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FOREWORD

The Institute for Sustainable Leadership, a non-profit research organisation based in Sydney, Australia, is delighted to issue this book of conference papers.

The Institute’s purpose is to assist business, government and nonprofit organisations in achieving high levels of performance and resilience, using evidence-based leadership practices.

After observing successful enterprises that have survived many crises over their long existences, ISL discerned 23 practices that distinguish sustainable from less sustainable organisations worldwide. We refer to the sustainable enterprises as “honeybees” (as opposed to “locusts”). Overall, “honeybee” leadership enjoys enhanced brand and recognition, customer satisfaction, financial performance, investor returns and long-term stakeholder value.

The photo on the cover of this book captures a honeybee at work, reminding us of sustainable enterprises. Like sustainable organisations, honeybees build community and collaborate with a range of stakeholders, adding value to their own group as well as to the entire eco-chain and the environment.

You can read more about sustainable leadership principles and examples of how real organisations implement them in Avery & Bergsteiner’s (2011) book, *Sustainable Leadership: Honeybee and Locust Approaches* and in some of the papers in this collection. The 23 practices are displayed in the Sustainable Leadership Pyramid on p.160 of this book.

In pursuing its mission, the Institute collaborates with researchers and practitioners from around the world as we continue to investigate sustainable practices and their relevance in different cultures and economic sectors. ISL disseminates its findings through executive programs, networking activities, study tours in which leaders meet their honeybee peers, publications and conferences.

In 2013, the Institute held its 8th International Symposium on Sustainable Leadership in Nice, France, June 4-7, and this book contains the papers presented at that conference.

A huge “thank you” is due to all the reviewers who provided extensive feedback via a double-blind process to authors before the papers were accepted for presentation and publication. The authors were also impressive in the way they embraced this feedback in the interests of providing a high quality outcome.

The Institute for Sustainable Leadership welcomes all those who are interested in creating sustainable enterprises and making the world a better place. Visit our website, become an affiliate, follow us on LinkedIn, and participate in our future conferences, study tours and other events.

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Creating a Sustainable Future: The Role of Engagement

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Abstract

Research consistently confirms that engaged employees significantly raise team and organisational performance, and yet in the majority of organisations engagement levels hover around 25 percent, with the remainder being either non-engaged or disengaged. Theoreticians, practitioners and consultants are aware of this problem and are attempting to address it. Unfortunately, while there are eight widely used engagement constructs, there is no coherent theory of engagement and hence no coherent research agenda. Engagement constructs variously overlap with or contradict each other, unnecessarily “compete for turf”, some cannot be differentiated, and relationships among them remain obscure. This paper therefore proposes a coherent engagement theory that is expressed as a hierarchical graphical model that not only integrates the eight extant engagement constructs, but also identifies and resolves three substantial gaps in the engagement literature: namely, engagement (a) at the group-level, (b) in non-work walks of life, and (c) of persons other than employees (e.g. managers and boards). We posit that a holistic theory supported by clear definitions will assist more targeted, bounded and integrative engagement research, theory and practice, and hence will facilitate efforts to raise organisational performance.

Keywords: Commitment, engagement, engagement constructs, engagement model, engagement theory
VISION, VALUES AND VITALITY: THE QUEST TO BUILD SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP IN THE QUEENSLAND POLICE SERVICE

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ABSTRACT

Leadership is important. It is generally accepted by researchers and practitioners alike that organisational success is dependant on good leadership and that it is incumbent on organisations to develop its leadership potential (Renaud 2008; Turo 2010). There is less consensus, however, on how to go about developing leadership (Sessoms 2003), with some researchers questioning the effectiveness of many leadership development programs (Carbone 2009). Despite the obvious importance of leadership in police organisations, the world of policing has largely neglected the concept of leadership development, focusing instead on recruit training and operational skills training. In 2002, the Queensland Police Service set about revitalising its leadership development course for middle managers. Today, the Queensland Police leadership development course has an international reputation for its innovation and excellence in police leadership education. Central to this transformation has been the development of a clear vision and supporting values that has enabled the development of a world-class leadership program. This paper will present a case study on how the Queensland Police Service has transformed its leadership development program and created a focus on sustainable leadership through its vision of “leaders who make a difference”, supported by the core values of innovation, client service, relationships and quality.
MISSION CRITICAL:
SUSTAINABILITY EDUCATION AS CORE BUSINESS
IN AUSTRALIAN UNIVERSITIES

HIGHLY COMMENDED PAPER

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ABSTRACT

Education for Sustainability (EfS) is variously recognised by universities as part of becoming a sustaining organisation; central to institutions’ moral obligations in terms of graduate capabilities; and essential to curriculum innovation, reinvention and renewal. However, its implementation into curricula on a global basis is variable, with some countries being more advanced than others. At the discipline level, sustainability may be embedded as core content, or given only tokenistic support through elective offerings.

This paper examines EfS as both a business and moral driver of curriculum change in universities and the associated barriers that may be encountered during implementation. The results from desktop research and semi-structured interviews with employees responsible for sustainability programs from four universities in the metropolitan region of Sydney, Australia, are presented.

The research indicates that the idea of EfS as a business and moral driver of curriculum change was generally well understood. However, the reality was that EfS as a demonstrable business and graduate outcome is still some years in the future for three of the institutions. The paper concludes by suggesting that university leaders require a deeper understanding of the ‘business value-add’ of EfS, and its capacity as a driver of innovation and competitive differentiation.

Keywords: education, sustainability, universities, leadership, core business

INTRODUCTION

Universities are educating the workforce of the future – a future with an increasingly sombre outlook. The issues are not only environmental – social and economic impacts are already emerging and affecting how organisations are run, how services are delivered to communities and how resources are being managed.

The link between education and awareness of sustainable practices and ability to apply these in the workplace, at home and in communities has long been known. There is a clear need for sustainability education to be embedded in curriculum to support current and future generations in the world in which they will live and work. This ranges from being able to identify opportunities for more efficient resource management in various workspaces, to applying sustainable practice as a management discipline alongside work health and safety, risk management, business planning and project management.
The role of Australian universities in improving productivity through education and maximising employability is stated under the Ministerial Council for Tertiary Education and Employment’s National Research Priorities for Tertiary Education and Training 2011-2013\(^1\). In particular, the ‘Skills and Productivity Priority’ notes:

- The need to ensure that individuals and employers get the highest return on their investment in education and training;
- That productivity is not constrained by shortages or lack of flexibility in education;
- The need for education and training to match occupational labour markets;
- The need for ‘green’ skills.

Failure to embed sustainability in curriculum is therefore not only likely to be a failure by universities in managing their own business over the long-term, but also a breach of their moral obligation to ensure that students are properly prepared for employment and as citizens for the future in their lives after university.

The challenges and successes experienced in the on-going effort to embed sustainability education in curriculum are the subject of extensive discussion across Europe, the UK and the US, and to a lesser degree in Australia. However what does not appear to have been examined in detail is the dual role of EfS as both a business and moral driver for change in universities. There is a need to understand the organisational as well as educational drivers of why universities continue to lag in embedding sustainability into curriculum in order to inform leadership practice within these institutions as part of facilitating change.

This paper reports on universities’ widespread failure to understand sustainability education as ‘good business’. The research focuses on the following question:

*Do universities demonstrate an understanding of the business as well as the moral drivers of the need to embed sustainability into university curricula?*

The paper is organised into the following sections – brief review of the literature on EfS; research methodology; findings and discussion; and concluding remarks.

