with appropriate action to activate their acquired perspective" (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 321). From Mezirow's standpoint, transformations take place primarily on a personal level. Once those personal changes have occurred, the learner can look forward to being reintegrated back into society once their perspective has been realigned (Cranton, 1994; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Newman, 1994). To those dedicated to social action, this is change by half-measure; a second transformation has yet to occur. However, according to Mezirow, it is not necessarily the role of the adult educator to take the learner all the way through to the need for creating social change: "Transformation theory – and adult educators – can promise only to help the first step of political change, emancipatory education that leads to personal transformation, and to share the belief that viable strategies for public change will evolve out of this" (Mezirow in Tennant, 1994, p. 240).

Freirian, Critical, and Feminist Pedagogies

Freirian pedagogy, established by well-known adult educator, Paulo Freire, developed his vision for the emancipation of men and women through conscientization, "Learning to perceive social, political, and economic contradictions, and to take action against the oppressive elements of reality" (Freire, 1981, p. 19). Freire's formula for emancipation clearly starts with a Marxian foundation, but continues and concludes with

something Marx wasn't quite able to generate, which is a theory of revolutionary action (Freire, 1981). Freire's vision of emancipation is not simply a critique of capitalism, and a philosophy of consciousness, but also a call for praxis: "reflection and *action* upon the world in order to transform it" (Freire, 1981, p. 36, emphasis in the original), using personal insights to engender social and political change. Realizing the tension between subjective and objective reality demands that the oppressed "confront reality critically, simultaneously objectifying and acting upon that reality" (Freire, 1981, p.37). Otherwise, reflection without action and action without reflection is a mere exercise in futility, a denial of the social forces that suppress marginalized subjects.

Critical pedagogy, according to Brookfield (2005), is primarily "the attempt to derive educational practices from the study of critical theory" (p. 320). In the classroom, it is undertaken "to analyze political systems and to collectively and communally act on … new understandings to implement changes that challenge oppressive structures" (Tisdell, 2005, p. 206). Kincheloe (2004) outlines several of critical pedagogy's main assumptions for practice. Mimicking Freire and critical theorists, Kincheloe's description of critical pedagogy upholds the same goals of achieving social justice and equality for democratic reform of, in this case, the educational system to create more independent-minded learners and thinkers who feel confident enough to critically assess and improve their environments. It specifically works to end the suffering of the oppressed, provide marginalized, or otherwise underprivileged students with the opportunity to allow their position and voice to be respected in the classroom. It calls for recognizing that education is inherently political and requires one to problematically assess the hidden affects of power in systems inside and outside of the classroom. It also advocates making

meaning of the world of the oppressed through teacher-student collaboration and problem-posing in order to discuss solutions, and appeals to the notion that education should eventually drive toward social change.

Feminist pedagogy is informed by feminist theory, which champions the attainment of improved social, economic, and political conditions and opportunities for women worldwide (Tisdell, 2005). From its critical upbringing, concepts such as social transformation, conscious-raising, and social activism also inform feminist pedagogy, providing space for the "translation of thought into action" (Cohee et al., 1998, p. 3). It is also explicit in its political agenda to confront "the undeniable force of sexism and heterosexism in society" (Cohee et al., 1998, p. 3), and interjects various student experiences around race, class, sexuality, and globalism to understand how much access or control individuals have over the effect of structured power relations in their lives (9020 handout, 2004). Thus, the emancipatory focus of feminist teaching is to help others affect change in their lives; draw intersections and parallels to the knowledge garnered in the classroom to its relationship to learners; connect learners' relationship to the educator as well as with each other; and develop a sense of learners' personal power (9020 handout, 2004).

A Postmodernist Turn?

As of late, some of these pedagogies have recently taken on a postmodernist or poststructuralist pallor. Postmodernism in adult education pedagogy represents a complete 180-degree turn from Habermas' salvation of modernity. Postmodernity questions the perception of a stable modern society, as more and more, modernity undergoes an increasing delegitimization of the rational and natural assumptions that are

supposed to guide and govern our economic and social projects (Usher, Bryant, & Johnston, 1997). Everything we take for granted, our institutions, our role, and place in society, even our personal identities (what postmodernists refer to as the "self"), are being continually reshaped by the swift socio-economic and socio-political transitions occurring in local and global theaters. Unlike the modernist construction of a unified collective of people of one body, one mind, the postmodern self is fragmented and reconstituted under new and emerging realities, and their individual differences (Cunningham, 2000; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Plumb, 2005). Because postmodernity embraces doubt, uncertainty and the refusal to be tied to any fundamental claims to truth, this shifts the balance of knowledge from what is known to the unknown. Knowledge is automatically de-centered and detached from a base of logic into multiple meanings and several sites of authority (Cunningham, 2000; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Usher, Bryant, & Johnston, 1997). According to Usher et al. (1997), any promise of total emancipation, especially on a Utopian or revolutionary level is futile, particularly given three circumstances. One, such an expectation discounts differences among a throng of separate subjective identities that otherwise might not share an emancipatory calling. Two, the desire to squash one type of oppression just exchanges it for another in governing the goal of human betterment. Therefore, "unequal power relations" abound "regardless of emancipatory or benevolent intentions" (Usher et al., 1997, p. 7). And three, oppositional language inherent in modernist emancipatory education (e.g. good-bad, black-white, girl-boy) limits reality, when in fact, reality, knowledge, and identities are "much more diverse, fluid, illusionary and contested" (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 356). Per Alvesson and Deetz (2005), "resistance and alternative readings rather than

reform or revolution become the primary political posture" (p. 67). In a postmodern classroom then, postmodern educators believe in shaking up thinking and being open to the unfamiliar and the difficult. They readily wish to cultivate acceptance of uncertainty and error. They do not expect complete resolution to educational dilemmas, since complex issues don't often provide conclusions, but create more confusion. This, of course, leads to the expectation that while education can foster common or individual good, there will be many routes to attain such an outcome (Usher et al., 1997).

Opinions and preferences range then over what pedagogical approach or combination of approaches will better inform critical-emancipatory education *for* sustainability. For instance, McLaren and Houston (2004) remain loyal to the ability of critical revolutionary pedagogy (based on Marxist scholarship) to speak against environmental and ecological injustice in schools. At the same time, Bowers (2002) makes the case for an eco-justice pedagogy by roundly criticizing traditional critical pedagogy for sticking to its roots at the risk of ignoring specific cultural cues of Western and non-Western societies, self-identity associations, and language patterns. Bowers teeters between both views, seeking democratic justice while monitoring the complex connections living systems have to their natural environment. Wooltorton (2006), however, is clearly a radical ecologic. She advocates ecological literacy, positioning herself in nature as an ecological self, advocating place-based education to forge a spiritual and cultural bond to the ecosystem. Both Clover (1995, 2002) and Ledwith (2005) use a Freirian and feminist pedagogy to solicit action for environmental and sustainable change. Clover (1995) details her commitment to popular education and global feminism to uncover how women's ways of cultural knowing across global

contexts inform their environmental activism. Clover again (2002), using Freire,

evaluates the need for adult educators to practice self-reflexivity regarding their tendency

to ignore the importance of teaching ordinary citizens about structural environmental

inequalities, while at the same time corralling citizen knowledge and power to take

political action. She argues with this work comes the responsibility to educate on the

risks of such actions. Ledwith (2005) recounts her community development experience

using personal narratives to provoke critical reflection and consciousness among women

as a transition toward collective change for environmental social justice. All of these

examples show that the cross-breeding of pedagogy makes emancipatory practice in

sustainability more relative, while still committed to a normative position of reflection,

action and change.

Reality Check: Making Sense of the Diversity of Emancipatory Interests

From revolutionary emancipation, to a philosophy of consciousness, to rational

communicative action, to personal emancipation, each of these theorists regard

emancipation as a cornerstone to reflection, action and change, but clearly on differing

levels, with varying results, and according to different values. Many argue over whether

there is an explicitly right or wrong approach to addressing and implementing

emancipation, which leads one to ponder whether it is still relevant to adult education as

its sphere of influence narrows. Since we are still operating in a technocratic society and

capitalist economy, emancipatory intent and learning may be limited by their modernist

reality. Is emancipatory philosophy and practice better served in civil society (the

lifeworld), the economic sector (the system), or can one really inform the other?

(Cunningham, 2000). Who has the better vantage point from which to direct change? Is

the true spirit in which Marx offered emancipatory intent realistically fathomable, or do

we have to settle for a personalized vision of change from Mezirow? Though critical

theorists believe that the whole Marxist tradition cannot be recaptured (Brookfield,

2005), they also believe that his model should not be entirely forgotten. Welton, (in

Brookfield, 2005) reminds adult educators that "the consequences of forgetting Marx for

the construction of critical theory of adult learning are enormous, inevitably binding us to

an individualistic model of learning" (p. 18). Marsh (2001) takes this sentiment a step

further feeling that rather than being irrelevant as some even on the left contend, "Marx is

more relevant than ever" (p. 57). While Freire's work is the basis for much critical and

feminist pedagogy, it too has been criticized by scholars as having "fostered a

romanticized, essentialized interpretation of emancipation that failed to confront the

authoritarianism inherent within most student-teacher relations," (Ellsworth in Perriton &

Reynolds, 2004, p. 61), and as inappropriate for other cultural settings where radical

change is not as feasible "such as American colleges and universities" (Brookfield, 2005,

p. 37). Habermasian critical theory is branded as not critical enough (Marsh, 2001; Paris,

2001), as well as too rational, intellectual, masculine, Eurocentric, oversimplified, and

does not account for the affective differences in human relations (Alvesson & Willmott,

1996; Brookfield, 2005; Hart, 1990). The "Habermasian man (sic) has … no body, no

feelings; the 'structure of personality' is identified with cognition, language, and

interaction" (Heller in Alway, 1995, p. 109). Perhaps pedagogical work in

postmodernism is a conciliatory and eclectic compromise, although we then lose the

ability to attach a normative rightness to our quest. If this is the case, then what are we

working toward; where is our compass? If we cannot settle on some compromise for

where emancipatory intent should lie, by what measure does one judge how far

sustainability affect change inside and outside of the classroom? The answer may be that

educators pick and choose from this broad palette to create the greatest change allowable

within the any particular educational venue. Emancipatory learning and change is not

absolute but relative.

Emancipatory Intent in Management Education: Critical Management Education

As one can see, the classroom is a highly contested site for emancipatory

dialogue, particularly as educators struggle between education's charge to form learning

communities, yet also fulfill its longstanding commitment to produce or reproduce human

resources for economic productivity (Giroux, n.d.). This is particularly prevalent in

management education classrooms where critical educators and learners' roles and

relationships to each other are especially delicate, and where "one hesitates to take on the

invitation … to 'speak truth and power' and to 'expose the social, political, and moral

nature – and usually, the shortcomings – of management" (Grey & Mitev in Watson,

2001, p. 386). For critical management educators, the problem is "knowing whether to

liberate or castigate their management students – to see them as the oppressed or the

oppressor" (Perriton & Reynolds, 2004, p. 71). What should be the goals of managerial

emancipation? Sustainability as a form of emancipatory knowledge becomes caught up

in this critical dilemma as it has the potential to challenge the very foundations of

business philosophy by breaking up the monopoly neoclassical economics and other

quantitative disciplines play in management education and decision-making. The tenets

upon which sustainability is predicated can incite critical discourse in the classroom,

opening itself to the judgment of traditional business ideals, while simultaneously trying

to cast those ideals in a new light. Therefore, it must be treated as a critical and contested concept; one that is understood to be a disruption to the natural assumptions of business as usual and seen to be holding management education to a new standard of theory and practice. Criticality in management education, then, can help explain the tension sustainability is likely to provoke and management educators are likely to find in pushing this agenda.

Critical Management Education Explained

Critical management education, or CME, is the attempt to pedagogically enact Critical Management Studies (CMS) principles into management learning environments like the business school where management ideology still has a visceral grip (Grey, Knights, & Willmott, 1996). Critical management education theorists recognized that the connection between management practice and management education tends to be unproblematic and acritical (Grey & French, 1996). Understanding this, they felt it was the responsibility of critical academics to challenge, not only the nature of dominant management ideology, but the transmission of that ideology into teaching practice, such as scientific positivism, technical purity, and managerialism, which connotes a singular focus on management perspectives (Grey, Knights, & Willmott, 1996; Perriton & Reyolds, 2004; Willmott, 1997). Therefore, a series of written debates by critical management theorists prompted an examination on how to keep CMS from becoming a purely academic and research exercise (Akella, 2001; Perriton & Reynolds, 2004).

Critical pedagogy in management education is premised on the notion that students can engage in critical reflection on their own working situations and circumstances relative to the world at large, and in the process, become emancipated or

independent thinkers that actively challenge the ideologies, discourse, structures, rules, etc., that constrain their ability to make more value-based and democratic decisions, and initiate critical action (Cunliffe, 2004; Dehler, Welsh, & Lewis, 1999; Hagen, Miller, & Johnson, 2003; Mingers, 2000). Critical pedagogy "necessitates changes in educational roles, curricular content, and classroom practices so that a learning space is created, which supports and encourages students to engage in critical commentary" (Currie & Knights, 2003; Dehler, Welsh, & Lewis, 1999, p. 2). Specifically, a critical pedagogy, according to Reynolds (1999), and Perriton and Reynolds (2004), addresses five principles: (a) it questions the taken-for-granted assumptions in theory and practice about management and education; (b) it analyzes the processes of power in social systems and their inequitable influences on race, class, age, or gender; (c) it unearths the contestation of rationality and objectivity that supposedly makes knowledge absolute; (d) it opens dialogue about the social versus individual nature of our experiences; and (e) it works toward emancipatory knowledge for students. Where pedagogy may be usually considered a focus on teaching methods in the classroom, some educators teaching under the critical management model feel strong critical pedagogy is the result of incorporating content and teaching methods into an integrated critical curriculum (Dehler et al., 1999; Reynolds, 1999). They feel that separating one from the other leaves a critical pedagogy experience flat, and ineffectual in producing true transformation and emancipation (Dehler et al., 1999; Reynolds, 1999).

Critical educators are cautious about the space critical pedagogy in management education occupies in a business school culture, particularly U.S. business schools.

Several offer what they see as barriers to critical management education's place in the business school hierarchy.

Treading lightly or not at all. Ehrensal (1999) comes to the dour conclusion that despite the need for the infiltration of critical thought to break the cycle of reproduction caused by the structural and historical constraints of business schools, they cannot, however, support a full critical agenda among typically conservative faculty. Fenwick (2005) likewise questions how the inherently radical intent of critical management education can successfully reconcile itself with the steadfastly conservative practices of management. However, she surges forth with a suggestion, advocating a practical orientation to critical teaching that support pragmatic action and "tempered radicalism" (citing Meyerson, 2001) toward fulfilling a critical agenda in the workplace. Zald (2002) also conjectures that researchers and teachers will have to tread lightly in challenging mainstream capitalist or bureaucratic traditions, although he feels that the marginal status of CMS and critical pedagogy may help them to maintain their critical edge.

Resisting emancipation. Fenwick (2003) and Perriton and Reynolds (2004) say the biggest problem with enacting a critical pedagogy in the classroom is usually the over-radical tone it takes in its quest to totally emancipate the learner from their den of ignorance, that either, one, leads to obscure theoretical presentations that escape student comprehension (Grey, 2002; Reynolds, 1999), or two, preachy, arrogant lectures about the failure of management and its need for reform (Grey, 2002). According to Perriton and Reynolds (2004), neither approach goes over well with "post-experience management students" who are "bemused if not made indignant by the implicit agenda in CME that they be liberated" (p. 68).

Student resistance, backlash, and disappointment. Likewise, Currie and Knights (2003), Fenwick (2005), Monaghan (2003), and Reynolds (1999) are less than cavalier about the type of discomfort critical pedagogy can inflict upon students, offering a combination of three scenarios where critical educators might encounter student struggle with a critical agenda: resistance, assimilation of critical ideas into mainstream thinking, and disruption of identity. Simply put, students unable to carry the extra complexity associated with a critical discourse either tune out messages of socially responsible management completely, or retrofit the information to accommodate traditional technical or economic orthodoxy. These are students who are usually used to being at the center of society, not the margins, so management ideology is not easily reconstituted for them, as they have been privileged by the benefits it creates (Fenwick, 2005; Perriton & Reynolds, 2004). Those that are wholly converted, on the other hand, experience a kind of culture shock, unable to reconcile their new world with the old. These students are now unsure about how to address the social inequities in a context where such issues are rarely substantively recognized, and struggle to figure out ways of coping with their new ideas (Reynolds, 1999).

Educator reflexivity and positionality. Lastly, committing to critical instruction is one for which some faculty are not totally prepared. If the educator is not reflexive about how their own experiences, intentions, and teaching practice really relates to critical concepts, then they may be unsure about how to manage any conflict that arises in the tension between themselves and their students (Fenwick, 2005). What instructors must understand is that any knowledge put forth in a critical fashion can be contested, even their own. Critical pedagogy is student-centered, not teacher-centered, and thus teacher

and students share the same epistemologic footing (Dehler et al., 1999). The student's knowledge and opinions are equally valuable as the professor's, and therefore, the student does not need "saving" from their own misguided notions (Perriton & Reynolds, 2004). Reynolds (1999) also suggests that educators be upfront about the purpose of their critical curricula, and be clear about the specific issue they plan to address, so that dialogue is clear and not muddled. Educators need to continually question how they are utilizing their power and authority in the classroom, understanding that their position in class is not a neutral one, but part of a distinct political vision (Hagen, Miller, & Johnson, 2003). Therefore, Reynolds, (citing Ellsworth, 1989) advises faculty to be aware of any inconsistencies between their critical position and how that position is taught or conveyed in the classroom, being careful to observe that "critical perspectives, which have informed pedagogical practice are often ethnocentric and gendered" and that "students can be marginalized, excluded, and disempowered as a result" (Reynolds, 1999, p. 180).

Critical management educators have begun to experiment with incorporating postmodern or other postdiscourses that allow teachers and learners the opportunity to sort out their standpoints relative to the very complex business issues being experienced by contemporary managers. For instance, Dehler, Welsh, and Lewis (2001) offer a pedagogy of "complicated understanding and paradox" that disrupts the traditional mindset and knowledge base of management learning by challenging students to interpret organizational phenomena from differing perspectives. In addition, they are invited to reflect upon contradictions they encounter in workplace processes and philosophies to develop their own stance about how they would react to such a conflict of interests. Clegg, Kornberger, Carter, and Rhodes (2006) seek to deconstruct managers' typical

identity as "the enemy" in organizations, by championing "polyphonic organizations,"

organizations that problematize internal and external relations through sectoral and

stakeholder discourse. Multiple voices are afforded opportunity to dialogue to reach

multiple understandings without managers being seen as the single authorial voice.

Perriton and Reynolds (2004), recommend a pedagogy of refusal, instead of

emancipation, a position that allows management educators to be more self-reflexive

about their commitment to critical education in a heavily modern environment, usually

the business school. The goal of refusal is to carve out an identity as an educator that

negates or refuses to subscribe to mainstream management education orthodoxy, without

being bound to an emancipatory crusade that might otherwise thwart a more realistic

mission for progress. And finally Reynolds and Trehan (1999) advocate a pedagogy of

difference, examining ways that individual differences based on values, beliefs, and

preferences about work are included in the learning process, as well as issues surrounding

gender, race, and other teacher-student identities and positionalities.

Tempered Radicals in Management Education

Critical management academics like these tenuously straddle their precarious

positions as both outspoken proponents of more liberal democratic ideals (which don't

tend to get a hearing in socially and culturally dominant bureaucracies) and also as

legitimized elites hired to participate in maintaining the status of those same

bureaucracies. The dissonance experienced by critical management academics (and

professionals) introducing concepts like sustainability puts them at risk for being

disowned and discredited by more traditional peers, as well as risks the dissipation of

their enthusiasm to create visionary change that their field might sorely need. Meyerson

and Scully (1995) point out these pitfalls among others for academics and professionals who courageously struggle with their desire to facilitate change from the inside using a radical disposition to open new doors that help and include society's dispossessed and disenfranchised. This can, of course, be taboo and almost discouraged in settings like business schools that represent a conservative status quo and that are seen as havens of rational discourse, not subjective ruminations about the state of the world. This often presents the ultimate dilemma to critical academics about how much they should say, how much is worth fighting for if it does nothing but jeopardize the effort it took to get them on the inside? On the other hand, can they really give up the democratic values that have become part of their passion and upon whose articulation a truly free society will depend?

Meyerson and Scully (1995) coined the term "tempered radical" to define those caught between these two worlds. They describe their own situation:

Both of us are feminists and radical humanists; we strongly believe in eradicating gender, race, and class injustices. We are also both faculty members of a discipline known as 'management'… Both of us identify with our profession and want to advance within it. Yet we also believe that the business schools in which we work reproduce certain inequalities systematically, if unintentionally. We find ourselves in the awkward position of trying to master the norms of our profession in order to advance and maintain a foothold inside important institutions, but also trying to resist and change the profession's imperative and focus. (p. 587)

Tempered radicalism is reconciliation between the spirit of these radical professionals and the structured norms under which they work. Tempered radicalism suggests they do this through the use of certain coping strategies that recognize their responsibility to balancing both parts of their personalities. This calls for supreme vigilance on the part of a tempered radical, for as Meyerson and Scully point out, it can be all too easy to veer off in one direction or another. One can either be absorbed by a system's norms completely, losing any attachment to activism, or take activism too far, alienating support for their causes.

Meyerson and Scully (1995) emphasize that part of the advantage of being a tempered radical is using the position as an "outsider within" to make hard assessments about both the status quo and the radical approaches to change, being cautious about supporting or denouncing either too aggressively. In other words, tempered radicals work from a perspective of ambivalence, according to Meyerson and Scully. Meyerson and Scully defend ambivalence as an advantage that allows tempered radicals an enduring connection to their emotions and to a lifeline that maintains their oppositional stance. Instead of compromise, which with repeated use, dampens radicalism through constant conciliation to more central opinions and practices, ambivalence continuously prods uncertainty and questioning of traditional views, making it difficult for tempered radicals to concede without similar negotiated concessions for social change. Ambivalence provides more openness and flexibility in how tempered radicals make decisions, giving them leeway to say to themselves, no, that is not an acceptable outcome, so how shall I challenge it? "Because both parts of a duality are represented, ambivalent

responses can be more responsive to equivocal situations than compromises" (Meyerson & Scully, 1995, p. 589).

Meyerson and Scully of course take further responsibility for ambivalence, knowing it presents a far less rosy picture in practice. Tempered radicals in Meyerson and Scully's study report that they are often looked upon as *hypocritical* for not profusely validating one camp or another, making it difficult to see who they are trying to serve or what they are trying to accomplish. They are seen as fickle, wishy-washy, or two-faced as they try to win the approval of purists on either side. *Isolation* is too a risk of ambivalence. If neither radical nor traditionalists understand where tempered radicals plant their flag, tempered radicals seem to lack full association with a cadre of people with whom they can confide and commiserate. The *emotional burden* experienced by tempered radicals also presents issues. Constantly operating in an oppositional stance generates a range of rotating emotions within a person, including the anger and passion that fuels their resistance; self-doubt in being able to make change; devaluation by a system that does not respect their liberal democratic aims; and stress and burnout from internal and external battles. Finally, the challenges of ambivalence always leaves open the threat of *cooptation*; that the pressure of the system to produce, the search for belonging, and the desire to appear "rational" can all cause tempered radicals to lose sight of their convictions. Compromise becomes easier and easier as radicalism is diluted by everyday demands.

Obviously, critical academics and professionals must be aware of the toll tempered radicalism takes before consciously engaging in it. They certainly must come to the table with their commitment to change strong and intact, at least knowing who they

are, who they are representing, and some idea of the intended outcomes that will engender more equality inside and outside of the workplace. However, tempered radicals are not without ways to offset the discomfort of pushing for change. Meyerson and Scully (1995) and Alvesson and Willmott (1996) both suggest similar strategies for critical educators to alleviate the pressure of organizational resistance.

"Tempering" the Pace of Social Change

Meyerson and Scully (1995) discuss that tempered radicals should take pride in the strides they make toward accomplishing "small wins" in their organizations. Lamenting over whether any real progress is being made only paralyzes their actions. Any action that inches the organization in the direction of progressive change is positive action. Being a tempered radical is not necessarily about making grand gestures, but about participating as a conscious vessel for bringing about more democracy for work and social existence.

According to Meyerson and Scully, the concept of small wins removes some of the frustration from being a change agent. One, small wins let tempered radicals as individuals manage a part of the whole. Instead of getting tangled up in the big picture, tempered radicals focus on smaller goals that can be attained while executing everyday duties. As a conscious radical, situations that were once just part of the job are elevated as a mission for change. Victories can be sought in projects that protect minority interests against destructive majority rules. Two, Meyerson and Scully look at small wins as experiments. Achieving enough small wins over time accumulates into systemic changes that if undertaken all at once under normal circumstances, might otherwise be immediately rejected as a threat to tradition. Tempered radicals who test the system's

capacity for change develop a sense of who might be allies, or how resistant the

organization is to new ways of thinking. In this regard, small losses are equally

important as they too define organizational boundaries. Three, the idea of going after

small wins means tempered radicals will be thoughtful about picking their battles. In

order to actually get anything done, they cannot chase after every "cause" that presents

itself. The challenge for them is to assess just how much a particular effort will

contribute to a valued social agenda. And four, tempered radicals should look for small

wins that come in the form of unexpected opportunities. Meyerson and Scully advise that

tempered radicals stay on the alert for cracks in the social and cultural façade that may be

signaling either shifts in the power structure or emerging progressive attitudes.

Spontaneous occasions to act can turn out to be a "significant intervention that produce[s]

real and symbolic change in [an] organizations" (Meyerson & Scully, 1995, p. 596).

Alvesson and Willmott (1996) followed Meyerson and Scully with their own

interpretations of small wins describing the use of microemancipatory movements in

management education. As critical educators in business schools, they have attempted to

open emancipatory options for adult educators teaching across a range of social and

political contexts. Using postmodern principles, microemancipation inside modernist

structures encourages resistance and the exposure of contradictions in management

practice to release tension against forms of management control, unlocking space for

critical reflection and action. Like small wins, microemancipation does not assume

change on a grandiose scale that moves consciousness from "false to true," but is instead

an ongoing examination of management traditions and prejudices in order to counteract

diverse forms of oppression, "each limited in terms of space and time (and success)" (Alvesson & Willmott, 1996, p. 172).

Alvesson and Willmott widen the latitude of interest and application of emancipatory intent through development of a 9-celled matrix that crosses three levels of project activity defined by the level of outcome a critical project wishes to achieve – questioning, incrementalism, or Utopian change – with three other levels based on the type of subject matter to address – means, ends, or social relations projects. Descriptions of each coordinate are as follows:

(1) *Questioning* problematizes or raises doubt about dominant spheres of influence, ideas social arrangements, and thinking. It challenges and investigates prevailing assumptions and sources of authority without necessarily suggesting a prescribed approach to redress.

(2) *Incrementalism* represents the intent to perform a "gradualist or reformist approach" (Alvesson & Willmott, 1996, p. 177) that involves participatory action toward change.

(3) *Utopian* outcomes are the grand visions of change, the sweeping examination of consciousness that looks for broad alternatives to social inhumanity.

(4) *Means* analyzes and addresses established internal procedures or historically institutionalized processes of organization that either enhance or retard change.

(5) *Ends* analyze and address the purpose or aims of institutionalized activity with the intent to debate the value and contributions of such activity to wider society.

(6) *Social relations* are between means and ends on the matrix and, is by default, linked to one or the other, but in the pursuit of those means or ends, pays special attention to the "social organization of privileges and power" (Alvesson & Willmott, 1996, p. 178), such as those based on class, race, or gender inequality. It highlights the nuances of oppression inherent in social interaction and relationships.

Reproducing the Alvesson and Willmott matrix in Table 3 with the accompanying vertical and horizontal descriptors, we see the range of emancipatory options open to educators in terms of theory and practice. Even more interesting, if we insert the emancipatory models we have reviewed in this section, we can survey a range of possibility for emancipatory learning and intent. These categorizations are of course, the subjective opinions of this author. Readers should re-interpret the placement of these schools of thought. As well, one should keep in mind that given the constant reformulations of these theories, they are not bound by their boxes, but rather, are current spaces they occupy as guidelines to help educators and students locate their emancipatory positionality. Where one would locate accompanying lifeworld phenomena and investigations such as ecology, globalism, economics, organizational studies, community studies, or popular movements would depend, according to Alvesson and Willmott, on the angle and breadth of the subjects educators choose to tackle. In a management context, for instance, Alvesson and Willmott cite topics such as the hierarchical and fragmented divisions of labor, autocratic leadership styles, and psychological testing as means-oriented topics that could be evaluated across any of the emancipatory activities (questioning, incrementalism, Utopian) on the horizontal axis.

Likewise, critique on workplace democracy, gender equality or economic consumption would warrant their own level of engagement depending on the context, either as a mean, end, or as a measure of social relations. The main point is that adult and management educators have a wealth of pedagogical tools to be used in achieving emancipatory aims in adult and management education. Therefore, they do not have to be hamstrung in addressing emancipatory aims, having some sufficient basis of emancipatory thought and action to overcome organizational resistance to progressive change.

Summary: Profound Change through Education

By its nature, sustainability is meant to be a radical concept that induces new ways to think about the content and delivery of education. Because sustainability's premise espouses something different from our current reality, to do it justice requires a view that opens up the full scope of what it is asking so that it is not shortchanged or reduced by the dominant perspectives it is seeking to question. Emancipatory education and learning reveals the hidden issues of power that keep our society and ecosystem from progressing toward sustainable levels, helping learners integrate unorthodox ideas into their old belief systems so that they consider the possibilities of channeling economic drive toward more collaborative energies and goals.

In undertaking sustainability as an educational topic, however, both teachers and learners will likely go through a progression of peaks and valleys as they both try to ingest the paradigmatic changes inherent in sustainability and the depth of transformation required to accommodate it. Both should expect dissonance between current and emerging values, particularly in the more conservative confines of management education where adherence to traditional principles, though loosening, are still

Table 3

Alvesson and Willmott's (1996) Reformulation of Emancipation Model

Emancipatory Learning Options

	Questioning	Incremental	Utopian
Ends	▪ Frankfurt Post-*Dialectic of the Enlightenment* ▪ Critical Management Education	▪ Habermasian Critical Theory ▪ Micro-Emancipation Projects ▪ Critical Management Education	▪ Marxist Emancipatory Philosophy ▪ Freirian Philosophy ▪ Frankfurt Pre-Dialectic of Enlightenment ▪ Traditional Critical Pedagogy
Social Relations	▪ Postmodern Pedagogy ▪ Gender-Based Feminist Pedagogy ▪ Critical Management Education ▪ Tempered Radicalism	▪ Postmodern Pedagogy ▪ Poststructural Feminist Pedagogy ▪ Liberatory Feminist Pedagogy ▪ Micro-Emancipation Projects ▪ Critical Management Education ▪ Tempered Radicalism	▪ Structural Feminist Pedagogy
Means	▪ Mezirow Transformative Learning ▪ Tempered Radicalism	▪ Mezirow Transformative Learning ▪ Micro-Emancipation Projects ▪ Tempered Radicalism	

Note. Adapted From "Making Sense of Management: A Critical Introduction," by M. Alvesson and H. Willmott, 1996, p. 177, SAGE Publications.

pronounced. Since loyalty to values surrounding management education might take some time to change, Alvesson and Willmott (1996) and Meyerson and Scully (1995), all privy to the management education environment, recognize that making room for new attitudes will likely take a gradual appreciation of any critically-oriented idea such as sustainability. Thus, both sets of authors leave openings for tempered approaches to understanding and change, knowing that for sustainability to be truly embraced means educators and students, given their own resistance or that of the institution's, will have to come to sustainability based on present comfort levels, and through interaction with others, raise (or maintain) their acceptance of, openness to and consciousness around sustainability integration. This effort at microemancipatory change (per Alvesson and Willmott) allows those uncomfortable with sustainability to migrate in step stair fashion as necessary, keeping them in tune with the context of a world in flux.

Business School Education and its Impact on Sustainability

Management educators like Meyerson and Scully (1995) and Alvesson and Willmott (1996) have eloquently expressed the inherently contradictory positions of educators with a social mission who find themselves lodged in more conformist establishments. As expressed by Meyerson and Scully, business schools can erect challenging barriers to realizing liberal democratic ideals. Part of the reason for this might be that business schools are valued for producing one of the top professions coveted by U.S. employers along with doctors, lawyers, and possibly engineers, as business managers are often regarded as captains of industry. The legitimization of business schools over the past several decades has rested on their close association with the corporate sector (Ehrensal, 1999). Depending on corporations as their main customer

base, it seems as the power of the corporation has grown, so have business school programs expanded to match corporate largesse, size, and prestige. They hold a position in society that currently resonates with the mainstream economic and social culture.

But in the face of this commercial success, one has to ask how are business schools and management education contributing to humanity and the well-being of society? We can guess the economic rationale for their existence; better education for better jobs, and well-groomed managers who run productive organizations. But their opposing legacy is more disconcerting; managers devoid of conscience, who manage toward the lure of corporate profit and personal power. We have only to think of people like Ken Lay of Enron, or Bernie Ebbers of Worldcom to exemplify this point. Although we can say that the list of less than honorable CEOs is short, we do have to ask in light of management breaches if the role of business schools in teaching is not just to transmit technique and operational expertise, but also to uphold social responsibility and critical thought. Companies are finding very quickly that the social world is encroaching upon their coveted space. Many business leaders agree that they are facing a looming struggle between the predominant paradigm of economic growth for growth's sake, while contemporary social phenomena, such as gender inequality in the workplace, overdependence on natural resources, and reduced healthcare benefits, confront corporations to develop a sociological perspective to solving problems (World Economic Forum, 2005, 2006). As business schools are the largest purveyors of future business leaders, this section explores the discourse questioning business schools' capacity to inspire the development of socially-informed leaders in addition to economically astute ones.

The History of Business Schools and Management Education

U.S. business schools are one of our most elite and revered institutions in the academic world today. As industrialization progressed at a feverish pace, and the corporate structure started to emerge, business began to create vocational ties to the university (Yogev, 2001). The expansion of the corporate model merited the need for a new kind of student. A manager was perceived as one that could manage industrial growth in a burgeoning economy, generically described as someone appointed to lead and direct an organization in the deployment of its resources, including financial, material, and intellectual. But where managers became most valuable was, and continues to be, in organizing people:

> It is the competence of managers that determines, in large part, the return
>
> that organizations realize from their human capital or human resources.
>
> To acquire and attain competent managers, to let them know what they are
>
> expected to do, and to effectively utilize the organization's human and
>
> other resources, people in organizations use models of management.
>
> (Boyatzis, 1982, p. 1)

Business education was designed to hopefully meet this need by cultivating management as a science and a profession whose principles could be taught to future leaders. Modern managers in the mid-20th century were in fact engineers trained in the scientific study of "Weberian concepts of hierarchy and bureaucracy, command and control, and the efficiency principles of Taylorism" in order to feed the ascendancy of manufacturing in the 1950s (Dehler, Welsh, & Lewis, 1999, p. 4).

The Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania was the first to step into the ring creating the first undergraduate business school program in 1881. The University of Wisconsin and Dartmouth followed in 1891, with Dartmouth creating the first master's program in 1900 (Mintzberg, 2004). In 1908, Harvard offered what has been officially termed at the Master's of Business Administration program, which grew into the MBA program we know today. Columbia started their business school in 1916 and Stanford followed with the second MBA program in 1925 (Mintzberg, 2004; Yogev, 2001). Although business schools were developed to produce the 20th century manager, it was still expected that these new professionals would be infused with a sense of integrity toward working for the common good of society. Business school development paralleled the popularity of the Progressive education movement, which advocated democracy, and the creation of a just society through education (Yogev, 2001). The Progressives understood that industrialization was changing the face of society, yet imagined that corporations would regulate themselves through humane management and public responsibility to tackle the economic issues of the modern day. They looked to the university to impart these principles to future managers. The newly appointed Harvard Business School President, Wallace B. Donham, upon beginning his tenure in 1908, outlined that the goal of Harvard Business School, along with providing curricula in economics and commerce, would also be to, "deepen the students' social connection with their environment … Their involvement in community and particularly in workplaces around Boston would help promote understanding for their new role as socially committed future administrators" (Yogev, 2001, p. 58).

Striving for Legitimacy: Periods in Business School History

Business schools today are synonymous with the development of management education theory, practice and research. However, it took some time for them to work up to the high profile they currently occupy in the university system. Business schools labored at the edge of university life for some time since their inception, trying to gain footing as a credible discipline (Crainer & Dearlove, 1999; Ehrensal, 1999; Mintzberg, 2004; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). There has been a constant struggle among business schools about how much theory and how much practice programs should be teaching which continues to plague them to this day. This is clear in how business schools have tried to reinvent themselves throughout their history. According to Thomas (1997), there are four levels of transition in the development of management education in the business school among which business schools continue to volley back and forth between even today.

The pre-paradigm mode. The Pre-Paradigm Mode (before 1900) epitomized hands-on experience, the era of business vocationalism, and trade school philosophy. Management was formulated on the premise that knowledge is gained in local, contextualized environments through individualized "rules-of-thumb, guidelines, everyday recipes and practices" which practitioners collected in the workplace (Thomas, 1997, p. 688). Direct, on-the-job interaction was considered the primary and relevant source of management education. Management knowledge, learning, and practice were intertwined. "Specialized education in management via the education system was barely conceivable, as was the notion of a science of management" (Thomas, 1997, p. 688).

The old paradigm mode. The next phase of business management education was the Old Paradigm Mode (1900-1960). As time edged from the 19th to the 20th century,

education began to reflect the interests of large industrialists who looked to education to imitate the commercial realities of business. Schools focused on two tracks: "general knowledge about business conduct" and "specialized knowledge about the operations of specific industries" (Schlossman in Mintzberg, 2004, p. 22). When Wharton initiated the first business program in 1881, it concentrated on finance (Crainer & Dearlove, 1999) and a form of liberal education for gentlemen to refine their moral and intellectual instincts as elite leaders (Thomas, 1997). Later, the liberal emphasis faded while schools retained their emphasis on industry knowledge and specialized functions. Harvard, for instance, offered courses in "principles of accounting, commercial law and economic resources of the United States, as well as electives … such as banking and railroad operations" (Mintzberg, 2004, p. 22). In the Old Paradigm, management education was academized, but was still tied to outside practice, as business leaders and practitioners were brought in to teach courses. Thus, management practice and management knowledge began to connect. The only difference was that management knowledge was now being formalized and codified. There were certain principles of functional practice that were non-contextual and prescribed (Thomas, 1997). This lent a new aire to management education. Although business management education was not yet scientifically-based, it started to move away from vocationalism. "For the first time, commercial practice and the philosophies that underpinned them were elevated to the same sort of level as other academic disciplines" (Crainer & Dearlove, 1999, p. 12).

As the century rolled on, business schools were gradually recognized for their potential contribution to industry and continued to expand at a steady pace. Over the years, however, schools functioned at varying levels of consistency in their academic

focus and quality. Schools were operating with very independent, imprecise and

uncoordinated agendas. For instance, by the 1930s Stanford's undergraduate and

graduate programs were almost indistinguishable from one another; Wharton turned its

theoretical and research aspirations into a consulting practice. Only Carnegie-Mellon's

(then the Carnegie Institute of Technology) Graduate School of Industrial Administration

stood apart as a model of academic excellence having accomplished the building of a

graduate management program grounded in theory and research of social science and

management disciplines used to dictate practice (Mintzberg, 2004). Otherwise, in

general, management education was a hodgepodge of "vague principles" and "folk

wisdom" (Mintzberg, 2004, p. 24). "Most professors were good ole boys dispensing war

stories, cracker-barrel wisdom, and the occasional practical pointer" (Bennis & O'Toole,

2005, p.2). Business schools remained throughout the 1950s, a loosely configured

network of programs reverting back to their function as trade schools (Ehrensal, 1999;

Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Yogev, 2001). This educational misalignment was especially

problematic during the postwar era when industrialization was at its peak and managers

were ill-prepared to step up to rapid change (Mintzberg, 2004).

    The new paradigm mode. The New Paradigm Mode (1960-1980), according to

Thomas (1997), kicked off the next 20 years of business management education. By the

end of the 1950s, the varying quality of business school curriculum and teaching

produced criticisms of poor scholarship. Two 1959 reports by the Ford Foundation

(Gordon & Howell) and the Carnegie Corporation (Pierson) were the final impetus for

business schools to redirect reforms in business design. Both reports accused business

school education of being atheoretical, unprofessional, and under-credentialed in its

authority to teach business principles (Ehrensal, 1999; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). In order to gain academic legitimacy in the university once and for all, business schools undertook a massive campaign to model themselves after other social science disciplines by adopting more theory-building, scientific research, and professionalization within the field (Ehrensal, 1999; Fornier & Grey, 2000; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), qualifying who should be practicing managers and what type of knowledge they should possess. Schools injected their curriculum with and recruited their faculty from economics, psychology, and specialties like mathematics, engineering, and statistics to accommodate the growing technological needs of management, the new model of the large corporation, and emerging areas of management thinking like operations, organizational theory and systems theory. These changes laid the groundwork for the modern U.S. business schools and managers of today. Typically it adheres to a positivist research framework, guided by value-neutral, quantitative analyses of economic and organizational decision-making (Elliott, 2000; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Waddock, n.d.), as well as curriculum defined by highly-bounded functional subject areas focused on technical "how-to" communication, taught by academic specialists (Boyle, 2004; Dehler, Welsh, & Lewis, 1999; Ehrensal, 1999).   In the meantime, any outside connections those had hoped business schools might forge in the name of social progress were diminished, as business schools gave themselves over to serving primarily economic, profit-driven interests and organizational efficiency (Boyle, 2004).

The Post-Paradigm Mode: Critiques of Business Management Education

Alas, the swift business school response to criticisms of management education in the 1960s only gained it more and just as severe criticism in the late 1980s and 90s.

Thomas (1997) labels this time period the Post-Paradigm Mode (1990s - ?) where both practitioners and academics are calling for some kind of balance in management education, some compass to direct inside and outside business imperatives. In 1959, Pierson apparently issued a warning about losing sight of practical knowledge if schools focused too much on infusing scientific research into their programs:

> If business schools in increasing numbers move in the … direction
> [prescribed], the charge will doubtless be made that their work would soon
> become too academic and this lose much of its values in terms of specific
> career training. Again viewed against the record to date, the likelihood
> that this will occur is remote indeed. (Pierson in Mintzberg, 2004, p. 30)

Yet, this is what has happened, spurring another large research review of management education by Porter and McKibbin in 1988 and other subsequent critiques in and outside of the academy since then. What critics denounce is the negative effects the emphasis on overtheorizing business education has had on the business school as an institution in terms of the knowledge, values and quality of education it dispenses. They have been disappointed in the sterilization and remoteness of business school ideals, which have been reduced to maintaining academic prestige, product continuity, and financial endowment more than promoting leadership in educational integrity and acknowledging the value of real world business experience. Thus the areas of critique are varied and touch upon each part of business school administration, inducing commentary on curriculum, research vs. practice, operation, teaching, students, accreditation, and of course, faculty. Because critique has been so pronounced, especially during this Post-Paradigm era, it is beneficial to take a glimpse at the critique

behind these business school elements to uncover the urgency with which educators are calling for improvement, and if that is indeed possible given the legacy of success business schools have typically enjoyed over the past 40 years.

Critique #1: Chasing the Science of Management

Business schools' desire for legitimacy after 1959 spawned their meteoric growth and popularity, but may have left their educational mission precarious. Critics generally agree that the overall purpose business schools serve is to generate new knowledge through research and prepare students for careers (Starkey, Hatchuel, & Tempest, 2004). Crainer and Dearlove (1999) add business schools should also be supporting management as an academic discipline and a profession; improving the effectiveness of individuals; and contributing to the welfare of national economics. Unfortunately, as Pierson prophesized above, business schools have pursued scientific rigor through research above all else and have used such work to govern the direction of other supporting goals. The problem arises when corporations and other business organizations find the knowledge being produced is irrelevant to actual organizational and management practice (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Crainer & Dearlove, 1999; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004; Mintzberg, 2004; Starkey, Hatchuel, & Tempest, 2004; Thomas, 1997). These critics express that the positivist, scientific research model that business schools have worked so hard to emulate from other social science and hard science disciplines is responsible for "institutionalizing their own irrelevance" (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005, p. 1). Business schools adhere to a system of publishing for faculty tenure; focus on obscure research topics; using research to boost school image and rankings; continued status-building within the academic community; searching for prescriptive theories instead of applied

solutions; and limited contact with the business community (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Crainer & Dearlove, 1999; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). All of these cause an imbalance to the attention of real-world management issues that require deeper exploration than what formulaic processes are able to lend. Bennis and O'Toole (2005) state that research-based knowledge focus on technical challenges without revealing more "hidden strategic, economic, competitive, human and political complexities – all of which must be plumbed to reach truly effective business decisions" (p. 6). Corporations find that entering managers' studies have not prepared them to transfer this type of thinking to the workplace (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), and that management as a skill is still captured in the moment of everyday experiences (Mintzberg, 2004).

Given this, there seems to be some dispute over just how much business schools can claim management as a science or even as a profession. Bennis and O'Toole (2005) say management does not really have a professional standing, and should strive to be like medicine and law. Crainer and Dearlove (1999) say that business schools have made management a profession just by sheer growth, but perhaps are not using the right professional model. Mintzberg (2004) says management can never be a profession like medicine or law because its knowledge cannot be systemized, formalized, or codified for application into practice – ever. However, despite some variations in their viewpoints, they do agree that short of going back to a vocational or trade school paradigm, business management education needs to reconnect with their roots that honor the social context of business practice.

Critique #2: The Commercialization of Business Education

As U.S. business schools gradually continued to reformulate their educational mission during the New Paradigm, they also began to experience exponential growth of graduate school programs, mainly MBAs. In 1955-1956, 3200 degrees were awarded (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). By 1958, the number rose to 4,041, and in 1964, 6,374 (Mintzberg, 2004). Over the next two years, that number more than doubled to 12,998 (Mintzberg, 2004). By 1976, 42,654 degrees were attained and 20 years later in 1997-1998, over 100,000 graduates had MBA degrees (Mintzberg, 2004; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). Undoubtedly, the MBA degree had become the flagship product in the business school portfolio.

According to Crainer and Dearlove (1999), this growth and the accompanying importance of corporate life have contributed to the MBA degree and business education in general, becoming big business itself. The MBA model, started in the US, has been copied and exported internationally with minor modifications. Invariably, as the market for graduate degrees increased, so did competition. The market-driven 1980s saw the peak of this explosion, and schools, especially elite business institutions, were in demand to produce top MBA candidates. Business schools became more efficient in turning out graduates. U.S. schools narrowed their criteria for selection down to primarily those who had the top GMAT scores while admitting students with little to no prior business management experience (Crainer & Dearlove, 1999).

Business schools became masters at self-promotion, using ranking surveys from popular business press like *U.S. News and World Report*, and *BusinessWeek* to boost their desirability among potential candidates (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). Foremost, the message

to MBA candidates was that an MBA degree is the ticket to career advancement and a higher salary (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). Its major value proposition was the pathway to success and financial wealth. To foster this message, business schools employ recruiters to help place graduates in sought after positions. Depending on their success rates, schools can then be compared and ranked according to their return-on-investment or ROI (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004).

There is no doubt that business schools are operating in an environment of increased competition, pushing them to compete in what is becoming a crowded market. In addition to traditional degreed programs, most schools also have an Executive Education department, which often houses the very lucrative Executive MBA, an extension of the MBA for practicing managers, as well as custom programs, which are specialized business programs delivered for particular management groups. U.S. business schools are also partnering with schools overseas to capture a piece of the international market, signs that the domestic market might be saturated (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). These are among the myriad other options available to companies, including services offered by consulting companies, community colleges, online MBAs, and entrepreneurial training firms. Business education has evolved into a lucrative commercial enterprise (Crainer & Dearlove, 1999; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004; Porter, Rehder, & Muller, 1997).

With business schools being run as a business, they face the dilemma of balancing an educational mission with a market approach to growth. Business school growth has resulted in one of the highest profiles at universities and elevating its status as a financial cash cow. The wealth of business schools is often depended on by central university

administration as a significant contributor to income (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Pfeffer & Fong, 2004). However, business education and graduates are also seen as mass-produced commodities whose academic standards are compromised to meet the demands of the marketplace. "Business schools, under pressure to make their students happy, succeed in the ratings and grow their curriculum, have begun to follow essentially the same strategies and produce MBAs who look remarkably alike" (Pfeffer & Fong, 2004, p. 1514). Bureaucracy and hierarchy have replaced a feeling of community and scholarship, particularly at large universities. This development is magnified at business schools, which in the process of mimicking market goals and traditional hierarchy to elevate those goals "have created archaic incentives for faculty members and students and … are at risk of developing future business leaders schooled in traditional organization models and antiquated, machine-centered management values and goals" (Porter, Rehder, & Muller, 1997, p. 5). In focusing more on efficiency to produce a "product," quality of the learning process and values of all associated with the business school are at risk. For students, learning is not as much a priority as networking, recruiting and careerism (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Porter, Rehder, & Muller, 1997). Faculty avoids taking on too many political entanglements like extensive curriculum innovation or constructive criticism that risk disengaging corporate or student customers. Admission administrators, like salespeople, are in the line of fire to maintain or increase admissions, facing constant job insecurity: "If sales are down, ax the sales manager" (Porter, Rehder, & Muller, 1997, p. 4). Porter et al. (1997) say that all of this, though par for the course, leaves less time and ability to develop "the qualities of inquiry, reflection and independence" that is supposed to define the character of a higher education environment (p. 5).

Critique #3: Perpetuating the Faculty Fantasy

In 1988, the two largest criticism of business school faculty coming out of the Porter and McKibbin 25-year update to the 1959 Ford Foundation and Carnegie Corporation reports, was that faculty were too narrowly trained in specialized functions and that they did not have enough real-world experience to transfer to the classroom, critiques that mirror the research to practice critique mentioned earlier. The reason for both of these deficiencies, the Porter and McKibbin study reflected, was the way in which doctoral programs prepared aspiring business faculty for professorial careers – specialization in a certain area allowing them to conduct original research. Once graduated from their program, they were on track to join a university staff directly knowing little about the ambiguity of management practice and its global nature. They were only equipped to teach one small slice of the whole pie.

Fast forward to 2005, and according to Bennis and O'Toole, not much has changed. Instead of blaming doctoral training, however, they cite the notorious tenure process as the cause of faculty tunnel vision. As mentioned before, academic publishing in research journals as a precursor to tenure is what gets faculty attention, not excellence in teaching the practicalities of management. Incentive and rewards lie in academic promotion, keeping faculty eyes on the prize.

But according to Crainer and Dearlove (1999), tenure is just the beginning of business faculty dysfunction. Related to the notion of the commercialization of business schools is what they call the "Business of Professorship." Business professors, especially at elite institutions, come at a higher price these days. Both Crainer and Dearlove (1999) and Pfeffer and Fong (2002) acknowledge that there is a severe world shortage of

qualified business school faculty to teach in business programs. To secure the faculty resources schools do have and to maintain their university presence, business schools are forced to provide raises or allow salary supplements (e.g. consulting) for current faculty, and pay top dollar for star recruits coming out of the top Ph.D. programs. One professor likened the latter process to the NFL draft: "By the time offers are made, everyone knows who is Number 1, 2, & 3" (Hamada in Crainer & Dearlove, 1999, p. 112). Business schools can end up being in a real bidding war for talent, especially if they are trying to woo or keep name faculty, or what Crainer and Dearlove call superstar or guru faculty (e.g. Peter Senge or Warren Bennis). Faculty negotiations over money can leave a pall over the educational mission. Internal jealousies undermine the business school community or other disciplines are strained by the loss of their own candidates to more profitable business school packages. Faculty, for their part, is also prone to charges of underteaching in favor of pursuing other income. Business school education creates a danger of treating faculty like tradable commodities, rather than as educators with an obligation to the public.

Critique #4: Student Egoism and Apathy

Grey (2002) and Ehrensal (1999) thoughtfully examine the possibility that business schools have fallen victim to the age-old issue of socially reproducing or manufacturing a certain type of manager who holds certain business philosophies in the interest of safeguarding an elite set of values. Others support their critique, observing the dissatisfaction with recent generations of managerial recruits. These criticisms focus on what students are learning, the profile of the learner, and the disingenuous results once outside the classroom. Management education students, particularly MBAs, are accused

of coming off as arrogant and elitist in their dealings with lower-level employees (Alsop, 2004), lacking in leadership skills (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), and having a very narrow knowledge base inadequate for today's workplace (Waddock, n.d.). Several quotes and comments underscore the growing dissent:

(1) What transformation will it take in management education … to develop managers and leaders who can act with integrity, authenticity, and enough understanding of the fundamentals of business in society to avoid becoming … hollow men and women, incapable of knowing what they stand for, incapable of taking a stand on grounds other than economic gain, becoming simply instruments of the corporation? (Waddock, n.d., p. 2)

(2) We have built a weird, almost imaginable design for MBA-level education 'that distorts those subjected to it into critters with lopsided brains, icy hearts, and shrunken souls.' (Leavitt in Pfeffer & Fong, 2002, p. 2)

(3) MBA programmes choose the 'wrong people' and the 'wrong ways.' 'Wrong people' because they are mostly young and inexperienced managers. (Mintzberg in Brady, 2004, p. 1)

In addition, critics find students' attitudes toward sustainable business practices upon entering an MBA program "surprisingly regressive" (Thomas, 2005).   A 2003 Aspen Institute study showed that MBA students tend to embrace a shareholder value philosophy, a symptom of neoclassical thinking, early in their program (Waddock, n.d.). The study also showed that almost a third of MBA students at top business schools throughout the US, UK, and Canada thought companies only obligation is to comply with government regulations enforcing environmental responsibility. When asked about how

corporate leaders would weigh the importance of addressing social and environmental

issues, results showed students believed leaders only gave these issues a sixth of the

interest they would otherwise give to meeting shareholder value (Thomas, 2005).   More

alarming to Waddock is that MBA students "do not think they can impact the culture and

values of companies, stating that they are more likely to quit than to try to effect change

in an organization" (n.d., p. 8). These critiques and attitudes are unfortunate, as managers

as the agents of business continue to wield unprecedented power in public and private

sectors (Fournier & Grey, 2000).

Critique #5: Lackluster Teaching and Content

Business schools have received no less criticism for their role in reproducing the

dominant discourse of corporations. They have come under examination for their role in

being able to influence more ethical, social, and environmental orientations in their

curriculum. More and more, the economic ideology that has dominated U.S. business for

the past half-century is found to be perpetrated by the self-interest rhetoric coming from

business schools (Boyle, 2004). Business school curriculum "has been subject to

periodic criticism as it is thought to emphasize analysis over integration, technique over

leadership and interpersonal skills, and functional boundaries over holistic managerial

practice" (Boyle, 2004, p. 40). The AACSB (American Assembly of Collegiate Schools

of Business) and the ACBSP (Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programs),

business school accreditation bodies, are specific in their approval of the type curriculum

all accredited business programs must teach, managing the type of knowledge appropriate

for business practice:

…regardless of their major, all business graduates are expected to have

received a general exposure to economic institutions, the complex

relationships that exist between business, government, and consumers, and

a basic knowledge of functional areas of business. Thus, business students

share common professional requirements. For this reason, certain

common subject matter and areas of specialization are expected to be

covered in baccalaureate and graduate programs in business (Ehrensal,

1999, p. 4).

Most business school curriculum must include the following: accounting,

management information systems, quantitative techniques, economics, marketing,

finance, and management, courses that emphasize traditional technical, scientific, and

economic purview of management. Also included are classes on the global environment,

the legal environment, and business ethics, although (Waddock, n.d.) and the Beyond

Grey Pinstripes website (2003), concur that ethics and other business-in-society courses

are not regarded as core courses and still hold a marginalized position in the academy at

best.

Most of all, critics regret the lost art of management during the new paradigm

conversion. In the shift to more functionalized and specialized curriculum, the concept of

management got distorted and disappeared altogether. Management is about integration

of business principles, not separation. But many feel that because the latter holds sway,

business education shortchanges learners and students as practicing managers.

Critique #6: Accreditation

Business schools rely on a complex system of institutional and student legitimization that reinforces their importance to corporations and the economic market. Ehrensal (1999) provides the most evidence of this through his description of the accrediting function of the AACSB (American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business) and the ACBSP (Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programs). These bodies are the official process by which university programs are validated by governing academic boards. By Ehrensal's account, these bodies serve to preserve certain characteristics of business schools, while excluding others. Other sources also add to this observation. What these authors show is how stratification reinforces certain traditions and practices. As well, accreditation shows how reproduction reduces management knowledge and experience down to a set of functionalist and ideology-based competencies that define stature as a contemporary manager, but are inadequate for encouraging the scope of study and conversation necessary for managers to examine broader social, political, and cultural contexts to affect more ethical and socially responsible management.

For example, accreditation bodies, according to Ehrensal, designate the type of faculty who are fit to take on the responsibility of passing on business ideology. Early business school faculty consisted primarily of instructors from non-business disciplines. However, as more doctoral degrees in business were conferred, and business education became more specialized, so did the requirements to teach in business. The AACSB dictates that at least 80 percent of full-time faculty must have an advanced teaching degree focused on a recognized business discipline. Degrees from sources,

…outside the business school must endure further scrutiny before being admitted to the brotherhood. Doctorates in fields that are not as closely related find it almost impossible, unless they have a long history of doing business-related research, to be certified as appropriate (Ehrensal, 1999, p. 6).

Being so exclusive means that faculty groomed within the academy is also deeply suspicious of less conservative ideas that do not fit managerial language. "Soft" disciplines such as organizational behavior and human resources are tolerated, through ranked lower than "harder" subjects (Zald, 2002), while radical dialogue is shut out almost automatically (Ehrensal, 1999), "making it clear that there are boundaries to what can be said in the realm of business school intellectual production" (Ehrensal, 1999, p. 12).

The accrediting boards even regulate who may enter the business school domain, clear to stipulate that graduate programs, particularly the MBA, should grant admission to those students "showing a high promise of success in postgraduate business study" (Ehrensal, 1999, p. 7). To ensure this, business schools should rely on graduate entrance testing, undergraduate grades, prior professional experience, and performance in required prerequisite courses taken prior to admission (Ehrensal, 1999). All of this sets the bar tremendously high for entering students and demands that they have an abundance of cultural capital coming into the business school system. The stakes get higher the more privileged the education. "Thus, while undergraduate programs may have as one of their purposes to instill appropriate values … graduate programs often seek those who already have these values and then reinforce them" (Ehrensal, 1999, p. 7). Indeed, student

assimilation shows probably the highest effort of social reproduction. Business school observers of MBA programs readily admit that these programs still attract a fair amount of homogeneity in their student profiles, leading to charges of elitism, lack of diversity, and lack of relevance to the changing needs of business (Which MBA? Website, 2003). "The typical MBA student is still male, white, and aged 24-29. He is highly motivated, knows what he wants from the programme, scores well in the GMAT, knows how to fill in application forms, and write essays, and is generally aware of what to expect" (Which MBA? Website, 2003, para. 1).

Is this where we have come? Is education no longer intended to make a difference, but is simply a shelter for storing pre-set and predetermined knowledge to pre-selected people? Business education it seems has become a metaphor for the automotive assembly-line mechanization process Henry Ford perfected during the early part of the century. Technique has overshadowed talk and thinking. Not surprisingly, this and other factors lead some to believe that graduate business programs like the MBA are less and less sites of true learning, than they are a vehicle for networking and generating social capital. Learning is not so much important as obtaining a pedigree (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), and for building and rebuilding narrowly prescribed outcomes for specific entities of interest.

Business Schools' Impact on Sustainability

In light of the current business school environment, the question of whether sustainability can survive under such circumstances is debatable. The progress of business schools incorporating sustainability curriculum in their programs has been studied and tracked by the World Resources Institute (WRI) and the Aspen Institute for

Social Innovation through Business in a survey called Beyond Grey Pinstripes. The 2003 study highlighted the top 36 U.S. and international business schools who demonstrated superior to moderate activity in advancing social and environmental issues in their programs. The progress in achieving the enormous degree of change needed is optimistic, but still mixed, as the 2003 report would indicate. The following are their major findings on the status of sustainability efforts in MBA programs to date:

1. Compared to the previous survey, the number of CORE COURSES with social and environmental content is up, but the improvement is marginal;

2. Experimentation through ELECTIVES is on the rise;

3. Course content featuring a systemic look at the complex interrelationship of financial, social, and environmental factors in business—that is, SUSTAINABILITY in its broadest sense—continues to be relatively rare;

4. Survey findings indicate that EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES contribute to a vibrant discussion of topics related to social impact and environmental management;

5. STUDENT INVOLVEMENT is a significant driver for activities at schools;

6. The presence of CENTERS AND INSTITUTES dedicated to social and environmental topics also is a key factor in the depth of teaching and research on these issues at business schools;

7. The Beyond Grey Pinstripes 2003 REVIEW OF ACADEMIC LITERATURE reveals business faculty's growing interest in research on social impact and/or environmental management. (*Beyond Grey Pinstripes* website, 2003 report, emphasis in the original)

Thus, with these findings, business schools remain under particular scrutiny for their role in being able to influence more ethical, social, and environmental orientations in their curriculum (Boyle, 2004; Kearins & Springett, 2003; Springett, 2005; Wheeler, Zohar, & Hart, 2005; Willard, 2004). Unfortunately, as shown, sustainability courses are rarely folded into the core curriculum of an MBA program, but instead relegated to the margins (Springett & Kearins, 2001; Willard, 2004). Reasons why business school programs do not fully embrace sustainability may lie in the fact that many schools have not legitimized sustainability as a topic directly related to strategic business outcomes (Cordano, Ellis, & Scherer, 2003; Thomas, 2005; Willard, 2004).

Is There a Future for Sustainability in Business Schools? The NEO-Millennium Paradigm

From these attitudes, the thought naturally occurs that the business school environment is antithetical to the tenets espoused by education *for* sustainability and the NEP. The possibility of nurturing any creative pedagogy in such an environment is sufficiently tentative. Springett and Kearins (2001) detect "a degree of resistance to interdisciplinary and non-traditional pedagogical approaches and evaluative methods required by sustainable development" within business schools (p. 213). Can business schools rise above the resistance toward a meaningful and critical sustainability discussion?

Much has changed since the 1970s when Milton Friedman is said to have believed "that a company spending more money on pollution control measures than required by law was practicing 'pure and unadulterated socialism' " (Dunphy, Griffith, & Benn, 2003, p. 92). In fact, even business advisers and academic researchers would have to

dismiss these 30+-year-old thoughts as out-of-sync with the current environment.

Globalization has made it impossible to ignore the clash between business and society,

and the consequences those clashes are having. The economic approach "has been made

obsolete by new business/geopolitical complexities and government policies that

encourage companies to take a role in social action" (Knowledge@Wharton, 2003, p.1).

According to Wharton legal studies professor, Thomas Dunfee, "The Milton Friedman

argument is a nice academic argument, but it's over" (Dunfee in Knowledge@Wharton,

2003, p.1). Corporations are beholden to societal stakeholders, not just shareholders

now, which include, "labor and human rights groups, environmental interests, socially

responsible investors, NGOs, governments, suppliers, communities and others"

(Rudolph, 2004, p. 1). A sociological perspective is creeping in on the economic one,

blending society and business in a way that is forcing corporations to pay attention to and

participate in its global surroundings.

Wheeler, Horvath, and Victor (2001) also provide hope on several fronts first

citing a 2000 Arthur D. Little Foundation study that 95 of the 481 environmental and

business people surveyed in North America and Europe, "recognized that sustainable

development was important to them" (p. 167). Moreover, a study of sustainable

development experts in OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and

Development) countries with representation from the corporate sector cited the

importance of education and training "more frequently than any other factor" as needed

to advance social responsibility within organizations (Wheeler, Horvath, & Victor, 2001,

p. 167). Also, "the fact that leading institutions like Harvard, Stanford, Wharton, and

Kellogg feature so prominently in terms of commitment to sustainability issues is a

reassuring sign" (Wheeler, Horvath, & Victor, 2001, p. 173).

Indeed, to counteract the critiques of the post-paradigm phase of the business

school, a new era and stronger interest in social responsibility seems to be slowly

emerging within business schools. This is evidenced by a faction of active faculty and

students hosted by the Academy of Management (AOM), who participate in researching,

teaching, conferencing and providing service in issues relating to business and society.

ONE (Organizations and the Natural Environment) and SIM (Social Issues in

Management) are two AOM divisions that have been formed to examine how the

interactions between business and society can be negotiated, mitigated and even

strengthened to produce greater benefits for both. ONE's specialty is primarily in the

exploration of technical and organizational innovations for environmental management

using scholarship to discuss, promote and understand the interdisciplinary "opportunities

and problems that human organizations and societies encounter in co-existing with the

natural environment, whether that environment is the workplace, the local community, or

the global ecosystem" (ONE Constitution, online version). SIM devotes more of its

attention to and emphasis on studying a broader palette of social responsibility issues that

span various public and private sectors, as well as looks at the philosophical implications

of ethical corporate conduct. Both bring together an international membership

highlighting a growing interest in closing the gap between the theoretical orthodoxy of

management education and the recognized influence business has on global and local

landscapes.

Furthermore, a study by Christensen, Peirce, Hartman, Hoffman & Carrier (2007) confirms that MBA programs are expanding their portfolio to cover topics on business and society in general, most of these categories emerging as extensions or incarnations of ethics (including sustainability), which has been a longstanding supplement to MBA coursework. In the wake of a growing business and society movement, ethics has eventually evolved into several different areas of interest, three of which Christensen, Peirce, Hartman, Hoffman & Carrier (2007) spotlight in their study, corporate social responsibility (CSR) with sustainability as a more recent entrant to the MBA scene. Christensen et al.'s task was to explore how these three areas were being addressed by the top 50 U.S. and international MBA programs as ranked by the *Financial Times*. A review of Christensen et al.'s major findings reveals the following about the top 50 MBA programs' participation in ethics, CSR and sustainability. Forty-four of the 50 schools surveyed indicated that:

1. Most of the schools interviewed (84.1%) required some form of ethics education either as a stand-alone course or ethics in some combination with CSR, sustainability or leadership.

2. Over half of the schools (65.90%) had a specialty center or institute related to ethics, CSR, sustainability or a combination of the three.

3. Some schools had progressed to the level of trying to mainstream or integrate these three topics as a standard or embedded part of the MBA curriculum. Only two out of the 44 have "committed themselves to weaving all three topics into all courses and … have created the institutional (and pedagogical)

environment" to "evaluate themselves and students on their progress" (p.

356). Other respondents were working on other areas of integration.

4. Students interested in ethics, CSR or sustainability issues were "key drivers of

curriculum changes and course development at their institutions, particularly

in the area of sustainability" (p. 359). The Net Impact Club was mentioned by

several respondents as an active sponsor of CSR, ethics or sustainability

activities, with 72% of the top 50 schools having Net Impact chapters.

5. Sustainability was growing as a business and society emphasis in several of

the top 50 business schools.

Business schools are trying to respond to the call for more socially responsible

education, research, theory, and business practice. They are working out how to move

the pace along and how business and society topics should be positioned within their

schools. One sticking point in pursuing this path, however, hinges on the main focus of

Christensen et al.'s (2007) study. Trying to accommodate the sheer number of terms

cropping up to describe the evolving scope of the business and society field is proving to

slow its entrance into the MBA program. In their study, Christensen et al. make a

deliberate attempt to distinguish between business ethics, CSR and sustainability so that

each can be measured on its own merits and core message. But in truth, the fragmented

nature of the field leaves most arguing over the correct interpretations and applications,

leaving scholars and practitioners to splinter their work in so many directions that

sometimes progress is obscured by lack of clarity in purpose.

Schwartz and Carroll (2008) demonstrate this challenge by pointing out at least

five major terms vying to define the nucleus of the business and society field including

CSR, business ethics (BE), sustainability, corporate citizenship (CC), and stakeholder management (SM). (This is in addition to the fact that within the smaller realm of sustainability itself, there are factions still grappling over the difference between sustainable development and sustainability.) All five terms have address the same basic premise, but emphasize slightly different tenets of the field, making it difficult to locate where and how business should participate in a socially responsible manner. In turn, this causes confusion around developing any best practice about how to operationalize these concepts. The language that can be used to shape the business and society field seem to be endless, as does the debate over which term or perspective should take precedence. The consequence is that as the field grows, it becomes unmanageable and its direction uncertain, eventually diluting the arguments for its inclusion.

Schwartz and Carroll (2008) suggest a start toward achieving some mutuality among terms to keep the field from stalling. They propose that each of these five major concepts have three themes that bind them all: a concentration on creating value, maintaining balance, and engendering accountability. Value is generated through goods and services that meet society's needs without introducing associated harm. Balance is the process of keeping an understanding of diverse stakeholder needs and moral standards in check in order to safeguard basic rights for a majority of entities. Accountability means business must be open and transparent about its transactions; whom they benefit and the possible disadvantage to others. Schwartz and Carroll's (2008) VBA Model, as they call it, helps condense the key elements of all five frameworks (BE, CC, CSR, SM and sustainability) enough to begin to synthesize a focus for the business and society field. They hope more effort will go into this process in order to be able to accomplish

certain achievements such as analyzing and evaluation corporate successes and failures; linking associated fields of corporate practice and study more tightly to social responsibility; and helping scholars position their work in one realm to researchers doing work in another area of the business and society field. Making these connections could go a long way toward creating an organized and comprehensive body of work that produces a new dynamic for the way management education is constructed and conveyed for consumption by students and managers, as well as designing for the field clearer educational goals.

Despite the kinks to be worked out, clearly, a connection between sustainability and business schools is desired for the future. The question seems to be how will that relationship mature going forward? Business school educators are trying to decide how to elevate and create more well-rounded dialogue around issues like sustainability, as we will see. Many are attempting to do this by investigating creative pedagogical approaches that communicate business management's relations to society.

Sustainability Education in Business Schools

Research has begun to turn up the potential alternative pedagogical methods hold for teaching sustainability in the business school classroom. In many sustainability management programs, action-learning (Rice & Sprague, 2004), experiential learning (Aarup, 2004; Eggert, Anderson, Meissen, & Sandborg, 2004; Marshall, 2004; Pesonen, 2003; Ramus, 2003; Walck, 2003), whole-systems learning (Bradbury, 2003; Brown & Macy, 2004), or a combination of three or more of these pedagogies (Roome, 2005; Wheeler, Zohar, and Hart, 2005) are the preferred choices of classroom practice. The action learning model, according to Alvesson and Willmott, (1996), requires learners to

rely upon their own insights developed during class sessions to gain access and insight into the hidden, coded, or "darker" aspects of everyday management practice. Problems and uncertainty in management are shared openly between learners as a source of positive enlightenment. The learner is the main actor in the course, extracting and constructing his or her own meaning from what is presented. Ready-made theories based in scientific "truths" are secondary or non-existent in the presentation of the course. Experiential learning says all knowledge is based on using the learner's prior knowledge as a source of expertise (Boud, 2005). In management terms, experiential learning draws on students own day-to-day circumstances for use as course content, helping them reflect on usually group management issues and processes relative to their own experiences (Dehler, Welsh, & Lewis, 1999; Reynolds, 1999). Whole systems learning is premised upon general systems theory or systems thinking, which sees all living systems working in harmony as a whole, as opposed to dismantled and viewed as separate parts working independently. In sustainability terms, biological systems depend on the proper functioning of ecological systems, which depend on a self-correcting organizational model that can respond to changes in its environment (Brown & Macy, 2004; Johnson & Broms, 2000; Senge & Carstedfdt, 2001). As one might expect, action learning and whole systems learning are framed primarily by organization theory and development (Wheatley, Tannenbaum, Griffin, & Quade, 2003; Hatch, 1997), while experiential learning is closely identified with action learning, but used across a wide variety of contexts, themes, and interests (Boud, 2005).

However, both Reynolds (1999) and Grey (2002) make a distinction between un-critical and critical use of these pedagogies. Much of the pedagogy used in these

programs is located in the DSP paradigm of sustainability education, advocating

education *about* or *in* sustainability. Experiential learning relies on examining

experiences for self analyses and learning. Grey (2002) makes the same point about

action learning, where students typically bring in a micro-level management problem to

discuss in teams. Stopping at self, though, is not conducive to the purposes of critical

pedagogy, where students are asked to go beyond their self-interest to collectively

address management issues to explain wider social phenomenon. The use of critical

reflection with these pedagogies must prompt questions about the influence of power in a

social context, not just reflection on individual problem-solving (Reynolds, 1999).

Critical scholars are more deliberate about exposing the frailty of the modernistic

business model. For instance, Welsh and Murray (2003) to some degree, demonstrate

business' lack of collaborative agility among its own functions. Aarup (2004), Marshall

(2004), Kearins and Springett (2003), and Ryland (1998) come closer to using

experience-based pedagogy to open students to the radical critique and social action

desired by radical sustainable educators. All are explicit about using some form of

critical content or process-based pedagogy to resolutely question the dominance of the

current economic system and management practices, and then conceptualize alternatives

for global solutions to sustainability.

Student reaction, where documented, in response to these learning experiences are

also interesting as some report tension or discomfort (Roome, 2005), variability of

feelings (Wheeler, Zohar, & Hart, 2005), or some feeling of discovery (Welsh & Murray,

2003), emancipation (Kearins & Springett, 2003; Ryland, 1998), or frustration at the lack

of change or learners' own naivete (Kearins & Springett, 2003). These reactions are in

line with the responses Sterling (2001) sees as expected in sustainable education as he notes:

> There is a parallel between the social response and the educational response to the challenge of sustainability, both of which may show progressive levels of learning as follows: (a) Non-response (ignorance/denial/no learning); (b) Accommodatory response (adaptive learning, paradigm unchanged); (c) Reformatory response (reflective adaptive learning, paradigm modified); or (d) Transformative response (critical and creative learning, changing paradigm). (p. 11)

These pedagogies reflect the ongoing discussion of the role sustainability should play in education. Sterling (2004) is of the mind that EE, ESD and EFS should be reincarnated again to be termed "sustainable education", which he says pushes for fundamental and epistemological change in how sustainability is discussed and practiced in context. He assures that earlier terms and meanings are not lost or discarded by this inclusive term; they are still valid markers of sustainability change and dialogue. Rather, they are subsumed by and incorporated into larger conceptions as shared knowledge increases. Instead of limiting oneself to either a strictly objectivist/positivist point-of-view as represented by EE, a constructivist/interpretivist point-of-view as connected to ESD, or more critical EFS view, Sterling sees more potential in a "participatory" epistemology. A participatory epistemology assumes an organicism that allows the system to change as circumstances change. Right now, sustainability is tightly wedged in a bunch of little closed off areas and it cannot breathe. Its application is limited by the parameters of any one of the domiciles in which it resides, bounded and straitjacketed by narrowly distributed knowledge and data flows. Sterling (2004) proposes that

"sustainable education" as a systemic participatory worldview unbound the concept to "provide a grounding from which the influence and limits of dominant paradigms may be realized and evaluated and…promises a coherent philosophy, not just for expressions of sustainability education as they have merged during the last two decades, but for education as a whole" (p. 56). In short, developing an open system by which educational fields receive information about and respond to fluctuating conditions as part of an ongoing network of knowledge-building in a historically-evolving context, might help better locate sustainability's position, as well as clarify its motives.

Summary: Business School Education and Sustainability

Thomas (1997) notes that business schools have spent their existence striving for legitimacy bouncing back and forth between "Pre-Paradigm" vocational and trade school practices of the late 1800s to the "Old Paradigm" mode of 1900-1960, which emphasized prescribed and codified industry-specific knowledge, to the "New Paradigm" of the 1960s to the 1980s, which introduced scientific research and theory-building into management. It was the New Paradigm that netted them recognition in the academic "industry." Thus, they have achieved with stunning success superstar status requiring supersized upkeep. Tenure, endowments, rankings and the focus on organizational efficiency and technical proficiency keep business schools mired in the new paradigm, but open to the criticisms of the critiques of the "Post-Paradigm" where business is accused of being overly sterilized, theoretical and removed from promoting leadership in touch with the real world (Mintzberg, 2004).

It is now with acute clarity that a few try to maneuver business schools into yet another organizational change paradigm, into the realm of social and environmental

enterprise where business mastery is used to rebuild natural and human resources that

will meet the planet's most basic needs and preserve a democratic distribution of capital.

The fact that discussions around a more thoughtful approach to business school

management are surfacing is a welcome occurrence. The key is to help future managers

see the "others" in the world around them, so they can find ways to incorporate a value

orientation into their business management practices. What is hoped here is that a

business management curriculum can provide the social agent, the student, with the will

to reframe what is now a dominant managerial reality. Business schools should be

aiming to create a fresh class of intellectuals, one that does not privilege themselves as

holders of exclusive, specialized, and objective knowledge that only benefits them and

members of their network, but social intellectuals who are comfortable experiencing the

critical turn in management to build "a new and integral conception of the world (Vaca in

Elliott, 2000, p. 12).

Integrating a Sustainability Curriculum through Planning Practice

Given the described state of corporate ethos and business school education today,

there is a sense of much needed transition in management theory and education as

espoused through business schools. Fundamental assumptions of business school

curricula are being re-examined as to what should constitute "topical content,

programmatic objectives and institutional aims" (Dehler, Welsh, & Lewis, 1999, p. 5).

However, as has been shown, the institutional and political environment of business

schools would seem to give little leeway to the complex, multiple and often, radical

dimensions of sustainability. It is a concept that must be sized up for its "fit" into the

traditional bounds of management education. Sustainability, and particularly any form of

emancipatory discourse, would likely be suspect given its implications for creating change in individual thinking, social relations, and institutional demeanor.

This can make planning for sustainability a tricky endeavor in business schools and higher education in general. Integrating sustainability in a higher education setting asks one to simultaneously breakdown the reserves and restraints of a system (whose role has historically been one of instrumental compliance in transferring knowledge) while allowing for the deconstruction of a controversial subject that could possibly (if thoroughly examined and owned by students) dismantle, or at least reconfigure, the very reserve of that system. So management education curriculum planners, like higher education administrators, have a choice to make; how far do they allow a wild card like sustainability to invade and affect the pristine façade it took so long for business schools to construct in the name of academic legitimacy?

Yet Wals and Jickling (2002) espouse that this is the emancipatory task higher education, and thus business schools, exist to provide:

> Universities, in particular, have a role in developing in their students so-called dynamic qualities that allow them to critique, construct and act with a high degree of autonomy and self-determination, if not in their personal lives, then at least in their professional lives. At the same time, universities should develop in their students the competencies which will enable them to cope with uncertainty, poorly defined situations and conflicting, or at least diverging norms, values, interests and reality constructions. (Wals & Jickling, 2002, p. 224)

Posch (in Wals & Jickling, 2002) continues:

> Professional, public and private life have become increasingly complex,
> with divergent and even contradictory demands in the individual [who
> lives] within an increasingly pluralistic value system. Above all, it is
> necessary to look beyond everyday normalities and to search for ethically
> acceptable options for responsible action. (p. 224)

In addition to fostering an emancipatory purpose, Wals and Jickling (2002) suggest that sustainability cannot be truly meaningful without recognizing that democratic participation is necessary in crafting new models of society and education. Because sustainability embraces so many dimensions of living, drawing insight from a few sects while ignoring others insults the messages of equity purported by the sustainability charter. Likewise, according to Wals and Jickling (2002), this pertains to designing educational programs:

> These notions about democracy and participation can also be applied to
> processes for making decisions about the content and direction of the
> learning taking place in our colleges and universities. To what extent are
> learners and facilitators of learning involved in such decisions? To what
> extent does higher education respond to the challenges identified by the
> community? To what extent is the learning process and content sensitive
> to the ideas, values, interests and concepts embodied by the learners
> themselves? These are some questions that need to be answered when
> trying to link a concern for the environment to a concern for democracy
> within an educational framework. (p. 225)

Finally, Wals and Jickling (2002) pass along six points of advice to educators about how to advance the integration of sustainability in higher education curriculum. First, sustainability requires stakeholders at all levels of higher education institutions re-examine their teaching and research missions in order to reconceptualize their fundamental objectives to accommodate new learning paradigms. A revised institutional mission should create parallel sustainability educational strategies at macro-, meso-, and micro-levels. Second, sustainability is a fluid subject that has no absolute right or wrong answers. Solutions to sustainability arise out of a carefully orchestrated dialogue between pluralistic points of view. Third, sustainability necessitates a shift in mental models among educators, learners, and administrators about their educational roles. Sustainability is a concept that makes learners and teachers out of everyone, asking all to reflect on their individual convictions in relation to the larger fate of humankind. Fourth, sustainability curriculum needs to be thought of as an integrated whole; not simply drawing from one framework, but encompassing an "interdisciplinary, systemic and holistic nature" (p. 227). Along with this approach, classroom learning will have to be re-thought, moving from more traditional, insular, and staid forms of interaction to a dynamic sharing of ideas and practice inside and outside of the classroom. In other words, sustainability requires change in the traditional higher education didactic orientation to promote less hierarchy and a learner-centered environment. Fifth, programmatic reform will be carried out according to the cultural protocol of each school. No one can "formulate" a universal utopia for curricular change. Schools will eventually follow a path that suits them best whether some progress incrementally or some revolutionize the system. Each school will discover sustainability in their own time and

their own way. And lastly, in order for sustainability to continue to be relevant and useful, it needs to be constantly challenged as to its moral and ethical aims, as well as its technical and economic ones. It is not to be treated as sacrosanct, free from critique or an unbiased given.

If we are to take Wals and Jickling's interpretation of what is needed for sustainability and sustainability education to heart, then we must seriously consider or reconsider the methods used by which educational designers plan programs. Sustainability presents a complex challenge to curricular design in that it is highly susceptible to interpretation across disciplines and outside universities. Program planning, therefore, is not a process educators can automate or take for granted. So that sustainability does not become inculcated as an iconic academic discipline standardized by theoretical precepts, it is incumbent upon educators to open their awareness of planning situations that call for a more flexible and political style of management.

Adult Education Planning Theory

Cervero and Wilson's (1994, 2006) planning theory emerged after studying the long-accepted process for adult education curriculum development outlined by Ralph Tyler's 1949 treatise on the basics of educational planning. Tyler asked four questions that formed the foundation of his work, now referred to in the field as the "Classical" view of planning:

(a) What education purposes should the school seek to attain? (b) What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?

(c) How can these educational experiences be effectively organized [to attain the

purposes]? (d) How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained? (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 1)

In effect, Tyler articulated the steps of program planning almost ubiquitous among educators and administrators: developing objectives, selecting content, organizing learning experiences, and final evaluation (Cervero & Wilson, 2006). This sequence of events is the yellow brick road for many, as was Dorothy's path to Oz. It has been touted as the formula for proper planning. Other adult educators such as Caffarella (1988) expanded the classical view, declaring that Tyler's model did very little to account for the specific context of a planning situation. However, neither Tyler, nor Caffarella (and according to Cervero and Wilson, other educators since) have fully met the needs of a practicing planner. Theoretically, both models accommodate a conceptual and technical explanation of planning, but they do not provide a description of the everyday influences, experiences, and messy misunderstandings that color the reality of such a neat and orderly process.

Tyler's (1949) formulation of program planning techniques takes on an almost robotic, mechanical approach to education. This standard of curriculum planning is a cyclical set of steps dedicated to inspiring behavioral changes among learners based upon clearly identifiable learning objectives. Tyler bases his planning equation on a+b=c, the concept that certain objectives should determine specific outcomes, or more scientifically stated, that planners can achieve certain effective and expected results through a predetermined set of curriculum hypotheses. Throughout Tyler's description of the classical model, he demands a highly structured, highly principled, and explicit set of decision rules that import a fair amount of control over both planners and learners.

Objective creation is determined by specific forces (learner interest, contemporary life, and subject specialists), and managed by specific screens (educational philosophy and psychology). A cross-check of all of these elements will lead to a written statement of objectives that will create "a concise set of specifications to guide the further development of the course" (Tyler, 1949, p. 51), as well as, "identify both the kind of behavior to be developed in the student, and the content or area of life in which this behavior is to operate" (Tyler, 1949, p. 47). Tyler's classical model has attached to it some very staunch expectations of the planner and learner and he continues his Pavlovian approach throughout the process. For each step, his focus is consistent: To create learning scenarios that encourage efficiency of instruction, opportunities for practicing desired outcomes and reactions, and unified views relative to content to influence changes in behavior and meet specified behavioral objectives.

On the face of it, Caffarella's (1988) *Checklist for planning successful programs* looks much like Tyler's classical model. Her description of process steps are not much different from the four principles he outlined in his original 1949 work. Caffarella's flowchart advises us to determine the needs for training, develop (or screen for) priorities, and devise objectives. Similarly, she advocates the development and organization of suitable learning experiences and the evaluation of all efforts. We really do not have to work too hard to deduce Caffarella's motives. She is quite upfront in mentioning that Tyler's model provides the systems theory framework for her archetype. The steps in her process derive from this base. However, she is just as eager to allay any assumptions that it is the only source of inspiration for her work. She cites the influences of adult learning theorists like Knowles, Houle, Cross, and Tough to name a few. Specifically, she is keen

to combine Tyler fundamentals with adult learning principles, "to consider how adults learn and change in the building of this model" (Caffarella, 1988, p. 29). In doing so, Caffarella starts to draw the biggest distinction between her model and Tyler's. Caffarella, working in the world of adults, chooses to make her model more practical than scientific and theoretical. Using Knowles' andragogy principles, she re-positions Tyler's model from a closed, internally-driven, and controlled system of behavioral feedback and observational study, to an open, internally and externally-driven, and more inviting system of active contribution from learners and planners. Recognizing that "outside factors can have impact on the program design process, many of which are beyond the control of the planner," (Caffarella, 1988, p. 27), she has tried to account for the dynamic environment and experiences of adults to tout her model as more user-friendly and pliable. Caffarella demonstrates this belief in several ways. In her assumptions, Caffarella acknowledges learners have a great stake in the outcomes of a program and believes in a cooperative stance between learner and planner. Where Tyler draws from secondhand studies of what might appeal to the learner to develop objectives, Caffarella suggests drawing on that information firsthand from the learners themselves throughout the whole curriculum process.

Planning Democratically: Cervero and Wilson's Planning Theory

Cervero and Wilson's (1994, 2006) planning theory takes a far different view of planning than the classical model upon which Tyler and Caffarella base their work. The foundation for Cervero and Wilson's claim is that planning takes place in the context of one's environment, and within the social and political atmosphere of that context. Planning is not just a technical exercise. Although planning does require that we execute

against a certain set of technical standards, such as needs assessment, objectives, instructional design, administration, and evaluation, planners must understand that these steps, as we think of them in linear execution, are at the mercy of their environment. They are educational guidelines that flux in the midst of unpredictability and are constantly revised and revisited throughout the planning process at the behest of people and ideologies. So, as with Copernicus' theory of the earth centuries ago, these technical components of planning are not so much the center of the planning universe, as much as they are the planets that guided by the sun's orbit. They are important players, but in the context of a much, much larger galaxy.

So what does this contextual galaxy look like, and how should planners proceed to plan within it? It might be easiest to remember that people, not techniques, are at the center of planning action (Cervero & Wilson, 2006). Planning is a social dynamic between people that takes place within a system of structural inequality dictated by power. This makes planning more complex than what classical models portray. Classical models assume that planner can adhere to a static process within a stable set of conditions; that by simply outlining a series of steps guiding planners through specific decision points, they will be able to achieve a satisfactory educational outcome. However, Cervero and Wilson contend that planning is not only achieving educational proficiency in the technical sense, but also understanding the political and ethical implications of planning decisions. These are implications derived from working with multiple stakeholders with varying agendas and claims to the planning process. Stakeholder goals may either coincide with a planner's intended agenda or be so different as to hijack it altogether. The point Cervero and Wilson wish to make is that as stewards

of adult education, planners must ask themselves how they can work within the political context of their organizational environment (the domain of structural power) to preserve both the ethical nature of their commitment to the learners they represent, as well as uphold the notion that education is a catalyst for social democracy that advances the well-being of people. As stakeholders lay claim to their share of educational benefits, Cervero and Wilson ask planners to use their own power to become acutely aware of the context in which they are participating to think about the following: Who are the main players in the process? What do these players have to gain or lose from this exercise? Who should be benefiting from this program? Whose needs may have been overlooked during this process? What should be some of the ideal outcomes of a proposed program, and how should such outcomes be achieved?

Planners, therefore, are not just moving from A to B to get to C, but are actually anticipating and assessing each planning situation for its peculiarities and the role of all stakeholders in order to know who will help or hinder the planning process and how to manage these influences for the most desirable program result. Planning is not a neutral activity, for planners are endowed with the ability to either reproduce existing social relations within and outside an organization, or alter them to recalibrate the distribution of knowledge and power among the haves and have nots.

Cervero and Wilson's theory is a theory of practical action and centers around the experiences of planners at their "planning tables." The planning table is a device Cervero and Wilson use to symbolize the actual and metaphorical spaces where people come together to make decisions and judgments about *what* matters in developing a specific program. The planning table is not a one-time occurrence, but typifies the intersection of

several historically-developing planning events that combine to sway the direction of a program. Each conversation is a step toward a new judgment or decision, and each planning table seeks to find some mutuality with the next. Planning tables also draw attention to the times *when* program judgments are made, providing information about past, present and future decisions that continually morph program content, process, administration, and evaluation. As discussed already, the planning table captures the importance of *where* program decisions are made, emphasizing the social and political context that defines the planning environment and the strategic judgments needed to navigate it. And finally, the planning table intertwines the technical, ethical, and political dimensions of planning so that one is not seen as separate from the other. Viewing each separately dilutes the effectiveness of the other, leaving programs and planners weakened in their ability to affect change. "[The] separation produces a missed opportunity to offer practical strategies that educators can use to plan democratically in the face of the power relations that shape what is possible, or even imaginable in social and organizational contexts" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 84). Cervero and Wilson use the planning table to sharpen the world and work of planners. To demonstrate the reality of the planning table even further, Cervero and Wilson examine the planning environment from four perspectives: power, interests, negotiation and responsibility. Moving planning beyond the simplicity of technical execution and into the realm of social and political awareness means appreciating these four criteria inherent to the planning climate.

Power. Power, as we have witnessed so far, is a sphere of the planning table that is likely to wield an inordinate amount of weight over the planning process. Just thinking of the power that surrounds people in their everyday lives lends credence to this. We are

constantly at the demands of our bosses, boards, and outside constituencies. Power

highlights everything we do and is a pervasive part of our existence.

Cervero and Wilson (1994, 2006) underscore, however, that power is not a

random exercise. It arises out of the ongoing interactions we have with each other within

our communal settings. Because of this, Cervero and Wilson have identified three ways

to examine power for its importance to planning. First, they state that power is "a social

and relational characteristic not simply something that people 'possess' and use on one

another" (2005, p. 85). In other words, planners and the people with whom they

associate have the "capacity to act" because of the position they hold in organizational

relationships, and even more broadly, because of the created division of labor in society

(Cervero & Wilson, 1994). People are not inherently blessed with a certain level of

power based on their personal characteristics, but are bestowed with power within the

socially structured hierarchy in which we live and work. From there, we exercise our

power relative to the position from which we operate. Second, although people are

bestowed power in a certain position, it is up to them to decide how they use that power

to get things accomplished. Structural power allotted to them in their social milieu does

not automatically determine the outcome of a planning decision. The exercise of power

is contingent upon people's interpretation of how their power should be used and under

what conditions. And third, Cervero and Wilson note that power relations themselves are

always being negotiated and re-negotiated at the planning table. The leverage parties

exert at the planning table is fluid, recreating or re-adjusting the social dynamics and

working relationships among planners, as well as affecting the organizational destiny of

those not invited to the planning table. Decisions made for those in absentia still call for

the excluded to react to program judgments, whether they agree with them or not. The primary argument is planning power emanates in all directions touching everyone with a program stake. The political context of organizations and society means that the balance of power is always shifting among its inhabitants. Within these three characteristics, the playing field of power is created, becoming the price of admission to enter the realm of planning as a successful or at least alert competitor.

Interests. Cervero and Wilson continue to build their planning theory with an explanation of interests: "If power relations provide the terrain on which planners must act in constructing educational programs, we next turn to an understanding of what direction they seek to travel on that terrain" (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, p. 255). Interests are the intentions, motivations, wants, and needs that individuals bring with them to the planning table, allowing them to contribute their vision of how a program should run. People use the playing field, or terrain of power to draw favor for their interests. These interests define the educational features of the program. They are the suggested elements that make the program possible. "Thus, educational programs are causally-related to specific interests of the people who plan them" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 89). However, the shape a program takes depends on whose interests are presented at the table. A program can have very different outcomes based on who gets heard and how they assert their desires. Therefore, outcomes are never a given, but an open-ended discussion.

Interests are not just educational either. Most people also come to the planning table with a set of social and political goals that they wish to attain. This is where it helps to distinguish between the types of interests brought to the table since most people are

usually so focused on haggling over educational interests. Many don't consciously realize social and political interests play an equally prominent part (if not more) in making planning decisions. Not only would it be helpful to be aware of the social and political intent of other participants in order to anticipate the planning atmosphere, but also for the planner to understand his or her own social and political interests so as to more evenly distribute planning power. Therefore, Cervero and Wilson (1994) outline three types of interests. *Expressed* interests probably line up best with educational interests. They are interests people readily articulate when they come to the planning table and are prepared to openly discuss. They are transparent to all. *Ideal* interests describe the beneficent beliefs of people that they know to be just and morally legitimate additions to social life (Isaac in Cervero & Wilson, 1994). These are the interests that uphold a commitment to promote the common good, although these interests are not usually an articulated facet of planning. Ideal interests rely on a planner's internal conscience. *Real* interests are the operational expressions of the planning functions. Real interests are the actual "norms, values and purposes" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 256) that drive planners to carry out their work. They are manifest through action, not just desire or intent, and exhibit planning in practice. It is the interest in getting the job done "within particular institutional settings based on the rules and expectations learned" (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, p. 256).

Individual interests will always lay claim to the planning process. A certain degree of power may enable some interests to reveal themselves in planning decisions more prominently than others, but even the lowest degrees of interest are present in planning. These levels of interest shape program planning in different ways depending

upon who is involved in the planning process. What planners must remember to ask is whose interests are represented by the program, and why are they important? What educational, social, or political impact will those interests have on the program and how should they be recognized or not recognized?

Negotiation. At some point, planners have to actually put their power and interests to work at the planning table, what Cervero and Wilson call "planning in action" (2006, p. 94). This level in the theory depicts where planners meet with others to talk and agree or disagree on program features, putting into place negotiation tactics that begin to make the program a visible reality. Cervero and Wilson's planning theory at this stage is a genuine attempt to account for planners' theorized conduct as a structured activity that reveals the trials, tribulations, and adaptations of planning as a political act. In practice, when planners are conferring with others at the planning table, they are negotiating in several ways and across various dimensions. First, planners negotiate *with* their own interests and power keeping in mind their individual goals. Simultaneously, they negotiate *between* the interests of others at the planning table to facilitate the multiplicity of views presented by each party. In a more complex sense, planners also negotiate *about* the interests and power relations themselves, managing the ever-changing capitulations, concessions, and compromises people make when trying to decide how much power and what interests to give up or retain. Simply by virtue of planning being a human endeavor, power and interests will be re-constituted through the negotiation of knowledge, consent, trust, and the raising of issues to be addressed (Forester in Cervero & Wilson, 1994). Therefore, "power relations and interests always both structure planner

action (negotiation) and are reconstructed by these same practices" (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, p. 257).

There are three specific negotiating practices learners may avail themselves of according to the level of conflict in each social transaction. First, when power differentiations are not viewed as a large barrier to planning and participants share common interests, negotiations are relatively smooth, supportive, and subdued. Cervero and Wilson term this scenario *consultative*, as the focus is more on deciding upon the program features rather than political power plays. *Bargaining* is the next echelon of negotiating tactics, describing a situation where power is more prevalent with the potential to make negotiations challenging. Agreement will be harder to come by and may result in someone's interests being dismissed or diminished. The ultimate outcome at this stage, however, still demands that people work together to find a palatable solution despite unevenness and misunderstanding at the planning table. Finally, those planning circumstances that are highly charged with conflict merit the classification of *dispute*. Dispute means open confrontation at the planning table where all sides lack any common ground from which to begin negotiations. Negotiations are rife with opposition with parties making little attempt to accommodate each other in any way. Disputes usually end up with a "winner" or "loser." Power shifts are dramatic, requiring combatants to use negotiation strategies to counteract negative rebuttals. Hopefully, steps can be taken to avoid the dispute scenario before this toxicity is warranted.

Planning is innately a process of negotiation. Negotiation is the activity that turns a program from concept into reality through the interaction of thoughts, ideas, and perspectives. It is subject to the interpretation of context people carry with them. A

diversity of views produce either consensus, contradiction, or worst case, conflict.

Therefore, a planner must be prepared to deal with any scenario, which can inevitably

turn the tide on planning efforts. Program planners must steer these elements toward

final educational, social, and political agreement in a way that benefits the program and

its stakeholders.

Ethical commitment. Pivotal to completing Cervero and Wilson's planning theory

is the recognition that people's ethical beliefs ensure fair representation during the

planning process. Ethical commitment is meant to help remind planners why educational

programs really matter, which is their potential to create positive opportunities that

expand horizons of knowledge and power. Like ideal interests, which prick the

conscience to question what issues should be considered at the planning table, ethical

commitment attempts to inject a sense of whose educational interests should garner

attention in planning. Have the planning parties considered all of the relevant

stakeholders (present or absent) and discussed how planning discussions will affect

them? Good planners should be aware of who is and who should be benefiting from an

educational experience, and who should be involved at the planning table to best

represent those interests. Planner responsibility or ethical commitment helps determine

whose voice will be heard. Ethical commitment will also moderate the power-plays of

planning to balance the educational and political outcomes of planning.

This is not to say, however, that people's ethical commitments are necessarily

high-minded, inclusive, or altruistic. Ethical commitments are still framed within

people's social and political interests and positions of power, which prioritize their

perspective of the most deserving recipients of educational programs, as well as who is

best to help plan programs based on perceived educational targets. Given the varying positions and perspectives from which people are coming, tension in negotiation can range from consultations to disputes if ethical commitments are not aligned. The central challenge for the planner, regardless, is to be prepared for this conflict of ethical interests by anticipating the consequences of negotiating certain ideals over others. Planners have their own responsibility to not succumb to whoever has the most power at the planning table, and to be cognizant that as an educator they have an implied contract to nurture a substantively democratic planning process. While encouraging planners to be aware of power and the interests that accompany that power, ethical commitment adds another layer of responsibility to the planning role, which is to safeguard the educational process from dogmatic practices that ignore the welfare of all affected by programs, especially those with less power. Therefore, planners have a responsibility to help democratize education.

In the larger sense, democracy has always been held up as a binding principle for living in the US as a "procedure for melding and balancing human interests" (Frankel in Cervero & Wilson, 1994, p. 259). And while democracy has always been a flawed concept in practice in the US, it continues to symbolize an ideal that keeps people in power accountable to the people they serve. "If adult education is to have a productive relation to the ongoing creation of the social, cultural, political and economic systems of American life, it must abide by the same ideal as the larger society" (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, p. 259).

Cervero and Wilson realize that engaging an ethical commitment to nurturing substantive democratic planning (particularly if challenged by the necessity of doing so

by unwilling or uncooperative parties) is no small proposition. It takes a great deal of courage on the part of the planner. Each planning situation will call for a different negotiation approach for doing so, and in some cases, a planner's vision may be overruled. One will have to pick their battles carefully to advance even small gains. Nevertheless, to avoid bringing it to the planning table altogether sets up a dangerous pattern of the ongoing marginalization of those with no say in their future. If we continue to honor lopsided ethical commitments and dialogue that tilt toward people with power and who want more, education only ends up exacerbating the demise of democracy, real or imagined. Democratic planning takes planning out of the hands of a vaulted few, and spreads responsibility for program's outcomes to the collective. Although it may not always be possible to guarantee that every potential stakeholder will be invited to participate in planning, having an ethical commitment toward democratic planning will help planners recognize the value of bringing representative stakeholders into the planning fold.

Cervero and Wilson's planning theory offers a hard look at how planners are key to developing meaningful programs. Planners are more than passive outlets, submissively passing on information. They are people who make decisions about how to impact the planning process given their position and responsibility. A final list may better synthesize the information presented. Planners might remember these summarized points as planning that matters in creating effective programs: (a) pay attention to the political and social outcomes of planning in addition to the educational ones; (b) understand the historical and social context of program dynamics; (c) understand who are the power players in planning and anticipate how power relations and interests will affect

the planning process and outcomes; (d) realize you have your own power as a program

planner to negotiate accordingly; (e) learn to use a negotiation strategy appropriate to the

situation; (f) learn to negotiate for educational, political, and social program outcomes;

(g) decide whose interests are at stake in the program and whose interests really matter;

(h) attempt to democratically invite stakeholders to help plan throughout the planning

process.

Planners should not abandon the technical expertise of planning budgets,

objectives, needs assessment, evaluations, designs, or marketing plans. Those features

are all too important to program planning. However planners need to regard the context

in which planning takes place and how the factors in that context will affect their efforts.

They should locate themselves and their technical planning process in the surroundings

that typify the joy, frustration, satisfaction, and disappointments experienced in their

work each day, and learn to manage the planning process under those conditions to

become more experienced, well-rounded, and astute planners.

Summary: Why Planning Theory Matters to Sustainability Education

Now that the fundamentals of Cervero and Wilson's planning theory have been

established, we go back to Wals and Jickling (2002) for some last crucial points as to

why Cervero and Wilson's planning theory might be a viable option for sustainability

curriculum development in higher education. Wals and Jickling warn that:

> The concept of sustainability is related to the social, economic, cultural,
>
> ethical and spiritual domain of our existence … Hence, a curricular review
>
> in terms of sustainability integration is per definition of an
>
> interdisciplinary, systemic, and holistic nature. It concerns cognition,

attitudes, emotions and skills. It does not lend itself to unilateral, linear

planning or a reductionist, scientific paradigm and thus involves the

systemic integration between theory and practice into systemic praxis. (p.

224)

As well, Wals and Jickling (2002) remind planners just how strong the overlap is

between an ideal sustainability curriculum and planning theory's agenda for ethical

commitment and democratic planning by listing several characteristics of sustainability as

an emancipatory concept. The many sides of sustainability include the following:

(a) sustainability as (socially constructed) reality (and as such a phenomenon to

be taken seriously);

(b) sustainability as ideology and therefore political;

(c) sustainability as negotiated, the result of (on-going) negotiations;

(d) sustainability as contextual, its meaning dependent on the situation in which it

is used;

(e) sustainability as a vision to work towards;

(f) sustainability as a dynamic and/or evolving concept;

(g) sustainability as controversial and the source of conflict (both internal and

with others);

(h) sustainability as normative, ethical and moral;

(i) sustainability as innovation or a catalyst for change;

(j) sustainability as heuristic, a tool to aid thinking;

(k) sustainability as a (temporary) stepping stone in the evolution of

environmental education and of environmental thought. (p. 227)

With these observations, Wals and Jickling have located the social and political intersection of sustainability curricular integration and Cervero and Wilson's planning theory. Because of sustainability's controversial and disputed nature, sustainability planners from the outset can likely expect some resistance from others who do not see the value, especially emancipatory value, of sustainability. Sustainability planners in the context of business schools may (or may not, depending upon the value system of the school) face an even stronger battle as sustainability challenges traditional curriculum development and practice, in addition to a whole ideology around economic superiority in a highly capitalistic society.

But as business schools think harder about delving into these unchartered waters, it's better to prepare a course beforehand. Planning theory provides a name and a face to underlying pretexts for planning participation. It also brings a stronger and more studied voice to the table, elevating the conversation about sustainability to a reasoned debate of the anticipated pros and cons of sustainability in the classroom, among students, for the department, for the university, in the community, and for society. Again, sustainability presents an ideal, not a right or wrong. But a more informed and intelligent debate helps each program decide where it needs to be and how it can continue to grow with the evolution of business school culture, management education and sustainability concepts and practices. Planners with a new planning model can deepen the discussion at the table. Most importantly, planners do not have to wander aimlessly in the abyss of naïveté, increasing their own contribution at the planning table.