**EDUCATION FOR SUSTAINABILITY**

Ongoing research indicates that the need for education institutions to ensure that the cultivation of ecological intelligence is an essential part of every student’s learning experience remains a strongly-held view, with education seen as key to progressing communities towards sustainable practice (for example, Barth, Michelsen and Sanusi 2011; Khelghat-Doost et al. 2011; Lemons 2011; Stark 2011; Heffernan 2012). There is a need for curriculum and courses to gear students for the job market, which demands applicants with a basic know-how and training on sustainability, while job candidates with a strong knowledge of sustainability are better positioned to fill more senior job openings and contribute to leading their companies into the future (Barth and Timm 2011; Khelghat-Doost et al. 2011; Lovins 2012).

In Australia, the Federal Government’s national action plan for EfS, *Living Sustainably*\(^2\), defines the principles of EfS as:

1. Transformation and change – EfS is not simply about providing information but involves equipping people with the skills, capacity and motivation to plan and manage change towards sustainability within an organisation, industry or community.
2. Education for all and lifelong learning – EfS is driven by a broad understanding of education and learning that includes people of all ages and backgrounds and at all stages of life and takes place within all possible learning spaces, formal and informal, in schools, workplaces, homes and communities.
3. Systems thinking – EfS aims to equip people to understand connections between environmental, economic, social and political systems.
4. Envisioning a better future – EfS engages people in developing a shared vision for a sustainable future.
5. Critical thinking and reflection – EfS values the capacity of individuals and groups to reflect on personal experiences and worldviews and to challenge accepted ways of interpreting and engaging with the world.

\(^1\) http://www.ncver.edu.au/research/priorities.html

\(^2\) http://www.environment.gov.au/education/nap/
6. Participation – EFS recognises participation as critical for engaging groups and individuals in sustainability.
7. Partnerships for change – EFS focuses on the use of genuine partnerships to build networks and relationships and improve communication between different sectors of society.

Within the EFS paradigm, achieving ‘sustainability’ requires an understanding of the interconnectedness of social (including cultural), environmental, economic and educational systems (Department of Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts [DEWHA] 2009). Further, EFS principles go beyond education about sustainability by fostering attitudinal and behavioural change and skill development amongst learners, which enable them to pursue sustainable ways of producing, working, consuming and living (DEWHA 2009). The EFS paradigm now underpins educational policies and initiatives around the globe. Living Sustainably speaks directly to the role of universities in this field, with an objective that EFS is integrated into all university courses and subject areas and that campuses are managed in a sustainable way.

However, as the United Nations’ 2005-2014 Decade of Education for Sustainable Development draws to a close, the available evidence indicates that the degree to which EFS is embedded in university curricula is inconsistent and unclear. A recent United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) review of the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development has underscored the paucity of evidence on EFS efficacy and calls for the development of cases studies and in-depth examinations (Tilbury 2011). These findings are reflected in the work of Shephard (2010), Barth, Michelsen and Sanusi (2011), Clark et al. (2011), Lemons (2011), Mather et al. (2011), Tilbury (2011), Wiek, Withycombe and Redman (2011) and Tilbury and Ryan (2011). However, there are cases demonstrating notable progress (for example, Wright 2002; Lipscombe et al. 2008; Sammalisto and Bronson 2008; Barth and Timm 2011; Tilbury and Ryan 2011; Williams 2011).

Numerous barriers to the integration of EFS into curriculum have been identified, including the focus on short-term budgeting and planning horizons now typical of education institutions; anachronistic, silo-oriented organisational structures, cultures, resourcing and processes; failure to reform, contextualise and integrate contemporary content in an interdisciplinary sense and provide ‘real world’ opportunities to gain experience and connect global principles with their local manifestations; inflexibility, lack of interest and resistance to change by academic staff; failure by educational institutions to employ practitioners as educators; a persistent view that the responsibility for change lies only with the institution and the state, rather than also at the personal level; lack of interest from students themselves; and a continuing tendency to offer sustainability content in elective format rather than as a central organising principle, identified as key to information literacy and a core competency of graduates (Thomas and Benn 2009; Rusinko 2010; Shephard 2010; Barth and Timm 2011; Barth, Michelsen and Sanusi 2011; Clark et al. 2011; Hegarty et al. 2011; Lemons 2011; Luck 2011; Mather et al. 2011; Richter and Schumacher 2011; Stark 2011; Tilbury and Ryan 2011; Wiek, Withycombe and Redman 2011; Williams 2011; Fung 2012; Hammond and Heron 2012; Leeuw et al. 2012; Lovins 2012; Yarime et al. 2012; But, More and Avery 2013). Others suggest a growing tendency for education institutions to respond primarily to the political interests of society’s more powerful sectors, including economics and business, at the cost of other disciplines (for example, Chapman 2011; Lemons 2011). While there appears to be little published work in this area from Australasia in recent years, a similar trend was observed in work conducted by Tilbury (2004), Ramirez (2006), Sherren (2006) and Mather et al. (2011).

The ramifications of this situation extend beyond failure to teach students about sustainable practice. It also means that students are not being taught how to think critically about the future challenges facing their world – this includes sustainability, but also complex problem solving, systems thinking and change management. Sustainability is one of the fastest-evolving fields in both education and practice and students need to be able to acquire the skills to innovate and change (Barth and Timm 2011; Clark et al. 2011a; Khelghat-Doost et al. 2011; Stark 2011; Lovins 2012). Finally, Stark (2011) highlights a growing and disquieting trend in the United States, whereby the education system increasingly produces what are referred to as “environmental illiterates” – those lacking the skills and training to understand the environmental, social and economic dimensions of human-environment interactions. The US is unlikely to be alone in this disturbing trend.

**RESEARCH METHOD**

Data were gathered using desktop research and semi-structured interviews. The research focused on universities located in the Sydney metropolitan basin and outer regional areas. Sydney, Australia’s largest urban area

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(comprising some 4.5 million people), hosts a concentrated cluster of higher education providers. Four universities agreed to participate: an inner metropolitan, inner suburban, outer suburban and regional university. All these universities (labelled A, B, C and F to preserve their identities) have sustainability programs in place, which differ in age, objectives, complexity, scope and level of progress made to date.

**Desktop research**

Each university’s website, course search engines and official university handbooks were searched to retrieve data on the degree to which sustainable practice had been integrated into curriculum. Based on a pre-search examination of each university’s sustainability website, the following search terminology was derived – “green”, “environment”, “environmental”, “sustainable”, “sustainability”; and “learning”, “teaching”, “curriculum”, “course” and “education”. Using a longitudinal approach, data were collected between September 2008 and June 2009, and again in August 2010. The end dates of the two collection periods coincided with the public release of the universities’ 2008 and 2009 annual reports.

**Semi-structured interviews**

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with four sub-groups identified from within the main demographic of interest – those responsible for the development, implementation and management of institutional sustainability programs. The sub-groups were executive leaders, senior managers, academic staff (teaching and research) and general staff. Purposive sampling enabled the selection of samples that represented a broader group of cases as closely as possible, while preserving the capacity to access greater depth of information from a smaller number of carefully selected cases. This also enabled a focus on narrative data, which was critical to ensuring that the personal perceptions, experiences and histories of the interview participants could be explored (Dunn 2005; Bowen 2008).

Of 50 invitations issued, 34 participants consented (11 in positions of executive leadership, eight senior managers, 10 academic staff and five general staff). The managers of the sustainability programs at each institution, as well as the senior executive/manager with portfolio responsibility for same, were represented in each institution’s interviewee pool. Interviews were conducted between November 2009 and May 2010, which coincided approximately with the document research phase.

Interviews were conducted in accordance with a protocol informed by the research question and the results of the desktop research. The 18 questions included primary and secondary questions, and a mix of descriptive, storytelling, opinion and ‘devil’s advocate’ questions (refer Dunn 2005). Interviews were digitally recorded and then manually transcribed. Interviewees were sent the transcription of their own interview and asked to provide written approval for the transcript to proceed to the next stage of analysis.

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

**Desktop research**

The desktop research resulted in a number of findings relating to EfS and its incorporation into university curricula. Taken together, these findings illustrate the patchiness and variability that tend to characterise the effort invested in embedding sustainability into learning and teaching in universities to date. All four universities have provided and continue to provide, specialist offerings in areas such as environmental science and engineering. However, none has been successful to date in mainstreaming sustainability across all discipline areas.

While the apparent intention to do so is evident at all four universities, only one university is notable for the fact that it has chosen to adopt a strategic approach designed to embed sustainability in learning and teaching from the twin perspectives of this being the core business of the institution and also a capability by which its graduates will be defined in the future. Generally, these findings indicate that this university’s approach is differentiated by its focus on actual business and graduate outcomes. The other three universities appear to still be treating sustainability as more peripheral in terms of curriculum content. More specific findings are presented below.

In 2009, three approaches to embedding sustainability in curriculum were reflected in the desktop research:

1. **Sustainability? Well, It’s Not Really Core Business**
   
   This characterises the approach to EfS at this time of universities C and F:
   
   a. University F’s strategic plan, institutional profile and annual reports collectively note the organisation’s focus on contemporary curriculum, transformative learning and environmental sustainability. However, there is no specific mention of EfS in these documents;
b. The terms of reference of the Environmental Sustainability Committee, dating from 2008, do not refer to EfS. EfS also did not appear in the role responsibilities of the Environmental Manager position recruited in 2009;
c. While the course handbook made mention of various types of environment-related courses at both undergraduate and postgraduate level, the only explicit reference to EfS was contained on University F’s sustainability website. This was to the two sustainability subjects available to undergraduate students in 3rd year. However, these were electives and not mandatory content across all course offerings;
d. In contrast, University C appeared to have been proactively engaged in EfS since 1998. The Academic Board had initiated several major projects designed to support sustainability in learning and teaching, and promote faculty involvement in same;
e. The sustainability website also listed a range of undergraduate and postgraduate business, engineering, science, and architecture/construction programs, many listed as featuring sustainability as core content. Research programs in sustainable futures also featured on the site. The work of University C on EfS in learning, teaching and research eventually culminated in the institution being a finalist in a major Australian environmental award in 2009;
f. However, EfS as an element of core business at University C then appears to have suffered a setback during development of the new sustainability framework. While the strategic plan retained the broad commitment to sustainability as a guiding principle for learning and teaching, sustainability was not incorporated as an integral element of learning and teaching under the sustainability framework or sustainability policy (despite the framework also noting that the institution’s approach to sustainability would also position it as a market leader in environmental studies). It is unclear from the desktop research why this has occurred;
g. Further, the 2007-2009 annual reports refer to proposed new offerings in environmental studies but do not provide any specific details. Based on the position description of the time, the role responsibilities of the Sustainability Coordinator did not include EfS.

2. Is Sustainability Supposed to be Core Business?

University B at this time did not have an articulated EfS strategy, however the desktop research indicates that there was growing awareness within the institution at this time of the need to determine current status and identify a way forward:

a. While the strategic plan noted the institution’s commitment to sustainability, there was no mention of EfS in the learning and teaching plan, despite its statements about professional orientation and excellence in interdisciplinary education. The 2007-2009 annual reports did not mention EfS and nor did the (undated) sustainability strategy. A somewhat symbolic level of commitment to EfS was indicated in the interim sustainability action plan of the time, with several initiatives related to “sustainability awareness” for teaching staff and students;
b. However, University B had been proactive in undertaking an audit of its entire unit profile to determine the level of EfS content – 223 units were identified with some kind of environmental/sustainability content. Of these, only 38% were actually on offer in 2009, and 53% of the 223 units were ‘owned’ by schools operating in the Sciences and Engineering disciplines;
c. Work had also commenced in 2009 on development of sustainability sub-majors and disciplinary integration (for example, environmental law). However, no timeframes were evident and there was no indication of how the findings of the content audit would be addressed;
d. The University advertised for an Environmental Engagement Facilitator during 2009, however there was no mention of EfS in this role’s responsibilities.

3. We Think Sustainability is Core Business

This is the approach exhibited by University A:

a. Unlike the other three institutions, University A redefined its approach to sustainability as a core business issue from an early stage. As a first step, it commissioned a benchmarking report that examined its entire sustainability portfolio – including incorporation of sustainability into learning and teaching;
b. This was followed by the initiation of a number of major sustainability initiatives related to learning, teaching and curriculum renewal. These culminated in sustainability being
incorporated as a) a core value in the learning and teaching plan and b) a defining theme of the graduate capability framework;

c. Learning and teaching was incorporated into the institution’s sustainability policy; EiS was also identified as a responsibility of the sustainability team in partnership with the academic units of the institution;

d. Learning and teaching featured in the sustainability section of the 2008 annual report regarding the work done on the graduate capability framework and the 2009 sustainability strategy specified a number of targets for 2014 around sustainability and learning and teaching – these related to unit completion by students, course renewal, and teaching staff capability;

e. The sustainability website noted specialist degrees at postgraduate level in sustainable development and specialist course content available in the different academic units of the institution.

2010 saw a further divergence of approaches by the institutions, with University A continuing to progress its more strategic approach to EiS and the other three institutions appearing to adopt a position of incremental change only. The desktop research also revealed that one institution appears to have been caught seemingly unaware in the “greenwash” trap.

1. University A had continued on with its strategic approach to EiS. A new curriculum model had been proposed, which required all students to undertake at least one subject in each of the areas of culture/society, the environment and community engagement, with the goal being to create “working citizens who can contribute to an environmentally healthy and equitable society”. The new model was accompanied by other funding and support initiatives designed to support the transition to integration of sustainability into curriculum. Revised performance targets for 2014 had also been set. While progress towards these had been minimal at the time this research was undertaken, it was clear that University A had a framework in place and work on achieving stated outcomes was well underway. Again, within the context of this university’s general approach to sustainability, this is distinguishable as a “whole of institution” approach, which the other three institutions are yet to adopt.

2. University B had progressed in a more incremental fashion, with the institution still having not developed an articulated EiS strategy. As at 2010, the 2009 annual report notes that a Senate subcommittee responsible for academic planning and course approvals had given consideration to the development of sustainability sub-majors. However no further information was available regarding the future direction of EiS at this institution. As at 2010, EiS remained absent from the university’s sustainability policies.

3. University C had continued to publicly promote sustainability as core content in undergraduate and postgraduate business programs. However, investigation of course material during 2010 revealed that sustainability was included as core in the Executive MBA program only and not in the MBA program. Sustainability was not incorporated as core in the Bachelor of Business program, and featured only in two of the available 13 majors.

No further information was available in the public domain on EiS as a strategic issue and it was not mentioned in the institution’s sustainability framework or the new strategic plan. A review of the handbook by discipline area again illustrated the variability of sustainability content across disciplines, with subject listings by discipline varying from one or two to 20-30. Most discipline areas had no specific course offerings, while others had several courses available in various sustainability/environment-related areas. This situation is by no means unique to University C, as the literature on EiS demonstrates. However, the issue for this institution is the risk of the potential reputational damage it faces through being accused of “greenwash”, given statements on its sustainability website that sustainability forms part of the core offering of the business discipline in particular, when investigation of the course information reveals this is not the case.

4. University F was by 2010 communicating its environmental/sustainability offerings more clearly, with at least seven available courses at undergraduate and postgraduate level, (although these were still concentrated in the engineering, science and business disciplines). Available electives were also clear, with 14 options, six of which were 3rd year offerings, three were 1st year and five were 2nd year.

The 2011 offerings included new courses such as sustainable resource management and development studies. Sustainability-related subjects also appeared as core content in degrees such as construction
management and industrial design alongside “traditional” offerings in science and engineering. However, University F remained without an articulated strategy around ES, and there was no mention of same in the business of the Sustainability Committee and its underlying framework. The 2009 annual report did mention the development of a new elective course available to all undergraduate students, however no timeframes for implementation were provided. Of note is the fact that this intended new offering was an elective, rather than a common, mandatory unit across all disciplines.