Reflections: My Interpretation of Sustainability

Sustainability represents a complex amalgamation of philosophies, principles, disciplines, values, theories and practices, and imparts a pretty daunting task for laymen to comprehend its application to the world, as well as what can be done to implement its ideals. The work presented here within was intended to discuss as thoroughly as possible, the attendant definitions, interpretations and issues associated with sustainability and the ramifications for its inclusion in business and management education. The information is culled from the work of thought leaders from various sectors and factions of education in hopes that readers are able to take away from this a generous understanding of sustainability's potential, as well as expose gaps where it may need further justification to fulfill its whole promise. Having participated as an observer during this literature review, borrowing the work of others to compile sustainability's story, I now come to a point where I wish to add my own understanding of sustainability's capacity to contribute to building an inclusive and environmentally-aware society.

One part of sustainability's role is to function as a systemic and contextual evaluation tool that is studied and applied by every sector of society (political, educational, spiritual, technological, etc.) and at every level of society (global, regional and local). Each sector adequately and constantly gauges actions that will affect large human and biodiversity populations and where each sector pledges first to do no harm and second, where possible, as much as possible, upgrades and improves the living standards and conditions among the most severely afflicted. Each sector should engage the public and each other in finding the will and innovative ways to address the most

virulent and destructive forces of our time. In other words, sustainability should be used as checks and balance mechanism for our society. We have the capacity to work as a self-organizing entity. Sustainability as a contexualized evaluation tool should be understood, incorporated and monitored at an institutional level such that when something is amiss in one part of the system, the "malfunction" can be traced and corrected to restore balance. Sustainability signals that there is a consequence for every action. Where someone gains, someone or something else loses. In order to operate in the best interest of the ecosystem, sustainability asks us as decision-makers and as stakeholders to evaluate whether the gain benefits enough of the system affected (from families to cities) to be able to withstand any possible or subsequent loss.

The second, and perhaps the more important part of sustainability's function is its capacity to act as a vehicle for creating a shared value system for the greater good. Before it can really be effectively operationalized as a systemic and contextual evaluation tool, it realistically should act as the focal point for making decisions about whose interests are being represented (per Cervero and Wilson). Sustainability acts as a vehicle for the need to create a shared value system, a strategic plan for the planet and humanity, as it were, preferably among all levels of society, not just the moneymakers. One could, in a warped sense, say we already have a sustainable system; that it is already operationalized and acting just the way it is supposed to, based on the decisions of those we have entrusted with the power to make judgments for a majority of society and the environment. Because the shared values under which the world presently operates have only been articulated and agreed upon by a few at the top, the rest of humankind and other species flounder around a lack of greater vision that supports their interests. There

are very few speaking to protect and defend those interests and those that do are drowned out by larger interests with more power and money. So sustainability represents, perhaps above all else, the embodied need for the evolution of civilization. It is a concept that has provided the world with a new lens for revisiting and challenging the strength of the ideals behind our societies, democratic or otherwise. It is a cautionary tale that requires the world, nations, communities, families and us as individuals to look at each other and ask if we are really doing all we can to safeguard the basic rights and needs of all living things so that each of us has an opportunity to carve out a productive and satisfying existence. If not, sustainability helps the masses question, debate and identify shared values so we can have a chance at reversing damage and guiding our systems in a positive direction.

Chapter Summary

Sustainability has proved to be an issue so broad and politically complex that whether it will get a proper hearing in front of the general public is a question still unanswered. The public deserves to be privy to the full range of discourse on this compelling philosophy of human harmony with earth and the systems it supports. This includes a more balanced economic model that can increase equity in people's everyday living conditions.

Human activity and industry have a key role in recognizing and addressing their affect on environmental and social changes. Currently companies are tentative about how much to participate in a movement that does not match the conventional profit-for-shareholder paradigm, instead opting (for those interested) to adopt a moderate position of eco-efficiency that still places faith in the principles of the market to deliver

sustainable results. Critics are wary of eco-efficiency, challenging that it simply

incorporates sustainability into the dominant fiscal framework without rethinking

economics as an environmental subsystem, not the supersystem the world has been

culturally indoctrinated to believe it to be. As well, eco-efficiency has not figured out a

way to federate social justice as part of its equation. Business scholars are attempting to

educate companies on the steps necessary to fulfill gradual change with phased models

depicting stages of sustainable progress, understanding that all companies will move at

their own rate of change and function at their own level of comfort. Additionally, the

presentation of several types of business cases by corporate sustainability advocates is a

way to bring sustainability issues to the surface by acknowledging the benefits both

business and society gains, as well as the consequences if business continues its current

trajectory. Making the business case for sustainability provides companies with

permission and access to envision an alternative purpose for their business and gives

them options for reexamining the unique selling proposition they offer to new and

existing markets. Most of all, the business case addresses the important impact the

methods by which companies operate have on the world and makes them accountable for

their interactions with society and environment. The business case lends perspective on

how to make such a relationship more effective, conscious and positive.

An emancipatory interpretation of sustainability provides the prospect of

examining sustainability from a radical education perspective, exposing it as a more

democratic ideal and emphasizing the importance of responsibly managing resources for

the pursuit of intra- and intergenerational justice for people now and in the future.

Applying emancipatory intent and education to sustainability highlights the other side of

extreme thinking about this topic, making a case for pushing a revolutionary approach to reaching sustainability goals, especially as adult educators. However, like corporations, some sites of education, like management education in business schools, are prone to mirroring the corporate conservative reaction to change. In order to overcome ingrained managerial ideology without completely relinquishing emancipatory intent in the classroom, critical management educators have turned to using small wins or microemancipatory approaches to working with management students and administrators, knowing that for subjects like sustainability, the course of change will be slower in more established institutions. Making progress in small doses helps both teacher and learners to become more comfortable negotiating the boundaries of disputed areas of management practice and dogma, while also managing the delicacy of in-class relationships during the context of critical dialogue.

To comprehend why microemancipatory methods might be an effective way of advancing sustainability in business schools, the business school history, environment, and education was analyzed and critiqued. After a long history of obscurity, business schools are now positioned as the thought leaders, trendsetters, and moneymakers of most universities. Business schools employed strategies characteristic of other academic disciplines to attain their stature, namely a positivistic, quantitatively-driven research platform upon which new models of management were formed. Business education was eventually derived from these models, producing curriculum and rhetoric that was accused of being overly rational, instrumental, insular, and siloed, lacking any practical connection to the real work of management. Business education has given way to commercialization with schools being run in the interest of promoting image, reinforcing

accreditation standards, soliciting money, and pushing "celebrity" faculty. Students as

future managers seem more preoccupied with making large salaries and promotions

rather than advocating social and environmental responsibility. Critics worry that

business schools have become superficial social clubs where social and cultural capital

count more than engaging in critical thought. Nevertheless, business management

programs, like corporations, know they cannot afford to ignore sustainability completely,

hence, many are essaying to experiment with courses or even full programs based on

sustainability principles. Studies show business schools are attempting to move into a

new era by exploring topics in CSR, ethics and sustainability. ONE and SIM are

divisions of the Academy of Management that have been created to open more avenues

for researching, teaching and conferencing about issues in business and society, and

student groups like Net Impact are pushing for increased information and knowledge

about social and environmental issues in management education.   Although an economic

era still reigns, educators and managers alike are experiencing enough change in their

external environments to know that dismissing business and society issues entirely would

not be to their advantage, and thus require new content and pedagogies to accommodate

their integration in the MBA curriculum, as well as in business operation and

management practice.

What is missing in the sustainability and business education literature are

accounts of how such programs or courses are fully initiated, planned, and implemented

in controversial settings. How are programs introduced and directed, and how do

management educators collaborate in developing content, budgets, marketing, and other

aspects of programming? This study uses Cervero and Wilson's (1994, 2006) planning

theory as the theoretical framework to answer similar questions within the context described by the literature. Cervero and Wilson's planning theory concentrates on four main tenets that guide planners' journeys through program planning: power, interests, negotiation, and responsibility. Taken together, these traits of Cervero and Wilson's planning theory widen the possibility for political and social complications as planners endeavor to maneuver their way through the system for resources and support. The research proposes to gather from faculty and administrators who have been through the maze of sustainability planning in management education their personal planning stories detailing the strategies they used to fulfill either a singular, shared, or supplanted vision based on: (a) managing their own and others' expressed, ideal, and real interests; (b) employing the effective use of their own power, as well as anticipating the power of others; (c) adeptly negotiating power and interests at various planning tables; (d) and understanding the degrees of responsibility all stakeholders are willing to take toward realizing true sustainability in management education.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine the program planning processes of U.S. business professors and administrators initiating, creating, and teaching sustainability programs in the highly bureaucratic environment of U.S. business schools. The following questions form the basis of my research:

1. What are the social and institutional mechanisms that constrain or enable the planning of sustainability programs or courses by business school faculty and administrators?

2. How do sustainability program planners identify stakeholders that affect the direction of their program or courses?

3. How do business school faculty and administrative planners negotiate the power and interests they encounter in planning?

My expectation was that business school sustainability course planners were subject to an inordinate amount of scrutiny and questioning throughout all phases of course development and implementation. As sustainability planners try to convince business schools to adjust to the potentially radical shift sustainability presents from the current mental model (see Senge, 1990) of business management practice and education, their efforts risked being challenged, marginalized, downsized, resisted, and eliminated if courses did not succeed in making a quick and palpable impact on students, or if their efforts threatened the school's financial picture.

From this observation, the question arose how were sustainability planners able to introduce sustainability to management education planning tables? Under what conditions did sustainability planners progress in integrating sustainability principles into management education curricula and structures? There were few if any studies documenting the experiences of planners attempting to incorporate sustainability into management education, specifically an MBA curriculum. Most research was in the form of case studies describing class content, process and educational outcomes. In the course of my search, I did not find research that focused exclusively on planning experiences that included the ins and outs of developing a program from start to finish from the planner's point of view in sustainability or management education literature. This study is an attempt to fill this void in the sustainability management education research to shed light on the experiences planners cultivated within their environment. Allowing planners to talk about their planning encounters provides others in this position with access to a store of knowledge amplifying the political extent of sustainability planning in management education. This study aimed to elevate knowledge about the enigma of addressing the emerging topic of sustainability in an institution that may historically resist such radical concepts with planning practice as a social activity that either supported or delayed program progress.

Research Design

The study was based on a qualitative design using theory to support my findings to guide and explain applications to a real-world problem. My hope was that such research "will help people understand the nature of the problem" to "intervene in society and bring about change" (Patton, 2002, pp. 217-218). I chose a qualitative design over a

quantitative design because I would like to chronicle a particular phenomenon occurring among sustainability planners in business schools. A qualitative research design gave me permission to more openly mine the wide-ranging experiences of sustainability planners in return for the contextualized accounts of their social interactions (Patton, 2002; Shank, 2002). This study needed the openness qualitative research could offer because sustainability education and its design was such a new untested, experimental, and complex task to undertake in the business school environment. Sustainability education and design cannot be "tested" in such a way that assumes any steady base of knowledge to inform it. Where quantitative methods use predetermined categories in which response data can be catalogued to make generalizations based on the behavior of a population's subset, qualitative data yielded from this study generated its own themes from the direct and unique experiences of its participants "without theories about causal explanation and as free as possible from unexamined preconceptions and presuppositions" (Merriam & Simpson, 2000, pp. 6-7).

Given this important description of qualitative design, Merriam (1998) explains five main characteristics of qualitative work that researchers should acknowledge in practice. One, it is vital that the topic of interest be expressed from participants' point-of-view with little researcher interpretive interjection. The goal of qualitative research is to capture the stories of the phenomenon through the eyes of the researched as an authentic and realistic voice of experience. The perspective of the researcher is set aside as much as possible to understand the insider's appreciation of their own social and cultural conditions. Two, in qualitative research, the researcher is the main instrument for data collection and data analysis. He or she is responsible for eliciting generous response

from participants that frame the context and essence of the study. As opposed to a survey questionnaire, the qualitative researcher as the instrument has the flexibility to assess and adjust the research techniques based on evolving circumstances; process data as it comes in; or judge appropriate interaction with participants given verbal and nonverbal cues (Merriam, 1998). This allows qualitative researchers to hear the data firsthand, clarifying details and exploring new veins of information as research unfolds. Three, fieldwork is usually assumed to be a critical part of the qualitative research process. To gather data that reflects a particular phenomenon or culture, researchers must be open to venturing into participants' territory to understand the natural setting in which they live and work. Some sort of interaction with respondents in their physical environment cannot usually be avoided. Four, as will be expounded upon later in the chapter, inductive reasoning typically forms the basis of qualitative research. Inductive reasoning develops concepts around an area of research interest where there tends to be little theory to explain the phenomenon. Unlike deductive research strategies that conduct studies to support existing theory, inductive research arranges data in a hierarchy of themes, categories, and final hypotheses to build higher-level meanings of the data, while using the data to reinforce findings. And five, qualitative research is symbolized by rich descriptions of the respondents' activities, their surroundings, and peculiarities of the phenomenon. Participants' words, pictures, and other vivid imagery create a mosaic of data that illustrates participants' experiences and environment for researchers and their readers (Merriam, 1998).

In order to be privy to research subjects' personal experiences in program planning, I chose as a qualitative researcher to develop a more intimate connection with

them and their stories. It was up to me as a responsible researcher to accurately interpret their words. My interest in hearing and analyzing their experiences came from my own work in program planning at a large university business school for six years and being able to relate to the demands of their role. Therefore, I was not a detached persona from my subjects because I could identify with them; my perspective is not value-free. Based on three processes Moustakas (in Patton, 2002) has constructed to describe the stances researchers can take when gathering qualitative data, "Being-In the research," "Being-For the research" and "Being-With the research," I identify with "Being-For" identification. "Being-For" means as a researcher, I acted as an advocate, listening and empathizing with respondents' "frustrations and problems in dealing with others" (Moustakas in Patton, 2002, p. 8). I opened the door and provided space and an ear for something that they perhaps have not been able to express to anyone else who would understand the significance behind their work. "I am … offering a position … of my being on that person's side against all others who would minimize, deprecate, or deny this person's right to be and grow" (Moustakas in Patton, 2002, p. 8).

Sample Selection

For my research study, I used a purposeful sampling, specifically a criterion-based one, of U.S. MBA business school programs that taught sustainability management programs. I employed these criteria-based parameters to secure a credible sample of schools (Patton, 2002). To this end, my main sample came from the *Beyond Grey Pinstripes* website (http://www.beyondgreypinstripes.org). Beyond Grey Pinstripes (BGP) is a site sponsored by the World Resources Institute (WRI) and the Aspen Institute for Social Innovation through Business that tracks the performance of U.S. and

international business schools in promoting the concept of social and environmental

stewardship through business education. It is dedicated to conducting surveys every

other year of MBA programs that have undertaken curricula in corporate stewardship

topics, regularly evaluating and ranking each program by its attempt to integrate such

topics into their programs. BGP looks for curricula that specifically refer to an interest in

ethics, corporate social responsibility, sustainability, or business and society. The BGP

website "celebrates the top 30 schools among the 600 full-time MBA programs across six

continents invited to participate in the[ir] survey" (*Beyond Grey Pinstripes*,

http://www.beyondgreypinstripes.org/rankings/top30.cfm). BGP studies date back to

1999 up to 2009. The criteria that *Beyond Grey Pinstripes* has used to select schools that

fall into this category include: (a) Student Opportunity (25%) measures the number of

courses with social and environmental content; (b) Student Exposure (25%) indicates the

percentage of course time dedicated to considering social and environmental issues; (c)

Content (25%) reflects the degree to which courses illustrate the value of integrating

social and environmental considerations into business decisions; (d) Research (25%) is

indicative of the number of relevant articles published in leading peer-reviewed

management journals (*Beyond Grey Pinstripes,*

http://www.beyondgreypinstripes.org/rankings/top30.cfm)

At the time of this writing, I had access to the top 30 schools from 2003 and 2005, which

included a mix of U.S. and internationally-based programs. These schools are listed by

rank in Table 4. Beyond Grey Pinstripes was a good starting point for a strong sample

selection of participating business schools. It represented a solid mix of well-regarded

schools from around the country (speaking from a US perspective), focused primarily on

activity in MBA programs, and accumulated some interesting and useful data on the progress of social and environmental stewardship in these programs. In addition, the standards by which it measured school participation in social and environmental curriculum provided a working benchmark from which to characterize either superb to mediocre course offerings. The couple of places where the site was deficient for purposes of my study was its limited recognition of smaller schools (realizing the criteria by which schools are judged might not accommodate the organizational capacity of a smaller school), and the fact that BGP does not solely focus on sustainability, but uses the broader category of social and environmental stewardship (which includes ethics, social responsibility, and business and society in addition to sustainability) narrowing how many of these schools actually delve specifically into sustainability issues. BGP with foresight, however, has tried to address this latter issue by posting lists of the most popular syllabi according to topic, providing a meaningful synthesis of the rankings and a presentation of schools that are working on advanced sustainability curriculum. Posted course topics included the following: *Environmental Strategy and Sustainability* Download; *Financial Analysis and Integrating Sustainability* Download; *Sustainable Business Development* Download; *Sustainable Enterprise* Download; *Systems Thinking and Sustainability* Download; *Systems Thinking and Sustainable Businesses* Download; and *Technology Innovation and Sustainable Enterprise* Download.

Although Beyond Grey Pinstripes was the primary sample source for this study, I tried to support the BGP list of schools with two other lists that recognize university and business school involvement in sustainability. The Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education or AASHE is a membership organization of Canadian

Table 4

Beyond Grey Pinstripes Top 30 MBA Programs for Social and Environmental Stewardship.

Beyond Grey Pinstripes Top 30 MBA Programs for Social and Environmental Stewardship

	2003	2005
Schools on the Cutting Edge Schools are listed in alphabetical order	**1** George Washington USA **2** Michigan USA **3** North Carolina *(Kenan-Flagler)* **4** Stanford USA **5** Yale USA **6** York *(Schulich)* Canada	**1** Stanford USA **2** ESADE Spain **3** York *(Schulich)* Canada **4** ITESM *(EGADE)* Mexico **5** Notre Dame *(Mendoza)* USA **6** George Washington USA
Schools with Significant Activity Schools are listed in alphabetical order	**7** Calgary *(Haskayne)* Canada **8** Cornell *(Johnson)* USA **9** Dartmouth *(Tuck)* USA **10** Harvard USA **11** ITESM *(EGADE)* Mexico **12** New Mexico *(Anderson)* USA **13** Pennsylvania *(Wharton)* USA **14** UC Berkeley *(Haas)* USA **15** Virginia *(Darden)* USA	**7** Michigan *(Ross)* USA **8** North Carolina *(Kenan-Flagler)* USA **9** Cornell *(Johnson)* USA **10** Wake Forest *(Babcock)* USA **11** UC Berkeley *(Haas)* USA **12** Nottingham UK **13** Virginia *(Darden)* USA **14** Western Ontario *(Ivey)* Canada **15** Boston College USA
Schools with Moderate Activity Schools are listed in alphabetical order	**16** Asian Institute of Management *(SyCip)* The Philippines **17** Boston College USA **18** Boston University USA **19** Case Western *(Weatherhead)* USA **20** Colorado *(Leeds)* USA **21** Erasmus *(Rotterdam)* The Netherlands **22** ESADE Spain **23** Illinois Urbana-Champaign, USA **24** Illinois Institute of Technology *(Stuart)* USA **25** INCAE Costa Rica **26** INSEAD France **27** Jyväskylä Finland **28** Loyola Marymount USA **29** McGill Canada **30** Navarra *(IESE)* Spain **31** Northwestwern *(Kellogg)* USA **32** Notre Dame *(Mendoza)* USA **33** UT Austin *(McCombs)* USA **34** UCLA *(Anderson)* USA **35** Vanderbilt *(Owen)* USA **36** Wake Forest *(Babcock)* USA	**16** Erasmus *(Rotterdam)* Netherlands **17** Colorado *(Leeds)* USA **18** New Mexico *(Anderson)* USA **19** Asian Institute of Management Philippines **20** Portland State USA **21** Yale USA **22** McGill Canada **23** Case Western *(Weatherhead)* USA **24** Dartmouth *(Tuck)* USA INSEAD France ????? **25** Calgary Canada **26** Jyväskylä Finland **27** Navarra *(IESE)* Spain **28** Wisconsin-Madison USA **29** Minnesota *(Carlson)* USA **30** Georgetown *(McDonough)* USA

and U.S. universities offering a variety of services and resources to help schools advance

sustainability initiatives campus-wide. An additional source was a list of schools

providing dual degrees in Business and Engineering sustainability as documented by the

Johnson School of Business at Cornell University. These two sources were a bit more

limited in what they could offer because the focus of their objectives were either one,

broader in the case of AASHE since the schools were chosen based on a wide range of

projects (not all educational) undertaken to implement sustainability university-wide (not

just in business schools); or two, very specific as with the Cornell list, which is relegated

to degrees in business and engineering. Nevertheless, both lists were worthy of review as

I found either overlap of the same schools on each list, or schools outside of Beyond

Grey Pinstripes that merited further investigation. In other words, they were helpful in

verifying and supplementing the BGP survey list. Posted courses on the Cornell list were

similar to BGP and included the following: *Business Strategies for Sustainable*

Development; Business Strategies for the Base of the Pyramid; Sustainable Global

Enterprise; Systems Tools for Sustainable Enterprise Concepts, Methods and

Applications; Managing Technology and Innovation; Environmental Considerations in

Management Decision-Making; Environmental, Energy, Technology and Society; NGO

Strategy and Sustainability; and *A History of American Business*.

After reviewing these data sources, my process in coming up with a strong sample

of schools entailed four steps. I started by surveying which of the top 30 U.S. business

schools on the Beyond Grey Pinstripes list incorporated sustainability in their MBA

programs. I did this by visiting each school's website to review their environmental and

social stewardship courses to determine if sustainability was specifically included as a

primary component of the curriculum. Second, if sustainability was included or

mentioned in any way in the curriculum, I scoured the site (or the web in general) for any

syllabi on the courses offered to get a feel for content and tone of the classes. I then

recorded the school and its program format as part of a list of potential research sites. If

there were no syllabi, I still noted how the schools handled sustainability in comparison

to those that did provide syllabi. Third, I reviewed additional schools from a BGP list of

other schools surveyed that did not make their top 30 list just to make certain there were

no sustainability courses or programs excluded that I thought were interesting. Fourth, I

repeated the above review process with schools from the Cornell and AASHE lists. From

this overall review and selection process, I came up with a list of nine U.S. schools.

These schools stood out for one or more of the following five reasons: their ranking on

the BGP list; their repeated mention across at least two of the three list sources, if not all

three; their willingness to offer any form of sustainability coursework as part of the

degree requirements of an MBA program; in some cases, an impressive sustainability

syllabus; an identified champion vested in overseeing the sustainability program or

course in the business school of record; or an articulated commitment to building and

maintaining a sustainability presence in the business school.

Schools teaching sustainability usually fell into 1-2 of five program identified

program formats in which courses are offered. An assessment revealed that sustainability

is rarely offered as part of the core curriculum. Usually, it is an appendage to the

traditional core of business courses. With that distinction made, there are five ways in

which most business schools are introducing sustainability into their MBA programs.

The first is through a partnership with business school centers or institutes devoted to

developing awareness of sustainability within and outside of the university community in the form of research, education, and special projects. These centers sometimes offer credited programs to students who would like to take sustainability courses in addition to their regular course of study. The second way I discerned sustainability courses were delivered in MBA programs is through a dual degree model. One or two business schools have collaborated with other university departments (e.g. engineering or environmental sciences) to construct degrees that connect the implications of business operations on sustainable practices. Once a student decided to obtain a degree in this format, the curriculum is less voluntary with regard to sustainability courses, as students have to meet certain requirements in fulfillment of the degree. The third and fourth modes for sustainability courses allow students to either take a sustainability concentration or simple general electives, respectively. A concentration in sustainability is one out of several areas students can decide in which to specialize as part of their main program. A concentration is more focused on a cadre of courses that have been pre-selected on the students' behalf. If they choose a concentration in sustainability, they must take all of the pre-selected courses. General electives are the most freeform and least committal of all five formats. Students in effect simply take any random sampling of courses offered on sustainability among a portfolio of random courses offered in various other areas. They can pick all or none as they please. The fifth and final format for course integration is not optional, but it is rare. I found a few schools that used a so-called core principle model, building their whole MBA curriculum around the sustainability concept. In effect, sustainability is the core of the program while other

business principles are taught from the sustainable perspective. Thus, students must be willing to obtain an MBA based on a sustainable philosophy.

As I assessed the business schools according to the procedure above, I simultaneously looked for the second level of sampling for this study which was the search for academic planners within each school. Most key planners were named on the BGP website, as well as their school website. Another source for names was syllabi presented on Beyond Grey Pinstripes, or the Cornell Engineering and Management websites. AASHE provides access to syllabi only for institutions who pay to be AASHE members. Barring an inability to collect names from these websites, the third route was to call chosen schools with missing contact information in order to find out the name of the appropriate person to whom to talk regarding sustainability programming. This is where snowball sampling was also of value. Snowball sampling, according to Patton (2002), should be used to locate key planners by unearthing a succession of organizational names related to sustainability activities in each business school. Talking to various people, the sample of names gathered begins to snowball into large cluster. As I continued to search for possible participants, the names collected dwindled to a list of top 1-3 people who were repeatedly associated with sustainability development for each school surveyed. According to Patton, "Those people … recommended as valuable by a number of different informants take on special importance," (2002, p. 237), and were targeted as people to contact for participation in the study. Given these methods, I found one to two people per school as planning representatives, interviewing 12 people total for this study.

The unit of analysis for this study, then, ended up being the curriculum developers of sustainability MBA courses, programs, or initiatives within selected business schools that had MBA programs teaching and researching sustainability topics. Developers or planners seemed to have in common certain tendencies or characteristics. Most tended to be full or tenured professors who could devote more time, attention and resources to sustainability planning. Seven out of the 12 people interviewed were tenured, held chairs (often endowed), or were heads of departments. Five out of the 12 people interviewed were either adjunct, administration or untenured. Three of those five people, however, were secondary planners, backed by one of the seven full-time faculty members. So there was quite a bit of organizational cache behind many of these planners as they networked throughout the school and university.

Data Collection

This study was conducted using one-on-one interviews with all academic planners from each selected business school. The interviewees were a mix of faculty and staff administrators, who were often key players in designing and implementing educational programs. Participants were asked to respond to questions about their planning process and the dynamics of getting sustainable programs and courses approved, designed, and implemented. The interview protocol addressed topics such as the initial need or desire for developing sustainability programs; important decision makers and their influence in the process; identified pros and cons to developing a sustainability curriculum; the initial objectives for the curriculum; the final outcomes based on the process; and foreseeable alterations to the current inclusion or exclusion of sustainability in the MBA curriculum.

Interview Philosophy and Format

The qualitative interviewing process entails much more than simply asking questions. Although built on the premise of the art of conversation (Kvale, 1996; Shank, 2002), qualitative interviewing is embedded in a structured and multi-layered research approach. Qualitative interviews anticipate and incorporate thought about topic choice, to analysis, to writing final conclusions all during the initial design process (Kvale, 1996). Kvale cites seven steps the interviewer should plan on before interviewing starts: (a) thematizing – describing the purpose of an investigation, what is to be covered, and why it is important; (b) designing – how the intended knowledge will be obtained and the implications in obtaining it; (c) interviewing – actually collecting the data by speaking with selected participants; (d) transcribing – transferring the spoken data gathered from interviewees into written text; (e) analyzing – decoding and drawing interpretation from the raw data using specific analytical methods; (f) verifying – checking the analyzed data for accuracy; and (g) reporting – communication of the final findings, description of method, and ethical aspects dealt with during investigation. This section is most concerned with issues surrounding designing and interviewing.

Characteristics of Qualitative Interviewing

Qualitative interviews are a particularly popular and intense method of digging into context for meaning, relying on techniques that uncover participants' lived experiences, gathering outside perspectives and stories about their reality (Kvale, 1996; Patton, 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 1995; Sewell, n.d.; Shank, 2002). Qualitative interviewing is a quest for depth on a topic and openness to the voice of participants being dominant. As well, qualitative interviewing is a process not to be undertaken lightly, as it requires a

great deal of patience, time, and ethical insight to accurately analyze and honor

interviewee data (Sewell, n.d.; Shank, 2002).

Bryman (2004), Fontana and Frey (1994), Kvale (1996), Sewell (n.d.), and Shank

(2002), all say that there are three options for interview styles as a qualitative researcher:

structured, semi-structured, and unstructured, or what Patton (2002) more formally labels

as the informal conversational interview (unstructured), the interview guide (semi-

structured), or the standardized interview (structured). Most researchers, like Bryman,

Fontana and Frey, and Shank prefer or recommend semi-structured or unstructured

interviews for their flexibility, for both interviewer and interviewee. An unstructured or

informal interview is mainly a free-flowing, personalized conversation, built around

maybe one or two questions, and where the respondent is directing the interview based on

his or her considerable experiences, expertise, or knowledge (Bryman, 2004; Patton,

2002; Sewell, n.d.). Semi-structured interviews or an interview guide is more of a

scripted checklist in that it lists specific topics to cover with each interviewee, but does

not rigidly demand a sequenced or precise method of asking questions (Bryman, 2004;

Patton, 2002; Sewell, n.d.). Structured interviews, which are highly standardized, are less

desirable for qualitative interviewing. This option presents little to no flexibility in how

questions are worded and asked, and they run the risk that respondents can be led to

answer questions in a certain way because of their narrow wording (Bryman, 2004;

Patton, 2002; Shank, 2002).

However, beyond the type of interview, I found Bentz and Shapiro's (1998)

interpretation of interview research helpful in clarifying the intent of my study. They

espouse that what really makes the process of participant research meaningful is the

researcher's ability to encourage a willingness to be open during research. Touting this as "mindful inquiry," Bentz and Shapiro are wary of research that commits to what it already knows, where participants are simply tools of confirmation for the inquirer's preconceived notions. To achieve the unexpected in inquiry, researchers create opportunities to get underneath the responses. Bentz and Shapiro continue that mindfulness also extends beyond care for the participant, to care for the setting or "lifeworld" in which the respondent participates, and in which the inquiry takes place. The lifeworld is Habermas' theoretical description of a communicative arena not distorted by power relations, and where discourse is freely rendered. In this state, the researcher should take care to consider the effects of the inquiry on the lifeworld and lifeworld participants, seeking to improve the lifeworld's condition through positive enlightenment and research practice.

Therefore, according to researchers like Bentz and Shapiro (1998), the process of interviewing carries with it, not only the weight and responsibility to elicit clear and meaningful data, but to engage respondents who are vested in affecting the outcomes of their circumstances or world (Hollway & Jefferson, 2005; Rubin & Rubin, 2005). To this end, some researchers make a distinction between different types of interviewing approaches that are not just technically-driven, but context-focused, depending on the type of information being extracted. Hollway and Jefferson (2005) describe traditional approaches to interviewing as mostly concerned with good technique. Indeed, a lot of qualitative interviewing literature focuses on how to ask questions and "how to develop rapport, enable our interviewees to feel comfortable enough to talk to us about sensitive data, or alternatively, stop them from going off the point" (Cassell, 2005, p. 167). This,

of course, is all non-expendable information, particularly given the skill needed to conduct successful interviews. Other approaches, however, are created and refined to address particular uses of the data, whether it is to illuminate personal or political issues. So, in addition to the popularized description of interviews as structured, semi-structured, or unstructured, which highlight the breadth of the question structure, other interview formats dimensionalize this characteristic to also address interview content, such as getting at the meaning of a topic or portraying specific events or processes (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). This additional focus on content broadens the scope of interview alternatives into other research domains, such as, interpretivist-constructionist, critical, and postmodern, which depend primarily on semi-structured or unstructured formats. Delineated even further, critical research traditions encompass feminist, queer, and critical race methodologies (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Other interview-driven formats include case studies, action research and participatory action research, personal narratives/life histories, or ethnographies. (Ellis & Bochner, 2000; Hollway & Jefferson, 2005; Kemmis & McTaggert, 2000; Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Stake, 2000).

I really appreciated the thoughtfulness with which the interview design process forces the researcher to carefully think through his or her approach to setting up a study. It helped a great deal to integrate steps like Kvale's (1996) to foster cohesion from beginning to end, and to foresee adjustments to the plan as necessary. Interview research offers, from my assessment of it, breadth, depth, flexibility, and purposeful passion. Utilizing the voice of the participant provides depth, evoking stories from firsthand experience that either supports or challenges the ideal. Interviews offer flexibility, as well as various modes of expression, in the span of designs and formats open to

exploration by the researcher. And interviews are imbued with purposeful passion for care of the respondent and interest in personal or social betterment as an outcome of research.

Interview Data Collection Strategy

Once the sample of schools and sustainability planners were narrowed down as described in the sample selection section, interviews for this study were scheduled starting winter 2008. The strategy I implemented in pursuit of interview data was to contact the planners by sending them a formal letter asking them for 60 to 90-minute face-to-face or telephone interviews at a mutually agreed location and time of their choice. Participants were asked permission for the interview to be audiotaped. The letter of introduction can be found in Appendix A. My phone number and e-mail was included for a reply. However, in anticipating few responses to the letter, I was prepared to follow-up with an e-mail to targeted participants. If necessary, I sent two follow-up request e-mails to elicit replies. Please find e-mail notes 1 and 2 in Appendices B and C. If these failed to find their mark, I was prepared to be more direct and enact a telephone campaign as a last effort to reach respondents. I had planned to call a total of three times to complete my interview data collection strategy. If the targeted respondent failed to reply altogether, I either moved to the back-up choice for that person at that school if that has been presented as an option, or onto the next school. It turned out that most participants responded to a follow-up e-mail as to their interest in participating, and only a few failed to respond at all.

The study relied primarily on a semi-standardized interview approach where I had a checklist of the questions to cover throughout each interview (Patton, 2002). My

reasoning was that because the topic of sustainability planning has a fair amount of

dimension to it, I was still a novice at qualitative interviewing, and I had 60 to 90

minutes, I wanted to make sure I kept myself and the interviewee focused and on-track

(Shank, 2002). I realized the weakness inherent in such a strategy was the potential to

produce leading questions (Shank, 2002), or to stifle the discursive flow of the

interviewee, thus closing off other avenues of interest (Patton, 2002). To counteract this,

I made sure to not overload my protocol with too many questions (Shank, 2002), so that I

had some flexibility within each question to conversationally probe for further

information on emerging topics of interest (Patton, 2002). Likewise, I made sure my

questions were as open-ended as possible, so I did not back the interviewee into an

uncomfortable corner (Patton, 2002).

This means, however, that I had to carefully craft the interview protocol to

balance discursive flow with the responsibility to address the complete planning process

spectrum, including needs assessment; developing objectives; instructional design and

implementation; administrative organization and operation; and evaluation. The protocol

was organized to cover as many of these areas as possible with the plan to follow-up

main questions with probing questions (Patton, 2002). I did not expect to cover every

exact step of each planner's process, but I wanted to have considered each area of

planning to be able to piece together planning stories that were as comprehensive as

possible. Therefore, as I interviewed, I had to extract respondents' storytelling talents

without them feeling forced to relay every gritty detail of their experience. I did not want

the interviews to come out stilted, so I had to put some effort in refining my own

conversational skills to help make interaction natural. This will relied on me building a

fairly quickly rapport with people to avoid falling into siloed roles of simply interviewer and interviewee. Instead, since I and the respondent were both management education planners, we shared an interest in how the work of planning is done and how, with hindsight and foresight, it can be improved. The twist here is that I was interested in a part of the management education planning process with which I was not familiar. While I identified with the participant's social position as a management education planner, the implementation of sustainability was new to me. Therefore, although I was an actively engaged party in these conversations because of the knowledge I brought to the interview, most importantly, I used my curiosity to be an alert listener so that I heard and understood the unique point-of-view of my participants. The interview protocol had to reflect this delicate interplay of skills by covering every step of the planning process, but keeping question categories fairly open and broad. See Appendix D for the interview protocol.

All interviewees were given a consent form so they understood the ramifications of participating in interviews. I provided interviewees with a consent form (See Appendix E) ahead of scheduled interviews by e-mail or fax. I wanted participants to have a chance to read the consent form before interviewing, so they could decide whether they really wished to continue with the interview process. The consent form stateed that all interview data used are kept anonymous by employing pseudonyms to protect the identities of respondents and their school name and location. The interview data itself was confidential; no one but the researcher had access to the tapes containing the full data set. Once the research was reported, all tapes were destroyed. The consent form also states that if the participant was no longer comfortable before, during or after the

interview, they could withdraw their participation or interview data from the study at any time. There was no obligation to participate. At the time of the actual interview, I reiterated these conditions to respondents personally and obtained a signed copy of their agreement.

Although the interview research design was attractive to me, it surfaced an admonishment from Rubin and Rubin (2005) about the feasibility to actually carryout a study of this scope. Time, money, and rate of completion factored into undertaking this research. The major question that had to be addressed in gathering data was whether I should conduct face-to-face interviews or telephone interviews. Obviously, with the planners so geographically dispersed, I had to be very realistic about my physical ability to interview planners face-to-face. I employed the face-to-face option as much as possible, interviewing seven of the 12 respondents at their schools.

Finally, to cap the interview experience, I was prepared to make arrangements with respondents to contact them for follow-up informational interviews if necessary. I anticipated follow-up input may be needed through the duration of the project, including data collection, should I learn some things from other participants that would be valuable information from prior respondents; data analysis, should the data reveal too many gaps and inconsistencies; or validation, simply to recheck respondents' comfort with what was discussed as well as with my interpretation of their thoughts. I consider interaction with participants to be a continuous process of exchange, while respecting their time, interest, and ability to be an involved party in the research. Follow-up contact, however, has not been necessary.

Data Analysis

Once the physical act of data collection was completed, I directed my attention to data analysis. Data analysis, however, was not an afterthought to data collection. This study depended on the synthesis of the two in order to devise a coherent research plan. Patton (2002), and Ezzy (2002), both agree that examining research patterns as data collection unfolds helps to continually elucidate the data analysis process allowing for adjustments to collection procedures while in the field.

Having kept this precept in mind, I used inductive and deductive qualitative research strategies for analyzing my research in the form of the constant comparative method to analyze transcribed interview data and planning documents. Constant comparative was used to analyze interview transcripts and planning documents to develop a cogent understanding of sustainability planners' experiences. Inductive analysis is the standard starting point for culling down qualitative research (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; Boyatzis, 1998; Ezzy, 2002; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994; Patton, 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 2005) and a good launching pad for beginning researchers befuddled by the range of qualitative analytic options. Inductive analysis allows researchers to shape the raw data resulting from observations, interviews, and field notes by discovering patterns and themes materializing from systematic coding and categorizing of data. This is in contrast to deductive analysis where raw data are analyzed according to existing theoretical structures (Patton, 2002). It is not unusual for inductive and deductive methods to be used together during data analysis. Deduction serves to generate theoretical propositions once categories have been inductively derived (Patton, 2002). This study used a combination of inductive and deductive methods to

generate conclusions about interview data.   Following was my plan for applying both in the execution of my research.

Constant Comparative Analysis

From the basis of inductive analysis springs constant comparative analysis. Constant comparative analysis is a method by which units of meaning or chunks of data are coded for relevancy and import. They are then combined with similar data in the text until all data are grouped together under categories that meet the criteria of the category. This grouping and re-grouping of micro-level data continues until what were isolated chunks of data are tapered to become more abstract and conceptual hypotheses for explaining the data as a macro-level phenomenon. This is the track I pursued in analyzing transcribed interview data and planning documents. Both Maykut and Morehouse (1994) and Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) detail a similar process, although the techniques and terms they each use to execute and describe constant comparative are different. The projectory path both recommend, however, is virtually the same as seen in Table 5.

I used both Maykut and Morehouse's (1994) as well as Auerbach and Silverstein's (2003) constant comparative analysis techniques to maximize the evaluative benefit each contributes to the data and to double-check the strength of the data by comparing the results of each process. I tried to make sure the outcomes of this study were satisfactorily met with data that sufficiently and stringently answered the research questions, elaborated on the study's theoretical framework, and produced new knowledge for the implementation of sustainability in management education. Using both Maykut and Morehouse's (1994) and Auerbach and Sliverstein's (2003) approaches to constant

comparative was a constructive exercise, as the major difference between their interpretations is in the execution. Maykut and Morehouse suggest a cut and paste technique using significant wall space, a scroll of butcher block paper, index cards, and copies of coded transcripts. Auerbach and Silverstein also use a manual cut and paste method, but use computer word processing documents to match and re-match ideas and themes. I will describe each technique separately as it related to the direction I pursued with my research.

Maykut and Morehouse Constant Comparative Technique

Maykut and Morehouse suggested that I start the analysis process by preparing the data. This was done by first coding each page of every transcribed interview and planning documents with the initial of the participants' pseudonym, the page number, and "IT" to denote the data as an interview transcript. Therefore, a coded page, for example, was coded as S6-IT or "Samuel, page 6, interview transcript." Once coding of every document and transcript was complete, Maykut and Morehouse instructed me to make several copies of every transcript and all planning documents, so that the data can be more easily manipulated without being lost or accidentally discarded. I then proceeded to step one of Maykut and Morehouse's process, which was unitizing the data. I took the copied interviews and planning documents and began to comb the data to separate out all units of meaning or stand-along passages of text whose context is clear. This meant I had to go through every transcript and draw a line between passages to delineate separate units of meaning. I then in the margin coded each individual passage to indicate who is speaking (Danielle) on what page (12) and from where the data derives (IT).

Table 5

Comparison of Maykut & Morehouse's (1994) and Auerbach & Silvestein's (2003)
Constant Comparative Data Analysis Techniques

Constant Comparative Techniques

Maykut & Morehouse (1994)	Auerbach & Silverstein (2003)
1. **Raw Data**	1. **Raw Data**
2. **Unitize data** by separating and coding units of meaning.	2. Pick out the most **relevant data** from transcribed interviews.
3. Set-up **provisional coding categories** by brainstorming emerging themes from the data.	3. Find **repeating ideas** among the relevant data and group them with similar ideas. Name each repeating idea and re-examine data and revise ideas as necessary.
4. Create rules for inclusion called **propositional statements** that best describe each coding category. The data must now meet these criteria for inclusion.	4. Categorize repeating ideas into **themes** by matching similar repeating ideas with other repeating idea. Name each theme, re-examining raw data and repeating ideas. Revise themes as necessary.
5. Compare propositional statements and decide which ones can be connected based on possible relationships. Developing these **outcome propositions** are the most abstract and challenging level of constant comparative analysis.	5. Reconstruct major themes into **theoretical constructs** by grouping similar themes with other themes as created above. Consult appropriate literature to define theoretical constructs. Re-examine repeating ideas and themes and revise theoretical constructs as necessary.

(Theoretical) Narrative:

Bring data findings together in a narrative to finalize the research report. Describe and interpret findings by addressing the initial research premise through culmination of data analysis.

After delineating units of meaning, Maykut and Morehouse directed that I complete the unitizing process by cutting apart each passage and taping each individual piece of paper representing a unit on a 5X8 index card. Once that was done, I turned my attention back to all of the intact transcripts and planning documents carefully sifting through them to discover possible preliminary recurring ideas and concepts to identify as starter themes. I generated these ideas on a separate sheet of paper, as Maykut and Morehouse suggested. They also suggest constantly comparing these emerging ideas against the research focus of inquiry, or the primary research concerns I was trying to address overall with this study. Once I had my starter ideas, I began to look for overlapping expressions to form the very first pass at themes, what Maykut and Morehouse call "provisional coding categories." These provisional categories I listed on the paper as I created them from the ideas.

The first provisional coding category was written on an index card and taped to a large piece of butcher block paper spread across and taped to a wall. My next, and rather extensive task, was to find all of the units of meaning (now in the form of many 5X8 index cards) that fit that first provisional category. These were taped underneath that heading. After I exhausted that provisional category, I took the next provisional category created from my starter sheet, wrote it on another index card and taped it up on the wall, repeating the process with the remaining 5X8 units of meaning. This process continued until all of the units of meaning were assigned to a provisional coding category. There were at least six to eight units of meaning under each category. This required that I kept revisiting the raw data or units of meaning to generate additional provisional categories.

Maykut and Morehouse emphasize that this is the earliest stage of trying to make sense of the data called the "look/feel-alike" criteria offered by Lincoln and Guba in 1985.

> The process of inductively deriving important meaning from the data requires tolerance for the initial ambiguousness of the look/feel-alike criteria. Try to stay with the look/feel-alike criteria as the basis for deciding whether a data card: a) is a look/feel-alike of the cards that have already been placed in the provisional category; b) is a look/feel-alike of one of the provisional categories still on the discovery sheet; or c) represents a new category. (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994, p. 138)

Provisional or temporary categories gave way to propositional statements. I reviewed cards under each category for more specific messages conveying the essence of the emerging theme. My task was to come up with a rule for inclusion for the category articulating what main strands bind the category and how those rules will guide the inclusion of further data. Based on a review of the index cards, I tightened and reworded the provisional topic to better communicate my increased understanding of the data cards. Once the provisional categories were refined and the cards reorganized appropriately, I tagged each category and its corresponding cards with a code denoting the new propositional statement.

Maykut and Morehouse continue to force the researcher to probe deeper for explanations to the research inquiry. From the propositional statements or rules for inclusion that I formed, these were compared against each other to seek larger patterns or relationships underlying a broader interpretation of the data. Final revelations from the data called "outcome propositions" was my last step in creating a full analysis of the data,

completing the bridge from raw data to synthesized meaning. This was not an expedited

task, but one of the more challenging in the process, as outcome propositions test the

cohesiveness of dominating themes, the authenticity of participants' voices, and the

originality of the findings. This step yielded study outcomes enriched through thorough

analysis. Narrative discussion completed Maykut and Morehouse's description of

constant comparative techniques, but since Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) also required

a narrative discussion as the last step in their process, I will cover my process for

narrative at the conclusion of a review of their constant comparative technique.

Auerbach and Silverstein's Constant Comparative Technique

Auerbach and Silverstein's (2003) technique for constant comparative was a little

more high-tech than Maykut and Morehouse's paper and pencil approach. To check the

validity of the themes found with Maykut and Morehouse's data analysis technique, I had

someone else utilize Auerbach and Silverstein's method and checked it against the

analysis I performed using Maykut and Morehouse's technique. As with Maykut and

Morehouse, Auerbach and Silverstein encourage the researcher to work toward a higher

level of abstraction as the data is sorted in order to develop reasonable findings. Like

Maykut and Morehouse, they propose that researchers first re-examine their research

concerns and theoretical framework as a reminder of what the data is supposed to answer,

although they suggest this comes before beginning any analysis. Therefore, as a

reminder, my research concern was to understand how sustainability planners in

management education negotiate their environment to implement some degree of

sustainability, a concept fundamentally estranged from the current premise of

management practice. Theoretically, I was trying to make sense out of the perception

sustainability planners think they have as individual actors in terms of influencing and reshaping institutionalized philosophies. With this in mind, I proceeded to examine interview transcript text accordingly.

First, Auerbach and Silverstein made the point that not all text will be necessary; only that which "express[es] a distinct idea related to your research concerns" (2003, p. 46). Deciding what was relevant, according to Auerbach and Silverstein was a subjective exercise based on the interpretation of the text, my partner's understanding of my participants and how their stories enhanced his understanding of the text, and intuition. To select relevant text, my partner made copies of all transcripts and planning documents as before and then simply use the computer's highlight function to mark the appropriate passages that addressed my research concerns in every transcript. Auerbach and Silverstein allowed him two ways to do this – either by quickly scanning text to pick-up impressions, taking time to analyze what emerges at the end, or working more slowly to analyze the text to deliberately analyze each passage as he went along. My partner tended toward the former.

His second step was to categorize raw data deemed as relevant into what Auerbach and Silverstein call repeating ideas. "A repeating idea is an idea expressed in relevant text by two or more research participants" (2003, p. 54). Auerbach and Silverstein instructed my partner to open the file for the first interview transcript and copy the first selection of relevant text to a new word processing file to start a document on repeating ideas. The first selection from the first interview was the starter text for the first repeating idea. After placing the starter text, he sifted through the remaining relevant text from each interview to copy and paste other ideas that were similar to the

starter text. Once he exhausted the ideas for repeating idea number one, he repeated the

process by selecting the next piece of starter text for repeating idea number two, until all

of the relevant text was sorted into categories of repeating ideas within one master

document. Each repeating idea was commonly named (essentially a descriptive general

sentence) representing the relevant text that expresses the thought behind it. Any

categories that were too broad (too much data) or too narrow (not enough data), he had to

reorganize. Likewise, he had to consolidate repeating ideas if they were similar or

abandon them if they were not synching with the data.

Just like Maykut and Morehouse, Auerbach and Silverstein's next step helped my

partner continue to compress the data into recognizable findings. Following the same

procedure, he used his newly formed list of master repeating ideas to move to another

level of knowledge, theme-building. According to Auerbach and Silverstein, "A theme is

an implicit idea or topic that a group of repeating ideas have in common" (2003, p. 62).

From his master file of repeating ideas, he took the first one, copied it and pasted it into a

new word processing file as the starter idea for a themes master list. He then found other

repeating ideas that corresponded with that starter theme and grouped them appositely.

Once he exhausted the repeating ideas for that starter theme, he moved on to the next

starter theme to begin a new category. When he had all the repeating ideas assigned to

themed categories, he formed a new master list with a smaller number of themes. This

exercise exorcised any loose ends or confusion by prompting a reorganization of the

repeating ideas and renaming the themed categories as necessary.

Developing theoretical constructs is the fifth step of Auerbach and Silverstein's

constant comparative strategy. Auerbach and Silverstein describe a theoretical construct

as "an abstract concept that organizes a group of themes by fitting them into a theoretical framework" (2003, p. 67). The master list of themes guides this step in the process. Same as before, my partner copied and pasted the first starter theme in a new file and reviewed the rest of the themes in the list for a complimentary fit. He continued this until he had a grouping of themes compiled to build each theoretical construct. Since this is the final level of comparison, his theoretical constructs were relatively solid by now, although some reorganization was still required in order to adeptly name each construct.

After using each technique to synthesize the data, my partner and I compared notes and came up with an agreed and final set of theoretical constructs. Once this was done, we were at the point where the results of analysis had to be relayed to readers describing what I have learned from a participant worldview. Both Maykut and Morehouse (1994) and Auerbach and Silverstein (2003), as a final wrap-up to research analysis insist that I write a narrative (in Auerbach and Silverstein's case, a theoretical narrative) to re-assimilate the data by way of a summary that conveys research outcomes. Auerbach and Silverstein define a theoretical narrative as relaying what "research participants reported in terms of your theoretical constructs. It uses your theoretical constructs to organize people's subjective experience into a coherent story. It employs people's own language to make their story vivid and real" (2003, p. 73). My narrative begins by prioritizing the most prominent and relevant findings that communicate a majority of participant experiences. This directs readers' attention to what seemed to matter most to respondents. To support these *outcome propositions* or *theoretical constructs*, depending on whose terminology one chooses to use, direct quotations from the data were invaluable to me as I folded in the voice of participants. I selected excerpts

from data that animate specific outcome statements to show that the data does indeed

sustain the abstracted theory. Maykut and Morehouse (1994) and Auerbach and

Silverstein (2003) both agree a narrative of findings ties all stages of constant

comparative analysis together, culminating in a holistic overview of the research.

Validity and Reliability

To the research community, a study is only as useful as the methods by which its

veracity has been tested. Research is not just some random undertaking experienced

through the eyes or for the benefit of one person, but is a systematic exercise conducted

under the assumption of research integrity and authenticity. People who rely on research

do so with the expectation that it is a credible source of information whose claims have

been deemed as true and are able to hold up to further scrutiny. Natural and social

scientists alike look for research rigor to be supported by the concept of internal validity,

reliability, and external validity.