Therefore, the desktop research highlights a clear demarcation between University A and the other three universities in relation to the concept of ES as a business and moral driver of change in universities, the subject of this paper. That is, University A appears to have an in-depth understanding of ES as a business driver within the context of organisational change, in that sustainability clearly features as an integrated component of a new curriculum model – a key component of core business in the higher education sector. University A also appears to have a comprehensive vision for the role of sustainability in its graduate capability framework, in terms of the type of citizens it wishes to contribute to society – another key component of core business in universities. At the time of this research, this was not the case with the other three universities. The interview analysis further illustrates these issues.

**Interview analysis**

Analysis of the interview data confirmed many of the findings from previous research about the types of barriers faced by those attempting to embed sustainability education in their institutions. However, the analysis also revealed some factors that previous research does not appear to have addressed and uncovered additional facets of already-identified barriers that may be of assistance in ongoing efforts to address ES issues. Of more concern, however, is the fact that the analysis clearly indicates that the two most significant barriers to ES in the participating universities are the failure to clearly delineate ES as a component of core business and an accompanying lack of leadership and change management in reorienting universities in this direction with regard to their learning and teaching activities. Relevant findings are summarised below.

**Leadership**

Several leadership themes were apparent, with a number of interviewees commenting that universities generally have not developed the necessary culture of strategic and enabling leadership to facilitate sustainability education as a feature of the core business of learning and teaching. Specific points of concern included:

- A focus by university leadership on the short-term, leaving little to no room for long-term “moral” leadership;
- A lack of integration of leadership responsibility across the university executive, with the result that the organisational reality often tended to be a number of “mini universities” (for example, the University of Research; the University of Learning and Teaching; the University of Operations) largely operating independently and masquerading as an integrated organisation, “University X”;
- Little to no engagement with the entire sustainability agenda by the institutions’ governing bodies;
- Lack of experience, preparedness, capability and ability in those appointed to positions of leadership, particularly on the academic side;
- The existence of outdated leadership styles, focussed on internal competition rather than collaboration.

Other interviewee concerns included the lack of clarity around accountability for ES in universities and the accompanying location of leadership responsibility for development, implementation and management of ES initiatives. Responses indicated that the senior executive, senior academics and the sustainability manager (or unit) all have leadership responsibilities and accountabilities for ES, but implementation continues to be frustrated by the lack of a vision and framework for how these responsibilities and accountabilities interlock to deliver whole-of-institution change.

Other elements that emerged from the commentary were the characterisation and role of the sustainability manager or equivalent in the university sector versus particularly the private sector, with a common issue being the image of the sustainability manager as the “superhero” responsible for the entire sustainability portfolio (including an implied responsibility for ES, despite the fact that the desktop research noted that ES was not explicitly identified as a responsibility of the sustainability managers at these institutions); and a consequent lack of ownership by other senior managers around an issue that – at least on paper – is identified as being important to the whole organisation.

A related issue was the poor change management culture and accompanying practices, with several interviewees noting the apparent lack of institutional understanding, especially at the senior levels, that change is always...
happening and not a series of disconnected “events”. However, many of the responses from senior executives seemed to indicate a clear understanding of socialised change management practice and the need for continuity. This conflict of perspectives would appear to indicate that the change management disconnect may be located in lower-level management positions and not just a result of structural silos and accompanying communication barriers. Unfortunately, an apparent lack of consistent understanding among the senior levels of the organisation about strategic initiatives is a clear indication of poor leadership team cohesiveness (for example, Werbach 2009).

Business drivers

A revealing finding relates to the business aspects of learning, teaching and EfS. Despite previous research findings illustrating the inflexibility and resistant academic culture within universities, senior academics interviewed during this research were quite clear about the business drivers associated with EfS (if not the value-add EfS can bring to universities) and the need for institutions to be more proactive about embedding sustainability education into discipline curriculum. Interviewees identified the increasing pressure from course accreditation panels and professional industry body requirements as a major driver for curriculum innovation and renewal around EfS and concurrent pressure to at least maintain, if not exceed, standards of academic quality and rigour. The lack of funding to support this work in universities was also identified as a key barrier to curriculum innovation and renewal in EfS.

Broadening the external perspective, senior academics also acknowledged that national and international EfS frameworks, changing market forces regarding the need for employees with an understanding of sustainable practice as it relates to their discipline of study and the nature of their employment and increased emphasis on the need to demonstrate ‘return on investment’ in relation to the core business of learning and teaching, were combining to exert significant strategic pressure on universities, such that EfS is no longer an “optional extra”. Rather, from the perspective of external influences at least, EfS can no longer be ignored as a strategic issue affecting universities’ core business. Accompanying this is the need for universities to be able to provide evidence for the progress they are making – including in relation to “market research” on student attitudes towards sustainability education and how this is being taken into account in decision-making on how to renew curriculum in different disciplines.

Innovation and competitive differentiation – the modern, sustainable university

The interview analysis supported previous research findings in that interviewees felt that two characteristics of the “modern university” included being models of sustainable practice and transforming students into ‘citizens of the planet’ (rather than simply more marketable potential employees). However, several interviewees noted that despite these aspirations, most universities do not practice what they teach (and often do not teach either); and that instead of adopting a “know it all” position, universities need to come to a better understanding of what it is that they actually contribute to society. Further, where those contributions are found to be lacking or requiring improvement, universities should identify ways of addressing this “rhetoric-to-reality” gap.

Very few interviewees (and those that did were all from the same institution) referred to any discussion or exploration within their institutions about curriculum and innovation, or the need to identify and integrate the EfS “business value-add” with mandated content and staff and student capability frameworks, mapped back to individual qualifications. This is a topic of repeated discussion in Europe, the United Kingdom and the United States. Indeed, the desktop research clearly indicates that one of the institutions participating in this research has adopted a strategic approach combining competitive differentiation, business “value-add”, being a model of sustainable practice (practising what is taught, teaching sustainability and transforming students), developing staff capability alongside graduate outcomes and mapping these elements to all qualifications in the institution. However, this is only one university out of four, suggesting that the rhetoric of EfS more broadly in the sector is not always supported by a consciousness at the leadership level about the degree of innovation and renewal required – or indeed, the need for a strategic reorientation around EfS.

CONCLUSION

This research examined the experience of four universities in the Sydney area in embedding EfS into curriculum. Each university has adopted a different approach, but only one has embraced a process of strategic reorientation and renewal towards sustainability education, such that EfS is recognised as part of the core business of learning and teaching. The other three universities continue on a path of incremental change with EfS remaining largely an “add on” to the curriculum. Despite increasing “moral” and business pressure coming
from faculty, students and external forces such as the requirements of professional bodies and course accreditation panels, progress remains generally slow in integrating EfS into the core business of learning and teaching.

While the desktop research findings clearly illustrate the different approaches the four participating universities have taken to EfS, the interviews demonstrate that, while previous research has revealed many issues that need to be addressed in the field of sustainability education, all of these may ultimately be traced back to two foundation factors – the lack of strategic and enabling leadership in the EfS area, coupled with a failure to implement processes and frameworks of socialised change management. Interestingly, it is clear from the interview data that people involved in sustainability initiatives at all four universities understand the business and moral drivers of the need to embed EfS into curriculum. Ef is not simply a matter of renewing and reinventing curriculum. While previous research has demonstrated the need to take educational drivers into account when embarking on the EfS journey, it is also critical that any educational institution understands the organisational and business drivers impacting on EfS initiatives. Universities need to have a clear understanding of the market forces affecting their offerings and develop a business strategy to guide EfS implementation. As part of the change management process, it will also be necessary to determine the staff expertise and experience needed for shifting to a course profile where sustainability education is a core feature of all disciplines and ensuring appropriate training and support is in place to assist staff in the transition.