The terms validity and reliability have been relied upon within the quantitative

research tradition to describe the requirement that a study project objective results based

on legitimate, ethical, and repeatable data collection and analysis procedures. Internal

validity compares how close ultimate research findings are to actual reality – do study

outcomes reflect the situation studied. Reliability focuses on how well research findings

can be replicated. And external validity, or what is also known as generalizability, asks

whether the results of a research study can be applied or generalized to other

circumstances beyond the study conditions (Merriam, 2002). These terms evolved from a

quantitative research history that rests primarily on determining cause and effect in

experimental and quasi-experimental designs. Internal and external validity definitions

were developed to rule out any uncontrolled variables that could disrupt a researcher's final claims (Eisenhart & Howe, 1992). Likewise, the design must be able to meet the needs of populations outside of the study. Researchers depend on reliability to ensure the soundness of the research instrument. Validity and reliability then represents control and stability over the research environment, an early goal of quantitative-based research. For all practical purposes, this is the "holy trinity" of modern science under the predominant positivist framework of investigative research (Kvale, 1996).

Qualitative research has quibbled over the appropriate use of these terms in non-positivist applications of social science. "In particular, writers from postmodern, poststructural and critical perspectives are challenging interpretive/constructivist notions of validity and reliability" (Merriam, 2002, p. 24). Early on, Lincoln and Guba in 1985 disputed the positivist standards of validity imposed on naturalistic (social science) inquiry, calling for "trustworthiness" in qualitative research where the "inquirer persuades his or her audiences … that the findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to, worth taking account of" (Lincoln & Guba in Eisenhart & Howe, 1992, p. 650). The standard of credibility for naturalistic inquiry, according to Lincoln and Guba, is for researchers to clearly communicate the context of their study so that it rings true for those who are the focus on inquiry (Eisenhart & Howe, 1992). Replication of research in the form of reliability was also reframed in the qualitative world. According to Merriam (2002), Lincoln and Guba began this discussion as well in 1985, conceptualizing reliability as dependability or consistency of data. Qualitative reliability depends on outside agreement that research results are sound given the way the data was collected and analyzed. Finally, external validity in qualitative research loses the ability to make

blanket claims across general populations. Because qualitative research studies particular instances, smaller sample sizes do not allow for overall extrapolations. Qualitative reliability is more situation-specific, addressing local rather than global concerns (Merriam, 2002). Qualitative research recognizes that absolute control over research conditions will not always apply to naturalistic (social science) inquiry because of both interviewers and interviewees' "unique construction of reality" (Merriam, 2002, p. 25). Validity and reliability tactics are then "based on the different view and different questions congruent with the philosophical assumptions underlying this perspective" (Merriam, 2002, p. 24).

Internal Validity

Kvale (1996), Merriam (2002) and Patton (2002) substantiated some of the ways I internally validated my research study qualitatively. Kvale (1996) outlines the following tactics:

> ...checking for representativeness and for researcher effects; triangulating; weighing the evidence; checking the meaning of outliers; using extreme cases; following up on surprises; looking for negative evidence; making if-then tests; ruling out spurious relations; replicating a finding; checking out rival explanations; and getting feedback from informants. (Miles & Huberman in Kvale, 1996)

Patton (2002) attaches different validity tactics to different philosophical research paradigms, specifically traditional scientific research, social constructionist and constructivist research, artistic and evocative research, critical change research, and evaluation research. Based on my theoretical framework of planning theory, I associated

most closely with social constructionism validity criteria. Under this category, Patton includes the following validity tactics: acknowledging researcher subjectivity; trustworthiness; authenticity; triangulation; researcher reflexivity; praxis; particularity (doing justice to the integrity of unique cases); enhanced and deepened understanding; and contributions to dialogue. Merriam (2002) narrows the field down even further, naming and describing five potential tactics for checking internal validity: triangulation; member checks; peer review; researcher reflexivity; and data immersion. Of the five Merriam mentions, I pursued three of the tactics – triangulation, data immersion, and peer review.

Triangulation, peer review, and data immersion

Triangulation brings together multiple strategies for verifying emerging data outcomes. The most popular either compare data outcomes through using multiple investigators (partnering with two or more researchers); multiple theories (working with at least two theoretical frames); multiple sources of data (eliciting feedback from more than one interviewee); or multiple data collection methods (using two more different types of information-gathering). The scope of this study allowed the synchronization of accounts of planning events by gathering multiple data sources within the interviewing process. In some cases it was worth the effort to obtain two interviews from at least three institutions where there were two planners responsible for developing a sustainability program. This helped to capture stories as close to reality as possible.

Merriam (2002) says peer review can be helpful either from the standpoint of someone familiar with the research or someone completely new to it. I engaged a relative who has some familiarity with the topic in reading some of the data to gauge the

plausibility of my initial findings and interpretations. This method helped me benefit

from a second pair of eyes and a fresh mind to help select salient connections in the data I

may have missed, or deselect unimportant items whose relevance was not as clear. I

enlisted the help of someone who had the capacity to offer both time and effort toward

doing this, as well as a healthy dose of interest in the topic. Thus, I felt safe in making

the request.

I had little problem in meeting Merriam's (2002) suggestion of data immersion

for meeting internal validity, which was to be sufficiently submerged in data collection.

According to her, "The best rule of thumb is that the data and emerging findings must

feel saturated; that is, you begin to see or hear the same things over and over again, and

no new information surfaces as you collect more data" (p. 26). These three internal

validity tactics ended up crisscrossing one another, forcing a clear read on the direction of

the data.

Reliability

The difference between qualitative reliability and internal validity is a subtle

peculiarity. Qualitative internal validity tests the degree of truth and accuracy in

interpreting the data through the examination of emerging ideas excavated by the

researcher against participants' views of their own experiences. Are the words and

thoughts of the research realistically representing the words and thoughts of the raw data

provided by research subjects? Qualitative reliability, on the other hand, tests the degree

of truth and accuracy in *handling* the data through examination of the researcher's

process in distilling raw data. Has the researcher been challenged as to how he or she

monitored data collection and data analysis procedures so that readers can be relatively

assured the data was managed with integrity? Much like internal validity, Merriam

(2002) proposes that triangulation, peer review, and researcher reflexivity are methods

common for checking qualitative reliability. This study focused, however, on one form

of data evaluation, using multiple interpreters during data analysis.

Multiple Interpreters

Kvale (1996) suggests that researchers take advantage of working in pairs or

groups to reinforce the accuracy of information deriving from the data analysis process.

Analysis performed in concert with others having a more objective (or at least different)

outlook on the data could increase the chance of attaining a balanced reading of the data

than relying solely on a singular source. Kvale (1996) says it best:

> The analysis of interviews is often undertaken by the researcher alone, and
>
> the reader is left with little material for evaluating the influence of the
>
> researcher's perspective on the outcome of the analysis. By using several
>
> interpreters for the same interviews, a certain control of haphazard or
>
> biased subjectivity in analysis is possible. Several coders are frequently
>
> used for categorization and could be used more often for interpretations of
>
> the deeper meaning of the interviews. (p. 208)

Although I did not have access to several coders, the same relative referred to as a

resource for checking internal validity was also willing and able to help me code

interview data as described using Auerbach and Silverstein's method for data analysis.

Working independently, we determined how much variance or synchronicity there was

between our interpretations of the work. Again, I understood the time and sacrifice a

coding partner would have to devote to this project, but this person continued to have the availability and interest to participate in this phase of the study.

External Validity (Generalizability)

External validity in qualitative research provokes discussion on just who is responsible for extracting applicable meaning from the results of a research study (Kvale, 1996). In statistical science, researchers bear the brunt of proving a study's relevance for larger populations. In the qualitative tradition, which "draws from different assumptions about reality" (Merriam, 2002, p. 28), researchers are more likely to argue that the reader can better infer important implications of research for their work or life events. Qualitative research tends to concede that what are viable outcomes for a phenomenon within one specific context, may have to be re-evaluated in light of localized conditions in another context.

What I felt I accomplished with this study was to provide enough interpretive description of sustainability planners' overall experiences, what Patton (2002) and Merriam (2002) call thick, rich description, so that other sustainability or management education planners can transfer pertinent information to their own situation. My desire was to shed light on a practice in management education that I believe has gone unnoticed and unattended. I did this in the hopes that other management education planners struggling to address sustainability in a management education environment will be able to adjust their planning strategies based on any insight they are able to take away from other planners who have already started to blaze the trail.

These were my routes for establishing internal validity, reliability and external validity throughout this study. These steps were planned at the very beginning of the

research process so that I was able to monitor and affirm positive or negative results. By being aware of these factors upfront, I increased my awareness as a researcher about the responsibility I have to both the researched and the readers.

Chapter Summary: Research Reflections

I chose this research direction given my professional and personal interest on this topic. My personal interest in this topic was as a citizen of the world, desirous to participate in the education of some of the larger social and global issues closing in on us. My interest in this topic also came out of my own ignorance, because until I started conducting extensive research on sustainability and sustainability practices, I had little awareness of the degree to which this debate was brewing. When the research opened up the scope of these issues, at that point I thought to myself, surely I can't be alone. I am probably one of a million Americans who have, yes, heard of topics like global warming, but until I had enough interest to learn more, I had no real sense of their potential impact or contribution to my life or to the planet. Unfortunately, I believe this is the mindset of many Americans, who, because we are able to enjoy freedoms most others in the world cannot, tend to look inwardly without examining what is happening around us. As a middle-class African-American female, I feel another layer of responsibility, as I know that people of color suffer more disadvantages from social and environmental neglect. Thus, I came away from the topic wanting to share what I learned with everyone, shouting, "Wake up. By 2050 we could be in a global meltdown!" Poverty, overpopulation, and downsizing are growing occurrences, and I am realizing that these are issues worth paying attention to.

When I combine this epiphany with the second reason for following this line of research, my potential biases are magnified. Professionally, my interest also stems from my past experience designing and implementing management education programs for corporate managers and executives. Management education is an atmosphere in which I am relatively comfortable, and with which I am familiar. However, I had never challenged myself to visualize this environment from the perspective of power relations. I accepted my role as a "neutral" account executive operating under client demand in order to increase revenue for the school – that was the extent of my role to me. My educational commitment was to the institution and, therefore, strengthening its existing rules and resources. As I understood planning theory, I began to relive my own planning experiences, realizing that I underestimated my ability to intervene on behalf of students, as well as employees, supervisors, and subordinates alike. I began to rethink some of the educational philosophies we continuously recycled, and re-evaluate even some of the innovative ideas we did manage to push, but languished in our stilted surroundings. I accepted management for what it is without questioning what it could be. It is with this critical eye that I undertook this research and was intent on providing new insight into the ways management educators could expand the role of management education in society.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to examine the program planning processes of U.S. business professors and administrators initiating, creating, and teaching sustainability programs in the highly bureaucratic environment of U.S. business schools. Specifically, the research presented three major questions to be answered:

1. What are the social and institutional mechanisms that constrain or enable the planning of sustainability programs or courses by business school faculty and administrators?

2. How do sustainability program planners identify stakeholders that affect the direction of their program or courses?

3. How do business school faculty and administrative planners negotiate the power and interests they encounter in planning?

Review of the Research

A brief review of the research will serve to introduce how the findings for this study were derived, as well as reveal a description of the study's respondents. The methods of data collection, sample selection and data analysis used for the study produced the subsequent patterns of the data explained therein. This chapter details those findings in full as developed from the methodologies outlined below.

Data Collection

This study was conducted using one-on-one interviews with academic planners from selected U.S. business schools including, eight faculty professors; two lecturers;

one adjunct instructor; and one administrator. These participants were key players in

designing and implementing educational programs. Participants were asked to respond to

questions about their planning process and the dynamics of getting sustainable programs

and courses designed, approved, and implemented. The interview protocol addressed

topics such as the initial need or desire for developing sustainability programs; important

decision makers and their influence in the process; the pros and cons of developing a

sustainability curriculum; the initial objectives of the curriculum; the final outcomes

based on the process; and foreseeable alterations to the current inclusion or exclusion of

sustainability in the MBA curriculum.

Interviews for this study took place February 2008 to August 2008. Planners

were contacted by sending them a formal letter asking them for 60 to 90-minute face-to-

face or telephone interviews at a mutually agreed location and time of their choice, and

were asked permission for the interview to be audiotaped. Most interviews lasted from

45 to 90 minutes, with the average interview about 70 minutes long. The letter of

introduction can be found in Appendix A. As needed, I sent follow-up e-mails to

participants requesting an interview. Most were very responsive and happy to be

interviewed. The interviews were geographically dispersed all over the US. Seven of the

interviews were conducted face-to-face and the other five by telephone. All interviewees

were given a consent form ahead of scheduled interviews by e-mail or fax so they could

review the ramifications of participating in interviews (See Appendix E). I have not

needed to make arrangements with respondents to contact them for follow-up

informational interviews.

Sample Selection

For my research study, I used purposeful sampling, specifically a criterion-based one, of U.S. MBA business school programs that teach sustainability management programs. My main sample came from the *Beyond Grey Pinstripes* website (http://www.beyondgreypinstripes.org). Although Beyond Grey Pinstripes was the primary sample source for this study, I supported the BGP list of schools with two other lists that recognize university and business school involvement in sustainability. The Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education or AASHE is a membership organization of Canadian and U.S. universities offering a variety of services and resources to help schools advance sustainability initiatives campus-wide. An additional source was a list of schools providing dual degrees in Business and Engineering sustainability as documented by the Johnson School of Business at Cornell University. My process to develop a strong sample of schools entailed four steps. I started by surveying which of the top 30 U.S. business schools on the Beyond Grey Pinstripes list incorporated sustainability in their MBA programs. I did this by visiting each school's website to review their environmental and social stewardship courses to determine if sustainability was specifically included as a primary component of the curriculum. Second, if sustainability was included or mentioned in any way in the curriculum, I scoured the site (or the web in general) for any syllabi on the courses offered to get a feel for content and tone of the classes. I then recorded the school and its program format as part of a list of potential research sites. If there were no syllabi, I still noted how the schools handled sustainability in comparison to those that did provide syllabi. Third, I reviewed additional schools from a BGP list of other schools surveyed

that did not make their top 30 list just to make certain there were no sustainability courses

or programs excluded that I thought were interesting. Fourth, I repeated the above review

process with schools from the Cornell and AASHE lists. From this overall review and

selection process, I came up with a list of nine U.S. schools. These schools stood out for

one or more of the following five reasons: their ranking on the BGP list; their repeated

mention across at least two of the three list sources, if not all three; their willingness to

offer any form of sustainability coursework as part of the degree requirements of an

MBA program; in some cases, an impressive sustainability syllabus; an identified

champion vested in overseeing the sustainability program or course in the business school

of record; or an articulated commitment to building and maintaining a sustainability

presence in the business school.

As I assessed the business schools according to the procedure above, I

simultaneously looked for the second level of sampling for this study which was the

search for academic planners within each school. Most key planners were named on the

BGP website, as well as their school website. Another source for names was syllabi

presented on Beyond Grey Pinstripes, or the Cornell Engineering and Management

websites. In some cases, the use of snowball sampling was also of value. I ended up

interviewing 1-2 people per school coming to a total of 12 participants. Provided in

Table 6 is the final sample of business school selections and planners using pseudonyms

for each.

Participant Profiles

In order to adequately describe the relationship planners have to their business

school environment, it is necessary to elaborate on the characteristics of each planner and

Table 6

List of Business Schools and Academic Planners

List of Business Schools and Academic Planners Teaching Sustainability

Business School	Key Academic Planner(s)	Type of Sustainability Format	Tier Level of School
Gillium School of Management	Dr. Danielle Sheldon	Sustainability MBA	Not ranked
Lipton University, Vogel School of Management	Dr. Keith Cameron	Concentration at the time of interview; now have reverted back to an elective format for all of the school's concentrations	Tier 1 – Private
Willoway University, Randall School of Business	Dr. Robert Howard, Mr. Jeremy Rollins	General Electives	Tier 1 – Public
Catalpa University – Jeffrey School of Business	Mr. Jason Dougherty, Mr. Mason Hicks	Established Center and Dual Degree	Tier 1 – Public
Osecca University, Warner School of Management	Dr. Joel Miller	Established Center and Concentration	Tier 1 – Private
Vista View University, Youngman School of Business	Dr. Samuel Atwater, Dr. Robin Taylor	Established Center and General Electives	Tier 1 – Public
Modelle University, Nielson School of Management	Dr. Eric Jain	Sustainability MBA	Tier 1 – Private
Aqualaire University, Peterson School of Business	Dr. Harold Wright	Established Center and General Electives	Tier 1 – Private
Chester University, Roget School of Business	Dr. Peter Markham	Established Center and General Electives	Tier 1 – Private

Note: Tier rankings from "USNews.com: America's Best Colleges 2009," at

http://colleges.usmews.rankingandreviews.com/colleges. Participants and schools are anonymous.

his or her academic experience. Following are brief vignettes that capture each planner's role at his or her school and their role in the sustainability planning process:

Dr. Danielle Sheldon. Dr. Sheldon is the Director of Curriculum and Faculty Coordination at the Gillium School of Management. Dr. Sheldon has held her current position for five years. She has oversight for the curriculum and syllabi used in the sustainability MBA program at the Gillium School of Management. She facilitates the school's ongoing curriculum development and approval process of final course content. She is also involved in recruiting and augmenting the training of faculty members participating in the school's sustainability program.

Dr. Robert Howard. Dr. Howard is a Professor of actuarial science, risk management and insurance with an endowed professorship in this area, and he is also a professor in Willoway University's environmental institute. He has been associated with the Randall School of Business for over 38 years with a primary focus on risk management and insurance, and is widely published in the area, including authoring a book on sustainability as it relates to the field. Along with business school colleague Jeremy Rollins, Dr. Howard co-chairs a joint advisory committee, which facilitates efforts between the business school and the environmental institute to advance sustainability.

Mr. Jeremy Rollins. Mr. Rollins is a Senior Lecturer at the Randall School of Business at Willoway University. Mr. Rollins holds a JD degree in addition to his MPA and BS degrees. He first joined the business school as an instructor in 1996 helping to initiate the first sustainability courses in the business school. He works closely with Dr. Robert Howard to develop and enhance sustainability programming. His areas of

expertise include business and society, business ethics, corporate social responsibility, and sustainable development and business among others.

Mr. Jason Doughterty. Mr. Dougherty in his most recent position as Managing Director oversaw all administrative, operational, and financial matters for the Piedmont Institute at Catalpa University, a joint effort between the university's environmental institute and the Jeffrey School of Business**.** He joined the institute in 2002. Mr. Dougherty played an active role in sustainability strategic planning and led the implementation of strategic initiatives. He holds an MBA/MS in corporate strategy and environmental policy.

Mr. Mason Hicks. Mr. Hicks is a member of the Advisory Board for Catalpa University's Piedmont Institute, a joint venture between the university's school of environment and the Jeffrey School of Business, in addition to being an Adjunct Professor to the school of business. Mr. Hicks is also the Manager of Sustainable Business Development at a major U.S. company. Mr. Hicks teaches courses in human rights and sustainability leadership.

Dr. Harold Wright. Dr. Wright is a professor of economics, ethics and corporate social responsibility at the Roget School of Business at Aqualaire University, and holds an endowed professorship in enterprise. He holds a secondary appointment at the School of Law and is also Co-Director of the Roget School's environmental management center, an interdisciplinary sustainability effort at Aqualaire University. His main areas of research and teaching are in strategy and business economics, ethics and social responsibility. Dr. Wright joined the school of business in 1986, and has published over 85 articles and books, many on enforcing environmental regulations and on corporate

crime and punishment. He has served on a number of environmental justice committees and programs worldwide and is considered a leading expert on subjects dealing with economic and legal issues as they impact the environment.

Dr. Samuel Atwater. Dr. Atwater is the chair of strategy and entrepreneurship at Youngman School of Business at Vista View University where he has taught for nine years, and holds an endowed professorship in the field. He has served as director of the Youngman's sustainability center since 2004. On the business school side, Dr. Atwater is in charge of developing and leading the sustainability curriculum and on center side he is responsible for outreach that includes executive education and research. Dr. Atwater is also a consultant to several outside organizations. His research and teaching interests include technology management, design for sustainability and financial and operational metrics of sustainability.

Dr. Robin Taylor. Dr. Taylor is Assistant Professor of Strategy and Entrepreneurship at the Youngman School of Business at Vista View University. Dr. Taylor has been teaching at Youngman School of Business for four years, and also serves as Director of Research for the school's sustainability center. Dr. Taylor's main research and teaching interests are in sustainable enterprise, corporate social responsibility, leadership, change management and change implementation. Dr. Taylor is also associated with organizations that specialize in understanding and applying the principles of microfinance in developing economies.

Dr. Peter Markham. Dr. Markham in his most recent position at the Peterson School of Management at Chester University was an Associate Professor of Strategy, joining the faculty in 2002. Dr. Markham also served as Faculty Director at Peterson's

newly formed sustainability center, a joint endeavor with the university's school of environment. His main research interests are in technology, strategy and innovation; industry self-regulation; and economics of organization.

Dr. Joel Miller. Dr. Miller is the director of the Warner School of Management's sustainability center at Osecca University and is also a lecturer of strategy, innovation, and sustainability. His research and areas of interest are in strategy, decision making, technology management, and innovation. Dr. Miller joined the Warner School of Management faculty on a part-time basis in 2004 while working for an environmentally-based organization, and assumed his current duties at the school on a full-time basis in 2006. In his role, Dr. Miller is responsible for curriculum and strategic development of the school's sustainability concentration and center; teaching courses; creating outreach initiatives with companies; and acts as an adviser to several student clubs and programs among other duties. He works on several international projects to examine enterprise building in developing countries to support economic needs.

Dr. Eric Jain. Dr. Jain is Associate Professor of Leadership and Change Management, as well as director of the Nielson's School of Management's sustainability MBA at Modelle University. He joined the school of management faculty in 2001 and assumed his current duties as program director in 2006. He is responsible for the conception, implementation and ongoing evaluation of the school's sustainability MBA. His research and areas of interest include studying the effects of leadership at multiple levels on performance, evolution of capabilities in start-ups, and consequences of managerial actions on firm survival.

Dr. Keith Cameron. Dr. Cameron is the chair of strategic management and public policy at the Vogel School of Management at Lipton University. He joined the faculty in 1991 and became chair of the department in 2006. Dr. Cameron's research and areas of interest are in strategic environmental management, energy and climate change policy, stakeholder management, non-profit management, and environmental entrepreneurship. Many of his publishing and professional activities pertain to business and the environment, working with outside organizations and associations to promote communications and activities around sustainability-oriented topics.

Data Analysis

I used inductive and deductive qualitative research strategies for analyzing my research in the form of the constant comparative method to analyze transcribed interview data and planning documents. Constant comparative was used to analyze interview transcripts to develop a cogent understanding of sustainability planners' experiences. The data analyzed brought together an array of stories and experiences that addressed the research concerns, developing a prototypical portrait of a business school sustainability planning process. This is not meant as a template for planners to implement, but rather a model to factor into their decisions about sustainability-building in their current environment. In other words, this is not a set of step-by-step procedures to sustainability planning, but a guide for anticipating certain planning conditions one might encounter under the institutional standards of the business school, and the academic principles of management education.

Summary of Findings

Careful analysis and consideration of the data from interviews showed overall that there is a strong tie-in to Cervero and Wilson's Planning Theory (1994, 2006), and the data are explained in accordance with the theory. Power, interests, negotiation and ethical commitment all turned out to be key in guiding planners toward several different program outcomes.

First, planners had to manage their journey by assessing the type of *power* they were able to exert and manage at their school. Each time a planner attempted to bring attention to his or her sustainable agenda, they potentially began to re-shape the playing field by questioning the existing status of the institution and its "rules." Because the majority of planners were faculty members, their position at each planning table was greatly enhanced. At the same time, their position of power was also compromised because of the topic they were bringing to the table. This usually opened new roads of inquiry between planners and their audiences causing a constant re-adjustment of the social dynamics and working relationships among planners, as well as affecting the organizational destiny of those not invited to the planning table. Planners, in turn, either anticipated and prepared systematically directing their next course of action, or if unprepared, used trial and error to draw in supporters or quell opponents. Once they opened this door, however, they were aware of nature of the carefully arranged power structure and how they needed to assert themselves within it.

Interests proved a further touchstone for igniting dialogue as planners began to clarify the specifics of their agenda. As they began to campaign for recognition of sustainability and sustainability needs, a growing debate emerged about how

sustainability might be positioned in the business school relative to other long-term disciplines. These planners had to evaluate, prioritize, defend and insert the interests of sustainability programming amongst a bevy of other competing interests in their business schools, keeping in mind the level and degree of power needed to support one program interest over another. As in chess, according to Cervero and Wilson (1994, 2006), power represents the chessboard, while interests are the pieces strategically moved to satisfy a winning outcome for planners and their constituents. Varying interests defined the demands made on the playing field, characterizing the planning environment and helping the planner to reflect upon the moves he or she needed to employ to procure a favorable outcome at any moment in time for sustainability.

Negotiation can be likened to action on the playing field or a game of chess "in play." Once the interests were identified, sustainability planners set about negotiating with people, about the interests they represent, moving into appropriate niches where they felt sustainability could best prove itself or thrive. Conversely, if the planner felt there was no point on the board from which to suitably negotiate, sustainability ended up stalled or blocked by another interest until it found its next "opening" or until the planner decided the time was right for more attention. Negotiation is the movement toward achieving some result, and many planners in the study found common or uncommon ways to do this.

Each planning table shared an *ethical commitment* to learners, but assigned different priorities to learners as planning unfolded. Although stakeholders fought for the best educational outcomes, they sometimes struggled with the questions of whose interests matter most and who will benefit most from decisions made at each planning

table. With a topic as heavy and as complex as sustainability, discussion about its interpretation and reason for being in management education could either push for a stance that favored providing sustainability principles to the learner or waylay that commitment completely. However, although ethical commitment to the learner might have ebbed and flowed during planning as other elements dominated the process, ethical commitment was always important in re-surfacing important objectives or milestones that risked being pushed aside if not for the tenacity of the planners who felt they were critical to sustainability practice. Planners were besieged with voices from various corners of the university community, including outside stakeholders, and were left to weigh each social, political and educational outcome of the interests with which they were presented, hoping to capture the right level of ethical commitment.

Synopsis of Study Themes

For this study, Cervero and Wilson's planning table metaphor was used to illustrate the interactions between planners and their stakeholders, as well as planners' approaches to addressing stakeholder issues. Four areas, three being specific planning tables, emerged as planners made their way through the maze of program development at their respective business schools. These four areas were titled, "The Force Within: Intrinsic Motivation," "Planning Table One: Friendly Persuasion," "Planning Table Two: On Firm Ground," and "Planning Table Three: Inside the Lion's Den." At these tables, planners faced a new group of stakeholders with whom they continued to work each time they sought support or validation for sustainability in management education. Planners tapped stakeholders inside and outside of the business school as well as the university, seeking connections with both believers and skeptics. To accomplish this, business

school planners had to dismantle some historical barriers put up based on several factors, including: natural resistance to the disruptive nature of sustainability; a very siloed culture within the business school and throughout the university; and resentment toward the star status of the business school among other schools on campus. Initiating these relationships was crucial if sustainability principles and elements were to be genuinely introduced into business management. However, given these factors, each planning table came with its own set of power, interest, negotiation and ethical commitment issues based on these relationships. Some planners actually chose smaller planning tables to minimize discomfort. Planners readjusted their position at the table to fit their educational, social and political needs, along with each stakeholder. Much of the type of negotiation analyzed and described for this study tended to be both substantive negotiations at the needs assessment and educational objective phases of program development, and meta-negotiations when planners needed to evaluate social and political outcomes associated with explaining, defending and implementing sustainability. In fact, up to recently, the latter has taken most of planners' energy and time.

The Force Within: Intrinsic Motivation

This study illuminated how much planners had to personally and professionally embody the sustainability philosophy. Participants' personal enthusiasm for sustainability was intertwined with their professional belief that it also had a legitimate role to play in the business school. Before they could commit to bringing sustainability to the planning table, they had to first adopt some level of individual pride around their own involvement in sustainability activities and topics. They had to go through some

process of self-discovery about what sustainability meant to them and then determine to what extent it should be introduced to their schools and programs. In this study, planners used a great deal of intrinsic motivation to keep sustainability exposed during each phase of their planning process, relying on an internal, instinctual gauge to help them decide when and how far to push for sustainability. As it was such a politically fractious topic, these respondents had to have or build-up enough personal eagerness for sustainability in order to be capable of understanding, addressing and challenging the ideological tenets that held their schools and institutions captive to long-standing postures. Given this, they took up the mantle of representing themselves as an identifiable advocate and subject expert from a management education perspective. As such, planners' depth of personal and professional dedication to sustainability as an evolutionary (or revolutionary) idea or subject was an important factor driving progress within their business schools and MBA programs.

Since there were only one or two identified planners shepherding sustainability projects at any given school, a planner's level of intrinsic motivation often set the tone for the planning journey. It was in many ways the deciding factor that placed sustainability in its varying positions at different schools. The degree of planners' intrinsic motivation reflected their level of passion for sustainability issues. It served as the spark for initiating sustainability conversations and projects. This study revealed that it took an amazing amount of internal resolution to keep a concept not readily embraced by the power structure as a public topic of conversation within the academy. It took a decent amount of courage to introduce this very controversial subject (particularly when it was first seriously discussed during the late 80s and early 90s) to a distinctly traditional

program audience and curriculum. So the degree to which a planner was intrinsically

motivated to embody sustainability as a personal and professional interest was usually

paramount in fortifying its entry into MBA program. If their desire for change was

severely lacking, they risked losing momentum and sustainability could become obscure

in a construct so strongly oriented toward conservative ideological principles.

The next three areas were actual planning tables at which planners found

themselves in a favorable or unfavorable position to push for sustainability. Planners had

to size up the issues and relationships occurring at each table to decide how they were

going to apply and negotiate their power and interests without shortchanging any ethical

commitment to business school students. Each planner's degree of intrinsic motivation

was demonstrated at all three of these planning tables, along with the distinct use of

planning theory elements. Following is a brief description of each table.

Planning Table One: Friendly Persuasion

At this first planning table, planners were "sitting" among stakeholders from

sectors and departments outside of the business school who shared their interest in

sustainability and believed in its ability to reshape society's attitudes and behavior toward

environmental and human degradation. Networking was paramount for planners at this

table as they actively searched for people inside or outside of the university who shared

their mindset. Planners networking efforts usually resulted in some type of short-term or

occasional working partnership to advance sustainability at critical intervals.

Planning table one discussed sustainability practice at a strategic level, looking for

ways to formulate projects and curriculum on a university-wide basis to grant recognition

and status to the importance of sustainability's message. This table was most concerned

with "marketing" sustainability, building knowledge and preference for the topic among

university constituency so that it was positioned properly as a concept. Therefore, for the

most part, planning table one was based on strong alliances that sought to resolve their

ideological differences in order to promote a united voice around sustainability issues.

Stakeholders here served to get sustainability launched and moving in the right direction.

Planning Table Two: On Firm Ground

If planning table one represented the strategic planners and marketers for

sustainability, planning table two stakeholders are the tactical engineers of sustainability

program development in business schools. This table turns ideas into action plans and

concepts into curriculum. These are stakeholders internal to the business school with

day-to-day contact with administrative affairs who want to see sustainability actualized as

a classroom experience; they are looking for an immediate payoff to sustainability's

message.

Therefore, this stakeholder group has skipped over any formalities, synching

easily their interests with planners' interests to make sustainability real. Differences are

more around the details of implementation rather than theoretical or strategic in nature,

and can be resolved quickly to meet very specific execution plans and timetables.

Planning table two, in this case, had a great deal of influence over how and how fast

sustainability was enacted as they tended to be groups who had access, resources and

clout to bring sustainability to fruition despite any institutional reservations within other

parts of the school. Knowing they had this advantage, they used it to its full potential.

Planning Table Three: Inside the Lion's Den

The title of the final table leaves little doubt as to the issues planners faced or the relationships they had with the stakeholders here. These were stakeholders and issues internal to the business school that did not readily support sustainability as an addition to the business school academic agenda, let alone the curriculum. These stakeholders were not easily swayed by sustainability's message or its growing popularity. Stakeholders here were generally wary of sustainability's attempted status as a legitimate business school discipline, many feeling that it lacked intellectual bite.

Because of this, the negotiations about sustainability at this table were very philosophical and theoretical, always returning to the question of sustainability's right to exist in academia as little more than a sideline exercise. Power tended to be equally distributed here between planners and their stakeholders, so little was resolved at this table unless someone decided to relinquish their point-of-view. All is not lost at this table, however. It simply took a determined planner willing to guide and educate this group toward helping them visualize and experience sustainability as a feasible part of regular business and education practice. Some planners were successful in bridging the gap between theory and practice enough for some stakeholders at this table to become comfortable inserting it into their curriculum. Study findings are summarized in Table 7.

A Map of Sustainability Planning in Business Schools

In order to explain this parallel between planning theory and sustainability planning in business schools, this study uses a map of the findings to illustrate and summarize the components of planning respondents typically encountered while

describing their experiences. Figure 3 depicts an arrangement of elements that sum up the interactions at the planning tables between planners and their constituents.

The squares for each grouping represent the major phases of sustainability decision-making, while the rectangles behind each square represent the specific stakeholders and stakeholder issues sustainability planners encountered while in those decision phases. Research determined that each rectangular factor had its own role to play in the stories that were told, shedding light on programmatic, institutional, and political codes by which universities and business schools operated. Planners used any one of these planning tables as a jumping off point for their journey and then randomly revisited them based on where they were at any particular time during their planning cycle. As such, these planning tables did not typically occur in chronological order but were continuously in play as planners renegotiated their planning strategies.

Together the facets of this map are meant to portray the delicate relationship between sustainability planners and their environment. Like our ecosystem, there is seemingly a balance of ideals one needs to respect in order to keep a functioning peace. Very few planners in this circumstance felt it necessary to turn a system upside down to gain a voice for sustainability. Given the extensive timeframe it has taken for sustainability to evolve in the business school, many planners seem to have taken a moderate stance in promoting a sustainability agenda. What this study intended to illustrate in describing the model was how the data compiled addressed the three main research questions posed at the beginning of this chapter. The following findings explain from the planners' point-of-view how the internalization of their personal and

Table 7

Summary of Study Findings

Prominent Themes	Pertinent Findings
The Force Within: Intrinsic Motivation	The desire for sustainability change in a management education setting depended greatly on the level of intrinsic motivation planners had toward pursuing and promoting the topic.
Planning Table One: Friendly Persuasion	Planners were willing to cross interuniversity and intersectoral boundaries to collaborate on sustainability projects with other groups outside of the business school, finding a happy medium among their varying philosophies and approaches to sustainability.
Planning Table Two: On Firm Ground	This group of individuals afforded planners much of their power and provided the highest level of ethical commitment to learners by dedicating themselves to the swift and resolute implementation of sustainability in the classroom in order to advance practice in the workplace.
Planning Table Three: Inside the Lion's Den	Sustainability was regarded as suspect by a certain group of business school faculty members and administrators who did not see its value as a management concept, nor as a strategic necessity to the business school's image. A tug-of-war for the rights to academic integrity was most apparent here.

professional interest in sustainability became externalized using several powerful

instruments and working with a myriad of groups to support their agendas.

The Force Within: Intrinsic Motivation

As mentioned before, the intrinsic motivation of planners primed the

sustainability planning pump. Based on their own internal compass regarding the larger

role businesses will have to take in positively redirecting the world's course in a number

of areas, these planners found themselves responsible for investigating and instigating an

alternative business outlook. Sustainability was a possibility for broadening business'

Figure 3. Sustainability Planning Tables

economic paradigm, creating a more inclusive worldview. It should be noted here that

serious consideration of sustainability as a management topic has grown within the last

15-20 years from the late 80s early 90s. Within this timeframe, all of the sustainability

planners in this study had been diligent about keeping a watchful eye on sustainability's

growth, striving to understand its connection to their disciplines, as well as to the value to

their schools.

But even among sustainability practitioners their intrinsic motivation was

tempered by their personal and professional goals, the strategic direction of the particular

business school, and other stakeholder openness to sustainability. So while the planners

in this study were personally motivated to pursue sustainability, their ability to enforce a

strong ethical commitment varied based on their educational context and relationships at

each planning table. In this study, there were three types of planners as represented in
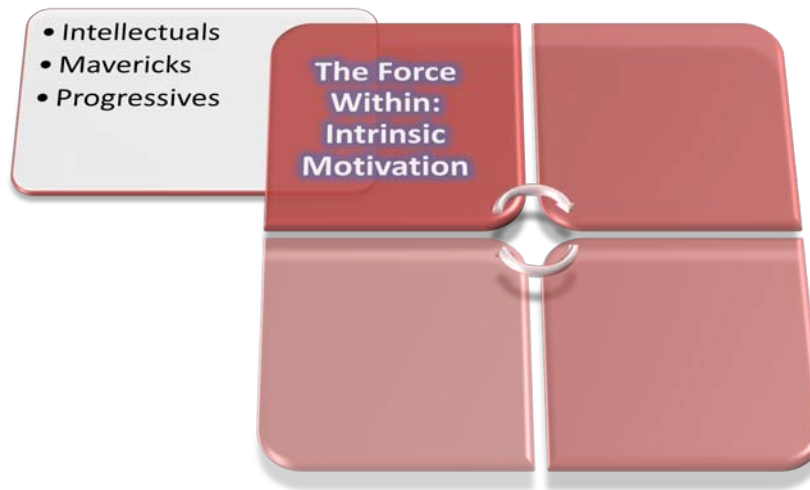Figure 4: the intellectuals, the mavericks, and the progressives.

Figure 4. "The Force Within" – Intrinsic Motivation

The Intellectuals

Intellectuals comprised one end of the sustainability planner spectrum. Two out
of 12 respondents fit this profile. Intellectual planners had either a personal or
professional interest in sustainability that they nurtured as a sideline to their main
research interests, familiarizing themselves with the scientific terrain, corporate
involvement, and professional associations surrounding sustainability. For instance, one
intellectual was very involved with sustainability development early on, obtaining a grant
from a now defunct association to create a sustainability course pack for different
business disciplines such as marketing, operations and strategy. Having been identified
as faculty with an interest in sustainability, each of the intellectuals in this study was

encouraged by their deans to take on sustainability projects. This appointment provided extra latitude for the planner to develop sustainability in some capacity including the development of research centers, proposed certificates, and courses. Intellectuals tended to keep their planning tables rather small, working with only one or two other people during project or course conceptualization, creation and implementation. Because of this, intellectuals did not have a steady support group within the business school to readily embrace their sustainable endeavors.

Intellectuals were cautious and conservative about expanding sustainability inside their business schools, and tended to preserve the traditional neoclassical model of business. They felt internal or external pressure to be a bit more restrained in their pursuit of the topic as a management concept. Their hesitancy centered around issues such as lack of definition around theoretical underpinnings; perception of fellow faculty skepticism or resistance to sustainability; the corporate struggle to fully embrace sustainability; lack of recruitment options for sustainability students; the belief that the university's strategic opportunities and interest lay in other economically viable areas; and the belief that their business school did not possess the organizational capacity to do sustainability adequate justice. Harold Wright at the Peterson School of Business at Aqualaire University offers his viewpoint:

> *Well, I mean this has been something…I haven't really pushed this very far because there's not an awful lot of real interest and support….at the school level or the university level. So it's really been more of a hobby for me. Would I like more support? Sure, but I'm not sure if it's in the school's best interest. Maybe it is, but I'm sort of a loner in that regard and so I don't think…since there hasn't*

been a lot of interest, frankly [the school's environmental research center] has been sort of a small, little ongoing operation that again has been a hobby and we've raised some money, but the school, the university never made it a top priority and so we were never able to go out and try to raise big money and develop something larger than what we had, and we don't have course time off, course relief for any of this. So it's really been sort of a small hobby and in that regard, sure I think if there had been more interest or if there was more interest at the university or the school that would certainly help grow it. Again, I'm not convinced that [this is] the place, that [our school is] big enough to compete in that realm in a significant way. We're still a player. We're known in this area, but it's sort of very small.

Dr. Wright's reticence stemmed from perceiving his environment to be unfriendly toward disrupting the foundation of the business school. Any passion, proof or belief he had as a researcher on the soundness of sustainability could not be overcome by the school's main focus or mindset. This was ultimately intellectuals' main contention. They felt that the odds of sustainability making an indelible contribution to their business schools' portfolio were slim and that their ability to increase any impact sustainability might have would be negated by any of the above mitigating factors mentioned in paragraph two. Although some might see this as an abdication of their responsibility to sustainability-building, others might view it as a measured assessment of sustainbility's chances of succeeding at a certain place or during a certain time. Intellectuals took the position that sustainability had to be carefully niched so as to not to promise on more than it could deliver. It had to flow with the system, not disrupt it. Peter Markham from the

Roget School of Business at Chester University had a strong opinion regarding this

stance:

> *I mean, I think...you have to be careful. This...you know, this is something I've*
>
> *talked about around here is that some people want to put sustainability...as if it*
>
> *like revolutionizes everything. And I don't know if I quite buy into that. I mean,*
>
> *this particular topic, it's an important one. And it's one that I care about deeply*
>
> *and others care about deeply. But you think about the business enterprise. It is*
>
> *only one of many issues that firms face. Now clearly, it's going to vary across*
>
> *industries. There's some industries if you're oil or gas, I mean this is, you know,*
>
> *pretty central to who you are. If you're an automotive company, at least in the*
>
> *time being, it's very essential to who you are. Other industries, this is going to be*
>
> *a little bit more, you know, minor and something you probably can address and,*
>
> *you know, maybe put your attention on something else. So we want to keep that in*
>
> *mind. And so I think for faculty, you know, there's going to be faculty who are*
>
> *interested in topics that touch upon these things and we'll do research and*
>
> *hopefully it will be good research, but it's not going to take over the whole*
>
> *academy here at the end of day.*

Whether intellectuals saw another time or another place for the further

advancement of sustainability as a major contributor to management theory is debatable;

nevertheless, they had not lost their basic belief in the worthiness of sustainability's value

system. Those values were still a large part of their academic make-up and were to be

pursued on some level, even if they were not to be represented prominently within the

MBA curriculum.

The Mavericks

The majority of planners in this study fit within the maverick category, which were seven out of the 12 interviewed. Mavericks most closely mirrored what was referred to as "Tempered Radicals" back in Chapter 2. According to Meyerson and Scully (1995), tempered radicals are academics and professionals who balance their desire to facilitate change from the inside by using caution not to cause too much upset within the system. They achieve this by maintaining a radical disposition, but use subdued actions to open new doors that help and include society's dispossessed and disenfranchised. The dissonance experienced by management academics (and professionals) in a very conservative culture, while introducing concepts like sustainability put them at risk for being misunderstood by more traditional peers, as well as risks the dissipation of their enthusiasm to create visionary change that their field might sorely need. Mavericks used tempered radicalism to reconcile their deep-seated belief in sustainability with the structured norms under which they worked. They used certain coping strategies that recognized their responsibility to balancing both parts of their personalities. This called for supreme vigilance on the part of mavericks, for as Meyerson and Scully point out, it can be all too easy to veer off in one direction or another. One can either be absorbed by a system's norms completely, losing any attachment to activism, or take activism too far, alienating support for their causes.

Most mavericks, like intellectuals, were also early participants of sustainability's emergence in the late 1980s and early 1990s. It was typically a subject of personal or professional interest to them. Mavericks, however, formed larger planning tables relatively quickly, reaching out to different groups of people, with whom they could form

connections, gradually parlaying these liaisons into working partnerships. The only real difference between the intellectuals and the mavericks was that the mavericks employed a relentless step-stair approach to sustainability-building, although in some cases, the odds of sustainability taking off in their business schools were about the same as those of intellectuals. Mavericks simply had an incredible ability for holding the long breath, outdistancing the cynicism of others with their unrivaled enthusiasm for sustainability as an agent of change. Mavericks in contrast to intellectuals decided that sustainability could and should be a prominent player in the business school community. They therefore, pushed their business school contemporaries a little harder to recognize its potential and took steps to expand its presence over a significant period of time. Where intellectuals were much more reserved about the future of sustainability in management, mavericks believed sustainability is destined to come into its own eventually. This was Keith Cameron's approach at Lipton University's Vogel School of Business:

> *I guess you could say I brought my own business and environment values here and when I came I was allowed to basically build on the base of strong business skills, traditional business education, as well as a public policy orientation. And in doing that I was able to persuade my department chair to allow me to offer our first environmental course in the business school called, "Strategic Environmental Management" in 1992. And we had a very significant pent up demand of 45 students…It started as an experimental course, what we call around here our 700 series. And then it was, I was able to offer it again a second year [and then] the following year.*

For mavericks, it was often apparent that sustainability planning was a very organic process, one in which planners "felt" their way through. Sustainability development rarely started out as a planned or organized activity. It emerged as a small seedling within the business school with no strategic plans for expansion. In most cases, planners started their sojourn with the desire to study sustainability, while creating a small niche to teach about its growing impact on business principles and practices. Over time, although mavericks started to develop specific objectives to accomplish, strategic planning ended up being more about good or bad timing rather than adhering to a committed timeframe or a planned step in a process. Opportunities for change came at varying moments, which meant that planners had to rely on a good deal of their instincts when making major planning decisions. Robert Howard of Willoway University's Randall School of Business explained his method of initiating his sustainability courses:

> *I think the biggest reason or motivation was the personal interests of Jeremy and*
>
> *[me]. I easily could have ended up in environmental studies.…So actually, some*
>
> *of these environmental people I met way back in the 80s...I'd go to lectures, I took*
>
> *some environmental classes, just sat in as a professor in environmental classes*
>
> *and very slowly built these relationships.…Now we weren't thinking of what*
>
> *we've done. We weren't planning, "Oh, we're going to do all this and then we're*
>
> *going to set up these programs and courses." I was just really interested in this*
>
> *area.*

As mavericks began to gain more confidence in the potential application of sustainability, they also began to seek ways to branch out beyond a single course. Students were becoming savvier about the concept and wanted something more than just

an introduction or overview to sustainability. Mavericks by the late 90s were beginning to see sustainability as a subject strategic to business management. Samuel Atwater from the Youngman School of Business at the Vista View University admitted it took some time to discern what was needed to satisfy this objective:

> *We did...the first experiment in that was to develop a sustainability course – THE sustainability course....it was still a boutique course though when we did that. The people that took it were what I would call the choir. They were people who were already...knew sustainability. So [we] would have a classroom full of people who were very, very knowledgeable about sustainability and it was still a narrow, narrow segment of the larger population you're trying to reach. That was the beginning...The class was well received. The class was popular. It put us on the map. But we were not achieving the goals we wanted to achieve with the class, which was to reach a broader audience of the MBA students. We really wanted every MBA student to understand sustainability; we thought it was that important. We weren't doing it in the first – I would say from that 1998 to 2002 time period we missed, but at least we were doing something.*

True to the tempered radical description, mavericks displayed a tenacity that was admirable. Their history was one of pure perseverance. Time to some extent has dictated their progress as they continually wait for optimal circumstances to push for more change. Starting with first one or two experimental courses, these mavericks have eventually, over the course of 15 years, worked to acquire greater visibility for sustainability through the inclusion of single electives, concentrations, certificates and even dual degree programs. But it was their steadiness that makes the maverick

interesting. It would be so easy for one to become sidetracked by other, more promising

or quick return ventures, yet they chose to keep their attention trained on the gradual rise

of sustainability. Acknowledging that it has not been easy, mavericks were honest in

admitting their frustration with system apathy, lack of funds and administrative resources,

turf protection, and general stagnancy. However, sustainability at some point became a

fundamental concept by which to work and live; a way of being that transcended a role in

an institution, extending into a socially-aware act. Dr. Cameron described this feeling

best:

> *Yeah, everyday you think, okay, what's the point, you know, but somehow or*
>
> *another you just…I suppose, maybe for some – after you get into a habit of*
>
> *thinking and acting this way you think, okay, I guess that's me, I don't know what*
>
> *the alternative is. I suppose I could just stop, but who's going to do that?*
>
> *Everybody's got to do something tomorrow morning. Okay, so just – it does*
>
> *become somewhat habitual. And actually, this is one of the things I try to*
>
> *encourage people to recognize throughout the school, including my students,*
>
> *which is to take the small actions and to build on them and try to do them as*
>
> *regularly as possible. To tell others what you're doing to commit to doing a little*
>
> *more, and have them check up on you and you check up on them, basically, and*
>
> *you know, develop this micro-culture of some kind of sustainability change.*
>
> *Yeah…at least it keeps you going. You know, and who knows what it's doing for*
>
> *the rest of the world.*

The pace of program progress will continue to arise as a major difference between

planners and business schools as to how they chose to implement sustainability. The

question of how far and how fast planners can ideally push for sustainability inclusion was, yes, a matter of choice by the planner, but at a higher level, prompts one to ask about the responsibility of business schools as a social institution to appropriately reevaluate their methodologies and realign them with evolving management and economic conditions. At what point does the responsibility to educate students about alternative business models shift from the duty of a few individuals to the collective task of the school? Ultimate advancement in sustainability programming will be evident when planning is taken on school wide, instead of in individual pockets and pieces. The opportunity to bring sustainability into its own at the business school is what motivated the last group of respondents, "the progressives" and a "maverick-progressive" to pursue the most aggressive posture on sustainability by implementing it at the school level, accelerating the time and scope of sustainability program development.

The Progressives and Maverick-Progressives

The last group in the planner spectrum is termed the "progressives" and a hybrid category of the "maverick-progressives." Three of the 12 respondents interviewed fall into this category. "Progressives" have had the benefit of gradual sustainability acceptance by the general public and had an administrative culture open to sweeping change, which allowed the very prominent presence of sustainability within their MBA program. And although that did not always translate into more time or money, it did help in allowing progressives to imagine a more unconventional way to create a sustainability curriculum. Unlike mavericks, progressives in this study started with specific design objectives and an implementation plan. Given abundant administrative support and their accelerated position in the sustainability development learning curve, they were able to

aim high and move fast to create not only a course, but a dedicated program line with sustainability as the central business premise. One school offered this as their only MBA option, while the other provided a sustainability MBA alternative to their traditional MBA. To make such swift and significant change a reality, their planning process also varied from that of mavericks, engaging interdisciplinary design teams to actively help organize content and pedagogy during routine meeting cycles. For progressives, the social and political aspects of planning shifted from negotiation about the benefits of sustainability itself to negotiation within the boundaries of sustainability as an accepted part of business conversation. Whereas for mavericks, planning agendas were somewhat blurred and indistinct, for progressives the culture of sustainability dictated a stronger call to action, outlining more specific curriculum objectives. Ethical commitment was most pronounced in the fastidiousness to learning outcomes. Progressives and maverick-progressives aimed off the bat for continuous bands of MBA students to be exposed to sustainability. They taught or embodied the full span of the all three tenets of sustainability and included those concepts in the breadth and depth of their curriculum. In providing such a comprehensive view of sustainability, they intended for students to come away from the program with an understanding of the type of immediate impact they could make through business in all three areas with the knowledge, skills and confidence to be willing to do so.   The transformative drive in progressives was particularly strong in this study because they *required* students' professional and personal mindsets to mimic the triple-bottom-line dynamic. Danielle Sheldon, a progressive from the Gillium School of Management, saw her school as an example of this:

Our mission is quite bold and that is to make an impact and to really – the word we use around here is to "move the needle," in terms of business as usual. Through the work that our students and graduates do in the world and the impact that they have, we talk about this idea of the 10x. As you change something in your life, you buy a Prius or you put solar panels on your car, you have a 10x impact. If you convince your community or your local city to adopt some kind of sustainability policy, that's a 100x impact. And then, what we're talking about is 1000x impact where you change policy for the country or you change the way business operates or you create new products and services. That's what we mean when we say move the needle. So everything is driven by that transmission that we believe and we are convinced that business is a key to being able to have these impacts on the world…So our mission is to develop the skills and competencies of our students to be able to achieve that.