While this is not inconsistent with the findings of previous research about progress on EfS in other countries, it highlights yet again the need for Australian universities to look to their own successes and also those of their counterparts in Europe, the United States and the United Kingdom, to facilitate efforts to bring EfS into the mainstream of university life, rather than let it remain a peripheral issue of concern to a few. If this cannot be done, universities face the reality of failing not only their own future, but those of their students as well.

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THE CONNECTION BETWEEN MORALITY AND RESILIENCY IN LEADERSHIP

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this article is to investigate the interaction of resilient leadership and moral leadership, as well as provide evidence of the need for continued and specific research in this area. Leadership theories virtually ignored the interaction and intersection of leadership and values until late in the 20th century, at which time, personal values were determined to be the most powerful force guiding the work action of leaders (Fairholm, 2003). Resiliency, resilient leadership, morality, moral leadership, and current theories connecting the two variables are inspected. Just as research has demonstrated that it is a person’s “intimate, inner values that trigger action more consistently and more powerfully than one’s context” (Fairholm, 2003, p. 16), the moral-resilient leadership models have provided evidence of its effectiveness and sustainability. It appears positioned to offer the detailed, aligned, and actionable corporate and leadership orientation needed for success in today’s global economy. As yet, however, there have been a limited number of studies truly probing this intersection, and none that were comprehensive. Based on the evidence presented, the author proposes a thorough inspection of the interaction, correlation, and effectual application of the moral-resilient leadership approach not only for leaders but also organisations seeking to achieve sustainability.

Key Words: morality, resiliency, leadership, sustainability, ethical, leader

THE CONNECTION BETWEEN MORALITY AND RESILIENCY IN LEADERSHIP

Leaders perform a major role in helping shape lives, define business and its practice, determine the character of society and define teams, groups, and communities (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009). Although there has been a mountain of leadership research, an ideal or standardised leader profile has not been offered. A meta-analysis, completed by Rhode & Packel (2011), did determine five categories of effective leadership characteristics to include “values, personal skills, vision, and technical competence” (p. 593). These findings suggest that success in the new millennium will depend on how well leaders understand their roles, the leadership process and their personal as well as group values and vision, as it is behaviour that sets the course for others to follow (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009).

Recent notable corporate and political scandals and catastrophes, such as Enron, WorldCom, Parmalat, Arthur Anderson, and Martha Stewart, have underscored the need for an intense focus on ethics and in particular the ethics of leaders. While a variety of factors contributed to the unethical corporate climates, “the scandals generally shared one fundamental characteristic: the elevation of decision makers’ short-term interests over moral values” (Rhode, 2006, p. 31). As a result, “our ethical threshold has become much less accommodating to greed and questionable business practices” (Pagano, 2004, p. 1). Froman (2010) speculates that now “more than ever, organisations need to view ethical-moral considerations as part of their bottom-line” (p. 63), for “without the witness of moral leadership,” Gini (2004) contends, “standards of ethics in business and organisational life will neither emerge nor be sustained” (p. 41). Pagano (2004) emphasises that this necessitates more than just pitching “some honor back in business” (p. 1); there is also a need for moral leadership that is resilient. May, Chan, Hodges, & Avolio (2003) proffer that leaders with heightened levels of moral capacity are more likely to recognise moral dilemmas, and Simola, Barling, & Turner (2010) propose future research “to consider whether healthy forms of resistance inherent in mature forms of care reasoning contribute to the ‘moral resiliency’ required to sustained ethical leadership” (p. 236). This article will investigate the separate concepts of moral and resilient leadership, their interaction and connection in the literature to date as well as provide evidence of the need for continued research.
RESILIENCY

The Oxford Dictionary of English (2010) defines resiliency as the “tendency to rebound or recoil; elasticity; tendency to revert to a state; capacity to recover from misfortune, shock, illness, etc.” and is rooted in Latin, meaning “to jump, leap, or bounce back.” While a fairly modern concept (Lee, McCann, & Selsky, 2009) and essentially about the ‘robustness’ of systems (Deevy, 1995), the term has emerged in the literature of social psychology (Hind, Frost, & Rowley, 1996), engineering (Hollnagel, Woods, & Leveson, 2006), material science (Sheffi, 2005), ecology ecosystem management (Folke, et al., 2004), and social-ecology (Goldstein, 2012).

As a result, scholars have defined and characterised the term resiliency as a contextual result of their individual studies. Maddi (2006) defers to the term hardiness as “a combination of attitudes that provides the courage and motivation to do the hard, strategic work of turning stressful circumstances from potential disasters into growth opportunities” (p. 160; Kobasa, 1979; Maddi & Kobasa, 1984). Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee (2002) present resilience as one component of emotional intelligence (EI), represented by the brain’s ability to integrate cognition and emotion, and encompasses self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management skills; giving outstanding leaders their edge (Arond-Thomas, 2004). Recognised as the individual and collective “ability to recover from or adjust easily to misfortune or change” (Warner & Pyle, 1997, p. 19); resiliency is the “positive psychological capacity to rebound, to bounce back from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure, or even positive change, progress and increased responsibility” (Luthans, 2002, p. 702). It is also identified as positive coping and adaptation in the face of considerable adversity or risk (Masten, 2001, Masten & Reed, 2002); “the capacity for resisting, absorbing and responding, even reinventing if required, in response to fast and/or disruptive change that cannot be avoided” (Lee et al., 2009, p. 54); demonstrated through efforts to first stabilise and then adapt (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009, Goldstein, 2012); connected with creative, timely responses to minimise the impact of unavoidable surprises (Lee et al., 2009); and the ability of a system, through self-organisation and integrated learning, to restore function in the face of disruption (Berkes, Colding, & Folke, 2003). Whether recognised as an approach, a practice or an attitude, resilience centres on the positive possibilities; “an approach that moves thinking from problem identification and resolution to strengths and actualization” (Wasonga, 2010, p. 274; Deevy, 1995). This attitude views change, both expected and unexpected, as an opportunity to make significant strides in the areas of personal and organisational growth and development (Norman, 2006).

Whether viewed as a trait, skill, attitude, or ability, resiliency has been recognised as both a personal and organisational quality that may lead to success (Milstein & Henry, 2000). Researchers have concluded that individual and group resilience is not only centred in a strong sense of identity within a life that is meaningful, inclusive of deeply held beliefs and the ability to improvise, but also a determinant in identifying who will succeed and who will fail (Coutu, 2002; Freeman, Hirschhorn, & Maltz, 2004). This reinforces Deevy’s (1995) conclusion: “The high-performance organization of the future will be inhabited by resilient employees. Those employees who are the most resilient can play a key role in leading the transformation.” (p. 199).

Resiliency Leadership Research

A review of literature shows that resilient organisations experience less turnover, enhanced bottom lines, heightened morale, and increased productivity (Warner & Pyle, 1997). Regardless of the study, however, communication has been determined a critical element of the function and development of resilience in individuals as well as within organisations (Masten 2001; Allenby & Fink, 2005; Longstaff & Yang, 2008). The channels and flow of trusted information within the organisation enhances the stakeholders’ capacity to learn from each new event, which in turn increases the resiliency of that organisation (Longstaff & Yang, 2008). As research has shown the value of resiliency, there has been a proportionate effort to determine potential methods leaders can utilise to promote resilience. Multiple studies have demonstrated a plethora of effective resilient leadership styles and contexts in establishing a hopeful mindset, modeling resiliency, utilising core values and beliefs, and creating collaborative organisational environments and cultures through transformation.
A Hopeful Mindset
Resilient leaders who utilise a hopeful or optimistic point of view help others to see failure and frustration not as reason to doubt self but as a reason to strengthen resolve (Walker, 2006). When life is viewed as meaningful, the future as chosen and change as interesting and valuable, events are then generally reinterpreted as interesting, worthwhile, malleable, manageable, and offering challenging opportunities to learn and grow. Leaders can exert an influence on their followers that causes them to interpret stressful events in ways characteristic of resilient persons (Norman, Luthans, & Luthans, 2005; Norman, 2006; Bartone, 2006).