Joel Miller from the Warner School of Management at Osecca University traversed the line between "maverick" and "progressive." By nature, Dr. Miller was a progressive seeker of a full sustainability platform and message for the Warner School's program, wanting to convey the importance of integrating social, economic, and ecological tenets as part of the strategic outcomes of business development that can contribute to environmental and human growth and stability at all levels of society. A significant monetary donation helped his mission in this regard, so he does have support at the institutional level. To boot, like progressives, Dr. Miller and his planning partner had the benefit of a steep learning curve given increased public awareness, as well as their own professional expertise, allowing them to achieve much in a short amount of

time at The Warner School. However, despite these advantages, like mavericks, because of the school's history as a traditional business school with a rather irresolute administration and faculty, the sustainability planners at this school find themselves somewhat restrained by how far they can insert sustainability into the MBA core curriculum. By no means, however, did this prevent them from asserting and pursuing their objectives and Dr. Miller was clear in what he would like to achieve, saying:

> *I don't think there ought to be anybody graduating from a Warner School degree program who graduates without understanding our framing of business and sustainability. So that means we need to make sure everybody gets exposed to it. They don't have to take the [specialty]; that's more specific. That's not the goal. But they do need to be exposed to it in one way or another and we need to think about how to do that. That's what we're pushing…how to make it comprehensive so it's not – we don't want a few more people, we want everybody. And anything less than that is an inconsistency in what this program – what the school's about…I don't think that's that difficult. You've just got to decide as an institution that's what you want to do…I have a hard time when people tell me it's difficult.*

The progressive tone of Dr. Miller coupled with his maverick circumstances at the school refuel the central debate: Can sustainability planners with even the best of intentions encourage what Dr. Miller calls "sustainable enterprise" – developing successful business models that work for a larger swath of society? Sustainability planners and advocates had to consider how realistic it was to push business schools to make fairly dramatic changes to their institutional philosophy. Most planners

interviewed for this study seemed to be willing to try although it may take another 15-20 years to make the shift.

The Force Within – Section Summary

Similarities between intellectual, mavericks, and progressives were much bigger than their differences. Everyone had an interest in pursuing sustainability issues in some format or fashion. Everyone understood sustainability's importance as a movement to safeguard planetary resources and as an improvement to quality of life. Most of all, they appreciated the gravity of the type of change they were asking management education to make, knowing they were taking some professional and institutional risks as sustainability struggled to push through the door of academia. Nevertheless, their conviction of the topic coupled with knowledge of the business school environment placed them in the unique position of being able to visualize and communicate a brand of leadership that has the potential to propel the business school as a forerunner of sustainable justice if business schools can continue to develop more planners willing to re-imagine the future.

Planning Table One: "Friendly Persuasion"

One of the planning tables sustainability planners usually encountered on their way to planning was with stakeholders external to the business school. If interest or support around sustainability was lacking within the business school at the time planners decided to initiate sustainability projects, they turned to outside help to learn more about the subject and what kind of work was being done. Hence, mavericks made the most use of this table. Slowly, as a result of their networking efforts, planners found niches they could carve with others who were just as vested in sustainability progress and wished to

see it incorporated into higher education. The stakeholders at this table were diverse,

coming from different departments at the university in the capacity of faculty,

administrators and students, as well as from companies, non-profits, governmental

agencies and environmental associations as scholars, executives or other management

professionals involved in the field.

The partnerships at this planning table were for the most part congenial based on

symmetrical power relations and shared consensual interests. Planners and stakeholders

generally came to this table looking for mutual solutions, not to cause trouble for each

other. For instance, both planners and stakeholders shared interests in developing

programs based on a timely and impactful topic. To achieve this, business school

planners were drawn to external stakeholders because of their knowledge and experience

working with sustainability in practice. External stakeholders were, in fact, recruited by

planners to help translate their practice into curriculum concepts for the MBA program

sometimes as instructors, as there were few business school faculty who could contribute

to the area. Thus, part of the power of external stakeholders rested on their ability to set

content direction for planners. Planners, on the other hand, were the ones who ultimately

to made decisions about how external feedback was to be implemented, judiciously

picking and choosing certain content elements over others to suit their own needs.

Interest was mutual and power was balanced between the two.

The moniker of "Friendly Persuasion" is appointed to this table primarily because

of the negotiation strategy used, which rested somewhere amid consultative and

bargaining, vacillating between discussions that concentrated on substantive and meta-

negotiation. The interdisciplinary relationship between the business school and other

university departments, as well as the intersectoral relationship between the university and its constituents was understood to be born from a united premise. Yet, the sometimes vastly varying perspectives from which sustainability was viewed caused friction around what the true goals of a sustainability education should be and how to attain them. "Friendly Persuasion" represents a happy medium between the enthusiasm for stakeholders of uncapping sustainability's potential, and the sober realism of managing the inherent disagreements bound to arise.

On the face of it, stakeholder ethical commitment at this first planning table gave way to the honest appraisal of sustainability's benefit to organizations, universities, students and the community. Everyone at the table put forth the effort to make sure their area was touched by a sustainable mindset and wanted it to increase the chances of that happening by connecting with other groups. However, this might have been too lofty a goal for this planning table. Much of the ethical commitment was really dedicated to the stakeholders themselves as they focused on simply trying to gain a collective position on sustainability in order to agree on a stance within the field. So although learners remained a prime target of discussion at planning table one, they were almost secondary as planners and stakeholders wrestled within and among themselves about the "right way" to communicate sustainability as an educational concept. The ethical commitment was as much about doing justice to sustainability's presentation as it was about introducing it to students.

Figure 5 lists the most important stakeholders that respondents named as essential to their foray into sustainability planning and will be described in the proceeding sections. These stakeholders, in some ways, were low-hanging fruit for planners – the

easiest (or at least the most available) way to integrate themselves in the sustainability community. Their contribution provided planners with a leg-up, elevating their status as a sustainability ally and advocate within the business school.

Environmental Associations

Environmental associations were a natural place for planners to connect with a larger group of sustainability advocates. Environmental associations, such as World Resources Institute or the National Wildlife Federation, typically created conferences and forums for business school faculty interested in sustainability to showcase sustainability's academic and practical applications, as well as share stories of their own experiences merging sustainability into the business school. Environmental associations typically gave planners a way to enter and explore the sustainability dimension from a safe distance, giving planners time to develop their interest in, and preference for aspects of sustainability's proposed mission.

One such vehicle mentioned by interviewees was BELL or the Business Environment Learning & Leadership network started by the World Resources Institute (WRI). BELL was a consortium of 25 business schools created as a way to encourage environmentally-oriented professors, according to Keith Cameron of Lipton University, the Vogel School of Management "to start incorporating environmental and social issues and topics into their teaching, research and service, all three at one time." BELL provided faculty members interested in sustainability with networking opportunities to share curriculum ideas and experiences. It gave faculty the impetus to use a sustainability framework in their classes and to distribute cases, course outlines and general knowledge to others in their department. For Harold Wright of Aqualaire
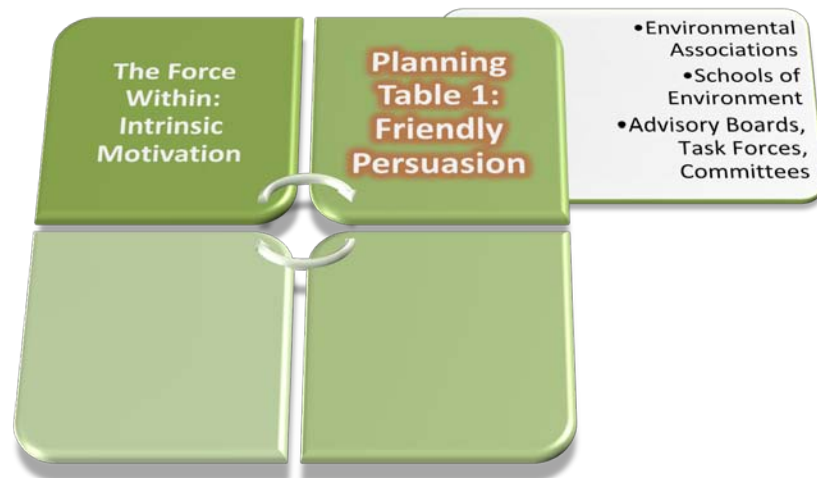
Figure 5. Planning Table 1 – "Friendly Persuasion"

University, the Peterson School of Business and a founding member of the consortium, BELL offered tangible mechanisms for business professors to re-think and remodel their curriculum and research, as well as name and articulate the objectives professors wanted to achieve in this area. According to Dr. Wright, BELL was his strongest motivator in getting started: "I think the biggest influence for me was the BELL Network, at the time, which is no longer in existence….it was a chance to network with other professors who were teaching similar courses, doing research in this area. It was more of a teaching conference than a research conference, but we did have a little discussion on research, and so it was an opportunity to really exchange ideas and cases and that sort of thing. That was useful because I had a network of faculty and we would share syllabi, things like that."

BELL proved to be the precursor for what is now the most prominent survey out there for measuring business school sustainability output, Beyond Grey Pinstripes, formerly Green Ties and Grey Pinstripes. It is perhaps the most significant outside motivator for promoting sustainability in business schools. Schools interested in sustainability work hard to place high on the survey in order to increase their visibility within the field and to signal their participation in a small, but groundbreaking movement. Dr. Cameron used BELL and the rankings to boost sustainability's profile at his business school: "I guess it was the main motivator in me trying to involve as many faculty as possible. I mean it helped me basically externalize the information that I was receiving, including from WRI."

Joel Miller of the Warner School of Management at Osecca University reinforced the importance of the Beyond Grey Pinstripes Survey started by WRI when describing how his sustainability program began. Recalling a major donor who used to be on the board of WRI, the major donor was dismayed when after the first two or three years of the survey's inception, their business school had not placed in the top tier of programs recognized by the survey. He figured this was so important that to rectify the situation he created dedicated resources toward the development of sustainability enterprise at the school. A center was established that gave way to increasing and accelerating the school's sustainable profile in management education.

Another association called Net Impact, also had, and continues to have a profound effect on sustainability's growth in business schools. Net Impact was created for the specific purpose of convening students interested in sustainability and other environmental and social issues. Net Impact started in 1993 as the Students for

Responsible Business with 16 MBA interns interested in initiating conversation about business' role in fostering a more environmentally and socially conscious outlook. They held their first conference on the campus of the campus of Georgetown University that same year. In 1999, Students for Responsible Business changed its name to Net Impact, forming chapters across the country and throughout Europe at other business schools that were embracing the same mission. It became an independent, non-profit organization in 2004 and expanded its objectives and its reach to Asia, Latin America and Africa. Today, there are 200+ chapters, 10,000 members in 120 of the world's leading graduate schools. Its membership consists of MBA students, other graduate students in related fields and business and non-profit professionals.

Net Impact was mentioned a few times throughout the study as a source for working with MBA students on sustainability issues in management. It was clear faculty valued the presence of this group in their schools. Net Impact groups were known for being very aware, active and vocal in championing sustainability curriculum and projects within their chapters. By respondents' description, Net Impact groups were usually a small, but very committed faction within the school that was looking for ways to initiate or support sustainability efforts. Net Impact was considered an important connection for planners. Most planners understood their role to be as primarily faculty advisors to their Net Impact groups, noting that Net Impact chapters tended to be self-governing, and did not need a lot of guidance for agenda-building. Nevertheless, faculty used Net Impact's enthusiasm toward any appropriate outreach efforts to gain recognition for sustainability. Peter Markham acknowledged their contribution to his work: "This particular cohort we have right now, for example, is very active and just great…we have 20 students…we

basically put them to work…they put together a speaker series, brought in a few speakers this year. We had one working on a proposal for a conference…they've really done a good job with doing some work for us."

Robert Howard's Net Impact involvement helped solidify the appearance of a coalition being built around sustainability at the school. Net Impact's presence bolstered the image of sustainability as a burgeoning cultural phenomenon at the school, lending to its weight and influence as an important management topic. Dr. Howard elaborated: "I think these groups will become more popular as these issues become more important both in the business world and then inside the business school…So it's part of what I feel is a strong infrastructure."

Planners also recognized Net Impact's positive influence on reaching other students who were new to sustainability or who were unsure of sustainability's place in business. Planners looked to Net Impact to help educate more students about sustainability and draw interest to sustainability classes. Net Impact's growth allowed students to gradually build a relationship with sustainability, giving them room to become more comfortable with its application toward their respective areas of study. Samuel Atwater of the Youngman School of Business at Vista View University saw Net Impact efforts on changing students' attitudes: "…We have the Net Impact club here. It doubled because…[sustainability] was more accessible to people. You know, the students that were majoring in investment banking felt like they could be a part of this club now. It wasn't just for the left-wing radical fringe…So there was a larger ownership of the issue by students whose track was not necessarily sustainability because they wanted to know about it." As students become more comfortable with their own knowledge of

sustainability they didn't hesitate to use their newly found power in reshaping the tone and message of their studies. Net Impact provided a vehicle for planners to communicate with students about sustainability curriculum projects at the business school, and opened a feedback mechanism for students to voice how they would like to see sustainability incorporated into their courses. The influence students had in directing the power of the planning process will be discussed further later in the chapter. The main point here is that environmental organizations like Net Impact play a mentionable role in feeding planner progress toward creating sustainability programs.

Summary

The outside perspectives of environmental associations, such as BELL, Net Impact, WRI and other NGOs seemed to boost sustainability's rise in the business school, acting as sources of validation. They provided an outlet for sustainability planners to explore their curiosity and express their ideas on a smaller scale. Planners used the welcome environment these associations created to prototype courses and test their reception in the MBA classroom. Through outside groups, discussion and interest around sustainability increased, and professors experimented with ways to actively apply the concept.

Environmental associations were the voices of conscience that reminded the business schools of their ethical commitment to broaden the story of business to include environmental and social responsibility in their transfer of knowledge. They encouraged planners to help students recognize the consequences of business on a society and ecosystem in flux, and pushed those associated with business management to rethink and revalue business' relationship with the world in which it operates. Because of this,

environmental associations remain significant as one of the factors responsible for sustainability's strong reemergence into public awareness during the late 1980s and early 1990s.

Schools of Environment (and other schools)

Business school planners fostering a new interest in sustainability acted on their instinct to reach out to other schools within the university that were also exploring social and environmental components to business. In particular, planners with access pursued the natural link to institutes or schools of environment within their universities. Out of the 12 respondents interviewed for this study, three were at universities with associated institutes, centers or schools of natural environment, and all three of them had started forming a relationship with them. This included Robert Howard and Jeremy Rollins at the Randall School of Business; Peter Markham at the Roget School of Business; and Jason Dougherty at the Jeffrey School of Business. Of course, not everyone had access to schools of environment, but this did not stop them from reaching out to other schools across campus. Joel Miller from the Warner School of Management was one such planner who had begun to engage several other schools to discuss ways to spread sustainability, as was Harold Wright from the Peterson School of Business. If there was not opportunity to work inside the university, others looked to alliances outside of the university, partnering with other campuses to secure working relationships, most notably Samuel Atwater of the Youngman School of Business. No stone was left unturned for these planners who were convinced of the notion that there was strength in numbers when it came to giving sustainability a robust voice in academia.

Planners' relationships with their cross-school counterparts ranged from formal to informal resulting in varying levels of communication and collaboration. In most cases, collaborators were amenable to a partnership with the business school, also sensing the timing was right for a new frontier in social and environmentally-friendly business. Networking was an essential piece of sustainability development in order for planners to honor its interdisciplinary nature. For those participating at this table, it served as a period of indoctrination to each stakeholder group as much as to sustainability. Business school planners used these relationships to jumpstart their ideas.

For Robert Howard and Jeremy Rollins, the environmental institute at their university was the first point of reference for each of them starting a sustainability agenda, and eventually helped form the fulcrum of a professional partnership between the two of them. Dr. Howard's connection to the institute set out as a casual one with visits to the school for educational seminars and programs covering the science of the environment. Mr. Rollins actually got his start at the environmental institute developing a couple of classes to supplement a gap in the curriculum. Over time, both professors became regulars at the institute as well as familiar with each other's interest and work in sustainability. They eventually formed a joint committee between the environmental institute and the school of business, and their pursuit of sustainability knowledge led them to become regular participants in the institute's outreach activities:

> *Mainly because of my interests and my colleague, Jeremy…several years ago we began just making contacts with the [environmental institute]…For instance, there's a seminar, a faculty seminar, it's an interdisciplinary seminar of people all over the campus, professors all over the campus and actually some people in*

planning and from the government...And we have what we call an environmental breakfast where we talk about different environmental issues...We bring guests in and talk about a wide-range of environmental issues with many, many different perspectives because you have scientists and lawyers and business and social sciences...Jeremy and I have both been involved in that and we both [have] established...a number of...acquaintances or friendships through that seminar. And then when we started to build the program here, we had some natural contacts in terms of people to talk to.

However, the nature of interdisciplinary work is a complex dance. These relationships still have some distance to travel before they can truly be called enduring, particularly as the cultures of the school of environment or public policy and the school of business are very different, almost diametrically opposed, and are not easily reconciled. Dr. Markham notes that, "With public policy students and business school students…it's like mixing oil and water." It was clear that this was uncertain territory for business schools. As with any system as complex as a university, such cross-school relationships increase the level of caution with which one regards the other. University departments it seems are almost squeamish about the notion of rendering some of their expertise to other schools. Planners were aware of the institutional barriers that disallowed knowledge-sharing. And though these schools were willing to collaborate, they were not necessarily willing to compromise on retaining as much as of their individuality as possible. No school was going to shed their identity in the name of sustainability development. Add the debate swirling around sustainability and the stakes

got higher.   But nothing ventured, nothing gained, so an attempt at cross-school partnerships was a much needed step toward progress.

Peter Markham at Chester University's Roget School of Business also formed a working relationship with his university's school of environment, although it was a bit more formalized than Mr. Rollins and Dr. Howard's joint committee. Dr. Markham's school of business was at a place in its evolution where corporate clients and students alike were looking to the school for its leadership in sustainability. Given this interest, Dr. Markham was tapped by his dean to elevate Roget's profile in the environmental arena. Chester University's school of environment, a strong contender in its field, eagerly reciprocated and in 2007 the two schools launched a center focused on sustainability outreach and research projects. At the time of this interview, the center had not included a curriculum component and was not intending to support curriculum in the near future. Dr. Markham chose to keep a tight rein on the scope of the relationship, wanting to proceed slowly in building an interdisciplinary sustainability venture. Of his collaboration with the School of Environment he said:

> *One thing to realize is [that the center] doesn't have an explicit curriculum component and that was by design. Something that I – I actually pushed for [that] because being across schools, you know, one thing that faculty holds very strongly onto is the curriculum. So an interdisciplinary, interschool curriculum initiative is very difficult to pull off. So to start…the idea was let's focus on the research side and…the curriculum might come out of the individual schools, but we're going to leave it to grow more organically from that initiative.*

The bond between Catalpa University's Jeffrey School of Business and the School of Environment was the most formal relationship of the three schools participating in a joint venture of this type. This school had the good fortune to be buffeted by several mavericks, plus the monetary resources to create an early partnership paradigm with their school of environment. It was developed specifically for the purpose of creating a curricular partnership. What ensued was the start of a graduate joint degree program in which students from both schools obtain an independent year of training from each school and then in the third year, supplement that experience with several sustainability electives offered through a sustainability institute called the Piedmont Institute sponsored by both schools. The Piedmont Institute's sustainability courses are created by professor affiliates from all over the university from a variety of disciplines so students are exposed to a wide-range of perspectives covering sustainability. Over time, some of the more foundational electives have become core curricula elements of the joint degree program.

Collaboration between the business school and the school of environment was not easy, sometimes chaotic, and at times prompted by outside parties rather than internal motivation. Even in this formalized relationship, there was very little actual contact between the two schools. Once the founders left, Piedmont became the primary conduit for communication. Also, although the program is interdisciplinary, each school retains their own program schedule, meaning the classes students take for each year of studies are either distinctly business or distinctly environmental – there is no active cross collaboration when it comes to the core curriculum. However, Jason Dougherty realized

that their ability to produce what they do have was a feat not many others have been able to achieve given the reticence toward co-curricular activities:

> *It's a kind of never-ending struggle. Let me try to frame this a little bit. The nature of interdisciplinary is conceptually – it's a wonderful thing. But in practice, it's just really difficult and for a lot of different reasons. A lot of it has to do with the way that academia is structured in sort of silo fashion and it's not natural for people to work outside of their own area. It's just the system doesn't really facilitate that. And then, there's just – there's turf. There are turf issues in an organization, and so, some people want to claim this area as mine, or some folks don't necessarily see the connections. In our case, I think from the earliest origins of the institute, we have two schools that are polar opposites in terms of their cultures, in terms of their resources. So the [business school] is…it's a giant on campus. You look at the university, it's like there's medical and engineering…and then business…And then you have some of the mid-range ones. And then you look at the smallest schools and [the School of Environment] is the smallest school on campus; smallest in terms of number of faculty, smallest in terms of number of students, smallest in terms of endowment monies across the board. [They] are smallest in terms of salaries that the professors are paid…And so there's this issue of inequality.*

So in this case, although interests are shared, ethical commitment was a bit undefined between the school of business and the school of environment. The differentials in power leave sustainability educational commitment secondary to the individual interests of each school and their faculty as everyone tries to protect their

territory and space. Yet and still, they needed each other to fulfill the promise of sustainability to their students and contributors, presenting a united front as a university involved in cutting-edge work.

Sustainability planners may very well usher in a new era of interdisciplinary, interschool, or even inter-university cooperation as sustainability demonstrates its relevance and reach across many areas of academe. As it stands, other respondents in this study found alternative partnerships that proved equally salutary as with schools of environment. Additional emerging alliances with the school of business included those with schools of public health, public policy, engineering, law, education, agriculture and recreation. Most respondents mentioned some sort of start-up discussions or agreements with each of these disciplines. The prospect of being able to disseminate the message and influence of sustainability throughout the university was beginning to outweigh the risks involved in developing interschool ties. Sustainability planners were shifting academic paradigms by exploring the possibilities of university hybridization, according to Joel Miller:

> *Well, for us it's very much – we think there's a role for the private sector in sustainability, in sustainability in general…Most departments and schools and subject areas today in universities deal with sustainability, and we want to be able to work with different constituencies across the university to give them that deeper sense that business can play a role and it's not destructive. There can be a constructive role for business…But what would it look like and what would you have to know in your own professionalization to be effective in working with for-profit enterprises? So that's our goal is to spread that idea.*

Robert Howard in the end expressed hope for his ongoing collaboration with the School of Environment, conceding that building such relationships take time, but felt planners like him will be well-rewarded for their long-term efforts:

As I said, I could've easily been in the [environmental] institute if things would have worked out different in my life, but I feel like I'm really connected to them. I have a lot of good professional friends over there, and like I've said, I've taken these courses, and I've just reached a whole level of connection and I'm really accepted. When I first started going to…this breakfast seminar, there was, "Oh, this guy's from business," and you could just tell, you know. Nobody called me bad names or anything like that, but you could see it was kind of a suspicion and, "What's he doing [here]? Is he a spy?" And that's totally in the past. We're really kind of a team and I have a lot of good friends and I feel good about that.

Hopefully, Dr. Howard's positive experience signaled a trend as sustainability continues to infiltrate U.S. universities, and it will become commonplace for university departments to realize that they have more power combined than separate to make changes in U.S. higher education. In this study, planners were not hesitant to use every opportunity and resource at their disposal and found some of the most willing partners outside their home domain.

Summary

Sustainability planners' influences were felt far beyond the confines of the business school. Like the concept of sustainability itself, sustainability planning demanded that historical prejudices be challenged and eventually overturned in favor of open communication. Sustainability planners did not have to be the sole keepers of the

flame, which in fact, inhibited the business school's growth if knowledge was withheld.

Crucial to accelerating both the business school's and sustainability's momentum will be

planners' willingness to exhaust interdisciplinary possibilities. As university departments

deepen their relationship with sustainability and each other, their differences may become

more apparent. At that point, they will have to work even harder to maintain an eye

toward the best possible educational outcome that will serve a majority of stakeholders,

as well as contribute to the future of planetary preservation. This puts pressure on school

of business and school of environment partnerships to more openly address the historical

social status barriers that have kept them happily apart in order to negotiate new

emerging and important interests.

Advisory Boards, Task Forces, Committees

One of the larger, more popular stakeholder venues for sustainability planners at

planning table one was in the form of advisory boards, task forces and committees. More

than a third of the planners in this study used advisory boards, task forces or committees

as a strategic mechanism for their planning agendas. Advisory board, task force, and

committee members often gathered to lend advice as groups who have a vested interest in

business school products, projects and progress, in this case, sustainability education.

There tended to be certain characteristics which warranted an advisory board, task force

or committee designation. Advisory boards, task forces and committees were prone to be

of mixed origin, meaning they involved stakeholders from different professional or

university sectors. Advisory boards, task forces and committees usually included

participants from corporations, NGOs, government, students, university administrators or

other university faculty members. By their nature, they deliberately brought together a

cross-section of people who were not everyday co-workers, yet bonded to bring attention to the sustainable gap missing or ignored by their community, university or school. They were not usually engaged in the day-to-day or semester-to-semester duties of preparing curriculum like a department, but contributed to business schools' longer-term program or curriculum goals.

Advisory boards, task forces and committees were on some level also distinct from each other based on their uses in this study. Committees described here were usually interdepartmental groups housed within the business school. They were put together to brainstorm around specialty issues like sustainability that had some common application to various disciplines within the business school. Task forces were the next level up, including people across the university, again for special projects or purposes. Finally advisory boards tended to be an all-inclusive forum of people inside and outside of the university, inviting cross-sectoral participation from professional practitioners as well as alumni, and faculty to discuss applied and strategic implications of sustainability in the MBA program.

Advisory boards, task forces and committees were important for the scrutiny they brought to the planning process. The members of advisory boards, task forces and committees in this study were requested to be part of the decision-making process typically concerning the conceptualization of sustainability projects. Brought to the planning table because of their belief of and close working relationship with sustainability, members of these groups also usually displayed the same type of energy toward sustainability as the planner, increasing the desire for change. Sustainability planners' use of advisory boards, task forces and committees served a couple of key

purposes during the conceptualization of a sustainability agenda. One was for promoting

outreach and awareness among the academic community. An important part of

generating energy and momentum for sustainability was being able to convince intended

audiences of the timeliness and relevance of a sustainable future. Change cannot take

root if there is no one to deliver and nurture sustainable ideals. Advisory boards, task

forces and committees fulfilled this challenge by introducing proposals for campus and

school-wide initiatives, as well as coalition-building in the business school. The second

function of advisory boards, task forces and committees were as sounding boards during

different stages of curriculum development. Whether it was curriculum

conceptualization or evaluation, these groups were invited to give their frank opinion and

input to the look, tone and outcomes of sustainability programming, proposed or existing.

Robert Howard used his relationship with his university's environmental institute

by creating a Joint Advisory Committee to discuss "various partnerships…joint ventures,

what we do have in common [and] how we can help each other." In addition, he also felt

it was important to create a sustainability advocacy committee consisting of business

school faculty. His efforts resulted in an ongoing association among business school

faculty who worked to make sure sustainability was adequately represented at the

business school. Pursuing his interests and relying on his social position as a faculty

member, Dr. Howard identified certain business school faculty who could work as a team

to infuse sustainability into the business school network namely making sure new courses

get approved by faculty peers. The importance of these committees for Dr. Howard was

that they allowed him to set-up an infrastructure for sustainability at the school that he

did not have through formal means. For him this was a very tangible planning table from

which he and Mr. Rollins could coordinate and execute action plans to bring stability, organization and legitimacy to their efforts:

> *I started this many years ago, an ad hoc committee, because it really wasn't set-up by the dean. I just set it up myself on sustainability just inside the school of business…This has been going on for probably about six or seven years and it started with like five people and then as people expressed interest in this area, I'd say, "Well you want to be on the committee?" There really isn't – we once in a while have a meeting, but mainly when we do things that require faculty approval, they start in a department and there's no department of sustainability. So this is kind of like a little mini ad hoc department with faculty. So when we send something on to the committees like the undergraduate committee, the master's committee that approves things like courses…for instance, we've developed a number of courses; it's good if you start with a group of faculty so it's not just Jeremy and I off, you know, doing our [own] kind of thing.*

Keith Cameron at Lipton University's Vogel School of Management was co-chair of the university's sustainability task force, along with the university vice-president of business development. The task force was started by the university president in 2007. The task force represented a cross-section of university interests, including university executive staff, faculty and students. Overall, the task force "is charged with developing recommendations to enhance [the university's] academic initiatives in the areas of environmental stewardship and climate change, as well as examining and recommending improvements in relevant university policies" (University newsletter, 2007, p. 1, retrieved 2/17/09). Academic and administrative recommendations were made concerning energy

conservation, resource and waste management, sustainability awareness, research

programs, curriculum and other areas. Dr. Cameron appreciates being part of the

university-wide initiative for the visibility he can provide for the business school:

"There's a good bit of business orientation on our sustainability task force…I think this is

one of the few places, few universities, in which at least that I know of…and I actually

asked one of my students to do a search…where the business school is playing some kind

of role, just any kind of role. So that actually has turned into now one of my research

topics, which is what role do business schools play in the greening of universities

overall."

Advisory boards tended to be more formal arrangements meeting at regular

intervals to discuss program strategy based on real-world workplace needs. In the case of

sustainability at the Jeffrey School of Business, Jason Dougherty specified that involved

"folks from the non-profit industry, some government people, just to inform the

content…and…keep us abreast of…what challenges are they facing in the business

world, so that we can make sure to address those in…the classroom." Planners relied on

advisory board members' practical knowledge to direct curriculum. Also according to

Mr. Dougherty, "the other thing that that did for us, those relationships helped us bridge

the period between limited to no faculty resources to the point where we are now, where

we have an abundance of them… So we were just kind of leveraging their expertise…"

Mr. Mason Hicks, a long-time advisory board member and adjunct instructor at the

Jeffrey School of Business confirms this from his perspective: "Well, as an advisory

board member, you know, mostly what my role is along with my other board members

was to push the school and say, 'Hey you need to do research around this,' or 'Why

haven't you guys studied this,' or 'When you're developing leaders with an MBA you need to do this.' So we did a lot of prodding and pushing and identification of what we needed in practice so the research and the theory had to be behind it." Therefore, an external advisory board played a critical part in the early development of the Jeffrey School of Business' degree program.

For business schools like the Nielson School of Management at Modelle University and the Gillium School of Management, advisory boards, task forces and committees were central to the way their programs were constructed. As noted before, both schools have dedicated MBA programs tying together the three legs of sustainability, economic, ecological and social. This type of integrated programming calls for very cooperative and unsiloed planning that erases departmental barriers and encourages a greater level of openness and transparency among stakeholders. Danielle Sheldon sought outside intervention through their extensive advisory board, while Eric Jain practiced this openness also through their advisory board and a planning committee.

From the time the sustainability management at Modelle University was conceptualized, the idea was well-received by their corporate constituents, potential applicants, alumni and their advisory board says Dr. Jain: "All [of the] data indicated that such a program would be a good choice." Soon after, Dr. Jain corralled a graduate committee group to hash out the blueprint for their sustainability-based MBA. A committee of 12 faculty (soon culled down to a subcommittee of four) kicked off the design process. "It became very clear that if you want to do this, we have to do this very differently, and our design approach has to be very different…we spent most of the time trying to develop a shared understanding of what sustainability is because each of us

came to it from a very, very different angle." Having so much upfront conversation and support proved to be a boon for Dr. Jain, who reflected proudly that the planning process was not a challenge. "I had a dream team because we used to call ourselves a dream team." Early cooperation and buy-in in the form of stakeholder support, advisory boards and committees helped clear a curricular path for sustainability.

The same was true for Danielle Sheldon, chief planner for the Gillium School of Management. As the Gillium School of Management's one and only offering was its sustainability MBA program, much of its leadership energy was put into continually strengthening its ties to its stakeholders to produce the best possible sustainability management education for students. Dr. Sheldon described a very close relationship with their advisory board, upon whose input they used to help model the program:

> *I think our founder had that vision already in the late 80s and early 90s about an educational model. If you look on our website and read the educational philosophy that's basically based on his dissertation work and his vision of an educational model that's based in pragmatism and about doing good in the world…he very much saw the possibility of a business school making a difference in the world and training business leaders to understand systems thinking and social environmental issues from a holistic point-of-view…they were talking to a lot of folks in [the city] and developing the board and the advisory board and so they drew on a lot of expertise…and a lot of these people shared their vision for what a school could do and I think that's a key part about not only testing the market and doing the focus groups, and making sure there was actually a market*

out there for this kind of innovative business school, but also tapping into

business leaders in the area and beyond for their support.

To build a substantial and meaningful sustainability program in management education, planners depended on their internal motivation and instincts to guide them toward stakeholders who could help support their vision. Building a coalition, or becoming part of one, provided the planner with more solid footing. Advisory Boards, Task Forces and Committees were stepping stones toward an array of possibilities.

Summary

Advisory boards, task forces and committees were efficient ways for business school planners to obtain backing and buy-in for a sustainable agenda. They were used to fulfill special functions otherwise not covered by regular faculty or staff or rallied attention on matters that might otherwise become marginalized in or by the business school system. These subgroups were powerful in their ability to actualize sustainability program elements at the university or business school. What was also quite remarkable about these groups was the willingness of the members to participate in creating alternative futures for a system in which they truly believed and in which they were truly vested. Their desire was not to tear down what is exists, but to help it evolve into something even greater, something even more relevant that addressed the unsettling fluctuations in the human condition. This called for them to share power, interests and an ethical commitment on a large and periodic level, enough to make the small steps needed to raise sustainability as an issue for consideration. Therefore, the impact of advisory boards, task forces and committees on the planning process cannot be underestimated for their practical application to program conceptualization, construction, delivery and

evaluation; for the momentum they provided toward accelerated critical thinking about social environmental issues; and for demonstrating the ability to break the frame of linear and siloed behavior allowing for more integrated and holistic ways of working together.

Planning Table 1: "Friendly Persuasion" – Section Summary

Sustainability planners were managers of what amounted to a very democratic planning process devised to bring about transformative thinking and actions inside and outside of the business school. Instinctively, planners realized that one person cannot operate as a solo driver. Their progress and success depended on several stakeholder groups who created community support around mutual aims. Environmental Associations, Schools of Environment, Advisory Boards, Task Forces, and Committees were just a few of the groups that tilted the balance in sustainability's favor. What they did was bring a sense of urgency to the attention of a worldwide phenomenon that demands an honest accounting as well as creative and collective solutions. Business school sustainability planners wanted to do their part to address sustainability in an academic light that becomes part of the solution-building efforts by other professional sectors. Bringing business schools to the table highlighted a new role for them as an initiator of solutions, not a perpetuator of problems.

Therefore, networking became a vital aspect of the sustainability planner's agenda by harnessing the force of a coalition that brought multiple voices and resources to bear on increasing sustainability's impact. Once sustainability planners began to build this planning table, they had to be ever vigilant about the conversations that were occurring at and around the planning table so they were aware who has the majority voice in crafting planning decisions and how those decisions will affect the intended beneficiaries of

sustainability. This does not mean that it is the goal of the business school to play the role of "Big Brother," but that it is their responsibility to ensure that sustainability is being represented as a democratic concept and not pigeon-holed to serve a narrow ideological purpose or siloed interest, i.e., their own, especially given the power they wield within universities. Sustainability requires broad-minded thinking that honors the social, ecological, and economic conditions of global diversity. Hopefully, all can be adequately recognized at the planning table, elevating the dialogue about the strategic practical ramifications for achieving a sustainable today and tomorrow.

Planning Table Two: "On Firm Ground"

The significance of planning table two was actually characterized by the tenacity of its members in driving sustainability planners to take action on behalf of their own interests or shared interests with the planner in favor of enacting a concrete sustainability implementation plan at the business school. Stakeholders at this table, like the planner, were avowed supporters of sustainability and sought to identify people within the business school who could help propel sustainability's visibility as an academic discipline. In this situation, planners found themselves "On Firm Ground" because of stakeholders who almost demanded that some sort of action be taken to accelerate the introduction of sustainability as a visible MBA concept.

At this table, interests were highly consensual and power was asymmetrical. Like the relationships at planning table one, stakeholders at planning table two were committed to the ends, and even more so than planning table one, have a tighter agreement on the means to get there. As for power, stakeholders at planning table two were able to endow planners with additional leverage that may not be inherent in their

everyday professional capacity. These stakeholders provided planners with an enhanced arsenal that gave them a greater possibility of launching and promoting sustainability initiatives. Planners advantageous enough to have a seat at this table were either backed by one or more of these groups or pursuing the support of others. When these leverages were presented to them, planners intuitively seized the opportunity to use them in order to create and operate from their own unique level of power, knowing that for sustainability to appear serious and relevant they needed access to certain assets that would bolster its legitimacy.

Based on these relationships, negotiations were also consultative as people looked to one another for action plans and resolutions to address the educational gap in sustainability. The negotiations here were primarily substantive; stakeholders often worked with planners to fulfill a similar vision around educational outcomes. This table focused primarily on getting down to business, so they spent less time haggling over existential, scientific or ideological premises. This was about actualizing objectives and addressing learner needs.

Therefore, if any table embodied ethical commitment to learners it was planning table two. Students were the one number one priority, as MBA students themselves pushed the business school to inject a sustainable slant into the curriculum. From the data, the major goal seemed to be to communicate to students (business or otherwise) that there is an alternative to traditional management education and that they matter in cultivating advanced management practice wherever they work. Not far behind, however, was a secondary commitment, which was reputation-building for each school. Stakeholders at planning table two took a strategic stand on sustainability, viewing it as a

feature or product pertinent for their MBA portfolio and not as a castoff or flimsy experiment. Sustainability was considered serious business. So the school's interests as an enterprise mattered. Overall, planning table two's dual commitment then was to cater to the differentiating needs of students, while acknowledging that sustainability was an innovative and relevant way to repackage the business school.

Research showed that there were certain power leverages particular to business school planners that so far, were the most effective for advancing their sustainability agenda. These included student demand; content managers; administrative advocacy; and institutes, centers and donors. Applied either as a solo power source or as a combination, these stakeholders (shown in Figure 6) conveyed sustainability's growth and importance when the simple credibility of the planner was not enough. They represented an extra layer of authority recognized and generally respected by other business school actors that said, "We're willing to support the planner by going to the mat on this." The number, strength and longevity of these stakeholders helped determine how far and how fast sustainability progressed within the business school. Therefore, based on the access they had to them, each planner's strategic approach was unique. It was up to the planner to scan the environment and decide how to advantageously apply the tools at their disposal.

Student Demand

Student demand for sustainability was actually revealed early on in the study. It turns out that students were responsible for providing a great deal of the impetus for planners enacting a sustainability campaign within the business school. The majority of the sustainability planners in this study could attribute their course or program start to
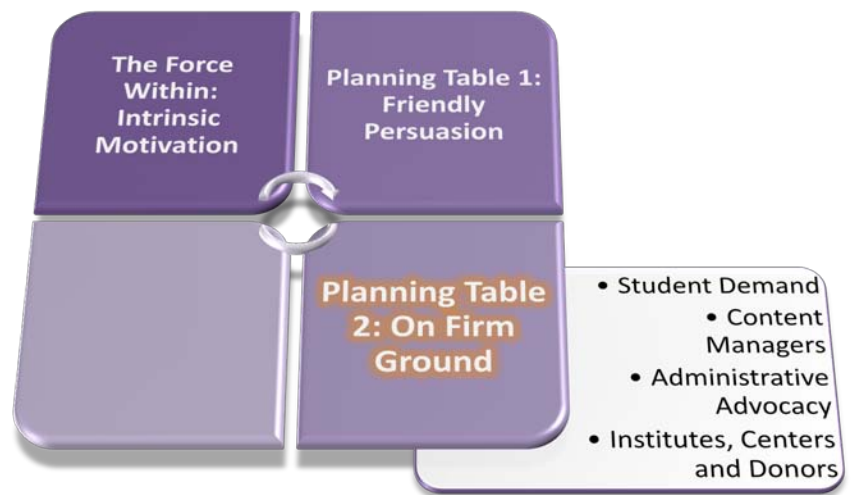
Figure 6. Planning Table 2 – "On Firm Ground"

the prompting of MBA students wanting to cultivate their interest in business, society and

the environment. Out of the 12 planners interviewed from nine schools, respondents

from seven of the schools related a direct experience with students pushing sustainability

as a program topic. In some cases, students had access to both the environmental and the

business school. Seeing an opportunity to intersect the two disciplines, students often

ended up cajoling certain business school professors into building sustainability concepts

into their courses. This was a revelation to the study because first, one forgets or negates

the pull students have on affecting changes in the academic system. If thinking of a

traditional teacher-student relationship, one tends to see power moving only in one

direction from teacher to student. Professors set the agenda and the criteria by which

students learn. It seems rare for students to have the chance to negotiate curriculum

development beyond the ubiquitous end of the semester evaluation form. Second, in

addition to making the request for a specific topic, asking professors to consider one as interdisciplinary as sustainability speaks either of an amazing conviction on the part of students, or of just an exuberant naiveté. Regardless, the scales have tipped enough for them to have confidently lobbied for an alternative perspective of management education.

Students were adept at formally organizing into student groups that act as liaisons between planners and students funneling ideas for sustainability and sustainability activities so that planners can reach a broader base of students. Net Impact, described at planning table one, was an example of this dynamic. It has sprung up in several universities assuming a leadership role in representing student interest in sustainability-related issues. Student groups also included professional clubs in marketing, finance, accounting, strategy, etc. focused on supplementing disciplinary studies.

Sustainability planners interviewed welcomed the intervention of students, who lent not only another layer of insight at the planning table, but more importantly, represented a key group of business schools' clientele who had the power to sway a business school's public image. Where the rational arguments of planners might soon fall on deaf ears, those of students got more airtime. Small wonder then that sustainability planners and students often worked together to affect change. Most planners were encouraged to continue or expand their interest and offerings in sustainability at the behest of students impressed by sustainability's core tenets and their relation to business. Peter Markham describes this phenomenon at the Roget School of Business:

> *I think it's true of most places now, some students are very interested and they are*
>
> *pushing…and usually it's a smaller, but vocal group of students who are very*

interested in sustainability and are kind of pushing for [it]…we have a very

involved Net Impact group here…And then some of them aren't. I mean some of

them are just, you know, interested in the topic. Some come at it from an energy

side; some come at it from a more sustainability side. But yes, so there's – then

there's always been, I think, that kind of student interest there. And kind of,

"When is [the school] going to do more?"

The most astonishing stories of students as leverage for sustainability were the ones where they were involved in formally petitioning faculty and administrators for a more permanent sustainability presence in the MBA curriculum. As the green movement began to gain ground, sustainability and other related topics became popular issues to consider from a business angle. Some student groups were quite vocal about what they wanted as part of their education. This was illustrated best by activities at the Randall School of Business and the Jeffrey School of Business, which both exhibited a strong student interest in inviting sustainability into the classroom. At Randall, students were pivotal in swaying the business school administration to support a sustainability curriculum. Mr. Rollins, who was teaching a sustainability class at the university's environmental institute, had some business school students very interested in his course and appealed to have him teach it at the business school. He explained the story:

In 1995, I had some business students take the class and they thought that as

business students, this would be a really important class for other business

students to take. So they came back and said to the dean, "This is a class we

should be offering in the business school." And the dean said, you know,

"Convince me." So [the students] surveyed the student body, undergraduate and

graduate, and 70% + of the students said they would be interested in a

class…[They]…had an overwhelming response of support for offering class in

this area. They then talked to recruiters that were coming through campus,

through the business school, and asked them if this was an area that they were

interested in at all and got a very positive response from recruiters. So between

the students and the recruiters, the business school invited me over in 1996 and

said, you know, if you want to shape this class for the business school, we would

like you to come over and do that.

Students at Jeffrey took a slightly different, but no less aggressive, tack. As mentioned before, early in its inception, the school had already developed a loyal following among a group of early converts to sustainability. As sustainability's profile grew, so did student desire for more information on the topic, to the point where students took a keen interest in expanding the elective portfolio. Mr. Dougherty painted a picture of the depth of student participation in encouraging this turn of events:

I mean, the real way that [course creation] has kind of evolved, where more and

more professors have offered courses in this area is, in large part, student driven.

So what happens is, we've created this program and we've attracted these

students. And they realize that there is a wealth of course offerings available to

them, but they always want more…an example would be, they said there's nothing

offered in finance that is talking about sustainability strictly through a finance

lens. And so, one of our students identified one of our faculty members in the

Finance Department who had an interest in this area, and they started

communicating. So the professor said, you know, "Look, if you can help me

design it, if you can help me get something off the ground and you can kind of

market it and guarantee me that you can get 20, 30 students in the classroom for

it, I'll do it." And so that's awesome the way that this, that it happens. It's a

student-initiated interest. Find the faculty member who is receptive, they develop

it, then they…obviously, the professor refines it and it takes off from there.

As much as business schools help shape students and their viewpoints about

business' influence on the world, students, more than ever, were likely to come to the

business school with their own knowledge and expectations of business that demanded to

be addressed and supplemented by management education. Sustainability added one

more layer of analysis to their studies leading them to ponder more conscientious ways of

conducting business. Exposed to examples of greater consequences of business' affect

on society, they had a larger awareness of the planet's interconnected nature and seemed

willing to factor this revelation into their professional framework. Sustainability planners

surmised this about students and capitalized on it as a way to emphasize the importance

of student's changing perspectives.

Joel Miller was very definitive about students as a pivotal for sustainability.

Students were not passive observers and made sure they were not seen as such. Part of

the sustainability planner's role is to respect their position and foster an appropriate

planning relationship according to Dr. Miller:

I'd say the great thing about the students in my mind is you'll get more reaction

from students' demands than anything else basically. So you talk about how to be

influential with faculty and stuff like that, the most influential thing you can do is

work with your students and work with your alumni base, they will force the

change. As faculty members, you have absolutely no power really. I mean

there's some faculty who have a little bit more power than others, and even that is

somewhat limited because they've got to fight with other faculty members that are

the same as themselves, you know, at the same kind of level. Students, on the

other hand, they'll tell you what they like, what they don't like, what they think is

relevant or not – and the trick is to know what to listen to…and what not to listen

to. Not everything that students say is perfect. But…it's an ear to the ground to

have. The students give you a sense of what they think is missing from the

curriculum, what they think is missing from classes. I use them extensively for

that purpose…when I've got a battle I've got to fight, I'll look to them. I'll

consider, "How do I get the students involved here? How can I get them involved

in a positive way?

One lone voice reminds us, however, that student demand could waver from year

to year, affecting the popularity and success of a planner's program agenda. Student

demand could be a fickle mistress and though it might not be able to derail the growing

recognition of sustainability in general, it could deter sustainability's progress if business

students end up dismissing its full potential. Mason Hicks from the Jeffrey School of

Business had lately noticed a trend in this direction:

The strength of [the student voice] truly is, Monica, dependent on the strength of

the individuals. For whatever it's worth, I don't know, if I had all the time in the

world, I would check into this because I have made an observation. To me, in the

early years of this, of…sustainability development, the students were a lot more

active, they were a lot more vocal, they were a lot more passionate and they were

interested in everything. Now, and I think it's because it's kind of more mainstream, or there's some reason the energy level isn't as high, but now if you talk [to] someone who wants to work on sustainability issues, pretty much it's still a profit-crazed, revenue-driven financial guy who just wants to study energy markets. And I'm not saying that's bad or good, but I mean it really is focused more on energy versus the entire realm of sustainability.

Although students remain active and engaged at the school, over the past few years, Mr. Hicks witnessed a subtle shift; whether it signals a regression in sustainability development, only time will tell. His comment underscores that opinions, commitment levels and attentions can easily swing another way over years or over a semester. Sustainability's existence at these schools was vulnerable to changing social and political climates. It was clearly not out of the experimental stage yet. However, as long as students continued to champion it, they provided planners with a way to keep sustainability in the game.

Summary

In the scenario of sustainability planning, student demands have historically helped give sustainability planners an edge in constructing a sustainable presence in the business school. Sustainability is a more visible and vocalized concern among the general public; business students as consumers, parents, and citizens have become just as attuned to the changes of societal and environmental stability from a non-business perspective. When students realize they become part of the corporate brigade partly responsible for answering to the public, their personal ethics and professional interests, like that of sustainability planners, propelled them to become active seekers of both the

information and people necessary to helping them stay aware of a macro, as well as

micro, view of business. Thus, student demand, both sincere and disingenuous, got a lot

of attention from the sustainability planner. If student demand starts morphing into more

of the latter, then planners are offered the unenviable options of either cultivating a select

group of sustainability purists; letting student demand narrow sustainability's inclusivity;

or going against student sentiment altogether, an unfortunate dent in a planner's power

base. So far, however, planners' faith in students remains, prompting one to feel

confident about student attitudes' ongoing function as a strategic lever for producing a

substantial and meaningful identity for sustainability.

Content Managers

Two types of planning patterns were exhibited at planning table two. One was

that of a primary or lead planner, usually a tenured faculty member or an influential

administrator, who acted as the "frontman" so to speak, taking a very visible role as

spokesperson for sustainability by meeting with various constituents to extol the business

school contribution to sustainability and vice versa. They were responsible for educating

and drawing people to the sustainable cause. On the other hand, there was a subset of

sustainability planners in the business school community who had a special interest in

using their sustainability insight to preserve the premise of sustainability through course

creation and maintenance. In addition to program conceptualization, they took primary

responsibility for curriculum development and also had a keen concern for the

understanding of and reaction to sustainability in the classroom. The particular group of

planners in this study is termed, "Content Managers." Their passion lay in crafting a

sustainability message based on their special area of knowledge, the interests of their

students and developing information and knowledge in the field. As the secondary

planners in this relationship, they made sure to supply the substance, which would be the

curricular foundation, to support and strengthen the primary planner's claims. They were

the "go to" persons who satisfied the overall sustainability vision. Although content

managers did participate in the strategic development of general sustainability outreach

and resource-building, they were much more ardent about shaping curriculum. Whereas

primary sustainability planners tended to have wide-ranging knowledge of the business

school system and its entanglements, content managers usually confined their role to the

regular maintenance and improvement of program subject matter.

Content managers generally acknowledged that they were not fully aware of all

the brokering that went into planning sustainability's expansion throughout the business

school. This was due to either the content manager's outsider role relative to the business

school where he or she had been asked to design or teach based on their professional

expertise in sustainability, or as a business school insider, where they had been appointed

by the primary planner to take on the specific task of curriculum development. Insiders

and outsiders were not necessarily discouraged by their secondary planning status. Four

out of the five content managers in this study found it liberating to be allowed to focus on

the intricacies of curriculum building, unhampered by the larger socio-political issues in

the school. They relished their role as content managers, almost relieved by not having

the responsibility to haggle over business ideologies. However, one large difference that

emerged between these four and the fifth person interviewed was that unlike the others,

he did not have direct access to a primary planning anchor in the form of a reliable

tenured faculty or prominent administrator to defend or foster his curriculum or his

accepted status as an outsider as he went through the curriculum approval process. He was somewhat of an island cutoff from any sustained and visible effort within the business school to create conscious programming. His school had planners who worked very independently from each other. The other four content managers, in contrast, had very close, one-on-one partnerships with one identified and very committed lead planner in the form of a faculty person or administrator. Since this primary planner was able to build a bridge that closed the gap between administrative negotiations and curriculum design, this created a more secure curriculum planning environment for these four content managers, as well as a more syncopated relationship with their primaries.

Content managers outside of the business school system were a valuable asset because they were not tethered to the interdisciplinary restrictions that can hinder faculty thinking. Outsiders strived to bring their real-world experience to the business school setting to balance students' theoretically-based studies. Outsider leverage was valuable in its ability to supplement business management education by bringing in leaders from different societal sectors for the purpose of exposing students to a new group of business constituents. But content manager outsiders acknowledge that they are only allowed in so far when it comes to reshaping business school culture; a kind of protectionism takes over that tempers direct outsider influence in academic affairs. Both outsiders and the business school seemed to be well aware of this silent agreement preserving the distance between them. Nevertheless, outsiders were respected by those in primary sustainability planning roles for their ability to act as a necessary authority for a topic bereft of its own advocates and resources. Therefore, though outsiders loitered on the business school periphery, they served a critical function in their part as content managers.

For instance, Jeremy Rollins from the Willoway University's Randall School of Business fell into the outsider category. By profession, Mr. Rollins was an attorney who worked for a state environmental agency. He was also a Senior Lecturer who started teaching classes for the university's environmental institute after finding that the institute did not offer any courses in sustainability. Eager to increase his own experience and knowledge of sustainability, Mr. Rollins offered to create and teach sustainability courses though the school could not pay him. Pretty soon, his work caught the attention of Robert Howard at the business school and he began to work with Dr. Howard to cross list his sustainability courses between the environmental institute and the school of business. Mr. Rollins and Dr. Howard then formed a working partnership to increase sustainability's visibility at the business school. Since Dr. Howard has been at the business school for 38 years as a tenured professor, he had all of the connections to push for sustainability. This enabled Mr. Rollins to focus his energy elsewhere:

So the behind the scenes stuff, who did Robert talk to, what did he say, how did the skids get greased so that when we got to the committee meeting people's questions were answered? He's an expert at that kind of stuff. And that's the benefit of having a mentor within the system. He's been here [38] years, he knows everyone in the school, and…people think highly of Robert…He's working the social networks to make sure that questions that people have get answered, concerns that people have are addressed and those kinds of things. We couldn't do it without having Robert here. So Robert's been very good. Whenever we get to sit down with somebody, I was there. And I mean I have a very unique role because I'm not permanent faculty. And things don't happen at the business

school that permanent faculty don't do. I mean, I just…maybe there's a program

I'm not aware of, but it's just outside sort of the box that [a] business school

would exist in. I've been very fortunate to have had the support from Robert that

I've had, to have the support from the school overall; not only the current dean,

but the previous dean. So part of it, you know, is certainly developing classes that

students think highly of. Part of it is I think understanding that you're an outsider

in this world and as long as you don't really upset anybody too much, you don't

push too hard, then you're ok.

Mason Hicks, the corporate executive who serves as an advisory board member for the Jeffrey School of Business at Catalpa University, found himself in a similar position to Mr. Rollins. Mr. Hicks's corporate job provided him with special knowledge of human rights issues abroad and his proficiency was well recognized and well practiced in this field. Given this, he was an invited adjunct instructor teaching social sustainability for the business school and was a longtime member of the school's advisory board. However, although his leadership position on the advisory board and his corporate experience afforded him access to key considerations and ideas about the possible trajectory of sustainability at the business school, final decisions were ultimately made by the dean and business school faculty. Mr. Hicks, like Mr. Rollins, was well aware of the limitations placed on him by being an unofficial faculty member despite his qualifications and passion for human rights sustainability. As an adjunct, he was awarded only so much power as he explains:

Personally, I had a big role in helping design at least what was needed to

understand the social dimension of sustainability because frankly, the

environmental stuff, it's hard to do, but it's easy to figure it out. It's all

technology. Environmental is mostly climate change and it's a combination of

behavior and politics that's what makes it so damn difficult. But from the social

side they really didn't have anything. So I had a lot of input into the social side,

and of course, [for] human rights, I designed the course completely. But I don't

think to be perfectly honest, I think it was all personality, just my own private

passion and the fact that people [who] thought my way were more welcoming. I

think that if I was involved in another aspect they would have looked at me like

who... are you, you're just a guy in business and worse than that, you work for

that big, bad [company]....So I mean a lot of [the faculty], the first question is,

"Well where's his research?" [when] it's more...like a practical experience, and

the other thing is, "Well where's his Ph.D.?" Well I don't have one.

Content managers inside the business school are labeled as such because they are

faculty members already part of the business school culture. Unlike outsiders, insiders

were accepted by other faculty members as a "legitimate" part of academia – they are

considered peers. This made it easier for them to carry out sustainability's assigned

mandate, even to the level of being able to rally other faculty members to consider

sustainability's viability for their own departmental portfolio. Like content manager

outsiders, however, their role in sustainability planning tended to be removed from the

political deal-making needed to get sustainability moving as part of a larger mission.

They relied knowingly or unknowingly on a more senior profile person to convince

administrators and other stakeholders of sustainability's worthiness as a growing

academic discipline. Higher-level bargaining was usually left to the lead inside planner.

The main duty of an insider content manager was to carry-out any curriculum development green-lighted by senior staff.

Robin Taylor and Eric Jain were two of the three content manager insiders interviewed. Dr. Taylor worked for the Youngman School of Business at Vista View University where she was an Associate Professor of Entrepreneurship. Dr. Taylor worked with Samuel Atwater, the lead sustainability planner and mainstay of the sustainability program at Youngman since it started in earnest in 1998. Dr. Taylor maintained a positive outlook on sustainability planning at Youngman, describing her experience as highly rewarding and ahead of the curve compared to other schools:

> *It seems like it's something different about being up here. I'm assuming that other schools are one teacher trying to get this wider area started. And here, you're at a school [where] it's something we are hiring for, it's understood, it's safe, and we're just trying to stay on the cutting edge, do the next thing, keep our leading – move it from elective to custom core…just continue to lead out. [So] you're questions seem to be for those people. "What's your struggle?" I don't have a struggle. I have a research budget, new faculty we can hire, a huge groundswell of student interest, so when you meet people, it seems like we are on the other end.*

Dr. Jain was the Program Director of the sustainability MBA program at Nielson School of Management at Modelle University. As a content manager insider, he had a very clear sense of the boundaries of his position. Dr. Jain was brought on as the lead designer and main administrator for the business school's new sustainability MBA by his dean. Dr. Jain took his program duties seriously creating a uniquely structured program

that honors sustainability's interdisciplinary philosophy. Yet he was also careful to keep

from overextending himself if it threatened to compromise the integrity of his work. He

demonstrated a great deal of control and responsibility over defining his domain:

> *Structurally, hierarchically I report to the Director of Graduate Programs, but I*
>
> *also have a matrix responsibility – I also directly report to the dean because I*
>
> *have a separate budget for the program.…We wanted that full life cycle*
>
> *management here so that we can ensure that the program quality be just the level*
>
> *we want to reach to build a world-class program, and you can't be a world-class*
>
> *program if you do not manage every single activity. So we believe in unitary*
>
> *responsibility, or at least, I believe in unitary responsibility. So if I'm going to be*
>
> *held accountable then I want to ensure that everything that I need to be done is in*
>
> *my control.…When the dean asked me I said I'm not going to be the graduate*
>
> *programs director [of both MBA programs], no way. But I know this program*
>
> *very well because I designed it. So I can be a program director for this program.*
>
> *I'll do it differently, but don't expect me to manage any other program. So he*
>
> *said "That's ok."*

Through their work in curriculum development, content managers found their

place in sustainability planning by becoming a direct line of contact with students in the

classroom. They had a natural ear to the ground regarding either the misgivings or

conviction students enunciated about sustainability and its relevance to the classroom,

their work, and the future of business. Content managers were privy to such student

musings, showcasing the progress sustainability has made among students, yet also the

distance it still has to travel to become universally accepted as part of the business school

culture and philosophy. Conscious or unconscious, part of the content managers' job then was gauging student understanding and receptivity to the dimension and scale sustainability added to business. For ultimately, these same learners must emulate the sustainability planner, eventually building their own planning tables in order to increase sustainability's leverage.

Lead sustainability planners turned to content managers to help stabilize sustainability implementation. Content managers put into practice the theories and concepts discussed at the planning table. They were responsible for translating curricular ideas into sustainable solutions. No matter what school they were from, content managers used this thinking as the basis for much of their curriculum planning. Their job was to impart to students a sense of responsibility in finding creative and alternative ways to solve real business concerns as business leaders become part of a new industrial age.

Summary

Content managers were a group of curriculum developers dedicated primarily to manifesting sustainability's conceptualized potential. At times, their vision might be rather single-minded, blocking out more abstract aspects of sustainability planning that they felt were beyond their purview or even interest. Nevertheless, their laser-like energy and passion for curriculum planning was undisputed as they strove to take firm and full ownership of the task. They knew that this was the part of sustainability planning that demanded that planning table members put their money where their mouth lies. They were well aware that at some point, deliberation had to come to fruition in the form of curriculum that students could respect and use. Content managers had to be in tune with the planning table's most vested clients, the students, for they are the ones who will have

to convince more aggressive skeptics of sustainability's fertility as a business strategy. It is not likely the business school sustainability planning table could have survived without content managers, as ultimately, they were responsible for translating the language of sustainability into a language business will understand.

Administrative Advocacy

Business school administrators played a decidedly uncertain role in sustainability planning. Their participation was very dependent on their knowledge and opinion of sustainability as a legitimate source of scholarship for the business school. Stories were mixed as to how administrators replied to planners regarding resource assistance to either help fund or teach sustainability courses. Some were in sync with the sustainability philosophy and goals of the planners, while to others sustainability was an anathema, or at the very least, a side venture of whose credibility they were unconvinced. In this study, the story of administrators will be examined from both vantage points to showcase the teeter-totter approach sustainability planners faced with this group. In this section, administrators are examined as advocates, instrumental in providing a space for sustainability in the business school.

The most typical administrator sustainability planners first encountered when seeking support were business school deans. Business school deans make many of the decisions regarding allocation of funds or time to faculty members for additional course loads. Dr. Samuel Atwater at the Youngman School of Business felt that sustainability planners who have this asset can consider themselves fortunate: "What you need, it's so overused, but it's true, you need a champion for [sustainability]…your dean has to support it. Your dean has to embody it in some way…. If it's in words only and the dean

is diverting money to some other area, spending it in that area, then that's what's important. The words don't mean much. It's how you spend your money." Other administrators included special subgroups within the dean's office responsible for sanctioning the curriculum and curriculum resources. Finally, administrators beyond the business school at the university level, usually from the president's office, had input if a dean needed to assign resources outside his or her jurisdiction. Most of the administrators advocating for sustainability in this study were business school deans who actually often initiated sustainability by outright requesting or encouraging the sustainability planner to design a sustainability program. Three of the four deans in this category actuated a sustainability agenda for their business schools, while the fourth supported the planner's desire to install sustainability courses. Deans that embraced sustainability seemed to be connecting to external feedback from environmentalists and companies who were desirous of academic help from educators interested in the field. Deans with a penchant towards sustainability and who had access to this insight were trying to figure out ways to offer progressive contributions through their business schools, as Harold Wright from the Peterson School of Business at Aqualaire University detailed:

> *My business school dean at the time was actually a member of the National Wildlife Federation and came to me and he just read about it and said, "Look what they're doing." He said, "Wouldn't you like to do this?" So I said, "Well sure, I'd love to do something like this and give it a try." So he gave me some time off over the summer to develop a course… The way it works [here] is you can pretty – with the dean's office approval, they're not going to fund a course, they're not going to say, "Go ahead, teach a course" unless they want to give you*

the time to teach it and obviously, I have a teaching load, and if they want me to

teach something, they're going to tell me. But as far as new course development,

basically if the dean's office agrees to the course, you pretty much have full right

to go ahead and offer it.

In the case of the Roget School of Business at Chester University, the dean took a similar leadership role by actively subscribing to a sustainability proposal already on the table and pushing for it to be put in motion. Being a new dean, he wanted to work on a sustainability initiative after hearing corporate executives express interest in getting a handle on environmental issues. Peter Markham worked with the dean to realize sustainability's potential:

Here, I think it's going to happen because there's such strong support from the

dean and that goes a long way...So as you probably know...[at] universities,

faculty are not the employees of the dean. Yeah so...this is true in every

department in a university, and so...I mean...the dean doesn't always get what the

dean wants. But I think – our dean is new. This is important to him. He'll make

it happen.

Some administrators saw sustainability both as an ethical interest and a strategic maneuver, ethical because sustainability allows business to take a larger responsibility for its actions, and strategic because sustainability was also viewed as a way of re-marketing the MBA image at their school. Sustainability re-aligns the MBA as in-tune with a changing environment. Sustainability was not a random addition, however. For most planners and administrative advocates, sustainability meshed with the culture of the school or university and was supported as a growing emprise.

The most dramatic examples of administrative advocacy for business school sustainability were demonstrated by the two schools with dedicated programs to sustainability as a foundational management concept. The Gillium School of Management's administrative commitment to promoting sustainable business practices as a unique start-up model has already been well documented in the "Intrinsic Motivation" and "Friendly Persuasion" sections of this paper, so it will not be reiterated here. However, the Nielson School of Management's administrative backing is worth highlighting because it is a traditional business school with a new dean who decided to include a daytime MBA program predicated on sustainability and distinct from the school's traditional evening MBA program soon after his arrival. He showed no hesitation in using sustainability to boost visibility and enrollment with other school and university administrators aggressively seconding his plan. Eric Jain explained:

> *I think in the conversations between him and the previous graduate programs director, who is no longer with us, the conversation was, to use my Dean-istan, he was looking for a blue ocean strategy. He's a big fan of the "blue ocean, red ocean" concept. He loved the blue ocean because that is where no competition happens – it's a vacant niche. So the dean said, "Why don't we try sustainability as an idea?...As the successes of that program... became apparent then the [university] administration blessed our sustainability. The Pope had talked about sustainability at that time, Al Gore's movie was becoming famous, his book had been out for a while, and our own [university] president was trying to lead and show that he was doing it very differently. All those created a perfect storm. So the administration immediately fell behind it. We had a couple of senior*

administrators who had come from the EPA or from industry, who had [a]

chemical engineering background, etc. They were completely behind it…we

needed the budget from them approved. So as a new program, we got the budget

approved by them.

As noted previously, the speed, longevity and depth of sustainability within the

business school will depend on the prolonged ability of sustainability planners to work

with the leverages at each planning table (in this case administrative advocates) to uphold

their mutual ethical commitment to integrating sustainability into the MBA portfolio.

The capricious nature of people, their positions and how they use the power of their

position could easily cause a loss of focus. This is not to say that there might not be other

sources of support available to nourish sustainability in the absence of key administrative

patronage, but as it happens, administrators turned out to have a lot of cache in helping to

quickly organize and stabilize a sustainability program. Their endorsement and

contribution of resources helped get a program off the ground. Thus, these examples

illustrate why keeping sustainability viable was contingent on a certain level of

administrator support.

Summary

Business school administrators, especially deans, were an important lynchpin for

sustainability planners; a much needed boost for what could be an uphill battle. Although

their power was relative, not absolute, administrative positions still wielded some clout in

the business school, probably due to their power over the purse-strings. For all intents

and purposes, administrators manage the fiscal health and public image of the business

school. Given that, a few decided to push the envelope on that role taking a chance on

sustainability as a strategic lever that redefines the business school's relevance to a new generation of leaders. Examples of administrative advocacy presented here demonstrated a cohesive and synchronistic relationship between planners and their administration. Although sheer effort on the part of the planner was admirable, enlisting the help of a group that could apply a different source of power accelerated and formalized the sustainability planning process. Observing administrative priorities around resource distribution and long-term mission helped determine upfront whether administrative power was to be a barrier or a boon. Understandably, as deans and other administrators rotated in and out of their roles, timing for an administrative intervention was not always optimal. Therefore, planners had to be prepared to look toward other assets in their arsenal that could be just as effective as, if not more than, administrative attention.

Institutes, Centers and Donors

Almost everyone interviewed in this study (specifically both of the intellectuals and all of the mavericks) was tied to a special institute or center that they were either planning to create to support sustainability development, or that had been funded or restructured to represent sustainability interests. Institutes and centers were described by participants as a place within the business school where certain assigned resources would support research, teaching and service in a specific area of study. Institutes and centers were actually a popular model for many subject areas within the business school and university. They were funded in various ways including through outreach programs and conferences; grants; professorships and endowments; or gift and donations.

The intent of institutes and centers was to nourish sustainability practice and theory, eventually transferring those working principles into the classroom. Some

schools regarded institutes and centers as a way to formalize sustainability as an

academic discipline, hoping more empirical evidence will help it to become a more

accepted and respected part of management education's erudite traditions. Some

institutes and centers were designed as a direct tie-in to curriculum, while others had no

curriculum agenda. And yet some planners focused on using institutes and centers to

bolster outreach efforts to corporations and businesses in the pursuit of educational

partnerships. Whatever the scope of their role, it became clear that institutes and centers

served as a useful tool for raising sustainability's profile at business schools.

Establishing institutes and centers required a fair bit of determination,

collaboration and timing. Institute and center-building without the allocation of direct

funding was a production requiring as much stakeholder buy-in as does creating

sustainability programming. The right people had to be contacted and convinced of the

efficacy of an institute or center, which means institute and center-building was pure

sweat equity; it reiterated the level of intrinsic motivation the sustainability planner had

to have depending upon how far they wished to align sustainability with the business

school. Institute and center-building was actually a long-term investment for the money

and time it takes to get launched and exert influence. "The typical center model is to get

a chunk of money somewhere, probably between like $5 and $10 million…used to

usually set-up a name professorship…that would allow us to hire a person…like a

professor that's worked in this area," according to Robert Howard of the Randall School

of Business at Willoway University. Schools that had institutes and centers that were not

funded by donors or endowments, or that were in the proposal phase, still saw institutes

and centers as stable and valid symbols of planners advancing progress in sustainability

development. Institutes and centers reflected the anticipated payoff and gravitas the

planner felt they might lend to sustainability's educational presence in the MBA program.

Thus, the approach to planning institutes and centers was an integral part of the total

vision for sustainability development.

This was the state in which Robert Howard and Jeremy Rollins at the Randall

School of Business found themselves, hoping that their efforts in creating a center would

be part of the result of a very long journey. Mr. Rollins explained the intricacies behind

getting the center finalized. Although a center could be a great advantage, the process of

getting it created illustrated the interplay of a number of planning table issues that

continue to reassert themselves as stakeholders figure out how to work through the

complexities of their relationships. As well, planners must manage the ups and downs of

administrative advocates that come and go, sometimes leaving things at a critical

juncture:

> *Yes, so let me phrase it on the positive side. [The environmental institute] chose a*
>
> *new head, let's say four years ago. And the person that they brought in [had]*
>
> *formally headed up a business school, so she was very business school savvy.*
>
> *And we had [had] very little relationship between the school of business and the*
>
> *[environmental institute] because business people had trashed the environment*
>
> *and did all the bad things. So we had no standing, we had no champions; we had*
>
> *no real support [at] the [environmental institute]. She came in and said these are*
>
> *critical bridges for us to build and just did a tremendous amount in building the*
>
> *bridges between the business school and the [environmental institute]…[She]*
>
> *started us on the road to developing what we originally were calling a joint center*

between the [environmental institute] and the school of business…She, unfortunately, ended up leaving a year ago and a lot of the momentum that we had built up toward trying to make some progress here – it's a provost issue. It's two completely different schools talking about doing something jointly, so yes we need our dean of our business school to be involved, we need the head of the [environmental institute] to be involved, but ultimately that is something that happens at a much higher level. As I said, the momentum has largely been lost. As we look toward the future, in the process of hiring a new head [at] the [environmental institute], I'm very hopeful that person would be interested in continuing to build the infrastructure, whether it becomes a center [or] some other infrastructural base for the kinds of things we're talking about, teaching about.

On the flipside of center-building, a few propitious respondents started with enough resources to give them the start-up capital to push sustainability as a priority project. Institutes and centers created with professorships, endowments and donations lent added influence to sustainability and significantly increased its leverage because donations and endowments provided a sense of urgency to developing sustainability education. Institutes supported by donors and endowments were still a long-term return on investment like non-endowed centers and institutes. However, significant money and resources obviously helped schools jumpstart the impact they can have on sustainability-building. In this study, there were stakeholders with such a passion for eco- and social justice, that they were willing to share that fervor with business schools and their students. It was no mistake, then, that the most forceful way to get their desires realized

was with large financial donations. This sort of backing had a velvet hammer effect, motivating administrators and faculty to rally quickly around honoring the donor's wishes with appropriate resources and outlets for disseminating sustainability's message. As Joel Miller recounted, the donor and namesake of his business school lit a fire under people when the school did not rank on the BGP Survey during the first few years of the survey's initiation:

> *I think from the first time to the second time or from the second time to the third time, [our school] wasn't in the top tier of programs recognized by the survey…[the donor] didn't like that. He thought that that was a real mistake. He thought that the issues were really relevant and that business managers needed to understand these issues and that top schools should be teaching them, and that the one with his name on it should be a leader in it. So he began to talk about making a donation to endow a center and endow a chair…which is what he did…[The chair]…is…held by a senior tenured full professor and then he gave [money] to establish the center.*

Three of the nine schools interviewed explicitly mentioned having been given donations and endowments for sustainability and quickly parlayed the money into creating an institute or center. Catalpa University's Jeffrey School of Business had a particularly interesting planning experience that, like the Randall School of Business, demonstrated the machinations of the planning table and once again, the complications of administrative advocacy in center and institute development. This time, however, unlike the Randall School of Business, the Jeffrey School of Business had the incentive and

leverage of money to regroup and restart planning efforts to reach a satisfactory

conclusion. Jason Dougherty recalled:

> *At the earliest point in time [the program] was initiated…[by] an assistant*
>
> *professor, here at the time…and he had relationships in both schools. And a lot*
>
> *of his research interests were, kind of, at the intersection of business and*
>
> *environment. So he just worked with the deans of both schools…and the three of*
>
> *them really got together and launched the concept and everyone was on the same*
>
> *page…And then, one thing that happened around that time was [a*
>
> *foundation]…made a gift to the institute, to the program, for our professorship,*
>
> *which was initially assigned to [one of the deans], but…almost as soon as he was*
>
> *appointed to that position he left. And [then another dean] went to [another*
>
> *school], so there was, kind of, an early stage…[the assistant professor] was really*
>
> *the driver early on. And then, when he left it was…there was a little bit of a*
>
> *vacuum for a while. And there was a lot of uncertainty as to, is this…is anything*
>
> *going to happen with this.…It was shortly after the institute was created. And the*
>
> *way that the money came in to support the institute, it's an endowment, but it's*
>
> *paid in installments. So the distributions from the endowment were virtually nil*
>
> *early on. So there wasn't a lot of financial resources to support the program and*
>
> *there was a vacant professorship. And so, there was just this period of….there*
>
> *was a lot of uncertainty.…And I think that would have been enough for a program*
>
> *at most schools to fall apart, except for the fact that we had this*
>
> *professorship…that was in place and needed to be filled. And we had a recent*
>
> *gift from [our donors] to create an institute around it. So there was the*

formation, a structure, and a support system that, it couldn't die, right? We had

donors to [answer to].

Despite the hang-ups and setbacks in establishing an institute and center, even under these precarious conditions money seemed to move the process along. Now with their reputation established over the course of 13 years, the institute has proved to be a reliable and necessary fixture for the continuance of their sustainability program. It also became a liaison among other campus institutes outside of business that are adapting facets of management, corporate or global sustainability as part of their strategic planning sphere.

Once a center was established, it became a funnel for additional information and resources going in and out of the center to keep sustainability activities top-of-mind, as well as expand the realm of research and teaching ideas at the school. With the steady stream of resources they can generate, centers and institutes influenced the way schools positioned sustainability, broadening its message and use among planning table stakeholders. Of course, the degree of influence a center or institute has in the business school depended upon how planners juxtaposition their interests relative to the stakeholders they served. A center or institute, often considered the infrastructure for sustainability activities, was meant to capture a lot of different needs, while trying to remain true to the planner's own vision of how a center or institute should function and whom it should ultimately reach.

As an example, the Youngman School of Business' sustainability center was first created in the 1980s as a think-tank for community development, focusing on economic development in its region. As environmental issues became more prominent, the center's

focus shifted during the late 1990s when its leaders decided to fold both interests under a

sustainability umbrella. Samuel Atwater promoted the center as an active source of

knowledge-sharing within the business school using various sources of capital:

> *Where a center can add value, and I'll say this is how we did use our center, is*
>
> *[that] a center can provide resources. And I think that's what a center does well.*
>
> *In my center, what we did is that we raised some money. We had somewhere*
>
> *around $50,000 we raised from a couple of companies. We took that money and*
>
> *we divided it up into grants, as a matter of fact, five $10,000 grants. We gave*
>
> *them to faculty to further their research and teaching in sustainability. Now – so*
>
> *all we did is we just made faculty aware of it. [We] said write us a two-page*
>
> *description of what you're doing and we got back 35, 40 of these things and we*
>
> *picked the 10 we thought were really interesting, plus the 10 we thought, if this*
>
> *professor were (sic) successful, then we would have some interesting content in*
>
> *class around sustainability. Awarding these 10 grants for $10,000 more than*
>
> *paid for itself. We actually had one guy…We gave one to an accounting*
>
> *professor…he developed a topic area around financial reporting. How*
>
> *companies manipulate financial reporting and how that would…but it was a*
>
> *sustainability issue. It was a corporate social responsibility issue. He developed*
>
> *it, started teaching it in his class, and it was just fabulous. It was a win-win all*
>
> *the way around. We gave one to an operations professor to study electronic*
>
> *recycling. He put that content in his classes, wildly popular. So we strategically*
>
> *awarded money to projects where we thought there was going to be some*
>
> *interesting content come out of that. That's how a center can help…And…the*

center was there to support all faculty not just people who were interested in

sustainability. We were there for anybody who wanted a grant. So again, it's

opening up that umbrella a little bit. And don't have the center there just for the

faculty member who runs it. I could've taken that $50,000 and launched several

research projects, could've done that. We decided, we'll just give it out to other

faculty…we did another round of grants a year ago and we gave some to other

universities, really thinking innovatively. We gave out two grants to [a school] on

engineering and energy projects. Yeah, because we think that what will come out

of that will help us in our energy efforts….so we awarded them each a $10,000

grant to further their research. And what they give back is a white paper and they

will come to one of our conferences here…to present their research. But it helps

us – we're actually paying them to help us understand the energy sector

better…we're getting a lot of knowledge and expanding the network.

Joel Miller at Osecca University's Warner School of Management saw his

center's donation and endowment as an opportunity to assert the full power of

sustainability. For Dr. Miller, the center was the site from which to not only develop a

reputation and shape the curriculum, but to argue for an inclusive definition of the

sustainability concept that investigates the systemic resource issues crippling world

economies. Reputation and curriculum was founded on a no-holds-bar approach to

delineating what constitutes and does not constitute sustainability so that the lines of

instruction and action are clear. Dr. Miller contended that sustainability's impact partly

depends on how it's framed. "Our dialogue is much more focused on what are the

business growth opportunities that can be had by addressing social and environmental

issues so that you actually leverage the best qualities of the private sector to address society's latent needs."

Peter Markham at the Roget School of Business at Chester University, who also had access to significant funding, imagined yet a different role for his institute. His institute's endowment would be used to create a niche for sustainability's application to the needs of the corporation. "So, [we're] very interested in kind of looking at the phenomenon of corporate sustainability trying to understand what are the incentives firms are responding to, what are the opportunities for firms…And so we're interested in part, thinking about public policies that might kind of unleash the power of business and markets to solve environmental problems." Perhaps being privy to other schools' experiences, Dr. Markham was very much attuned to the agitations institutes might face when catering to sustainability despite best intentions. Still acting as a leverage, his school's center would support a cautious approach to building sustainability based on his belief as to how much a center or institute of sustainability can really contribute:

> *To be honest with you, you know…a lot of schools are one individual faculty member who have an interest in this area, teaches an elective or two in this space and has a center or something that they claim to make it more than that. And that's all it is at the end of the day…one faculty member; if that one faculty member leaves, things kind of fall apart. [One school in particular]…has done a really good job of getting some chairs that they've hired, now a handful of people, to kind of give it more stability. And so, I think…that's what you see, and I'm not sure it should be much more than that.*

From these portraits of center and institute life, the issue of endowed or non-endowed, donations or not, did not negate the very immense task either group faced in getting an academic infrastructure launched. Money can lessen but did not take away the institutional politics of planning within a highly social structure. Dr. Miller reflected on the anomalies of center and institute construction and administration:

> *Yeah, I'm constantly monitoring what other programs are doing and I'll see an announcement, for example, that somebody has…just got $100 million to do something okay? I know this – a school recently came out with that. On the one hand, you say, "Oh my God. They're going to eclipse what we do." On the other hand, I'm like, "Hey, you know this space." Just because you have $100 million and you even put somebody in charge of it, doesn't mean that they have any sense of how to build a program up. That takes talent of a different kind and so people don't know how to build the relationships, right? They don't know the processes…Most times they're – it's academics in charge who have earned their keep by doing top-tier research, which does not translate into program administration. So that's why you see so many schools out there with one or two faculty members who, maybe there's funding at the institution, maybe there's not, but they've been going sideways for 10 years. They built something, but it's really small. You talk to them, they're extremely frustrated with the way everybody's acting around them, and they're frustrated by peers that they think are putting roadblocks in their way, the dean won't give them enough time in the day and all these things. And it's not that those aren't real problems, but I also feel like most times the approach they're taking hasn't been very strategic and*

they're fighting fronts they shouldn't be fighting. So I feel we've been pretty fortunate so far. There's always some room for improvement. We're constantly telling our deans here, "We're not done; we got a long way to go." But we're not doing too bad.

For each planner, starting and running an institute or center in conjunction with building and managing sustainability programming increased the level of attention needed for sustainability. It signaled a serious effort toward sustainability planning, as well as an intense amount of intrinsic motivation and ethical commitment, including making one's stand more visible and crafting a permanent home for the concept. Center and institute-building also begged the question that if a planner is going to commit to an institute or center, how far should they be willing to go to fully embrace sustainability and who should they be serving? If sustainability was important enough to create a physical infrastructure that represented sustainability as a serious contender in academia, then planners and other business school decision-makers had to discuss how extensively sustainability should or could penetrate the business school to reinterpret traditional business disciplines, especially at a level as prestigious as the MBA. Endowed centers and institutes had an extra burden to bear in attempting to think through this question since a donor was committing money to achieve a significant change in mindset. This question will be answered to some extent at the next table (and not necessarily with positive results). In the meantime, there was no mistaking that maintaining an institute or center as a physical manifestation of sustainability took a fair amount of savvy to make an impact. But where planners needed a base of operations from which to substantiate their ideas, a center or institute serves as an ample academic space.

Summary

The large number of respondents in this study who have or were attempting to implement a center or institute was telling. It communicated that the worth of a center or institute lay in the sense of stability it was able to project and the feeling of organization it bestowed in getting this unwieldy subject tied down and understood. It was a way to ground and define the variations and interpretations of sustainability, as well as to help stake a claim on re-balancing a very lopsided and maybe outdated economic perspective. Funding was a partial salve for battle-weary planners, making doors a little easier to open, but it did not provide full immunity from sustainability's critics. Nevertheless, centers, institutes and donors proved to be formidable leverages with enough backing from the school and university to acknowledge sustainability's emerging position in academia. The potential they provided for sustainability made it hard to ignore them as a strong planning mechanism. Of course, some planners chose or were able to circumvent the center or institute strategy in favor of a direct path to a full-on sustainability programming. Whether having a full sustainability MBA program precluded one from needing or desiring a center was not answered here. But what was clear was that on the way to introducing sustainability into the system, centers or institutes were tempting ways to build credence and confidence in sustainability's application to management.

Planning Table 2: "On Firm Ground" – Section Summary

Strategic leverages need not be limited to students; content managers; endowed or non-endowed centers and institutes; and administrative advocacy. However, these four arose as clear contenders in sustainability planners' arsenals. The planners in the study found their cause ignited or championed by these particular leverages and used that

support as a stepping stone toward achieving their program goals. Leverages like

stakeholders at planning table two can probably be identified and applied in any planning

context since planning uses a confluence of factors to attain a desired outcome.

However, what could be arguable in other contexts is whether planners really recognize

what they have at their disposal. Planners interviewed here understood that planning

table two stakeholders played a strong role in propelling a sustainability program at

business schools. They were well-aware of the need to be strategic in opening doors that

might otherwise, without these stakeholders, be closed to them in developing a

sustainable agenda. For planners, planning table two provided an opportunity to continue

to push for sustainability and apply a bit of pressure in getting it accepted through

business school channels. What planners knew is that ultimately they had to bide their

time as the interests and ethical commitments of these stakeholders at times were not

always reliable; they shifted their loyalties, found new jobs, donated money elsewhere or

stalled sustainability negotiations because of bureaucratic haggling. Any or all of these,

despite best intentions, could halt planning progress. Eventually, a new stakeholder

might emerge to take the place of another. In the shell game that is planning, these

planners quickly realized that in order to keep up and indeed take control of the game,

they had to be just as resourceful or more in managing their priorities, and furthermore,

work to make *their* priorities ultimately part of the *school's* larger priorities. In the end,

planning table two was about getting the most influential people working toward the

same plan of action in order to elevate and unite institutional perception that

incorporating sustainability into management education indeed represented a critical

evolution of business.

Planning Table Three: "Inside the Lion's Den"

Sustainability planners at planning table two were bestowed a degree of power. With the help of certain stakeholders, they attempted to work from a position of strength. However, planners also had to deal with the other side of the fence, working with stakeholders not as amenable to sustainability. Right off the bat, planners usually found themselves "Inside the Lion's Den" at planning table three facing uninterested faculty and administrators, unimpressed with sustainability's intellectual foundation. Here, they knew their power was actually reduced and they knew they had to proceed a little more cautiously with planning table three stakeholders.

Planning table three, it should be noted, was not a matter of absolutes. Both faculty peers and administrators, as witnessed at planning table two, lent their support to planners for sustainability inclusion and continue to do so. Administration and faculty peers were a vital part of the sustainability planner's table. Their feedback about the sustainability planner's efforts could neither be discounted nor ignored. Planners needed both groups in order to get curriculum approved and taught. However, planning table three relationships represented a place in planning cycles where the interests planners had were not necessarily in-sync with these key stakeholders. In fact, for planners, this was one place where their interests could be called conflictual, though planners worked hard to minimize this state. Also, at planning table three, planners were more often dealing with their peers who wielded a similar level of power at the school, resulting in a symmetrical relationship and less leverage. As mentioned in "On Firm Ground," business school administrators as a group were split when it came to endorsing sustainability as an educational concept. Some supported, even instigated, its

dissemination, while others shied away from or did not acknowledge its potential both academically and financially. The support of faculty peers was even sketchier and many needed some serious convincing before coming to the table to talk. Faculty and administrators had very specific issues with sustainability most of them just opposite to planning table two. One, to this group, sustainability was suspect as an academic concept. Its intellectual foundation had not been "proven," which did not allow it to be considered a discipline like other business concepts. Therefore, it had not held up to the rigor of scholarly integrity. Academically, it seemed a weak business topic. Two, this made the process of encouraging faculty to incorporate sustainability into their academic disciplines more challenging. Faculty did not see how it fit into their nook of the business school and balked at including it into their curriculum. At the same time, certain administrators did not see any market value in it. Both parties tended to be skeptical and saw it as a fad. This led to issue three, which was the debate over how much attention and credence sustainability should really receive? Why should the business school even consider its importance? At this table, it was not germane to the business of business. Planners often found themselves blocked by these objections.

Needless to say, the negotiation strategy used at planning table three was bargaining. This planning table represented a significant barrier to planners and forced them to get creative during negotiations. Planners had a fair amount of negotiating to do within the orthodoxy of management education among this group of administrators and their faculty peers. Many times throughout the study, however, planners demonstrated their ability to negotiate interests divergent from theirs into their process. To do this, they had to ride the fine line between conceding to aggressive resistance and over-

agitating in the face of faculty passivity. Brokering interests, attempting to find some common ground among these fair-weather fans, proved to produce some of the more interesting stories of negotiation in the business school sustainability planning process. Although the data revealed instances of substantive negotiations at this table, most of the time planners had to indulge in a great deal of meta-negotiation. They had to work at the 30,000-ft. level before addressing the brass tacks of curriculum development. To do so, planners did not wish to antagonize or placate, but educate faculty peers and administrators by finding creative ways to include them in planning or to build their confidence in sustainability. Planners, just as they did in interacting with stakeholders at planning table two, were just as purposeful about deciding who needed to be engaged and who did not in the planning process. So while they did not have the clear advantage of power, they still found ways to maintain control over the perception and communication of sustainability's application for management education through the use of transparency, ingenuity and diplomacy.

Reconciling ethical commitment at this table was bound to be a task. Planners, faculty and administrators from their vantage point were all serving the learners; their commitments were simply demonstrated differently. With the tug-of-war over intellectual capital, commitment to learners did not disappear, but took a backseat as planners, faculty and administrators debated what really mattered. To all participants involved in this realm, the changing face of management education was at stake. Planners confronted faculty and administrators whose commitment was to maintaining the status quo. In their interviews, planners speak to this. The overwhelming sense one gets regarding administrative and faculty resistance is that essentially sustainability was

an intimidating and complex topic not well-understood in its relation to business.

Business management at this time is still a comfortable place to be. Its premise has been

locked in place for a century or more and people are content with the explanations it

affords in handling everyday business practice. Its tight focus makes the world of

commerce manageable. To disrupt that introduces surprise, uncertainty and the

unknown. Sustainability breaks the attachment to the known. Because of this, asking

faculty and administrators to accept admittance of a subject that has the potential to

transform how business is conducted and taught, that forces them to think about the

possibility of radical change, and that asks them to release historical patterns of social

interaction was not a small task. This put sustainability planners in the position of having

to work carefully with these two groups to get sustainability represented in the MBA

curriculum dialogue. Figure 7 highlights the important players at planning table three.

This section describes the ups and downs of planning among stakeholders focused on

scrutinizing an untested interloper who has wandered into their liar. It will also detail

sustainability's intellectual foundations from the point-of-view of planners, faculty and

administrators.

Administrative Apathy

The flip side of "Administrative Advocacy" is "Administrative Apathy."

Administrators on this side of the seesaw had to be pushed toward sustainability as a

fruitful concept for the business school. In cases like these, the job of the planner took on

a tone of frustration when they either could not get the monetary or curricular support to

forge ahead, or simply could not get administrators to adequately promote sustainability
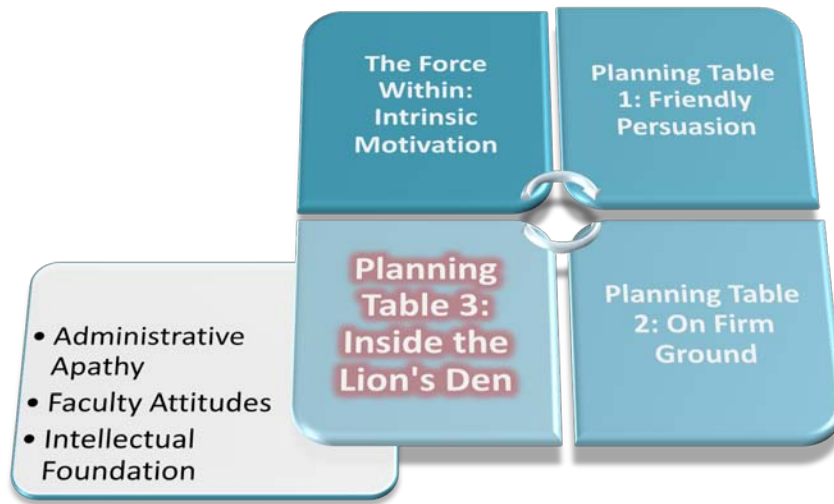
Figure 7. Planning Table 3 – "Inside the Lion's Den"

to other important stakeholders. Indeed, the most damaging aspect of administrative

apathy was more often the lack of acknowledgement sustainability received from this

group. For instance, apathy was the case at the Roget School of Business according to

Peter Markham before the new dean came on board: "Prior to the new dean, the previous

dean – there were attempts made to try to get him interested in these topics and it just

didn't happen. He just had a different mindset and different perspective and to him,

environmental issues were philanthropy." Bad or no press on a subject already

subjugated to the margins of the business school did little to elevate its standing.

Planners knew that reputation and image was just as important as a curricular presence,

and so could not afford to allow sustainability's standing to be further diminished.

Some deans simply either refused or did not make the time to entertain the

possibility of adding a sustainability component to the MBA program. For some, it was

not in their scope of interest, and therefore, any prodding for action or participation from their end by planners (or other advocates) went unnoticed. In addition, the turnover in administrative positions caused a great deal of inactivity on the part of business school deans. When deans or other key administrators departed, as seen in the center and institute section, sometimes the energy to pursue sustainability went with them, leaving sustainability in the hands of uninterested parties. As Mason Hicks observes from his experience on his school's advisory board, "So [sustainability] really was driven grassroots up, and the other thing, to be fair, that…dean's position has really churned ever since I've been [there]." These two factors communicated that depending on the interests and priorities of the dean, along with the current social and political climate of the business school, it was easy for certain projects to become relegated to the back burner until more favorable conditions arose.

Robert Howard at the Randall School of Business unfortunately endured both a lack of adequate funding and a lack of hearty approval from his business school dean. Dr. Howard was continually negotiating with his dean for resources and space to support a sustainability curriculum, repeatedly reiterating sustainability's growing influence in the business arena. He admitted he had to slowly bring his dean along on the planning journey in order to secure an equal level of teaching capacity for his and Mr. Rollins' fledgling courses. Even after MBA students had surveyed the student body and recruiters, finding that their desire for sustainability courses was highly favorable, the dean still had to be continually convinced to pay for Mr. Rollins' teaching services. "He's gradually supported these courses, but there weren't any mandates from the dean. It was Jeremy and I doing this because we liked to do this kind of stuff and we thought it

was the right thing to do, and it was a lot of work, but we were enjoying ourselves and the dean has kind of been benignly supportive." However, Dr. Howard expressed a certain pride in how he was able to creatively find other solutions as he worked to bring the dean into a new way of thinking. His ability to find ways to maneuver within and around the system lent satisfaction that perhaps he has come out on the just end of a slight power struggle, recalibrating the relationship's equilibrium through his tenacity and belief in sustainability, as he explained:

Now what was nice about Jeremy and I working together, since I'm regular faculty, I can generate these things and Jeremy being adjunct faculty, he really needs a mentor, or at least a partner that's on the regular faculty. I think of us more as a partnership. So I was able to help him get his courses through, as well as help me get my courses through. Now, just to talk about Jeremy for a minute; with me, my salary is covered. I mean I've got a regular salary and I told you how we adjusted the courses inside [my department] and I didn't get paid anymore, I didn't get paid any less. When Jeremy started, he was teaching the courses for free; so…he had actually been teaching a course when we met about 10 years ago. We sat down, I said, "Jeremy, we've got to figure out how to get you paid because this is not a long-term, steady-state situation where you're not getting paid. So in the first year, I [had a fund] and paid for part of his salary and then we did some fundraising and we found a – not somebody that paid like huge amounts of money, but…below $10,000…for two or three years of seed money. He was very much into starting things, and we said, "Well look, we're trying to start these courses and get Jeremy paid." And so some money came in

there and I think the first year, we actually used all our own money…to pay

Jeremy. And then we went to the dean and said, "Hey look it, we can pay for like

half of his salary if you put in the other half." And then that went on for a couple

of years, and then, you know, I couldn't be taking money out of my [fund] and this

venture capital – or the seed money guy. But then at some point, the dean said,

"Okay, we'll pay for that one course." And then as we went over to the next

courses, I think in the second course, we had a similar type issue, although we

didn't match…we said, "Hey look it, we'll get some money, the dean put in half

and we'll teach the second course." Eventually, that posted, so Jeremy's on full

budget for his courses. [And then the last two courses, I said] you don't have to

worry about me, [for] these two new courses. I just went down to the dean and

said, "Look it, this is an important area and everybody's starting to get it now.

You read the <u>Wall Street Journal</u>, the <u>New York Times</u> and, you know, global

warming, water shortages, and the price of oil over a hundred dollars. We don't

have to persuade people as much, they're starting to get it." So…they said,

"Okay, we'll pay for that course.

Seemingly, getting a toehold at the school was due to sheer perseverance. Their

dealings with the administration may have left Dr. Howard and Mr. Rollins scratching

their heads as to why it was a bit trying to get the dean to fully support sustainability,

especially in the face of societal changes and student and recruiting endorsements,

however, they realized the importance of what they had accomplished.

Dr. Howard articulated a theme repeated by other respondents when speaking of

administrative apathy. "Benign Support" captured the nature of the relationship planners

on this side of the fence had with their deans or other administrators. Says Dr. Howard, "We actually didn't worry so much about acceptance; it was just as long as anybody doesn't oppose us. Same thing with the dean, you know…just let us keep doing what we're doing." In the absence of active resistance, planners saw a free and clear path to pursue their ultimate objectives. Apathy was not ideal, but the option and freedom to lobby for sustainability, was almost as important as achieving their program outcomes. Keith Cameron at the Vogel School of Management at Lipton University echoed Dr. Howard's sentiment, knowing that the trade-off for an atmosphere of independent planning was a rather small space for sustainability to exist within the business school:

> *Of course, this is a more sensitive topic about the nature of the support – the nature of the strength of the support…to be absolutely straight ahead here, what I received was extremely little opposition. And I usually describe the situation here and have for my 18 years, as a place that, you know, is doing what it can do, and it's got a strong history and it seems to do well in many, many different indicators…But the reality is that there is still a lot of traditionalism in this school, there's still a pretty strong bias toward the status quo, or at least was until relatively recently. And so that - what people like me try to do is find vacuums to move into – niches that weren't filled that looked like they could take off…And it was more of an entrepreneurial kind of activity in which most of the risk was at the faculty level or department, I suppose. Not too much at the school and almost none at the university level. So I suppose you'd say that they level of support…it was at least neutral.*

The deans at the Warner School of Management at Osecca University, according to Joel Miller, were also pretty good at not obstructing his work in sustainability development. He was generally positive about the working relationship he had with them. However, in his estimation, they still did not embrace the sustainability concept as a whole and needed some enticing to accept the integration of it as a stable part of the curriculum. While Dr. Miller understood that he relied on the administrative deans to help him get sustainability projects pushed through the system and could not afford to alienate them, he also refused to surrender to any dilution of sustainability, or to either treat or have his work treated as a sideline venture. When asked about how the deans viewed sustainability and what kind of outlook they imparted, Dr. Miller gave this response:

>…They're to the right of center on skepticism. They bring enough skepticism with them. They do things and they say things that aren't consistent and…they're the ones I care most about. They're the ones I want to make sure they get the language right and I call them when I don't think they're being very supportive and stuff like that. So I think they feel like they are supportive and they're certainly not unsupportive. It's just sometimes they're not as consistent as they could be, and I'm going to call them on it. I told them early on, I said, "You know, if you want somebody – if you want a wallflower in this position who's going to just simply do what you want them to do and not buck the system, then I'm probably not your person." I'm going to make arguments until the day I die and if we resolve one, I'll find another one to make. Because I'm going to constantly push us to be better and it's not simply because I want more resources,

which is the way most academics – why most academics are fighting. It's because

I want us to build a really good program and I don't want us to do it in a half-

assed way. So I'm going to keep pushing on that and they seem okay with that.

Again, we see here a bit of a power struggle for the soul of business management

and how it should be represented as a capitalistic and democratic ideal. Both parties had

their own sources of power and interests; the deans' as appointed keepers of the school's

reputation and Dr. Miller's as the enforcer of a sustainable vision for the school and its

namesake (who happened to also be its major donor) and the students. A gentle tug-of-

war ensued, each party working to accommodate the other in the best way possible

without defeating their own individual interests. Because the image of sustainability at

the school was still a work-in-progress, Dr. Miller knew he had to market the school's

interests, the deans' interests and his interests as one in the same so that eventually,

everyone was on the same page about the benefits of a sustainable message at the

business school. Dr. Miller spoke of the importance of the administration recognizing the

marketing power of sustainability for the school:

We've got a good relationship with our dean, which probably other programs

would say as well, but…I mean, you've got to understand; here, 50% of the

applicants we're getting…are coming here because of the center and the

sustainability stuff that we have. That's pretty significant. You don't see those

numbers in very many places…Here, we've got a specialized program where

people can really dive into the perspective we're talking about through

experiential performance-based learning, but we've also got a broader type of

survey course, and that's drawing a good 30-40% of the class…The impact is

pretty significant. So the reason all this is kind of important…is it would be
foolhardy if people – and there are people within the organization who see it this
way – if people saw this thing as being tangential to what we ought to be doing in
management education; you'd basically be alienating a significant chunk of your
class. So therefore, it's in the dean's best interest and associate deans' best
interest not to simply leave this to chance…either not [try to] understand it, or
kind of try to downplay it. That just won't, simply won't work for them. They'll
have students on their doorstep pretty instantly. So it's a lot of importance to
them how the program does and that it's successful.

In the eyes of Dr. Miller, administrative apathy had to be occasionally checked
and challenged throughout the planning process in order to go beyond "benign support."
If their ethical commitment was not wholly felt, this risked being reflected in
conversations and actions toward sustainability, sending a mixed message to
stakeholders. Planners understood that while administrators might not have completely
embraced their work, neither should they been allowed to completely undermine it.

Summary

Business school administrators ran the range of little to complete ethical
commitment to sustainability in a management context. Both planners and administrators
had the school's best interests in mind, however, they sometimes varied on how much
impact sustainability should have on management education, especially when it came to
potentially altering basic business premises. As one planner noted at planning table two,
"On Firm Ground," the faculty are not employees of the dean, so each party is seen to be
equally influential in their contribution to the business school. Since their power is

shared, then, perhaps so should be their ultimate goals. Deans want financial gain and prestige for their school. Faculty wants the most relevant learning experiences for students. This means planners had to use both desires as an incentive to sell the assets sustainability could provide as an enrollment booster. This seems to work when one considers that despite the apathy on the part of Dr. Cameron's dean, he was still forced to recognize the premier ranking the school received on the Beyond Grey Pinstripes Survey. The attention helped sway the dean's decision to provide funding for sustainability courses on a regular basis. Where one can make room for the other at their respective planning tables, compromise may result.

Planners had certain decisions and assessments to make when dealing with this type of administrator, such as, "What kind of middle ground or milestones can be established working with an apathetic administrator?" "What is the direction a planner's relationship should take with an administrator," and "What are the considerations individual planners must make to satisfy the interests of many, especially those of the learner?" The main question for planners here, however, was whether administrative apathy could be overcome. Planners had little choice but to try since the administrator was a crucial planning stakeholder. Therefore, for a planner facing administrative apathy, it was incumbent upon him or her to initiate and encourage ongoing dialogue to tear down those walls.

Faculty Attitudes

There was faculty at the sustainability planning table who proved at times to be unsympathetic to sustainability, particularly in the beginning of its emergence in business schools. Like any new idea, sustainability did not catch on and the general faculty

population was relatively unmoved by its prime principles and tenets. Sustainability

planners often found their motives questioned by their peers. Peter Markham described a

typical faculty reaction to sustainability:

So…you were asking before about the stakeholders of who this has to get through,

clearly the big one is the faculty…you have to get it through the faculty…there's

a…healthy skepticism among faculty about what does all this sustainability stuff

mean?... most of us have economic training. We kind of come in, you know,

thinking profit maximization and so things that we perceive to go counter to that

are not going to find a good audience…is this all just marketing and PR that

we're seeing coming out of firms? Is there really something there we should be

hanging our hat on? And do…we want to put a stake in the ground with these

things?

Samuel Atwater, from the Vista View University was surprised at some of the

reactions to sustainability's principles as faculty expressed to him some of the ideas they

first had about sustainability and its place in academia:

The initial reaction of some faculty to the issue was a surprise, and the reaction

that…it's a fad rather than a fundamental issue for business. But you'd have

some faculty that would say well, "This is like e-commerce or it's like total

quality management. It's a fad and it will go away. We shouldn't be concerned

with this; we shouldn't worry about this – that surprised me. The narrowness

[with] which some faculty cast the issue was a little bit of a surprise. "Why

should we be concerned about poverty? Poverty exists; you'll never get rid of it

completely. Why should we be concerned about that?" You would hear people

say that and you'd be shocked by that. Now personally, they're not for poverty because I don't see how anybody could be. But they'd say, "Is it really the role of the business school? Isn't that the role of social work or adult education or something? That is some other school's business and here we are getting into that." That was a surprise.

This made faculty the most elusive group to work with during sustainability planning. Faculty disinterest and skepticism presented obvious challenges as planners worked their way through the business school decision-making process. This section will show, however, how they also found ways to connect with faculty so that sustainability did not remain a mystery.

In order to get sustainability advanced, planners had to decide how much they needed to engage faculty. This decision depended on several things. The first interesting parallel was in noting the approach planners took with faculty based on which group they belonged to, whether they were intellectuals, mavericks and progressives. Part of each group's decision around this issue implicated their own level of intrinsic motivation and how far they were personally willing to go to get outside faculty convinced of sustainability's efficacy and even involved in teaching it. Second, the social, political and cultural situation of each planner's school determined his or her ability to work with faculty. And third, the tools of negotiation the planner had at his or her disposal, as well as how they used those tools, counted for a lot in working with skeptical faculty. As with administrators, planners usually had power that was on par with faculty, particularly if planners were also faculty members. Considering any one or all of these helped planners evaluate their sustainability interaction with other faculty members.