A Model of Resilience
Well-modeled resilient leadership and resulting performance outcomes provide vicarious learning experiences and enable observers to quickly replicate the actions, attitudes, and emotional reaction exhibited by the model, thereby generating an increasingly hardy or resilient and positive shared understanding of experiences (Bandura, 1977; Nathan & Kovoor-Misra, 2002; Bartone, 2006).

Shared Core Values
Establishing and promoting shared core values positions organisations to demonstrate resiliency in the midst of change, as well as crisis; better preparing them to rethink, redesign, or reinvent themselves around those clearly defined and widely held values and beliefs (Lee, McCann, & Selsky, 2009; Day, Johansson, & Møller, 2011).

Environmental Transformation
Resilient leaders prepare for an environment or situation that does not yet exist by “requiring all members of an organization to be fully engaged in order to respond to the changes they sense” (Gobillot, 2007, p. 15). This requires fostering a supportive organisational culture, environment, and commitment, as well as providing collaborative and accessible opportunities for personal and professional development to all organisational members (Wills, 2006; Froman, 2010).

MORAL LEADERSHIP
Leadership has been conveyed as inescapably value-laden (Rhode, 2006). Renowned leadership scholar, Burns (1978) proffered the essence of effective leadership as ethical leadership; considering it as first and foremost a moral act which, above all else, should be virtuous. The succession of scandals and massive moral meltdowns in the corporate sector have furthered the sense of urgency to take up “the quest for an ethic amidst the moral morass” (Grenz, 1997, p. 17), launching “moral leadership as an area of research in its own right” (Rhode, 2006, p. 1). Despite this, there has been a lack of consensus on what moral leadership exactly means and little systematic research focused on how leaders could form, sustain, or transmit moral commitments (Rhodes, 2006). A survey of the state of moral leadership literature showed few based on any relevant research or provided any in-depth knowledge addressing ethical leadership (Rhodes, 2006). It is from experiences such as Enron that scholars and business professional have determined: “no amount of human, intellectual, or social capital could make up for the lack of moral capital among workers for the long-term success of a business enterprise” (Sison, 2003, p. 42).

Ethics is the branch of philosophy that deliberates morality (Sage, 2012), and because values are not easily defined, “discourse, insights, and theories about morality, ethics, and the philosophy of being, how we want to live, have merited discussion for over 2,000 years” (Klinker & Thompson, 2012, p. 61). All theories of ethics incorporate the basic principles of fairness, freedom, respect for persons, truth and felicity (Klinker & Thompson, 2012; Barrow, 2006). It is understood as “a study of the underlying beliefs, assumptions, principles, and values that support a moral way of life...[and]...morality as the living, the acting out of ethical beliefs and commitments” (Starratt, 2004, p. 5). Some scholars recognise ethics as the more theoretical study of the right and the good while morality is the practical living out of what one believes to be right and good (Grenz, 1997). The core of business ethics “is based in moral philosophy and its use of moral standards (i.e., values, principles, and theories) to engage in ethical assessments of business activity” (Sage, 2012, p. 3). Ethics and morality, however, have been used interchangeably, and “to be moral or ethical, as commonly understood, is to display a commitment to right actions” (Rhodes, 2006, p. 4). Specifically, moral leadership is one where moral activity is embedded in the behavior of leading and ethical leadership is the action resulting from the leader’s principles, beliefs, assumptions or system of ethics (Starratt, 2004). However, for the purpose of this paper, the all-inclusive term moral leadership will be utilised.

Ethical living has been considered “necessary to produce and sustain the conditions that make corporate human life possible...[and as such] ethics promotes social cohesion” (Grenz, 1997, p. 54). Without explicit agreed-upon ethical mores, society disintegrates, which leads individuals to construct a personal morality on the basis of social ethics (Grenz, 1997). This individualised yet socially augmented morality “interweaves reason,
knowledge, instinct, intuition and emotion in an intricate network of personal, historical and cultural patterns” (Mendelson, 2012, p. 1). Philosophical ethicists consistently stress “the importance of ethics to harmonious social interaction” (Grenz, 1997, p. 54) and as members of and participants in a larger society, people generally accept certain obligations and responsibilities in the act of living the ethical life (Grenz, 1997). With this reasoning ethics and morality are easily discerned as embedded within relationships (Costa, 1998).

In a review of literature, Rhode (2006) acknowledged that: “virtue begets virtue, and observing moral behavior by others promotes similar conduct” (p. 18), and concluded it is a leader’s behavior that sets the moral tone and moral example within an organisation. In fact, top leadership is identified by Costa (1998) as: “the most critical element affecting the ethical constitution of companies” (p. 210), and “typically the moral climate of an organization is driven from the top” (Sekera, McCarthy, & Bagozzi, 2011, p. 137). Leaders are pivotal in creating or capitalising on conditions for progress and even social transformation though “their ability to inspire hope, enlist allies, attract public support, and reinforce shared identities” (Rhode & Packel, 2011, p. 596). The leaders’ power, as well as the special moral relationship they have with their followers, “makes the ethics of leadership different from the ethics of other individuals” (Ciulla, 2005, p. 1). As the chief ethics officer of the organisation, executive leaders are responsible not only for maintaining moral development but also for “creating a strong ethics message that gets employees’ attention and influences their thoughts and behaviour” (Trevino, Hartman, & Brown, 2006, p. 45). Research indicates how those in leadership positions can and should “foster ethical conduct by setting the tone at the top, establishing appropriate reward structures and strengthening regulatory oversight” (Rhode & Packel, 2011, p. 595). This moral leadership is not just about legal compliance or ethics training meant to convey rules, codes, and regulations and review reporting channels and requirements, as these are by and large too superficial to succeed (Sekera, McCarthy, & Bagozzi, 2011; Rhode & Packel, 2011). Professional codes of ethics have not ensured that leaders, much less followers, consistently make ethical choices (Klinker & Thompson, 2012, p. 73). It is the leader’s moral compass that becomes the guide influencing the behaviour of others in an organisation (Brubaker & Coblé, 2005), one that resiliently meets the challenge to convey an accurate moral message, consistently linking words with actions (Rhode, 2006) while balancing the need to resolve personal ethical dilemmas with creating an organisational culture that sustains moral values (Rhode & Packel, 2011).

True moral leadership challenges people to act more morally (Batson, 2006); and “although individual contributors must exercise moral competencies, leaders are responsible for setting the example and creating an environment that expects, supports, and nurtures moral strength” (Sekera, McCarthy, & Bagozzi, 2011, p. 139). With the power and influence over others, leaders are in “the business of creating persons” (Klinker & Thompson, 2012, p. 73). Morality or virtue is lived and practiced within community, and “the moral mind develops most reliably in places where social habits are designed to promote the moral character, so that moral culture tends to perpetuate itself” (Mendelson, 2012, p. 21). According to Kane (2001), organisations “are the bearers of moral capital insofar as they are perceived to embody principles, purposes, and interests believed noble, just legitimate or moral” (p. 35). Just as “revelations of behavior inconsistent with institutional aims and values will tarnish the whole, ...honorable service will serve to confirm and enhance the reputation of both individual and institution” (p. 35). Reputation has become a main asset of organisations and managing reputation is a major task of leaders (Klewes & Wreschniok, 2009). As representatives of the organisation, the actions, statements, and behavior of leaders obviously carry remarkable significance (Kane, 2001). Leaders can be the catalyst for morally sound behavior, but alone they are insufficient; leadership must be embedded within the context of the organisation and in follower and leader relationships (Gini, 2004). This presents moral purpose as no longer confined to an individual act, but rather as a quality of the entire organisation or system (Fullan, 2009).

Connecting leadership ethics to decision-making is key, as a person’s moral character is broadcast through behaviour based on personal virtues or dispositions (Maxcy, 2002). Mendelson (2012) noted that individuals with well-developed morals and a sound understanding of moral ideals were often able to adapt them to novel and complex situations. These individuals, according to the renowned psychologist Rost’s (1994) analysis of moral development, ably demonstrate all four components of ethical decision making: moral awareness, moral reasoning, moral intent, and moral behaviour or actions. It is increasingly apparent that “decision making is the most important action in which a leader can engage” (Klinker & Thompson, 2012, p. 63). Moving followers through the three stages of ethical development - first compliance, then compromise, and finally commitment (Costa (1998) – requires sustained moral leadership. Comer and Vega (2011) proffer moral courage coupled with moral motivation as the fuel that helps individuals to do the right thing and bridge the gap between knowing the right thing to do and acting on that knowledge. In agreement, Margolis and Molinsky (2006) state: “Moral leadership is often identified with clear conviction, a capacity to check impulsive temptations against principles, steadfast commitment to a course of action, and courage in the face of personal costs” (p. 93).
As the international environment has become quite complex, evidencing rapid change, a plethora of ethical challenges and multiple opportunities to express greed, moral leadership is now recognised as globally needed and desired (Trevino & Brown, 2004). There appears to be a high correlation between the escalating speed, quantity and flow of information, as well as increased performance pressures, with heightened probability of unethical, conscious and even unconscious, leadership decisions, actions, and behaviour (Toor & Ofori, 2009). This reality highlights the critical need for organisational and leader ethics, values and principles more than ever to serve as fixed points or standards in the sea of confusion, determining what is universally true, correct, right, and appropriate (Cameron, 2003). Ethics “lies at the heart of leadership studies and has veins that run through all leadership research” (Ciulla, 2004, p. 18) and due to the overwhelming importance of values and morality to the stakeholders and their analysis of leaders, leadership studies must continue to address the challenge of defining and identifying moral dimensions of leadership (Harter, 2006).

MORALITY LEADERSHIP RESEARCH

Research supports the benefits of moral leadership. The majority of studies have found the consistent significance of leaders’ own ethical commitments on organisational culture as well as significantly positive relationships between “the impact of ethical behaviors on financial results or on measures likely to affect such results, such as employee relations and public reputation” (Rhode, 2006, p. 17). Research also indicates that while the reputation of the leader and the organisation are distinctly separate, they are strongly associated and, in fact, “the leader is a significant symbol for any organization and what the leader says and does can be more important symbolically than operationally when it comes to managing reputation” (Davies & Chun, 2009, p. 311). Additionally, moral identity research has shown it to be as essential on the organisational level as on the personal level, and revealed that employees of companies with integrity programs reported benefits such as lower incidents of unethical/illegal behavior, heightened awareness of ethical/legal issues at work, greater pursuit of ethical/compliance advice, better reporting of ethics/compliance violations, increased contextualisation of ethics/compliance in everyday decision-making, and greater employee commitment to the firm (Damon, 2004; Thomas, Schermerhorn, & Dienhart., 2004). In fact, moral identity is now defined as a relational and organisational construct (Zhu, 2006). Studies also demonstrated that ethical leadership that reliably and consistently follows a moral purpose and ethical end values has the ability to overcome ethically related dilemmas and challenges and that moral leaders are “perceived as fair and just decision makers, ethically principled, caring and altruistic” (Toor & Ofori, 2009, p. 535; Trevino, Hartman, & Brown, 2000). Despite these revealed benefits of moral leadership, the reality is that business leaders have not demonstrated moral maturity or the “emotional and mental dexterity to entertain the validity of conflicting options, or the conceptual ability to envision alternative courses of action” (Costa, 1998, p. 213; Lichtenstein, Smith, & Torbert, 1995). The public is looking for businesses to exhibit higher values that ground leadership in personal character as well as the ability to build integrity and character throughout the organisation (Miller, 2011).

Research shows that effective leadership strategies are those that foster authentic progress related to ethical and moral behavior and are initiated “within” the leader and “within” the organisation (Thomas et al., 2004). Ethical leadership promotes ethical conduct through consistent modeling, intentional ethics management and diligent organisational member accountability (Toor & Ofori, 2009). This type of leadership is not aimed at separately influencing each decision, instead “the goal is to activate self-regulation that influences each decision” (Thomas et al., 2004, p. 61). Ethical, strategic leadership is one where leaders “embrace ethical behavior in business because of the freedom, self-confirmation, and success it brings” (Thomas et al., 2004, p. 64), and “the test of moral leadership is whether the competence, well-being, and independence of the follower is enhanced as a result of accepting control and whether the enterprise of which both are a part ultimately benefits” (Sergiovanni, 2005, p. 19).

APPROACHES CONNECTING MORALITY AND RESILIENCY IN LEADERSHIP

The notion of a virtuous organisation connects moral leadership with resilient leadership within the context of the institution at large. It is an approach focusing all organisational stakeholders toward unified virtuous purposes by merging effective coping skills and responsive hearts and minds. This unity of purpose provides each member of the organisational culture with the ability to move forward with reborn confidence, resilience, resolve, hope and vision for an improved future (Froman, 2010). Virtue theory not only involves transformation (Sage, 2012), but also “holds that it is character that promotes good qualities and decision making, not someone who is exceptionally clever at calculating the odds (utilitarianism) or being rigidly logical about basic principles (deontology)” (Klinker & Thompson, 2012, p. 69). Leadership in virtuous organisations insists on an ethical leadership that is morally courageous, regardless of the context (Froman, 2010); one that displays moral efficacy and resiliency (May et al., 2003), which results in behaviors that both inspire and then sustain not only
individuals within the organisation but the organisation itself, against harm (Cameron, 2003). In addition to this overarching organisational model connecting moral leadership with resilient leadership, specific models of leadership demonstrating this same association have been proffered by leadership scholars for use in a variety of businesses, regardless of the context.

One option is the authentic leadership model, originating in 1948 when Barnard submitted, “Organizations endure in proportion to the breadth of morality by which they are governed” (p. 282). This, according to Barnard (1968), includes an executive responsibility for conforming to a well-established set of personal morals, as well as the creation of a set of moral codes for others in the organisation. Trevino, Hartman, & Brown (2006) extend Barnard’s (1968) ideas to identify the moral person as the totality of moral traits (e.g., integrity and honesty), moral behaviors (e.g., doing the right thing), and moral decision-making (e.g., holding to values and objectivity). The moral manager incorporates the combined efforts of role modeling through visible actions, rewarding and disciplining, as well as communication about ethics and values. They proffer moral leadership as one that develops a reputation as “both a substantively ethical person and a leader who makes ethics and values a prominent part of the leadership agenda” (Trevino, Hartman, & Brown, 2006, p. 55). In 2004, Bass and Steidlmeier tendered the ideal leadership model as authentic and transformational, recognising moral leadership as a creative endeavor of engendering “virtue in self, others and society through example, and virtuous conduct” (p. 188). It is moral leadership and involves transformation (Hanson, 2006). This leadership approach understands and excels at both the practical elements of business while remaining deeply reflective in the pursuit of moral excellence, reinforcing the necessity for moral transparency and resiliency for sustainability. It is one that exhibits authentic moral courage, but also the ability to continually adapt and cope, thus influencing others through the moral resiliency of the leader to sustain authentic action in the organisation over time (May et al., 2003, p. 256; Luthans & Avolio, 2003), making “the ethical dimension of their leadership explicit and salient to their employees” (Collins, 2006, p. 51). Proponents propose that the authenticity of leadership could “be measured by the leader’s moral capacity, courage, and resilience in creating commonly held codes within the organization” (Novicevic et al., 2005, p. 1399).