Joel Miller, on the cusp of being a maverick and a progressive, summed up his experiences with faculty peers, offering, perhaps not a simple, but at least a straightforward strategy for managing his interactions with faculty. Taking a "tough love" approach to negotiation, Dr. Miller believed that the most important thing a planner could do was focus their energy and attention on communicating with faculty who were possible allies in the long-term and who were willing to learn about sustainability, while carefully monitoring the intentions of those unfriendly toward planning efforts. His goal was to identify and work with or counteract only those who might have some direct bearing on his program to avoid against wasting energy on those that will not likely impact his work. In the final analysis, however, Dr. Miller knew the real proof for faculty was in a popular and successful program. This was the final deterrent to naysayers and the most satisfying aspect of faculty acceptance:

> [F]aculty will always break-up in three ways: There can be those who are very supportive and like what you're doing; there are going to be those who don't and can be extremely antagonistic; and then there's a huge mass of them that sit on the fence and don't really care what'[s] going on. They've got their own work to do. So in times past, we spent a lot of energy trying to convince those who didn't like us that we were worthy…I think we've grown to a point now where we just don't worry about them at all. They can be noisy, they can create problems, but at the end of the day, I'm not going to convince them [of] anything different in an argument. The only thing that's going to convince them is over time, a good track record. So we have our detractors, there's no doubt about it. I engage them very little unless they really bump up against me directly…But always extending an

olive branch to the individual saying, "Look, clearly you have misconceptions

about what we're doing. I'd love to talk with you at some point whenever you

want to." Of course, nobody ever wants to take you up on that, but you stay the

high road. The folks who are really interested in what you're doing, you

definitely try to – if they've got influence, you want to leverage it as much as

possible. If they don't have influence, then they're just an ally and that's OK.

You don't necessarily do anything with that. The folks that are on the fence, you

kind of monitor them – again, it's leadership through action.

Eric Jain, one of the progressives, from Modelle University's Nielson's School of

Management, took a similar stance to Dr. Miller's. Both were coming from a place of

relative power since Dr. Miller had an endowment and student support, and Dr. Jain had

administrative and budget support. This allowed them to be a bit more stringent in their

relations with faculty peers since they were both operating under a mandate to implement

sustainability initiatives. For Dr. Jain, this took the form of rallying participating faculty

around the design of Nielson's new sustainability MBA track. Nielson's entire faculty

did not teach in the sustainability MBA, only those who had been hand-selected to be a

part of that venture. Nielson's business faculty generally supported sustainability

primarily as a strategic alternative to their traditional MBA curriculum given a changing

educational profile in their region. A competitive market, a shortage of students and

other culminating factors helped Nielson's faculty make an educated leap toward

sustainability's application to business: "We had a perfect storm, I told you, a perfect

storm…the region is changing… we are having increased competition in our space…our

enrollments have shrunk steadily all along over a period of time [for] our MBA

program…and as the population dries out, the quality of the entering students is also not high… so all of these realities are on the faculty's mind." While this meant that discontent among faculty was reduced, it did not mean it was eliminated, which, of course, is impossible to do in any planning situation. Faculty still held on to certain ideals and interests, even as they supported the overall premise behind a sustainability-oriented MBA. For instance, Nielson's sustainability MBA required Dr. Jain to rethink the usual allocation of credit hours and scheduling for each department which, in some cases, had faculty teaching more hours for less credit. Integrating non-traditional curriculum tools into a traditional system required adjustments on the part of faculty. However, as a planner with a certain amount of power, Dr. Jain was able keep sight of the final outcome, managing faculty distress by conducting an open planning process:

> *If I'm being fair to everybody, there was nothing sacrosanct. So because they knew that as a division chair, my own department got stiffed... If I had only done it to them, but not to myself, then that would have been seen, whether it was right or wrong, it would have seemed…But…the entire process was fair, we asked faculty to comment on it, but we would not accept arguments like, "I used to teach three credits, how come I'm teaching one and one half?" No, that is irrelevant; that was not allowed; that was shut down.*

Dr. Jain demonstrated that planners who communicate candidly with faculty about sustainability issues while staying aware of their own leverage in a situation that requires a bit of bargaining are apt to bring other faculty to a more consensual, less conflictual state.

Generally, faculty in this study took Dr. Miller and Dr. Jain's approach in variations, finding ways to work around any faculty objections or doubts by, as Dr. Miller suggested, trying to "take the high road" in negotiating space for sustainability. Planners who were also faculty members were inherently aware about being careful not to step on too many turfs, toes or egos. However, whereas Dr. Miller and Dr. Jain had the leverage to be a little more direct with faculty, others with less leverage made wider allowances for faculty's hesitation in embracing sustainability by gingerly steering them through the labyrinth of possibilities for sustainability, including those for their own disciplines.

Keeping faculty motivated around sustainability could be a time-consuming activity for planners given the lack of knowledge faculty had about sustainability. Among faculty there was uncertainty around sustainability's intellectual capital and skepticism of sustainability's ability to contribute to global change. Although it was starting to infiltrate the work of business school professors, many planners in this study, in particular the mavericks, still clearly needed to apply a delicate touch when introducing sustainability to faculty departments and disciplines. Moving too far too fast seemed to present the risk of sustainability crashing and burning before it even got off the ground if faculty felt the concept was being pushed in their faces (unless a planner had the culture and timing to support a full program with a sustainable orientation). Sometimes this meant making some concessions or an extra special effort to bring faculty into the fold.

Samuel Atwater, from the Youngman School of Business and a maverick, discussed how he negotiated his interests with other faculty members when asked about some of the challenges he faced in sustainability planning:

Oh turf, turf is a challenge. To give you an example, we wanted to offer a course in social issues in marketing. It's a big issue and you know marketing is one of those things that has gray areas. We identified a great faculty member that could come in and teach this course. I scheduled it and I had the chair of marketing come down here to this office and sit right where you're sitting and he said, "That's a marketing course, that's my department, not yours. We don't want to offer it, and we don't want you to offer it." And I had to drop it, just had to drop it. It was one of those things where it was better to drop it and keep the good graces of marketing, than to proceed forward with that...I might revisit it later on, but [that's] why I didn't go to war...when in marketing I'd say in that group there's at least 70% of them that are incorporating some element of sustainability. So I don't want them to lose faith in the concept or mix up sustainability into this little turf war. It's just not worth it.

In fact, though Dr. Jain could be a faculty disciplinarian when called for, he knew that to sell the program to other faculty not involved with the sustainability MBA, he had to find ways to increase their interest in keeping sustainability a priority in Nielson's MBA program. He cited a key example:

I think they [are] beginning to rally behind the concept as an overall faculty group...I did take...10 of the faculty to Germany. There was no budget because the budget accounted for me and the students. So I asked every division chair to give me $1,500 and I told the dean I'll find other ways to cut down costs. So I asked faculty to share rooms ...The net effect was that we were able to go only $5,000 over-budget. But I took 10 other faculty from all departments who were

not directly involved in teaching sustainability, including one from the

environmental school because they are teaching a core class for us…And so the

effect of that is now I've got a clear six other faculty from six divisions who think

that there is a lot of merit to this idea.

Without a doubt, progress has been made with the advancement of sustainability in U.S. business schools and much of that was due to the standing and steady persistence of the planners, particularly senior faculty planners, who were able to negotiate with other faculty to take baby steps toward incorporating sustainability into their individual disciplines. Faculty truly seemed to be able to respect and experiment with sustainability when it came from planners who were also faculty peers and who they felt represented their academic culture. In this, Mason Hicks, the adjunct instructor at the Jeffrey School of Business, might have been correct when he noted that business school faculty may be a bit cliquish and turf-based when protecting what they believe is a certain level of academic integrity. What is deemed as a flaw in the culture to outsiders, however, worked in favor of those formally enmeshed into the system, giving them credibility even around a very suspect agenda. With their reputation and insider status behind them, faculty planners were able to gently convince their peers of sustainability's efficacy – a method of negotiation especially helpful when the faculty planner had little else to leverage. Of course, planners were able to use their coerciveness effectively to the extent that they were also individually committed to fostering sustainability. Faculty tended to gauge their reactions based on how far the planner was willing to push. The more persuasive, the more inroads made.

For instance, Dr. Atwater, whose intent was to gradually spread sustainability throughout the business school, mentioned his progress in working with faculty to ease them along the path of sustainability. He used his influence as a faculty member to take a stealthy approach to working with faculty department by department to integrate content into their presentations, carefully providing them with impetus and information to include sustainability in their courses. When asked about faculty's reaction to the possibility of introducing of the subject into the curriculum, he said the following:

Much more favorable when it wasn't cast to them as something totally new that was something they would have to learn about. It was when you looked at it and said, "Well, businesses are adopting some of these new practices using tools that have been well-known for a long, long time – it's just now in the context of sustainability," you got a lot of enthusiasm about it…[So] if you look at faculty that have some content of sustainability in their curriculum it's well over half. I'd say 60% of the faculty here would have some element [that] you would recognize as sustainability in their PowerPoint shows. It doesn't mean the entire course is sustainability, but they would certainly be weaving it in at certain points when needed.

Keith Cameron, a maverick, also used his insider status to educate faculty peers on sustainability's relevance to their areas of study. His persistence paid off: "We have, I think, managed to expand the attention of sustainability topics to the rest of the school, such that about half of our faculty are either researching or teaching sustainability…this is outside of our department…It's more than half in our department because we're very strong on the social issues part here."

Harold Wright, an intellectual, likewise worked through his faculty peers to introduce one or two courses in the curriculum: "It wasn't a big deal…Again, we're a small school and people question, 'Well, how many students would ever take this and why would we focus on this area,' and the answer is, 'Not too many,' and 'Because Wright's here.'…It's differentiated for a few students. What's the harm?…It wasn't committing the school to anything super expensive or detailed, and so I think there was a general agreement that this was fine."

Robert Howard, a maverick, also knew that his long-standing involvement of 38 years with the business school provided much-needed clout when trying to get a sustainability certificate program approved through a faculty committee. As with other planners the process of approval went well for him, largely given his reputation as a strong contributor to many of the school's curriculum and administrative collaborations over the years: "Now part of the history, you know, again, without telling too much about myself…I've got a lot of institutional history; I have quite a good record…So I think when they're like, 'Howard's coming in' and even if you don't know much about it, I think there's a lot of trust that I have good judgment, and I wasn't doing something really flaky or off the wall or something like that."

Planners demonstrated many strategies and tactics dealing with recalcitrant faculty members. They showed that an investment of time toward explanation, learning and practice helped faculty members grapple with the complex nature of sustainability and gave them room to experiment with its meanings and applications. Just as planners turned themselves into students at planning table one to integrate sustainability into their

repertoire of knowledge, it stands to reason that for business school faculty to embrace

sustainability at a similar level, they had to be afforded a proper learning curve.

Summary

Faculty's attitudes ranged from opposition to apathy, skepticism,

misunderstanding, congeniality, and gradually, support. Planners had to confront these

reactions at any point during their planning process, trying to figure out a way to make

the best of the situation with what they were presented. At the very least, their familiarity

with the professorial culture was often enough to help them ease sustainability into

faculty consciousness. Because of this, the knowledge and belief planners have carried

with them for the better part of 15 years about sustainability were slowly beginning to

seep into the MBA classroom in a meaningful way. Despite the presence of remaining

faculty stalwarts, sustainability planners generally seemed satisfied with their efforts as

they became more familiar with the issues of resistance or acceptance by finding

strategies to broker for faculty time, resources, attention and support. There is still a long

way to go before sustainability is universally accepted by faculty. However, given that

planners were able to solicit respectable levels of debate, dialogue and participation

means that faculty was considering the role sustainability has in business, regardless of

whether they agreed or disagreed with sustainability's inclusion in the curriculum.

Several planners in this study acknowledged the range of faculty reaction and how time

has helped rally faculty awareness, as Peter Markham observed:

> *It's often administration and faculty that are the biggest barriers that you run*
>
> *into, convincing [them] that these are important issues and…thinking about them*
>
> *rigorously…[that] this isn't all greenwash and it will go away in a couple of*

years. And I think that still remains today. But you know, it's funny, joking with one of my colleagues that we're seeing now some of our senior colleagues who have never done work in this space, suddenly getting the bug and doing research in here, which is...we feel like [it's] kind of a little bit late to the party, but it's good to see nonetheless.

Sustainability was making inroads, even if it was a little slower than planners would have liked. The past 15 years in sustainability development has left planners both discouraged and hopeful. While it's clear that sustainability has not been readily embraced as a recognized management education concept, it was apparent that faculty at schools where sustainability had been introduced, were beginning to understand, if not sustainability itself, that business, and thus, management education, is at a turning point where neither one can operate for the sole purpose of economic measure. A large swell of faculty support could help accelerate the changing framework of business, opening the door for business schools to be bona fide leaders instead of tagalongs for economic democracy. They will have to come to accept, however, that the world we live in now is not sustainable as is, and that new thinking is needed to evolve to a more tenable reality.

Intellectual Foundation

One of the largest complaints upon which faculty and administrators at planning table three based their hesitancy of sustainability was that sustainability's intellectual foundation was not well-defined or well-established academically. Sustainability has such a broad range of meaning and application that no one can fully agree on how it should be discussed and integrated into the management philosophy. The beauty of sustainability is that its central focus on economic equity, as well as environmental and

social justice could morph business into a less severe form of capitalism. The trouble is, no one has been able to solidly agree on what new theory, strategies and skills it will take to transform that vision into more conscientious business practice. Without this direction or consensus, making such a dramatic change in our economic structure was outside the immediate scope of the business school. The struggle that occurred then was how to include sustainability in the management education without allowing sustainability's strong principles to become diluted in very economically-dominated environment. Faced with this struggle, the main question planners had to ask themselves was "What definitions and interpretations of sustainability could I promote and teach that will yield the most beneficial results for my constituents?"

The definitions and interpretations of sustainability exemplified by this study demonstrated the tension planners as a community had among themselves in deciding how to one, invite sustainability into the MBA curriculum, and two, reconcile the gap between theory and practice. For planners, this exercise was a continual work-in-progress as they shaped a philosophy they felt could simultaneously be ascribed to management education, best serve everyday business operations, and still create social and environmental sustainability. In the meantime, everyone's context and perception of these areas was different, leaving the intellectual foundation of sustainability in flux and suspended by academic debate. The varying opinions held by respondents here closely mimic the "Education About, In and For" model put forth in the literature review by Sterling and Huckle (1996) describing sustainability in its most conservative form to its most radical, with incarnations in-between. Many of the sustainability programs in this

study fell along this continuum, but whether one was more effective than another was indeterminate.

What was clear was that on one hand, a case can be made for keeping sustainability broad and contextual, so students acquire knowledge and skills at all levels that meet the needs of a changing society. Boiling down or reducing sustainability to fit a precise model of management freezes it into a formula that accommodates a limited set of conditions that in the end, would not be able to accommodate another possible transition in business 50 to 100 years from now. Simply said, business would once again find itself in a time warp. On the other hand, what sustainability lacks is some cohesive set of standards upon which to empirically measure success and advance new research premises. There is little meta-analysis among the abundance of individual case studies in sustainability, leaving one without any solid conclusions about where sustainability is headed as a management concept. Sustainability research is an emerging area just beginning to be taken seriously by business journals making intellectual-building a slow and steady process. Although sustainability provides a lot of latitude for interpretation by sustainability planners, its wide berth contributes to research that has historically been very individualized and too subjective to compete as a scientific business principle. Its flexibility as an applied and contextual concept has not translated well to the quantitative research environment of management education (although it could be debatable as to whether this is the right direction for sustainable research). Consequently, its isolation from academic research has undermined its movement in business schools.

Nevertheless, faculty were placed in the position of trying to raise sustainability's profile eliciting questions from skeptics about what type of research would best serve

management without reducing the full potential of sustainability. Planners interviewed for this study hoped that more recent forays into research were resulting in a fair representation. Robin Taylor of the Youngman School of Business at Vista View University saw sustainability becoming a growing force in the research community:

Not many people treat [sustainability] as a context. Now it was harder at first where the kind of research…up to now, it's been more case [oriented] or sometimes even qualitative research, and a lot of our journals are still heavy into survey or quant. So that is evolving – we're doing that research. I'm starting to do that type of heavy research in the sustainability field. But I would say if you're trying to look at the evolution of planning, how the movement needs to move, we're trying to be a discipline, now we need to have the research of a discipline and have those journals accept our context as viable and our premises [as] our research premises and then we do work off of those premises. If they don't accept the premises, they're not going to look at our research. We're past that point…that is starting to change. It's a great time in the field where that's changing and journals are accepting our work and our ideas.

Overall, sustainability must retain flexibility for practice, yet have enough theory to continually improve its practical applications. Until sustainability advocates work together to manage and define sustainability's range of possibilities, it will persist in being looked upon as an academic loose cannon; a vague commentary on corporate disdain, unwieldy in its ability to establish a foundation for a concrete change in the business management mindset, thus having a limited effect on any global turnaround.

Defining sustainability

Planners and other sustainability scholars discussed the challenge of making sure sustainability is grounded by some agreed upon benchmarks that clarifies its meaning and purpose for management education. How large should its scope be, what is it really intended to change, and how will management education get there? Planners felt that generally arguing the misdirection of business and the need for social justice and environmental consciousness does little more than to turn off prospective allies. It is one of the major sticking points in advancing the field, according to Joel Miller from the Warner School of Management, Osecca University: "One of the things people complain about is [that] the people in this area are too preachy. They're all holier than thou…they proselytize. Listen to the language people use: 'They don't get it." Well, that suggests somebody's an idiot. 'You can't see it?' 'What's wrong with you?' That whole attitude turns people off from the very beginning." So attempting to explain sustainability without proselytizing in a real business and management education context for these planners was the task at hand. Unfortunately, the lines between what constitutes a sustainability platform are still rather blurry, underscoring doubt as to its theoretical origins and its stability as an academic concept, lending to the notion that this may be another fad. The inability to draw clear distinctions around sustainability confounded faculty who needed much coaching to understand where sustainability could be applied within their own discipline, and who were generally stymied by its lack of conformity. Dr. Taylor discussed her position on this issue:

> *I think our biggest problem is one of definition. People are always asking what*
>
> *exactly is this and how is that really different that what we're already doing?…So*

until we define it – [for] some schools it's CSR, [for] others it's even ethics, [for]

others…we can label it sustainable enterprise; greening of the industry in the

schools. The myriad of terms might be part of your data – what are all these

courses called?…What are we struggling with in trying to move this agenda

forward? How frustrating that people still ask us what is that and where it should

be housed, instead of let's move forward.

Dr. Miller provided his own synopsis to the debate of sustainability's intellectual

capital by trying to explain and delineate sustainability from other stewardship concepts

that do not address ecological and social progress as a key strategy for economic

redirection and stability. He advocated that businesses and business schools have to dig

deeper into their knowledge of sustainability to actually see themselves as forces for life-

form development and progress, and then incorporate that objective into the way they

conduct and teach business. Treating sustainability as an afterthought or honoring what

he sees as weaker versions of stewardship does no more than gloss over the real failings

plaguing society. Until business begins to work in strategic harmony with society and the

environment to achieve genuine sustainability measures, true solutions will escape us.

Dr. Miller reflected on this issue:

I think we've got a plethora of terminology like every other area of academics,

right? I'm sure people would contend that I split hairs when I start talking about

the difference between CSR, environmental management and

sustainability…Yeah, and there's a couple of little op ed pieces I've written over

the last couple of years…the point that I try to make in those is that not only

aren't those subtle differences, but you're right, the trajectory in which they go is

very different, right? So environmental management, that's gearing a dialogue toward operational folks, lawyers and engineers. I mean that's who dominates that kind of a discussion within the organization. They don't make critical organizational decisions and so that's not where most MBAs want to go. That's why when you create those kinds of courses and those kinds of programs, you have somewhat of a limited play within management education and it's why colleagues in the area who do that lament that nobody will take our courses: "We create these, it's critical knowledge for MBAs to know and nobody will take them. We can't get our enrollment past a couple dozen people." And my response is, "Well, you're not really hitting them with what they came to school for in the first place." So you're preparing them to be something that they're not looking to be, whereas CSR has got the same kind of problem with a different constituency with the organization. There they want to - that's much more of a conversation for philanthropists, for folks in foundations, for folks in HR. And in that case, again, same kind of dynamic going on, whereas I feel like sustainable enterprise is hitting – you're hitting on issues that are relevant to top management teams, finance and investment, R&D, and those are the things that MBAs come to school for…what are the chronic social and environmental problems out there in the marketplace and what are the products and the processes and the services that need to be developed to address those things. That's a different framing, but one I think it pretty critical.

Presently, sustainability advocates are trying to help sustainability gain its sea legs in uncharted waters. Its definition is still choppy among planners, leaving the trajectory

of its path debatable. Until there is a meeting of the minds, planners plodded ahead

applying their own interpretations to classroom practice based on their individual insight

and unique experiences.

Interpreting sustainability

Given the variety in sustainability's definition, several respondents expressed

their personal desire for and understanding of sustainability's intellectual history and its

relation to the functioning of their programs. Their responses reflected the internal

dialogue of the conundrum of sustainability as an area of study, including its status as a

discipline; the difference between CSR, environmental management and sustainability;

and how it shapes the design and philosophy of management education. To contain such

dissonance, planners adhered to an interpretation of sustainability that best fit their

current practice, each understanding that their individual preferences and interests played

a big part in supporting the type of program envisioned and created at their school.

Unifying sustainability practice was not necessarily the objective of the planner; getting

sustainability in the door was.

Intellectuals Peter Markham of the Roget School of Business and Harold Wright

at the Peterson School of Management had economic expectations of sustainability as a

mechanism for corporate change invoking an "Education ABOUT Sustainability"

viewpoint. This perspective uses a traditional transference of information to convey the

technical aspects of sustainability management; in other words, how customary business

practice can encompass and capitalize on environmental issues. Dr. Markham's faith was

primarily in the market's ability to explain sustainable principles in order to maintain

current corporate ideals for traditional economic growth:

[A] good line I think is [from] Winston Churchill – he said it about democracy, but I think you can say it about capitalism is, "Capitalism is the worse economic system unless you compare it to all others"….It is what it is and it's a very powerful system when it can be channeled in directions that we need. So for me, I'm very interested in thinking through how do we channel the power of markets and the power of innovation in particular towards the solution of environmental problems?...You know, I'd want to know under what conditions does it pay to be green, for example, is one of the fundamental questions I'm interested in.

Dr. Markham later spoke to how this interpretation of sustainability might translate to the MBA classroom:

I mean when I think about getting students kind of up-to-speed on these issues...I think more like...it'd be good to know a little bit of environmental law and policy. That it'd be good to know...really concrete things you can get your hands around...Where I think there's probably greater ground to – once again, students going to Wall Street. It might be doing valuations of energy firms and they're going to have to assess risk and opportunity for firms making an investment. That's where we're going to start seeing more specialized need.

Dr. Wright shared a similar "Education ABOUT Sustainability" perspective as far as curriculum is concerned, articulating the need for sustainability to operate as a profit center for business, while minimizing any harmful consequences of industry:

I think what I really wanted to achieve was [that] I wanted students to understand that they can in some way profit from being strategic about environmental issues whether it's saving money through operations, niche marketing, green marketing,

reducing risk, whatever it is. That this isn't something that's just being done for the good of society, but it is something that business people can value from a profit standpoint…So that's sort of been my approach to this - some of it is offensive and some of it is defensive when I say profit. It's defensive to reduce risk and reduce environmental activist protest, but some of it is very proactive…The courses in particular in engineering…they actually focus on risk management and so…they actually are very much in the line of thinking about how defensively to use environmental issues to reduce risk [of] catastrophes and mitigate cost if they do occur.

Robin Taylor, a maverick, envisioned a slightly different role for sustainability in research and in practice, "Education IN Sustainability," hoping to expand the role of traditional management disciplines by incorporating sustainability principles into individualized disciplines. She used sustainability as an action-learning tool for more effective organizational management, seeing it ingrained in the everyday decision-making processes of business managers who would use it to increase organizational participation in sustainability-driven issues:

We have enough theory to integrate this as an approach. This is an approach and a viable discipline fed by other disciplines. We need enough practice to say this has traction and deserves to be part of your training and your skill set….I wouldn't say it's its own discipline, but it has enough elements that it's worth taking time out to say, "How do you add to the discipline? What do you add to strategy? What do you add or take from OB?"…So, if you think about it, we…package what we need together and [provide] tools and applications [for]

students…I never say we don't need the other fields; we are building on, adding

on, adjusting in a way there is not time, interest or skill in other classes. Then the

students leave with additional tools that will augment their courses. That would

be one way to look at it.

It is not surprising that Eric Jain and Danielle Sheldon, the study's two

progressives, were also the most open about sustainability's intervention in rearranging

the priorities of management education. This more progressive group chose to use

"Education IN/FOR Sustainability." They built on Dr. Taylor's view by using

sustainability to draw connections among disciplines. While they still honored traditional

management disciplines and their contribution, for them, sustainability was the guiding

force behind management studies. In this capacity, sustainability became more of a

foundational concept directing the use of management disciplines in service of

renegotiating the premise of a profit-driven society, rather than management disciplines

prescribing the use of sustainability in service of traditional business development. Dr.

Jain provided an example of this viewpoint:

You're familiar with [the] triple-bottom-line? Everybody gave you that speech,

right? We call it – there's an intrinsic flaw, inherent flaw with the thinking

behind [the] three Ps. It is the way it is written: People, Planet, and Profit. So

people often think that P+P+P= Great Things…We say, unfortunately, we think

this encourages others to think that means compensate: "I've screwed the

environment, but I made a lot of money for my stockholders. Come on guys, I

didn't screw up the environment completely – I did a little bit, see? I recycled my

cardboard cup, see?" Or, "I donated a million dollars to the local charity. Look!

I'm doing triple bottom line, right?" What we do is we keep each of these as three sort of parallel dimensions never intersecting anywhere. We call it 'P-cubed': PxPxP – you screw one, you screw everything. You are zero in one, you are zero in all. You are low in one, [a] high score in others cannot compensate for low scores. You're negative one, you're gone. So by encouraging this, we think that we are forcing our students to think about every single dimension in a logical fashion saying, "If I did this, it is going to affect each of those dimensions and so a change in one will have a feedback affect on the other[s]. And so a negative direction will ruin us, a positive direction will reinforce it." And that, to us, is...different...To translate into class work requires us to escalate that integration. So people who teach finance or people who teach OB will have to start thinking about delivering it very differently, not same-old, same-old.

These deliberations presented several variations on a theme, so the question remains: Is there any "right" answer for sustainability, or is sustainability a concept that is meant to have multiple connotations and interpretations in order to appeal to a broad base of advocates? To be able to categorize and verbalize sustainability to this degree speaks well of the theory to practice progress sustainability has made so far. It is safe to say no one has cornered the market on a perfect representation of what sustainability should look and feel like in the classroom or through research. However, guidelines have certainly been put in place to continually refine its meaning and use.

Summary

Sustainability is on the path to establishing practical, theoretical and academic roots. Currently, in this study, sustainability in management education practice had the

edge over theory and research as business school planners and their faculty peers

continued to play with its applications in MBA programs. As a context-driven area,

sustainability's strength was in its ability to be adaptive to different disciplines, providing

a new lens from which to view business issues. However, tightening up some of the

diverse meanings and interpretations of sustainability was a constant challenge for

planners as they tried to formalize it into a management concept. Sustainability has so

many varying interpretations and applications covering stewardship fields such as ethics,

corporate social responsibility, environmental management, stakeholder management,

and sustainable enterprise that there was still confusion as to where the main focus and

energy should be applied in giving it a firm and consistent reputation. Despite its

contextual frame, there was doubt as to whether it can mean all things to all people and

still operate as an academic science. Planners were hoping that as research on

sustainability in management education continued to improve, it will develop a more

solid knowledge base that can guide its theoretical formation. Hopefully, the hunt to find

its identity will not result in the sterilization of its premise of a better quality of life for

all.

Planning Table 3: "Inside the Lion's Den" – Section Summary

Planners did not always have the luxury of a congenial relationship with

stakeholders at planning table three, although it should be noted that the relationships

here were not combative either. What was revealed at this planning table was a very

singular way of looking at business and the desire to hold on to sacred principles that

make the business school a premier presence on any university campus. The resistance

might not have been so much to sustainability itself, but instead to having it change a

proven formula for what has resulted in a successful educational enterprise. Introducing a concept that questions what that success is built upon was unlikely to immediately garner a lot of open praise and acceptance at this table. This table, then, presented the largest challenge to planners who wanted to make significant and speedy changes to the business school mindset. The core values of this table were strongly held. Sound and unique negotiation strategies had to be employed to move faculty and administration toward adopting a sustainable approach to their work. This table required a major investment of a planner's time and motivation.

However, planners also recognized that they had a great opportunity at planning table three to bring sustainability into mainstream business life. The stakeholders at planning table three possessed the ability to initiate and integrate sustainability into the business school culture through their research and curriculum. If planners could convince this group to work with sustainability instead of resisting it, they had a better chance of making headway. Very gradually, faculty and administrators at this table were making connections between sustainability and the dramatic consequences of a commercially-driven world. Regardless of where one stood, the hard, cold evidence of resource scarcity, unchecked profiteering, alarming unemployment and general economic collapse created a greater case for alternative business models that can replenish resources and generate enough access to them so that wealth is redistributed more fairly among the haves and have nots. This represented a unique occasion in history to pool business school community know-how and intellect for the purpose of rendering and presenting some ideas for moving through our current economic mire. As a great deal of leadership sat at this table, planners chose to pay attention to the dynamics occurring day

in and day out among these stakeholders so they could continue their march toward

sustainability integration. Though their patience was often tested, their energy was well

spent here.

Chapter Summary

This study set out to answer three research questions using planning theory. The

questions were meant to delve into the everyday planning worlds of faculty and

administrators in business schools, hoping to analyze their experiences in planning

sustainability agendas for their schools' MBA programs. To examine if the data fulfilled

this obligation, the research questions are set apart for review in light of the findings.

Research Question 1: What were the social and institutional mechanisms that

constrained or enabled the planning of sustainability programs or courses by business

school faculty and administrators?

Surprisingly (or perhaps not surprisingly), most of the constraints were within

planners' home turf and peer system. Faculty and administrators not familiar or

comfortable with sustainability showed they will balk at a concept so foreign to them

being introduced into their environment, especially if it impacts their area of expertise.

Sustainability to date has literally had to be presented in small doses so that faculty and

administrators opposed to it can gradually consider its merits and uses. Altering the

MBA program structure to accommodate sustainability's message has not been a realistic

option until recently as a few schools have taken the leap to build the MBA around

sustainability as the foundational concept. However, some faculty and administrators as

demonstrated by this study remained tentative, perhaps until sustainability can garner

more intellectual stability, and can be interpreted as a legitimate academic discipline, not

a passing fad. Planning at table three represented planning on the defense; making sure planners' visions for sustainability were not shot down as it climbed the approval ladder.

As far as enablers were concerned, planners used external sources and internal allies to learn about sustainability and its ties to business. Planners made themselves available to serve on committees and task forces, participated in associations and councils, and partnered with content managers, students and other university departments to create pockets of activity where sustainability could thrive among an enthusiastic reception. These groups gave planners direction and feedback on their sustainability ideas, and in many instances, gave them money, mandates and motivation to keep the planning process alive. This large support group buffered the lukewarm response planners received from their peers and fortified their conviction of the sustainability perspective. Although the prospect of working through interdisciplinary and intersectoral channels was and remains a monumental challenge for groups, planners and their supporters opted to stay focused on the larger objective of incorporating sustainability into academic life without devolving into major dissents. Planning at tables one and two, therefore, represented planning on the offense; preparing for a long-term investment in sustainability.

Research Question 2: How did sustainability program planners identify stakeholders that affected the direction of their program or courses?

Once planners made a personal decision to implement sustainability elements into their schools' MBA programs, they attached themselves to people whom one, had content knowledge, and whom two, had the power, interests and ethical commitment to get sustainability through administrative channels. As to the former, knowledge-bearing was

not relegated to business school faculty, but also came from outside the business school or academia in the form of practitioners from industry, non-profit, government or professors from other schools. Planners soon realized that sustainability was a subject that intertwined many schools of thought, requiring a large panel of contributors to do it justice. Depending on how ambitious planners felt they could be, they either expanded sustainability's repertoire as much as they could, while still maintaining its relevance to business, or they kept a tight rein on sustainability to reel in its focus. Thus, their own level of comfort with sustainability played a significant part in their decision concerning who to bring to the planning table. Planners' relative independence to plan gave them the power to decide how large or small they wanted the planning table to be. This affected the direction and scope sustainability took at the school.

On the second score, people bearing the right combination of power, interests and ethical commitment were also sought by the planner or sometimes sought the planner out. Planners were caught between the push and pull effect of planning table two and planning table three. Planners pushed those at planning table three who had the resources and endorsements needed to plan and were reluctant to relinquish them, while simultaneously being pulled by those at planning table two to move quickly to get something off the ground. As fast as those who wanted sustainability in place pulled planners along, those who had to grant access were just as likely to drag their feet. Again, depending on where the planner stood in his or her orientation to sustainability, he or she used the appropriate negotiation strategy to either put the brakes on sustainability, acquiescing to the hesitations of some, or supercharged his or her process to meet the demands of others. Through these actions, planners inserted their own authority to moderate the pace of

sustainability implementation based on their own interests and ethical commitment, even as they were being guided by the interests and ethical commitment of others.

Many planners in this study searched for other groups who had expertise and had shared the interest and ethical commitment to propagating communication, information and experience to MBA students (or to other interested parties), in order to keep from planning in a vacuum and to build a coalition of support. Knowingly or unknowingly, most planners nurtured substantive democratic planning in an attempt to advance their educational objectives. However, the research also demonstrated that others who did not share the same interests and ethical commitment had the power to make planning challenging. Where power, interests and ethical commitment did not agree, stronger negotiation strategies and tactics were clearly needed as will be discussed in answering research question three.

Research Question 3: *How did business school faculty and administrative planners negotiate power and interests they encountered in planning?*

Negotiation strategies and tactics depended upon which table planners were "seated" at any point in time. At planning table one, "Friendly Persuasion," planners shared for the most part all three planning elements, power, interests and ethical commitment. Collaborations around sustainability were often new territory to planners and stakeholders. Each was attempting to find their footing with the support of the other. The stakes, while important, were lowest at this table as planners and stakeholders passed through an experimental phase to get sustainability off of the ground. Because planners and stakeholders appreciated the camaraderie at table one, negotiations were more like conversations. Under these circumstances, planners and stakeholders were moving

cautiously in the same direction. Therefore, negotiations tended to be stable and not very intense.

Negotiations heated up a bit when planners got to table two, "On Firm Ground." Planners and stakeholders shared interests and ethical commitment that were the strongest at this table, but stakeholders had more power here. Fortunately, that power worked in favor of planners, who used it to execute interests shared by the group, as well as ideas brainstormed at table one. Negotiations here were more specific because the relationship between stakeholders and planners started to penetrate curricular and administrative boundaries; the day-to-day instruction of faculty members and the strategic direction of the MBA program. Planners and stakeholders were on the same team, but both understood more was at stake here because they were actualizing their plans for sustainability. Their interests and ethical commitments were now going to be on public display, making a statement saying that planners and their advocates were taking a stand on sustainability's importance to the business school. As partners working toward the same objective then, negotiations at planning table two centered on getting the curriculum developed and delivered to the classroom. The detail was in the execution of course objectives, design, schedules, approvals, credit hours and marketing. Depending upon how many stakeholders planners invited to this table, negotiations were cooperative, but more intense and driven by obtaining successful results.

When planners shared power, but not interests or ethical commitment, they were facing stakeholders at planning table three, "The Lion's Den." Relationship-building here called for more tact on the planner's part because he or she was beginning to question the ship's course. As this reality seeped in, other factions unfriendly or

unsupportive to the notion of sustainability in management education resisted its entrance

into the MBA curriculum. Planners, most of whom were part of and wise to the culture,

handled negotiations by gradually educating stakeholders on sustainability, helping them

take a similar journey of self-edification through which planners had taken themselves.

Brown bag lunches, ready-made powerpoint slides, field trips, tradeoffs, and constant

discussion were methods used by planners to feed stakeholders information and insight in

sustainability's enhancements to management education. Where planners had dominion

over faculty or administrators in terms of donor money or an administrative mandate,

they used those advantages to apply a little more force in clearing their path of obstacles.

However, where power was neutral, planners used a gentle touch, a patient demeanor and

several types of bargaining chips to win over sustainability converts.

Final Thoughts

The data compiled spoke to the trial and error of sustainability planning within the

MBA program. Sustainability planning was primarily an organic effort; planners often

did not try to force results, but let their interests and efforts take a natural course, unless

specifically dictated by an outside entity. Planners surveyed the territory, built networks

and experimented one course at a time, making sure that quality was not sacrificed for

quantity. If sustainability was supposed to incite a change of attitude, courses

surrounding it had to be convincing. But this same low key approach was also probably

what perpetuated sustainability's slow burn within the business school. Lack of a

cohesive effort throughout the school thwarted the planning process. For many planners,

sustainability planning was a piecemeal engagement that allowed them to look only as far

as the next step. Only a few (two out of the 12 people and nine schools interviewed) had

the opportunity and resources to visualize a comprehensive venue for sustainability. Because planning was a sideline undertaking directed by one or two planners, it usually took a backseat to other priorities.

The importance of these observations relative to the study is to recognize that if sustainability is to move forward at a faster rate, it will need the full bearing of stakeholders from each table to come to some amicable consensus about where sustainability fits in management education. Alone, planners have initiated a heroic feat. But now the question has to be asked if whether enduring another 10-15 years of slow growth is feasible. Without sustainability garnering attention at an institutional level (university and school) on par with other disciplines, instead of at a departmental or faculty level, it could be rendered impotent in the long-term. Planners understood this, and thus, had their sights trained on institutional-building for sustainability through centers or full programs. Making noise and headway at higher realms had the potential to place sustainability into the line of sight of a larger audience. However, more cooperation within the school is necessary to attain this goal. Dr. Danielle Sheldon from the Gillium School of Management offered some parting thoughts regarding the future possibility of universities and their business schools making the leap toward a sustainable mindset:

> *I think the silos, traditional universities via the nature of higher education*
> *requires specialization to the extreme. In fact I was at a seminar last week where*
> *a professor gave data on the – if you look at over the last 15-20 years the number*
> *of scientific journals, the proliferation and the specialization that has occurred is*
> *just mind boggling and the entire system is structured that way. So it makes it so*

difficult for even people – I have colleagues over at [other schools] who share the

same vision but they cannot get their faculty to talk to each other. So I think you

do have pockets of universities and I think some of the ones you're talking to are

making great strides but they have this inertia that they have to I think – that's

their challenge where our challenge is resources and infrastructure their

challenges are very different challenges which is why the person you spoke to is

probably is right. It's going to take a while for the big institutions to get enough

momentum and buy in to really move this way because ultimately sustainability

requires breaking down of barriers and boundaries and cooperation and that is

difficult to do I think in a large institution. So I think I would be naïve to say that

the big universities can't do it. I think they absolutely can but they're got to have

the… right vision, and really the right leadership to bring people together to do

this.

Positioning sustainability as an issue that frames our global economy today

invites the business school to re-examine and reflect on where its path lies in a future

economy; how their current philosophy and messages come across to people witnessing a

major economic upheaval; and questions its contribution to inducing economic stability.

Planners have already opened avenues toward the business school participating in a very

public conversation about business, society and the environment. Their intervention has

sparked collaborations beyond an academic purview, into the halls and offices of

government, corporations, non-profits, healthcare and education. With their trial and

error period behind them and their work more solidly in demand, planners were poised to

attain bigger goals and make larger strides toward sustainability-based management

education, if they can focus on more strategic and compelling planning efforts to evoke a profound change in the establishment mindset. Without a vision and plan of action to bring along more stakeholder support, particularly at planning table three, sustainability could succumb to the danger of eternal fragmentation and marginalization.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the program planning processes of U.S. business professors and administrators initiating, creating, and teaching sustainability programs in the highly bureaucratic environment of U.S. business schools. It was the study's aim to document the planning process of sustainability courses and curricula in order to examine the social and political relations that end up determining the direction of a sustainability offering. This chapter summarizes the research problem, methods, findings and conclusions. It includes implications for theory and practice and follows-up with a discussion of the study's limitations as well as recommendations for future research.

Summary

This study set out to show how academic planners in a business school environment introduce, build and maintain the concept of sustainability as a MBA curricular subject. While there were many case studies highlighting the experiences of business school faculty teaching individual sustainability courses and recounting the outcome of student participation in those courses (e.g. Courtice & Porritt, 2004; Marshall, 2004; Kearins & Springett, 2003; Pesonen, 2003; Rice & Sprague, 2004; Roome, 2005; Ryland, 1998; Welsh & Murray, 2003; Wheeler, Zohar, & Hart, 2005), none studied the actual planning process of those courses by analyzing how faculty managed their relationships with business school peers and constituents to get sustainability included as a significant part of the MBA course portfolio. Specifically, this study was designed to

understand how planners anticipated and worked through the social relationships and the political agendas that formed their organizational context in order to accept the responsibility of implementing sustainability curriculum, research and programming based on their knowledge of and experience with management education and its stakeholders. The following questions form the basis of my research: (1) What are the social and institutional mechanisms that constrain or enable the planning of sustainability programs or courses by business school faculty and administrators? (2) How do sustainability program planners identify stakeholders that affect the direction of their program or courses? (3) How do business school faculty and administrative planners negotiate the power and interests they encounter in planning?

　　This study was conducted using one-on-one interviews with academic planners from selected U.S. business schools including, eight faculty professors; two lecturers; one adjunct instructor, and one administrator. These participants were key players in designing and implementing educational programs. For my research study, I used purposeful sampling, specifically a criterion-based one, of U.S. MBA business school programs that teach sustainability management programs. My main sample came from the *Beyond Grey Pinstripes* website (http://www.beyondgreypinstripes.org). Most key planners were named on the BGP website, as well as their school website. I interviewed 1-2 people per school coming to a total of 12 participants. I used inductive and deductive qualitative research strategies for analyzing my research in the form of the constant comparative method to analyze transcribed interview data and planning documents. Constant comparative was used to analyze interview transcripts to develop a cogent understanding of sustainability planners' experiences. The data analyzed brought

together an array of stories and experiences that addressed the research concerns, developing a prototypical portrait of a business school sustainability planning process. This is not meant as a template for planners to implement, but rather a model to factor into their decisions about sustainability-building in their current environment. In other words, this is not a set of step-by-step procedures to sustainability planning, but a guide for anticipating certain planning conditions one might encounter under the institutional standards of the business school, and the academic principles of management education.

For this study, Cervero and Wilson's (1994, 2006) planning table metaphor is used to illustrate the interactions between planners and their stakeholders, as well as planners' approaches to addressing stakeholder issues. Four areas, three being specific planning tables, emerged as planners made their way through the maze of program development at their respective business schools as shown in Figure 8. These four areas were titled, "The Force Within: Intrinsic Motivation," "Planning Table One: Friendly Persuasion," "Planning Table Two: On Firm Ground," and "Planning Table Three: Inside the Lion's Den." At these tables, planners faced a new group of stakeholders with whom they continued to work each time they sought support or validation for sustainability in management education. Planners tapped stakeholders inside and outside of the business school as well as the university, seeking connections with both believers and skeptics. To accomplish this, business school planners had to dismantle some historical barriers put up based on several factors, including: natural resistance to the disruptive nature of sustainability; a very siloed culture within the business school and throughout the university; and distrust of the star status of the business school among other schools on campus. Based on these relationships, each planning table came with its own set of

power, interest, negotiation and ethical commitment issues and planners readjusted their

position at the table to fit their educational, social and political needs, along with each

stakeholder. Much of the type of negotiation analyzed and described for this study

tended to be both substantive negotiations at the needs assessment and educational

objective phases of program development, and meta-negotiations when planners needed

to evaluate social and political outcomes associated with explaining, defending and

implementing sustainability. In fact, up to recently, the latter has taken most planners'

energy and time.

Figure 8. Sustainability Planning Tables

This research verified that sustainability has taken root in pockets of universities

and business schools niches where a few planners have established educational

communities for special curriculum and project advancement hoping to eventually see it

flourish into a program the whole school and maybe even the university will embrace

collectively. Planners understood that sustainability would have minimal impact at the business school if they did not reinforce their own belief in and make a strong case for sustainability's place in business among various coalitions with whom they could at once share information and knowledge (Planning Table One - "Friendly Persuasion"); transfer ideas into an action plan (Planning Table Two – "On Firm Ground"); and renegotiate the terms and use of business education (Planning Table Three – "Into the Lion's Den"). Much of their work was across industry sectors, schools and disciplines, as many contend it must be (Blewitt, 2004; Steiner & Posch, 2006; Thomas, 2004). The planning stories of faculty and administrators included the work and voices of different stakeholders at several stages of the sustainability planning process. Planning tables were prominent and necessary tools as planners sought to gather every resource available to them. Instinctively, planners understood the character of both the subject and the terrain in which they were dealing and found allies or anticipated foes in order to assert claims to sustainability's presence in the business school. With each planning table cycle, planners created niches to move into using appropriate negotiation strategies to try to attain the desired result.

Conclusions and Discussion

        This study proposes the following conclusions as a basis for a final discussion of the data: (1) Sustainability was an organizational innovation for which planners adopted either a revolutionary or incremental planning stance in order to achieve certain degrees of emancipatory change; (2) Planners' long-term intrinsic motivation and positional capital were central to continuing and strengthening sustainability's progress through the business school; (3) Planners' efforts to negotiate support, resources, information and

knowledge varied based on the degree of administrator, faculty and external involvement and cooperation.

Research data from the study, published scholarly literature and practical examples of planning in action are used to substantiate the above conclusions. Each conclusion is meant to elucidate the data to generate original thought on why planning for sustainability in business schools was significant and practical solutions for scholars and practitioners. Additional literature should help to validate these conclusions in the theoretical sense, while also offering viable suggestions for practice.

Conclusion One: *Sustainability was an organizational innovation for which planners adopted either a revolutionary or incremental planning stance in order to achieve certain degrees of emancipatory change.*

What the study determined is that planners were in a delicate situation that had to be handled with care because of the sensitivity of the subject around which planning was being done. The tension between the radical nature of sustainability and the conservative premise of the business school presented an interesting challenge for planners. They found that they had to not only manage the dynamics of their political and social context to obtain educational resources, but had to do so while simultaneously defending the legitimacy and knowledge base of sustainability as a relevant management concept. Though they were planning as part of their lived experiences in their day-to-day professional capacity, that is, making everyday decisions about programs (Cervero & Wilson, 2006), planners in this study were also planning to implement considerable organizational innovation and change that could help reposition their business school's attitude toward social and environmental responsibility. This finding on sustainability

planning in business schools parallels the literature in Chapter 2 that espouses

corporations need to undergo a significant reinvention in their structures, vision, beliefs

and culture to accommodate deep transformational sustainability change at systemic

levels (Doppelt, 2003; Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2003). Changes in their external

setting require that business schools, like corporations, assess and interpret the affect of

the transitions in business, and make appropriate, even sizeable adjustments to offset

distress (Hatch, 1997). Only transformational change in the form of innovation can

transition business beliefs to another plateau, fundamentally altering organizational

assumptions about its relationship to the environment (Cummings & Worley, 2001;

Kanter, 1983; Nonaka, 1994; Weick & Quinn, 1999). Innovations are deemed important

to organizational growth and evolution and are borne out of people in organizations

sorting through the conflicting information they encounter on a daily basis given

interaction with their environments, allowing them to generate new queries, and thus new

solutions to those queries. Eric Jain, for instance, as a progressive, believed that a

sustainability curriculum in management had to be conceptualized and operationalized in

a way that would capture its sweeping premise: "Every semester a sustainability course is

slotted into one slot, and everything else is built around it. So we had to create and send

a very powerful signal that everything starts and stops at sustainability….We really

wanted to emphasize our approaches - completely different, clean-based integrative

approaches that cannot be easily mimicked by our competitors."

Because innovation is a non-routine act of planning, it constitutes an assignment

outside of standardized processes and veers away from the predefined and bounded

borders of a specific job responsibility (Kanter, 1983). Therefore, it is tightly connected

to bringing about substantive change in an organization, "a disruption in activities, a redirection of organizational energies" (Kanter, 1983, p. 212), that has the potential to result in significant operational, philosophical, theoretical, and in sustainability's case, ideological shifts among its members. Bringing about such an entrepreneurial venture often put business school sustainability planners in the "wilds" of the organization and made them freelancers of sorts, forcing them to seek out sources of interest for the innovation from unconventional places and people, often outside the direct lifeline of the organization. As innovators, sustainability planners had to reconfigure, suspend, or even discard the original terms of the organizational covenant that dictated rules and mores of MBA and business school operation in order to achieve change that supported sustainability programming. Since sustainability represented a deviation from business school planning norms and was considered a risky entrant to the MBA program, planners then had to make better use of the power and interests they found through unlikely or alternative allies. They had to go "off the grid" so to speak because, "change, no matter how desired or desirable, requires that new agreements be negotiated and tools for action be found beyond what it takes to do the routine job…" (Kanter, 1983, p. 212). Planners here chose to break through the stalemate of resistance to change and innovation, and in doing so, had to navigate to a greater degree the political machinery that allows certain sanctioned ideas to pass, while keeping others out of the knowledge flow. Therefore, sustainability innovation was an essential bid for negotiating power and interests and maintaining ethical commitment in new and sometimes foreign territory. Planners re-discovered their own power based on their social position and general knowledge, as well as excavated other power sources from not just their business schools, but their

universities and other external, sometimes unique, stakeholder groups. This brand of planning was a political play for change, an attempt to negotiate almost around the organization, working from the outside in, as well as the inside out, to exert pressure on the core for an ethical commitment to educational change.

The perceived openness of their business school to sustainability as an innovation largely dictated planners' preference to take an incremental approach to incorporating sustainability into their MBA programs, per the intellectuals and the mavericks, or to have an opportunity to revolutionize the traditional MBA completely to make sustainability the foundational concept for their SMBAs, hence the work of the progressives. "Here is where the environment – the organization's structure and culture – enters the picture. All the enterprise, initiative and bright ideas of a creative potential innovator may go nowhere if he or she cannot get the power to turn ideas into action" (Kanter, 1983, pp. 215-216). Benn and Bubna-Litic (2004) discuss both ways as valid for implementing sustainability within the MBA. Incremental integration is introduced as a new product or service and is meant to steadily insert itself into the routine operations of the business school. Change is incremental so as to slowly reposition mainstream subject matter toward sustainability issues so that students gradually understand and experience sustainability. Revolutionary integration through the development of an SMBA or a "new generation degree," as Benn and Bubna-Litic (2004) call it, breaks the frame of the traditional MBA all at once by contesting its rationalist, modernist and technical foundation through the holistic integration of core MBA concepts around sustainability's ecocentric premise. Progressives in this study dove into the deeper end of the pool, willing to make significant structural and administrative changes over a specified period

of time that broke with standard MBA operational and bureaucratic protocol. The new-generation MBA is a totally different MBA model crafted to accelerate the push toward a strong version of sustainability (Neumayer, 2003; Rao, 2000) that preserves the different types of capital associated with economic, social and ecological resources. The progressive planning process resulted in a curriculum design that was closest to education *for* sustainability (Sterling, 1996), communicating a full sustainable discourse that includes a critical examination of existing business paradigms. Mavericks and intellectuals chose an incremental approach to planning, hoping to blend sustainability into the flow of their schools' regular curricular presentations so as not to jolt students and faculty and to get them used to the idea of sustainability. This produced a mixture of what Banerjee (2002), Neumayer (2003) and Rao (2000) would categorize as weak sustainability or eco-efficiency, as well as strong versions of sustainability. This view was more characteristic of education *in* sustainability (Sterling, 1996) and exemplified less problematic approach to management education, placing a great the majority of emphasis on experiential methods of class instruction and design. Intellectuals actually did not really meet the incremental standard, instead choosing to "dot" the MBA portfolio with one or two specialized courses or research programs that largely maintained the existing worldview of business, providing students and stakeholders with risk-averse or compliance-level information. This essentially resulted in a strictly eco-efficiency approach to sustainability studies relying on education *about* sustainability or general information about environmental issues. For purposes of comparison, however, intellectuals will be referred to as incremental planners.