Pagano (2004), Sashkin (2006), and Collins (2006) provide examples of how the authentic leadership model allows for the inclusion of their individual and specific areas of research. Pagano (2004) presents the transparent leader who achieves effectiveness on a well-established platform of personal connections “made through trust, reliability, care, and appreciation” (p. 12). Great transparent leaders are responsibly transparent, demonstrating integrity, generating trust and communicating values. As they “tap into credibility, they create other leaders, energize followers, and increase loyalty, and the authenticity of the entire organization is felt inside and out” (Pagano, 2004, p. 198). Sashkin (2006) proposed a visionary leadership theory, renamed leadership that matters, integrating authentic transformational leadership with a close examination of the personal nature of leadership. Character is recognised as the driving force for transformational leadership behaviour that enables these leaders to build transformational organisational cultures (Sashkin, 2006). Studies have found that leadership that matters is “strongly and consistently associated with sound measures of effective organizational culture...[as well as]...a strong and significant relationship between ... the degree to which a leader exhibits leadership that matters and measures of organizational performance” (Sashkin, 2006, p. 17). Collins (2006) presents a leadership model where the top level of leadership builds “enduring greatness through a paradoxical combination of personal humility plus professional will” (p. 270). He acquaints this leadership effort to a type of unwavering and even fierce resolve (Collin, 2006). Each of these approaches fully embraces the authentic leadership model, including the emphasis on both the morality and resiliency of the leader.

The theory of values-oriented leadership (Fairholm, 1998; Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009) also utilises the concept of transformational leadership that demonstrates resiliency as it assists followers to embrace the values of the organisation and nurtures their development, which in turn raises workers to higher levels of performance. It reinforces leadership as “essentially a values-based relationship between leader and follower that allows for group objectives to be achieved” (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009, p. 83) where the central task of leadership as that of “joining group actions together via a common set of values” (Fairholm, 2003, p. 18). This idea of moral leadership is one built “upon the model that leadership is essentially a reciprocal, morally uplifting relationship between leaders and followers” (Sison, 2003, p. 38) This view of leadership began with Greenleaf’s (1977) ideas about servant leaders and Burns’s (1978) transforming leaders and is a holistic philosophy of leadership focused on leader core beliefs and values that inspire and empower followers to develop and mature and to take action (DePree, 1989; Covey, 1992; O’Toole’s, 1996; Colvin, 1996; Palmer, 1998). In fact, Burn’s (1978) statement: “Leadership is moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led” (p. 20) has been utilised by transformational leadership theorists, as well as values-based leadership theorists, to argue for their cause. Supporting this leadership orientation is Selznick’s (1957) study advancing
the idea that leaders must be experts in the protection of values and Peters & Waterman’s (1982) study of high-performing companies, which concluded that the key role of top executives was to “manage the values of the organization” (p. 245).

Spiritual leadership recognises the desire to find ultimate purpose in life and then to live accordingly (Mitroff & Denton, 1999). A multi-level theory of spirituality and leadership from Phipps (2012), Harter (2006), and Sheep (2006) is one constructed in response to pressures on organisations to provide employees not only with meaningful work but also to help those workers realise their greater inner growth and potential (Sheep, 2006), all within a positive and interconnected environment (Neck & Milliman, 1994). It recognises the inability of individuals to separate their spiritual values from the workplace and is centred on the five core values of love, truth, responsible action, inner peace and non-violation that are found in all spiritual traditions (Miller, 2011). These leaders must become adept at identifying how personal spiritual beliefs influence their decision-making (Phipps, 2012) and strategically respond in ways that provide organisational meaning and purpose, as well as give equitable recognition, to various stakeholder interpretations of the appropriate degree spiritual encounters and expression are allowed and promoted within the organisation (Sheep, 2006). Spiritual leadership demonstrates ethical, compassionate, fair and respectful treatment of others while maintaining personal integrity and moral development. It focuses on making the work environment more humane, visionary and concerned with a sustainable future for all (Sharma, 2010). This approach necessitates resilient leadership that is both moral and able to morally manage. When belief systems position the leader to view a contextual challenge as one of new possibilities, a benefit of resiliency (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007), then spiritual beliefs are considered efficacious and of great advantage (Phipps, 2012). Leadership must therefore be multidimensional, requiring a strategic nurturing of the organisation’s ability to absorb and learn, to maintain effective change responses, as well as to preserve an adaptive capacity (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001; Phipps, 2012). It positions leadership, implicitly or explicitly, as spiritual leadership (Cunha, Rego, & D’Oliveira, 2006). Research shows that shared higher purposes cause hope levels to rise, increasing the confidence in the leader and organisation, positively influencing the investment levels of stakeholders (Kanter, 2004).

Regardless of time or context, society yearns for leadership that is both moral and resilient. This understanding of leadership is grounded in the belief that values are embodied in the actions of a leader. Leadership, according to Fairholm (2003), “has evolved to the point where now it is seen as a shared activity, triggered by common values, and practiced” (p. x), by persons seeking to realise their personal values within various areas of any organisation. Furthering this concept, Fairholm (2003) espouses that the principal characteristics of leaders are in the values they transmit, inducing and even transforming followers toward accepting a set of values, including standards of acceptable goals and behavior, as their own. The authentic, values-oriented and spiritual leadership models, as well as the model of a virtuous organisation, have been tendered in an effort to substantiate the connection between morality and resiliency in the effective leader.

CONCLUSION

Organisations, whether community-based, national, or international, shape the quality of “lives across multiple dimensions, including health, safety, jobs, savings, consumer products, and the environment” (Rhodes, 2006, p. 14). As a result, organisational shareholders and stakeholders as well as the general public retain an enormous stake in the moral leadership of those organisations. All members of an organisational community face pressures to respond swiftly, improve efficiency and achieve maximum effectiveness. This is especially true of the leaders and “such pressures may, albeit unintentionally, influence managers and leaders to shortcut decision-making processes without giving sufficient attention to ethical considerations” (Sekerka, McCarthy, & Bagozzi, 2011, p. 131). Rhodes (2006) noted that while individuals have the knowledge of ethical distinctions, the problem arises as a lack of the strength to act on that knowledge under situational pressure. This common example stresses the need for moral, resilient leadership that is sustained, “when influential forces such as social norms make other alternatives seem reasonable or acceptable” (Sekerka, McCarthy, & Bagozzi, 2011, p. 131). It also reveals the great global “need for leaders with vision, values, and technical competency” (Rhode & Packel, 2011, p. 3).

Altogether, this moral and resilient leadership model requires a commitment to sustainability and has “considerable impact on our expectations of a genuine leader, since ethical leadership is a necessary condition for genuine leadership” (Bowie, 2005, p. 149). There is enormous burden on leadership to earn the trust of followers and on those who are led to give trust, as it “establishes a framework of expectations and agreements (explicit or not) in which actions conform or fail to conform” (Solomon, 2005, p. 42). Sison (2003) suggests that moral capital provides a true source of value among organisational stakeholders - something that ‘trust’ alone is unable to accomplish. Moral capital is not about strength, intelligence and economies, or even about what
makes an individual successful in business. It is about “what makes a person good as a human being” (Sison, 2003, p. 31). Leadership is a “complex moral relationship between people based on trust, obligation, commitment, emotion and a shared vision of the good” (Cuilla, 1998, p. xv) and leadership that is both morally good and technically good is one where leaders recognise that all decisions have a moral dimension. It is through these explicit and implicit decisive actions that