Given the advancing interests of students, figuring out how fast and how comprehensively to institute sustainability course initiatives may be another question with which planners may need to contend in the near future. Though incrementalism has made strides over the last 10-15 years, what intellectuals and mavericks have not been able to do, predominantly in traditional business schools, is to make enough large-scale change given the political resistance to rethinking the MBA core curriculum in order to respond more aggressively to the need for social responsibility in business practice and theory. For many planners, sustainability planning was a tentative engagement that allowed them to look only as far as the next step. Because incremental planning for sustainability was a sideline undertaking directed by one or two planners, it usually took a backseat to other school priorities. Though Blewitt (2004) speaks from the perspective of higher education in the UK, he makes a conclusion about sustainability in academia that mirrors the issues facing business school sustainability planners in the US. He surmises that while, "Some progress is already being made in some universities…not all observers are confident that HE [higher education] is capable of more than piecemeal change" (Blewitt, 2004, p. 5).   However, incrementalism seemed to work better for planners who had greater structural ideologies to overcome.

As an innovation, therefore, sustainability elicited new ways to re-examine existing knowledge in the business school. As an innovation with the possibility of inciting emancipatory change, sustainability was the catalyst for not just new knowledge creation, but for a shift in perception about the difference business can make when asked to participate in solving major global issues and about how far to extend the use of its principles within the context of society, not just academia or the corporate world.

Sustainability as an emancipatory innovation, gave planners permission to reach across

implied boundaries through substantive democratic planning to at least rethink

management curricula by beginning to broaden the range of its reach. It allowed planners

to create multiple intersecting opportunities for collaboration among stakeholders for and

against the inclusion of sustainability in MBA programs, inviting discussion that toyed

and tinkered with the democratic-capitalist premise upon which traditional management

and profit models have been built (Cunningham, 2000; Imel, 1999; Inglis, 1997).

However, sustainability as an innovation was also tempered by the ideals of the planner's

business school, forcing planners to monitor the degree of change they could make. This

study intended to contribute an understanding of how a non-routine act of planning such

as the attempt to create emancipatory innovation and change, requires access to

coordinated arsenal of various power and interests to break through the structural seal of

organizational resistance.

> ***Conclusion Two:*** *Planners' long-term intrinsic motivation and positional capital were*
>
> *central to continuing and strengthening sustainability's progress through the business*
>
> *school.*

Cervero and Wilson's planning theory (1994, 2006) gives due consideration to the

will and energy of the planner to be able to create an educational planning strategy that

opens new avenues for a fair and equitable process of knowledge-building among

stakeholders. It recognizes the planner as being a central determinant in how educational

programs are constructed and delivered. Using Gidden's duality of structure theory,

Cervero and Wilson posit that both the actions of planners and the structures in which

they work have interrelated effects on one another based on the recursive nature of social

life. Planners are not completely naïve about what they intend to accomplish in the everyday practice of working life and therefore, wield some power over the outcomes of a planning situation. At the same time, they are notably constrained by the social and structural rules and regulations of their organization or institution, in this case, the business school. Because of this mutuality, "structures shape people's practices, but it is also people's practices that constitute [and reproduce] structures" (Sewell, 1992, p. 4).

It was this tension between their personal interest in sustainability, the use of their professional clout and the norms of their organizational enclaves that ended up shaping sustainability education within the MBA program at business schools interviewed for this study. To ensure educational outcomes that represented a sustainability perspective, planners had to be able to push past the ideological inertia of the business school culture using the force of their own evolving ideals to make room for oppositional voices and the promise of imagined possibility "of what is not-yet into the concrete realm of what could be" (Hooper in Cervero & Wilson, 1997, p. 101). Sustainability presented a different frame from which to view business practice, enticing these individual planners to act from new vantage points. For them, "the salience of a compelling alternative logic…dislodge[ed] the cognitive grip of a dominant logic by exposing the beliefs and understandings that were previously taken for granted…" (Meyerson & Tompkins, 2007, p. 309). Planners in this situation, therefore, had to find their voice, even if it deviated from the educational agenda of the status quo, and determine how much they were vested in promoting a controversial topic that challenges the historical attitudes and direction of their social and structural sphere.

A planner's long-term intrinsic motivation for sustainability-building then was paramount, as initial planning decisions unfolded. This was also substantiated by Mosley in her 2005 study of racial and ethnic disparities in medical education program planning. Faculty planners in this study also had to decide how far they would go in advocating and implementing new and possibly disruptive knowledge depending upon, one, the perceived validity of the concept; two, how embedded in and loyal to they are to the implied mandate of the business school; and three, how much support they have to go against the grain of traditional ideals. Often finding themselves to be a single, representative voice in their school on the topic until they could round-up other collaborators to broaden attention and action, planners' intrinsic motivation was the launching pad, the seed from which planning would either flourish or flounder. In this sense, the role and the work planners undertook could be equated to the practice of institutional entrepreneurship or tempered radicalism as explored in Chapter 2 (Meyerson & Tompkins, 2007). As institutional entrepreneurs or tempered radicals, planners used their intrinsic motivation for sustainability to drive momentum behind its progress. In other words, planners "deliberately work[ed] to transform institutional arrangements to advance a set of interests" (Meyerson & Tompkins, 2007, p. 307). By employing institutional entrepreneurship and tempered radicalism, planners became "interest-driven actors" who used a set of "conscious, strategic actions" to introduce and implement sustainability concepts (Meyerson & Tompkins, 2007, p. 307).

As such, planners seemed to have in common certain tendencies or characteristics that they effectively used to their advantage throughout their planning process that kept sustainability in a favorable light. The most important of these was the fact that the

primary sustainability planners (as opposed to the secondary planners defined in Chapter

4) were full or tenured professors who could devote more time, attention and resources to

sustainability planning. Seven out of the 12 people interviewed were tenured, held chairs

(often endowed), or were heads of departments. Five out of the 12 people interviewed

were either adjunct, administration or untenured. Three of those five people, however,

were secondary planners, backed by one of the seven full-time faculty members. So there

was quite a bit of organizational cache behind many of these planners as they networked

throughout the school and university. Thus, this study found, as others have described,

that the social position of planners within their organization (Mosley, 2005; Sinclair,

2005) was a key contributing factor to the acceptance or rejection of sustainability by

stakeholders and to relative success or hindrance of the planning process.

Because of their status in the business school, and driven by their intrinsic

motivation to implement sustainability, most primary planners were willing to expend

some of their acquired positional capital to adopt a tempered radical stance or to be an

institutional entrepreneur within their departments, across other business school

departments and eventually, among other schools at the university. Most were not

hesitant to use their position of power (and in the case of secondary planners their

primary power backing), to call in favors, make some deals, bring in outside support, or

otherwise go out on a limb to develop a sustainability agenda. Positional capital was

important in smoothing the way for sustainability's acceptance when it came to passing it

by a jury of peers for review as in the case of curriculum approvals by faculty

committees, an observation also supported by Clugston and Calder (1999) and Meyerson

and Tompkins (2007). Their position allowed most planners to feel confident in asserting

and defending courses. A few acknowledged that their standing in the organization

preceded them, providing some benefit of the doubt from faculty peers. Harold Wright

admitted that approval of sustainability courses was not overly rigorous for him: "There

may have been some questions. Again, we're a small school and people question, 'Well,

how many students would ever take this and why would we focus on this area?' And the

answer is, 'Not too many' and 'Because Wright's here.' " Robert Howard expresses a

similar insight: "I've got a lot of institutional history; I have quite a good record; I would

say I am a respected colleague….So I think when they're like, 'Howard's coming in'

even if you don't know much about it, I think there's a lot of trust that I have good

judgment and I wasn't doing something really flaky or off the wall." Given examples

like this, planners were willing to risk some of the reputational value of their position in

order to gain credence for sustainability. They knew their position represented a well-

recognized and well-regarded source of power within the business school and would be a

benefit. They used their position as their capacity to act (Cervero & Wilson, 1994;

Sewell, 1992), where power is "distributed to individual planners by virtue of the

organizational and social positions which they occupy" (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, p.

254).

The importance of positional capital against long-term intrinsic motivation was

also evident when people with this capital who were influential left the organization

during a crucial planning period. Sustainability planners relied not just on their own

positional capital and intrinsic motivation to make headway, but nurtured the capital and

motivation of others at each planning table as added leverage toward a sustainable

program outcome. Such a bond was vital to keeping a steady momentum behind

sustainability planning, as a key stakeholder's positional advantage in one area of the organization or institution would likely offset any weakness the planner could not cover or would need to have supplemented. However, once that pivotal capital is removed, depending on the degree of power and interest provided by the departing stakeholder, setbacks can be significant until the loss can be replaced. After initial founders of their sustainability program left, the Jeffrey School of Business had endowments waiting in the wings to continue their efforts ensuring that they sallied forth to quickly complete their program goals. The Randall School of Business did not have such a safety net once the head of the environmental institute with whom they were planning a joint center left, leaving them to wait for another mode of support. It took their own intrinsic motivation for sustainability-building to maintain their resolve until this could occur. Therefore, a possible removal of vital positional capital from others is something that should be factored in as a continual check of the planner's own degree of ongoing interest and in targeting overall planning objectives.

Planners tapped into and adopted a different mindset and skill set that would use their intrinsic motivation and positional power as leverage for making sustainability a worthy goal, and in some cases, an organizational and institutional imperative. Planners used leadership by persuasion to move the business school toward consideration and eventually action. Their intrinsic motivation helped build their confidence in sustainability enough to take on a leadership role and voice that sparked emancipatory innovation and change. Despite structural restraints, the determination of planners to overcome institutional barriers for sustainability-building based on their own positional capital was paramount to achieve their sustainability goals. The recognition of their own

place in the system, the leverage of their position, and the opportunities for change in the institution, prodded these planners to take a chance on evolving the dominant institutional logic into an alternative context for managerial economic governance.

Conclusion Three: *Planners' efforts to negotiate support, resources, information and knowledge varied based on the degree of administrator, faculty and external involvement and cooperation.*

Cervero and Wilson's planning table metaphor (1994, 2006) was a central theme in this study. Planners liberally created several of them to fulfill the task of sustainability-building at their business schools to answer the growing call for socially-responsible business practice. Most planners, specifically the intellectuals and the mavericks, had little more than an idea about including sustainability in the MBA when they first started their planning sojourn. It was left up to planners to figure out how to breach the void of sustainability content, research and discussion within the MBA program. Instinctively, they set about surveying the terrain inside and outside of the business school to increase their personal knowledge of the subject and to seek allies who could help launch their pilot programs.

In their quest for sustainability-building, these planners found that they had to lobby for four essential elements in order to meet their objectives: support, resources, information and knowledge. Planners spent the majority of their time, energy and capital searching for any one of these as institutional entrepreneurs attempting to journey outside of their everyday sphere of influence. These are the elements around which planners assessed power and endeavored to negotiate and satisfy interests as they identified stakeholders at their planning tables. Kanter (1983) calls these elements organizational

"power tools" that define the organizational odds planners faced in obtaining a positive outcome. These are the typical realms in which planners need to acquire the most leverage toward innovation. Kanter (1983) describes it this way:

> To use an economic analogy, it is as though there were three kinds of "markets" in which the individual initiating innovation must compete – a "knowledge" market or "marketplace of ideas" for information; an "economic market" for resources; and a "political market" for support and legitimacy. Each of the "markets" is shaped in different ways by organizational structure and rules (e.g., how openly information is exchanged, how freely executives render support), and each gives the person a different kind of "capital" to invest in a "new venture." (p. 159)

Support, resources, information and knowledge comprise the practical action of planning as defined by Cervero and Wilson (2006). The work of practical action, directs planners to not only secure a specific set of educational outcomes, but to negotiate for social and political results that would yield certain strategic advantages (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 2006). It is the mindset that says work at the planning table yields not just information for information's sake, but when applied also yields social and political consequences that affect human and non-human functioning and development in the real-world. "Further, planners need to see that while these outcomes can be distinguished in theory, in practice they are utterly interdependent" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 19). Using practical action, planners can "see that educational programs benefit many people in many ways" (p. 18). Put in this position, "planners can neither 'step outside' such conditions, nor be neutral about who should benefit" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 20).

These elements, then, were the building blocks of planning table activities. In the end, most planners held to their ethical commitment of creating some sort of programmatic space for sustainability in the MBA program, although depending upon the access planners had to the kind of support, resources, information and knowledge that could adequately assist them in this bid, curricular outcomes varied in size and scope. As support, resources, information and knowledge were so central to the practical action of planning, it is important to examine how planners used them to enhance sustainability at their business schools.

The differences in program outcomes between the progressives, mavericks and intellectuals in this study beg one to ask how the dynamic in these schools allowed for various planning strengths. The progressives' ability to get to the SMBA level within a shorter period of time through a certain combination support, resources, information and knowledge merits some attention as sustainability's profile continues to increase in business management and business schools. They were able to operate under certain circumstances different from intellectuals and mavericks that expanded their planning outcomes. Progressives' accelerated experience does not diminish or overshadow the success garnered by the intellectuals or mavericks, nor does it negate the social, ethical or political tribulations they themselves underwent as planners. However, focusing on their planning strategies relative to the incremental approaches undertaken by intellectuals and mavericks may serve to illuminate for new planners who wish to engage in sustainability-building, example planning factors that work best depending on their school's social and political context.

Negotiating for support and resources

One of the ways the progressives' revolutionary planning process differs from the incremental planning process of mavericks and intellectuals may lie in the organizational working relationship Nonaka (1994) identifies as "Middle-Up-Down Management" or in this case, middle-up-down planning. The Middle-Up-Down model is described by Nonaka (1994) as a process of self-organizing that enables organizations to increase the flow of innovation creation. Planning from the middle, contrasted with planning from the top or bottom generates synthesized decision-making movement between all levels of an organization toward an objective. This brand of exchange encourages full, active and even participation among the top, middle and bottom levels of an organization, as opposed to unequivocal directives from the top, or unorganized or unrealistic demands from the bottom. Middle managers or planners, who, according to Nonaka, are "the most important knowledge-creating individuals in this model," (p. 32), serve as the strategists who marry organizational vision with operational reality. "By creating middle-level business and product concepts, middle managers mediate between 'what is' and 'what ought to be' " (p. 32). They create the channel of communication between the top-down and the bottom-up, as well as the self-organizing capacity of feedback coming from the outside-in (an idea contributed from the data in this study per the participation of external stakeholders) necessary to initiate meaning creation and value toward a sustainable objective. In this way, "middle management sometimes plays the role of 'change-agent' for the self-revolution of the organization" (p. 32).

All the planners in this study seemed capable of managing power and interests that came from bottom-up, or outside-in from grassroots and external stakeholders. To

build their case for sustainability, they approached corporations, current and incoming students, alumni, non-profits, recruiters, and others for support. These constituents were familiar with and had a vested interest in the planner's work at the business school, linked to their own success. Allowing these groups into their planning circle gave them outside rationale for the pros and cons of sustainability-building in a MBA program, giving stakeholders a chance to voice pleasure or discontent with the idea. Most grassroots and external stakeholders expressed appeal for sustainability innovation, which lent strength to planners' rationale in favor of developing and offering the sustainability programs.

Intellectuals and particularly mavericks, since they had to plan incrementally (phase by phase), became incredibly adept at working from the bottom-up and outside-in. Most of them showed great ability and tenacity to keep the lines of communication open between themselves (located at the middle of the organizational field) and students and other external constituents located at the bottom or outside of the organizational field. Much of their efforts depended on the organic, grassroots support of students who often agitated for sustainability change. Additionally, because of the status of their institution or the reputation of their business school, they could more readily attract donors who wanted to initiate sustainability-building projects. Mavericks and intellectuals also learned that center and institute development was an alternative route to sustainability-building. They learned quickly to draw support and resources from the outside-in. Mavericks and intellectuals became expert at honing their organizational capacity-building skills. Incremental planning allowed mavericks and intellectuals to gradually assess their resources and manage their growth.

However, the major difference that put progressives on the fast-track was the immediate show of support and offer of resources they received from their top administration. Eric Jain and Danielle Sheldon, the progressives of the group, were helped in their planning process by strong, and indeed, *leading* support from the deans and upper administration of their schools, who resided at planning table two, "On Firm Ground." In their case, they were approached by their administrators who asked them to undertake the role of planning and implementing SMBAs. The administration, in effect, energized the effort toward a new-generation MBA program. Planners were, therefore, endowed with an early vision of the SMBA's purpose and whose interests it would serve. Dr. Sheldon was part of an embedded culture dedicated to the idea of a SMBA. The founder, according to Dr. Sheldon, "saw the possibility of a business school making a difference in the world and training business leaders to understand systems thinking and social environmental issues from a holistic point of view." Strategically, she added that "we're looking at the next step of innovation and for us being a small institution…we need to continue to be ahead of the curve in terms of innovations." Both Dr. Sheldon and Dr. Jain were put into positions of power that allowed them to operate not only from their own positions as full-time faculty leaders, but also as project captains bestowed with an additional layer of power from top administrators to make sustainability an organizational priority. This was perhaps the most powerful advantage progressives had in their favor toward building a new-generation SMBA program. Organizational vision, culture, support and resources were absolutely crucial for an innovation of this magnitude. This finding is supported across several studies in several fields including Knoster, Villa, and & Thousand (2000); Mosley (2005); Clugston and Calder (1999); and Meyerson and

Tompkins, (2007). Without this kind of power push from the top, sustainability can get lost in a haze of other pending priorities that focus mainly on preserving the traditional MBA core and its sanctioned specializations. The progressives, once designated such a position, were much freer to plan and implement among their peers and stakeholders. They were guided by the strong desire for change that was expected to result in a very specific outcome. Thus, their planning was aided by several layers of positional capital from the upper ranks of the organization that could leverage support and resources for sustainability programming.

Intellectuals and mavericks' planning experiences on the other hand lacked the power behind a leading administrative driver needed to facilitate a revolutionary interest in sustainability-building. The roadblocks to fully connecting with administrators and faculty at planning table three, "The Lion's Den," during the "middle-up" portion of their planning journey may have contributed to some of the setbacks to fully mainstreaming sustainability into the MBA program. The connection between planners and other faculty and administrators was harder to forge for mavericks and intellectuals which led to variations in their success in getting "top management" to engage in a discussion about sustainability as a new knowledge innovation. This might have been because the vision for sustainability was initiated by "middle management" planners and not "top management" planners as in the case of the progressives. Nonaka (1994) says that typically the responsibility for charting the organization's course, articulating a general vision and overall, "setting the standards for justifying the value of knowledge that is constantly being developed by the organization's members," (p. 31) still lies with top management, even in a middle-up-down scenario. The progressives' top management

"set the direction, provid[ed] the field of interaction, select[ed] the participants in the field, establish[ed] the guidelines and deadlines for projects, and support[ed] the innovation process" (Nonaka, 1994, p. 31).

This realization should not be to imply that if a planner has no top management support, sustainability planning is impossible or a non-starter. All planners were able to achieve several milestones including: articulate and share a vision for sustainability as a participant in the business school; shape and define sustainability for their business school through diverse viewpoints; gather the stakeholders vested in sustainability; and challenge the existing system with new knowledge. For business school sustainability planners then, the middle-up-down approach was crucial to their work because it provided the latitude needed to encourage democratic planning principles for a more open discussion of sustainability even despite occasional opposition from the top. To be sure, negotiating support and resources from the middle-up as well as the middle-down encourages a greater possibility of seed change in an organization, where the organization is motivated to innovate beyond a project-by-project basis, to a participate in a paradigmatic shift that literally reconfigures day-to-day patterns and long-term decisions that structure business school culture, activity and knowledge creation. In order to further their achievements, planners will have to aggressively influence management's interpretation of "what ought to be" by continuing to educate them, while at the same time, enticing business school constituents to exert external pressure on top management for significant change.

Negotiating for information and knowledge

Though change usually happens one person, one organization at a time, there is also recognition that organizational movement must be a considered and coordinated affair which involves all types of expertise. Blewitt (2004) argues for more transdisciplinary and interdisciplinary work around sustainability, emphasizing that without cooperation among faculty, practitioners and disciplines, emancipatory change on a larger plane, that is, throughout all levels of higher education is unlikely to happen. Data from this study corroborates this thinking as it showed planners using interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary planning in pursuing their goals. They used transdisciplinary methods as planners believed that sustainability could not be taught without an applied view. Transdisciplinary work, according to Steiner and Posch (2006), requires academicians to partner with other professional sectors, creating an academic to practitioner relationship. It requires that academics interact with other players in the societal sphere (not just the academic sphere). Transdisciplinarity encourages a diversified and reflexive process that requires social accountability among all decision-makers on an ongoing basis, so that they are always monitoring and understanding the changes to their surroundings. Interdisciplinary work is most familiar to educators, although it is a mode of curriculum development that seems to be an awkward concept in higher education. It is an academic-academic relationship as opposed to an academic-practitioner relationship like transdisciplinary work and focuses on sharing and building competences across a wide variety of disciplines. According to Blewitt (2004) via Gibbons (1994), it allows for the transfer of knowledge whose production is constantly evolving in response to problem-solving. Interdisciplinary work, "facilitates real cross-

disciplinary thinking, translating, reconciling and integrating disparate discourses, traditions and methodologies. The borders between the humanities ("alpha-sciences"), natural sciences ("beta-sciences"), and social sciences ("gamma sciences") are crossed in order to solve a common research goal" (Steiner & Posch, 2006, p. 880).

The above definitions are important to describe the way in which planners exchanged information and knowledge with their stakeholders in order to build their programs. In this study, transdisciplinary planning tended to be used more for information-gathering while interdisciplinary planning was engaged for knowledge-building. Per Bellinger, Castro and Mills' 2004 (via Ackoff, 1989) description of what constitutes "information" and what constitutes "knowledge," this conclusion makes a distinction between the two where Kanter (1983) does not. Information is discussed as the compilation of data needed to communicate the relationship between different perspectives, arguments and ideas behind a concept. It has descriptive power that does not question, it simply tells. Information answers the question, "what is this?" Knowledge goes further in trying to synthesize information and meld it into a foundation for application and action. It ties together patterns found in information to give a concept explanatory power. In universities, knowledge is likely to take the form of a "discipline." Knowledge answers the question, "how does this work?" From knowledge, one progresses to "understanding," which opens up new lines of inquiry that stimulate alternative ways of seeing the world.   Understanding answers the question, "why does this matter?" Being able to move sustainability from the information-gathering stage to eventually more "complicated understanding" (Dehler, Welsh, & Lewis, 1999) through the planning process, enables its acceptance as a management concept and advances its

growth and use within the mainstream. With this at stake, all planners had to do a fair bit of negotiating for information and knowledge to build their courses and programs and used interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary modes of relationship-building to access those pathways.

The differentiation between information and knowledge is important because of the way each was used by incremental planners (intellectuals and mavericks) versus new-generation, revolutionary planners (progressives). There were some noteworthy differences in the revolutionary and incremental approaches to information-gathering and knowledge-building as planners formed their courses and programs. As mentioned before, progressives started their planning process with specific vision and goals to be accomplished. Because of this, sustainability was already a proven and important concept in the minds of administrators, and therefore, was not something that needed to be vetted before implementing a full SMBA. Information-gathering, then, was directed toward studying how sustainability should be transitioned into the core, making it a small, and very targeted part of the planning process, allowing them to move into knowledge-building rather quickly. This led progressives to use interdisciplinary knowledge-building to its fullest, first taking into consideration the larger concepts behind sustainability and then using the central idea behind each discipline to communicate those concepts. In other words, knowledge was rewoven and redesigned around sustainability as a contextual issue. Progressives' desire for revolutionary change prompted them to reconstruct the traditional MBA into an integrated curricular design that supports sustainability philosophies, values and practices. Professors from different disciplines had to work together, en masse, to design and offer courses that organized their separate

foundations into non-traditional patterns of learning. Once their initial SMBA model was in place, as they planned for subsequent semesters, they were able to tweak and refine their knowledge base given new information and changing circumstances. This matches Bellinger, Castro and Mills' (2004, via Ackoff, 1989) evaluation of how knowledge innovation gets elevated to higher levels of understanding that can ultimately bring about substantial innovation and change: "Understanding…is cognitive and analytical. It is the process by which [one] can take knowledge and synthesize new knowledge from previously held knowledge…That is, understanding can build upon currently held information, knowledge and understanding itself" (online version). Progressives method of interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary planning allowed knowledge-building to happen on a faster and larger scale, with the potential to morph into a new understanding of business management as a contextual science via sustainability.

As opposed to progressives, incremental planners, (mavericks in particular) tended to develop and expand their vision for sustainability as they assessed sustainability and its receptivity at their schools (intellectuals, because of their hesitancy, kept their visions for sustainability small and contained). They gathered information about sustainability for their own edification, and used it throughout the planning process as a bargaining chip to convince others of sustainability's potential and as a stepping stone to knowledge-building. Interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary incremental planning allowed planners to gradually and carefully introduce sustainability across pockets of their school where individual faculty were more amenable in stages. As interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary planning table exchanges increased, so did eventually incremental planners' confidence, vision and aspiration in negotiating to further their sustainability

ventures. On one hand, this use of information-gathering and knowledge-building across disciplines and sectors gave incremental planners time to take stock of their school's capacity for innovating around sustainability. However, a drawback to this was that interdisciplinary knowledge-building among mavericks and intellectuals stayed siloed and confined. Incremental planning did not allow for academics to integrate their disciplines to address more wide-ranging issues and solve external problems that may be unrelated to the parameters of the discipline itself. Sustainability information was still presented in discipline form as opposed to it being exposed as the contextual concept it is.

Inherently, all planners in this study knew sustainability was a contextual subject that requires management theory and disciplines to factor in outside externalities, hence their emphasis on incorporating transdisciplinary real-world learning as a vital part of their classroom pedagogy. Joel Miller acknowledges sustainability's role as a backdrop for managing, saying, "We know that when it comes to sustainability, it's not a functional area, it's a domain, it's a context for making decisions." The idea of learning in a social context is well endorsed and supported by many in adult education literature, advocating that learning cannot be cut off from external events and experiences favoring technique solely over values (Cunningham, 2000; Heaney, 1996; Jarvis, 1987; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Podeschi, 2000). However, sustainability could succumb to such a fate as the definition of "context" in business education has a narrower connotation. Sustainability, through an incremental lens, runs the risk of being indoctrinated into a prevailing culture that favors business school technique instead of being able to evolve the culture itself. Robin Taylor's comments reiterate the conundrum between sustainability as a context vs. sustainability as a field of study when asked how

sustainability should be configured in the business school going forward: "I would say, if you're trying to look at the evolution of planning, how the movement needs to move, we're trying to be a discipline, now we need to have the research of a discipline, and have those journals accept our context as viable and our premises as our research premises, and then we do work off of those premises. If they don't accept the premises, they're not going to look at our research." These varying thoughts and comments continue to raise the question of sustainability's rightful place in the business school and other educational institutions where knowledge is segregated; should it be addressed solely within separate academic disciplines, be constructed into its own unique discipline, or remain free of the discipline model altogether? Sustainability business school planners struggled with themselves and others over where the limits of sustainability's influence lay. Because of their technical training, their natural propensity was to start with the question, "How does this benefit business? What is the business case for sustainability?" instead of, "How does one work around sustainability to address global perspectives of poverty, unemployment, pollution, etc.?" This was part and parcel of the constant meta-negotiations planners had to undergo as they tried to acquire knowledge for their programs.

Therefore, most incremental planners were stifled to a greater degree when it came to building knowledge through interdisciplinary means based on the definition provided by Steiner and Posch (2006). They had to be satisfied for now with sharing sustainability information with other academic stakeholders as a disciplinary accessory. When it came to using interdisciplinary methods for knowledge-building in order to facilitate a cohesive curricular strategy, most planners encountered institutional blocks by other faculty who more wed to or embedded in a culture of knowledge-power regimes.

This is a term developed by Foucault and supported by Wilson (1999), who decries procedural and structural knowledge as manipulative and that "professional disciplines…use to create relations of dependency between those who have discipline knowledge and those who do not" (p. 86). Disciplines are "normalized" and homogenized through formalistic means and are used to objectify standard operating principles by which subjects inside and outside of the knowledge-power regime are expected to comply. Indeed, knowledge was a prized commodity among business school academics as many planners mentioned that faculty typically protected the domain of their disciplines and specializations, sometimes with fervor and with a suspicious eye to outside people or ideas. So even though interdisciplinarity and transdisciplinarity was recognized as a primary mode of elevating sustainability to institutional levels, the same obstacles of silos by disciplines remained. Planners who attempt to build sustainability through multidisciplinary efforts, especially within the business school can find it a slow if not painstaking process.

Implications

Out of this study came several theoretical and practical implications for sustainability planning in business schools through an adult education perspective. Business schools, as the nucleus of this work, reflect the personal passage of the planner as they delve into their own education and leadership around sustainability's impact on management education. Adult Education as the frame of reference for this work represents the creation of contexts from which to address real-life problem solving to achieve social change toward a sustainable future. And universities, as the social structure that houses both, as well as a defining symbol of power in society, are fertile

ground for debating the distribution of knowledge and for what purposes its knowledge should be used. Implications that affect each of these arenas are discussed.

Implications for Theory

This study presents an opportunity to draw a link between Cervero and Wilson's planning theory (1994, 2006) to organizational theory, specifically where it concerns innovation and change. Planning theory was most helpful in to this study, explaining the politics of planning in a conservative, traditional and revered economic context, one that provides the foundation for most U.S. beliefs and actions, and indeed, for those of many in the world. Importantly, in this study, planning theory highlighted the struggle of maintaining the ethical commitment of planners as they draw boundaries between what is possible and what is not possible to achieve in a business school environment, especially when it comes to negotiating sustainability as part of the flagship MBA program. Much of the contemporary organizational theory literature on change and innovation silently omits the nature of how power and interests behind major change initiatives operate among groups whose ethical commitment is often aligned with the goals of the organization or institution, or assumes that planners have little control over bringing other interests to the planning table (Van de Ven, Angle, & Poole, 1989/2000). Change and innovation is assumed to be defined and manipulated within the narrow context of the organization or the institution without considering wider political interests. Innovation and change are often seen as a mission that concerns only the singular needs of the organization. Kanter was one who (1983) spoke to the politics of organizational change and innovation when she observed:

…[J]ust about all innovating has a "political" dimension, even though, in some of

the companies I studied, the use of the term "political" was unpopular, and

managers liked to act as if there were not a "political" side to innovation. But I

am using "political" not in the negative sense of backroom deal-making, but in the

positive sense that it requires campaigning, lobbying, bargaining, negotiating,

causcusing, collaborating, and winning votes. That is, an idea must be sold,

resources must be acquired or rearranged, and some variable numbers of other

people must agree to changes in their own areas – for innovations generally cut

across existing area and have wider organizational ripples, like dropping pebble

into a pond. (pp. 215-216)

However, mainstream theory few and far between since then, with the exception of

critical researchers such as Deetz (1992, 1995), has taken note of the negotiation of

power, interests and ethical commitment in bringing change and innovation to the table.

From an alternative perspective, theory behind organizational innovation and

change lends to planning theory, a space to consider acts of planning that are outside the

realm of everyday work routines. Organizational change and innovation speaks to the

structural and cultural adjustments that occur in professional life; the out-of-the-ordinary

events that have the potential to redirect an organization's course of action or recreate

organizational identity. Although planners in this study may not have even realized it,

they were simultaneously causing an organizational, even institutional metamorphosis

that they knew could not be contained or captured through the everyday routes of

planning that they used for their more mainstream business school activities. As they

continue to evolve the system, their planning will eventually have to account for more

than their immediate constituents to encompass the planning dynamics that create larger planning tables in more global contexts outside the university and eventually, outside of academia. Planning theory then has the potential to also explain the power both driving and hindering small-scale and large-scale feats of innovation and change, making stakeholders aware of the massive amount of vision, confrontation and dialogue inherent in expanding the breadth and depth of their work beyond the everyday.

This symbiotic relationship adds vital elements to each theoretical base, helping organizational theorists to contextualize the nature of change and planning theorists to compare and contrast micro versus macro levels of planning interaction within organizations. The integration of planning theory into organizational theory as well as organizational theory into planning theory might help lend understanding to whether planning in context helps raise organizational planners' capacity to affect global innovation and change. With so much at stake in the world, planning theory can be instrumental in guiding the work of educational institutions' transition to more flexible and responsive ways of using teaching and research to answer the call for increased educational problem-solving and leadership.

Implications for Practice

This study presents several implications for practice based on its findings and conclusions. The first, most significant one is that outcomes of this study should be applied to understanding how to assess the importance of sustainability to one's MBA program and, ideally, to derive appropriate planning strategies to embed sustainability further into, or otherwise institutionalize, sustainable principles into MBA curricula. From the study, the use of both incremental and revolutionary planning methods have a

place in sustainability-building in business schools, as business schools will not change overnight, yet they must acknowledge the need for a critical reevaluation of the way in which they represent business values. This calls for business schools to think revolutionary (in terms of rearranging structure and culture, per the progressives), but (if they cannot implement at the same level), act incrementally. The research has shown that at least without a vision of purposeful intention toward sustainability's full inclusion in the MBA program, it can plod along until the right set of circumstances and certain interested and committed parties provide it with a larger role to play. Thus, those faculty or administrative planners who wish to see sustainability exert increased influence should use this research to evaluate the planning environment within their business school to attempt set the stage for a set of several ideal outcomes, while tempering their actions as necessary to meet each one based on what they can do within the space of their particular business school. In this way, planning stays in the forefront of everyday planning activities by remaining a deliberate, defined yet relative movement toward full integration. Planners could take example from Clugston and Calder (1999) whose case study research on two colleges implementing sustainability at the university level reveals the conditions under which full integration is likely to take place:

> In terms of "critical conditions" for success of sustainability initiatives, the
> faculty at SCU's undergraduate school who are leading the way in reforming
> academic programs appear to be highly motivated and well respected by their
> colleagues…They also enjoy the support of their administrators in their endeavor
> to enhance environmental studies and interdisciplinary research…Furthermore,

there is a strong belief in the part of numerous faculty in the academic legitimacy of these recent academic initiatives." (p. 13).

The above insight brings up practical implication number two for this study which is that faculty participation has to be cultivated and corralled to energize interdisciplinary cooperation around sustainability's integration. Sustainability is something other faculty and administrators will have to personally grapple with and understand as a new tacit experience; they will have to mesh sustainability's message (hopefully all of it) with their existing mindset and decide if they can recalibrate their individual philosophies, theories, values, visions, strategies and actions to exude any reformed beliefs that affect research and classroom practice. Meadows (1999) describes this as self-organization of a system. Self-organization is the ability of a system to tap into its learning and creative capacities; to generate new patterns of discovery through experimentation and spontaneous exploration. It supports the urge of inventors to invent, scientists to discover, and academicians to renew, refresh or rearrange knowledge to see it in new ways and open new corridors to change. It lauds the individual for their initiative in rethinking their space and recruiting others to question their circumstances. It gives license to the individual to undergo investigative inquiry. To help this process along, current planners will have to be vested in setting a vision and providing educational opportunities and incentives for faculty and administrators that encourage deeper and more transformative learning experiences around sustainability, just as they would do for their own students. If sustainability planners are able to plant the will to learn in other faculty and administrators, to create opportunities for self-discovery and can foster and encourage ideation so that faculty and administrators can still retain a sense of power as original

thinkers as their social positions warrant, then perhaps they will autonomously operate as agents of change in favor of sustainability.

Another major implication for this study is that greater dialogue must occur around how sustainability affects the evolution of business schools both in general and for a specific school. Business schools, in other words, should find a way to put themselves in the context of the social, economic and environmental situations at hand. The adult education literature continues to contribute greatly here through the concepts of critical reflection, reflexivity and dialogue (Brookfield, 2005; Mezirow, 1990). Dialogue is communication between stakeholders and stakeholder groups that emphasizes a sharing of ideas toward democratic aims characterized by inclusiveness, civility and tolerance. Critical reflection is a structured, conversational, contemplative critique about one's lived experiences within his or her daily environments. And reflexivity is discourse with others that challenges everyday practices and social arrangements, questioning their continued usefulness to society. Sustainability practice literature also supports these adult education concepts (Dale & Newman, 2005; Ratner, 2004). The crux of both the adult education literature and sustainability literature in this case is that any educational, community or governmental planning of any type of emancipatory concept that pushes for a reevaluation of the status quo and thus advocates the idea of social change requires a concerted effort of the meeting of the minds. This means putting forth a conscious, deliberate attempt to reach an understanding of the role, academic definitions and disciplinary (both inter- and trans-) applications sustainability should and can bring as a revolutionary innovation. Sustainability, or program planning for that matter, is not so much about coming to syncopated agreement on what is right and what is wrong; it is not

about "the accreditation of propositions as true" (Frankel, 1977 in Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 99). All values, even with regard to sustainability, are subjective. But both are more about, as Ratner (2004) puts it, a "dialogue of values," or "values articulation" per Dale and Newman (2005), where neither a strictly technical nor ethical consensus for undertaking sustainability is likely to be ever completely reached. The complex nature of sustainability will not easily yield to definitive answers or final solutions, but instead must be discussed as a concept that brings to the forefront its relevance to the issues at hand and how the diversity of ways in which sustainability is interpreted and applied contributes to a greater whole. Such an exercise requires stakeholders to first identify themselves and each other as people with sustainability interests. Then acknowledge among themselves the varying ideals each holds for sustainability in their institutions, revisiting these ideas periodically as sustainability's influence waxes and wanes. It is from this position of contestation of business school practice that sustainability "brings such differences into a common field of dispute, dialogue and potential agreement as the basis of collective action" (Ratner, 2004, p. 62).

Also, the sustainability practice literature also encapsulates the arguments Cervero and Wilson (1994, 2006) make for the political nature of stakeholder engagement and for an ethical commitment to responsible planning, making the case for practical implication number four: real progress in sustainability planning and decision-making will take activist action and dialogue beyond the centralized superstructure of the business school. Planning around a concept that introduces so much complexity within established systems will require "the ability to work with actors with disparate value systems and the ability to find meaningful compromises when various stakeholders do not have

compatible goals" (Dale & Newman, 2005, p. 355). However, Collins, Kearins and

Roper (2001) make the point that despite the need for stakeholder engagement at

planning tables, the interests of business may still, in the end, outweigh the call for

sustainability change, in this case the revolutionary integration of sustainability in

management education. As seen in the study, even though planners conducted a good

deal of outreach outside of the business school, there remained a habit of partnering with

entities that did not stray far from or complemented the immediate goals of business. In

other words, there was "the tendency for…coalition[s] to form between…similar

bureaucratic cultures…" (Benn & Dunphy, 2001, CMS conference). To break this up

and encourage more extensive dialogue, knowledge-building and innovation which could

benefit various contexts, not just business, Benn and Dunphy (2001) suggest working

deeper at a sub-political or decentralized level through multiple clusters of networks far

beyond one's discipline or business school ties. They advise planners work deeper

among unconventional allies (like citizens, community groups, NGOs, or likewise with

history, sociology or anthropology) to open up options for business participation in

advanced sustainable scenarios.

    And consider the last practical implication for planning in general, which is that

leaders should always be open to seeking out these types of tempered radicals (Meyerson,

1995) or institutional entrepreneurs (Meyerson & Scully, 2007) within their

organizations. Innovation and change may have a harder time flourishing if top

management does not learn to embrace this particular spirit from which could spring the

next phase of institutional philosophy forcing organizations to look outside of their

defined sphere. Ignoring attempts to plan for responsible change stifles organizational

creativity and preserves rigidity as these thoughts cannot and do not always come from the top. Encouraging periodic input from the middle or as a grassroots effort from any employee, academic or practitioner who demonstrates a passion for the world about them can enhance the scope and direction of an organization's planning process, making it a much more engaging and enlightening experience. This and the other implications outlined here are intended to emphasize and create action around palpable sustainable change and innovation inside and outside of the business school led by business school planners.

Recommendations for Future Research

Sustainability is such a broad and burgeoning concept that it remains timely fodder and ripe for further research ideas. In the course of this study, several avenues came to light before, during and after the research was conducted, raising more questions about sustainability's effectiveness and impact on management education settings. A few of those ideas are outlined below for consideration.

Sustainability Planning in International Contexts: Logically, it would be helpful to compare program planning issues in other countries with the work being done in the US. Other articles cursorily examined hinted that in other Westernized countries, although progress seems still very slow for pressing sustainability in business schools, the conversation is more advanced about sustainability as a priority or non-priority issue. Higher education in other Westernized countries is also familiar with the using the critical tradition, so critique is more acknowledged and accepted than in U.S. higher education. How sustainability planning is helped or hindered by these factors would be

interesting to explore, and if planners from other countries also experience the same or different planning phenomenon described by planners in this study.

US and International Content and Pedagogy Analysis: Although this study touched on content and pedagogy, an in-depth and in-classroom observation and comparison of curriculum delivery among US business schools or among business schools abroad would help clarify the enthusiasm and tensions over sustainability projected by students and professors. What kind of opinions and thoughts are being expressed with regard to sustainability's entrance into business and how are professors fostering or counteracting their emerging beliefs? How much and what kind of other non-business viewpoints are represented in classroom discussion and exercises? One could also try to do this through a content analysis as there are numerous individual case studies on classroom interaction in management education that need to be synthesized and meta-analyzed. Or perhaps a search might turn up some online sustainability courses in which one could participate and observe, to reduce any logistical complications onsite observation might produce.

University Initiatives in Sustainability Curriculum Planning: It might be beneficial to initiate a study at the university level using planning theory to gauge how involved US and international university administrations are in creating linkages between their schools toward the development of sustainability curriculum. As noted, participation at higher levels of the business school and university are important to sanctioning sustainability as a business concept. Research that delves into the social networks universities are cultivating within and between their schools can shine a spotlight on what is constraining or enabling sustainable knowledge production among

university administrators and how much of their power influences a school's research agenda and curriculum creation.

Outside Academic, Social and Environmental Association Influences on Sustainability in Business Schools: Early on, this study focused on several outside associations such as the Net Impact, World Wildlife Federation and the Aspen Institute which had been instrumental in helping planners launch sustainability programming in their business schools. To assess if they still hold sustainability cache with business schools, another proposed study is to examine sustainability planning from an association angle. How are selected associations, those who are known for representing environmental and social justice, as well as academic divisions of professional organizations involved in sustainability like the Academy of Management, working with business schools across the US to directly encourage their progress in sustainability curriculum development? This opens further inquiry into the question of whether engagement or disengagement with the business school is more effective from their standpoint, and attempts to reveal their motives and strategies for either course of action. In addition, their level of engagement signals whether the planning table is indeed being expanded through partnerships to help increase momentum toward a sustainable mindset.

Exploration of the Intellectual Foundation of Sustainability: A lack of understanding of sustainability's connection to business principles is what seems to have hampered the progress of sustainability in management education. What is in contention is how far to interpret and apply sustainability as a business principle and priority. Scholars and practitioners, in the meantime, have at least started the trek by encasing sustainability in familiar terms based on existing parameters of their particular

educational field or enterprise. Although this is a great start in the right direction, the tendency this can produce is a reduction of sustainability as a full discourse as it is adapted in pieces and parts in service to established thinking without its whole proposed premise being surveyed and discussed. This study suggests research be done among sustainability advocates across university disciplines to answer what sustainability means within different academic contexts and how interpretations could be managed to create a more inclusive intellectual foundation for sustainability. The hope is that through research, a tighter definition of sustainability built on a collaborative academic premise will produce less question about "what is this" and more initiatives that can promote a "complicated understanding" (Dehler, Walsh, & Lewis, 1999) of social, economic and environmental issues to be addressed through university education.

Limitations of the Study

This research approaches sustainability from an advocacy point-of-view, meaning that it clearly supports the concept and the work being done in business schools and elsewhere to bring about a vigorous re-conceptualization of stakeholder interaction through planning in management education. From the researcher's perspective, sustainability and sustainability planning is a legitimate platform from which to question long-standing capitalistic ideals and how they are taught in relation to social and environmental changes. I wanted to present an exhaustive review and original analysis of the strides and setbacks in this area as an impetus for understanding and critiquing the influence of power on the planning process behind the sustainability movement. Given the direction of this research, then, the space was not provided for an in-depth critique of sustainability itself or the negative effects of introducing sustainability into business

schools. Instead, this study chose to focus on sustainability's history, definitions and applications as adopted by the business school in order to provide a thorough overview of this perspective. Objections to sustainability and its limitations in its relation to business schools would have to be covered in work outside of this study. In addition, although the sample size of this study was within normal range for a qualitative study, it was not enough to infer any generalizations about other planners at other business schools.

Chapter Summary

The research demonstrated how planners negotiate the power and interests inherent in business schools when advocating for sustainable innovation and change within their MBA programs. Their planning efforts and outcomes were adjudicated by the ways in which they decided to apply their own intrinsic motivation and positional capital to the planning process, as well as the way in which they were able to negotiate for support, resources, information and knowledge within their organizations. Implications highlighted suggested theoretical addendums and practical factors under which sustainability planning could be enhanced in business schools and beyond. Recommendations for future research were also presented along with limitations for the study.

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APPENDIX A

LETTER TO POTENTIAL PARTICIPANTS

October 1, 2007

Name, School
Address, City, Zip

Dear Dr. X:

My name is Monica Cannon. I am a doctoral candidate in Adult Education at the University of Georgia, embarking on research for my dissertation this fall. I am contacting you to ask if you would be willing to participate in my dissertation study, which is examining your experiences as a planner or developer of sustainability programs at the University of Wisconsin's School of Business. My research centers on the dynamics of introducing the complex and controversial subject of sustainability into the historically traditional business school curriculum. I am interested in exploring how U.S. MBA business school faculty and administrators are able to negotiate with and among other program interests as they develop and position sustainability in a management education framework, while maintaining their own vision for promoting the concept. I am not only interested in the outcome of your work, but your entire planning experience, from the suggestion of sustainability as a worthy addition to the MBA curriculum, to final inclusion (or exclusion) of sustainability as a course topic or program option.

I received your name specifically from the [school's website; online syllabi for these courses; department as someone closely connected to the school's sustainability program, etc.]. My hope is that I am able to conduct a 90-minute tape-recorded interview with you, preferably face-to-face. The data gleaned from the interview would be completely anonymous and used only for academic purposes. I am hoping to interview people beginning October or November 2007. If you are available and willing, I would really appreciate your participation in this research study for the completion of my doctoral dissertation. I can be reached for further information at my home phone, (706) 543-5419; my cell phone, (706) 372-1731; or by e-mail at myc11@uga.edu. Thanks so much for your consideration.

Regards,

Monica Cannon
University of Georgia
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX B

1ST FOLLOW-UP E-MAIL TO POTENTIAL PARTICIPANTS

Dear Dr. X:

Hello. This is Monica Cannon, a doctoral candidate in Adult Education from the University of Georgia. Two weeks ago, you may have received a letter in the mail from me regarding my interest in interviewing you for my doctoral dissertation research study. I am investigating the planning experiences of MBA sustainability program planners to understand how they negotiate the interests of many different stakeholders during the planning process form conception to implementation, while preserving their own vision for integrating sustainability into a historically traditional management education curriculum. I am curious about how sustainability programs get shaped or re-shaped throughout your planning experience based on business school relationships and institutional norms. I have attached an electronic copy of my original letter mailed to you.

The data gleaned from all interviews would be anonymous and used for academic purposes only. I am prepared to begin interviews within the next month preferably face-to-face, however, by telephone is also possible. The interview would be about 90 minutes long, and with your permission audiotaped. If you are available and willing to participate, I would really appreciate your time and insight. For more information, I can be reached at home, (706)543-5419; by cell phone, (706) 372-1731; or by e-mail at myc11@uga.edu. Thanks so much for your consideration.

Regards,

Monica Cannon
University of Georgia
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX C

2ND FOLLOW-UP E-MAIL TO POTENTIAL PARTICIPANTS

Dear Dr. X:

Hello again from Monica Cannon. I am following up to my last e-mail about the possibility of conducting an in-person or telephone interview with you based on your role as a planner of sustainability courses at the University of Wisconsin School of Business. As a doctoral candidate at the University of Georgia working on my dissertation in Adult Education, I am hoping to collect data from course or program developers like you to understand the dynamic of integrating the complex topic of sustainability into a management education curriculum.

I hope you are able to consider my request for an interview. If by chance you are not the proper person to attend to this request, would you mind letting me know who might be a better contact instead? I received your name from [*****] so I thought I'd contact you first. If you can provide any more information, I can be reached at home, (706)543-5419; by cell phone, (706) 372-1731; or by e-mail at myc11@uga.edu.Thanks for your assistance. It is greatly appreciated.

Regards,

Monica Cannon
University of Georgia
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX D

PROPOSED INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

- **_Research Question 1:_** What are the social and institutional mechanisms that constrain or enable the planning of sustainability courses by business school faculty and administrators?

    o On what basis was the need or desire for a sustainability program discussed? What was the driving impetus for starting a sustainability course/program?

    o What was the institutional approval process you had to go through to get this course or program designed?

    o What was/is the departmental attitude in introducing and offering a topic like sustainability through the MBA program?

- **_Research Question 2:_** How do sustainability program planners identify stakeholders that affect the direction of their program or courses?

    o In the design phase of the program, which internal and external stakeholders were part of the planning process?

    o How did you determine which stakeholders should be part of your planning process?

    o How did you prioritize competing interests among your planning team and interested stakeholders?

    o How did the needs and desires of these stakeholders conflict or coincide with your objectives as a program or course designer?

    o In hindsight, who else would you have liked to be part of the planning process that wasn't?

        - External stakeholders? (e.g. Non-university or non-departmental)

APPENDIX D (CONT.)

PROPOSED INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

- ***Research Question 3:*** How do business school faculty and administrative planners negotiate the power and interests they encounter in planning?

  o What were the objectives for the program or course?

  o What were deemed some of the more controversial aspects of the sustainability concept?

    ▪ How did you decide to address or not address them in programming?

  o What were some of the needs of the program or course that you felt were non-negotiable?

    ▪ How did you get those needs recognized?

  o How did the original objectives that you and other stakeholders envisioned before the program change during the ongoing implementation of the program?

  o What aspects of planning the program presented the most challenge to you?

APPENDIX E

CONSENT FORM

Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in a project conducted as part of the dissertation requirements for a doctoral degree in Adult Education in the College of Education at the University of Georgia. For this project, I will be doing interviews and collecting information to examine the experiences of MBA faculty and administrative personnel who are responsible for planning sustainability courses or programs within the business schools for which they work. The research will be supervised by my major professor, Laura Bierema, who can be reached at lbierema@uga.edu or 706-542-6174.

I would like to conduct a one-on-one interview with you about your interest and knowledge on the topic of sustainability and the process of its implementation in your management program.
My research centers on the dynamics of introducing the complex and controversial subject of sustainability into the historically traditional business school curriculum. I am interested in exploring how U.S. MBA business school faculty and administrators are able to negotiate with and among other program interests as they develop and position sustainability in a management education framework, while maintaining their own vision for promoting the concept. I am not only interested in the outcome of your work, but your entire planning experience, from the suggestion of sustainability as a worthy addition to the MBA curriculum, to final inclusion (or exclusion) of sustainability as a course topic or program option.

The interview will be 90 minutes. I ask that you permit me to record the interview on a voice recorder. I also ask your permission to contact you again during the course of our research for follow up questions. These questions would be in the same format as the initial interview. All information obtained will be treated confidentially.

If you agree to an interview, I will schedule a time to meet with you at a mutually agreed on location. Our goal is conduct interviews starting Fall 2007 and ending April 2008.

You are free to withdraw your participation at any time that you become uncomfortable and doing so will require us to remove all record of your participation from our unfinished research and delete your interview record. By permitting us to talk with you and observe activities of your choosing, you are acknowledging that you have read the attached form and that you consent to take part in this project.

APPENDIX E (CONT.)

CONSENT FORM

If you have any questions or concerns, feel free to contact me at 706-543-5419 or myc11@uga.edu. I hope you will enjoy this opportunity to share your experiences and viewpoints with me. Thank you very much for your help.

Sincerely,

Monica Cannon, Doctoral Student, College of Education

_____   _____
Signature of Researcher   Date

_____   _____
Signature of Participant   Date

Please sign both copies, keep one copy and return one to the researcher.
For questions or problems about your rights please call or write: Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu.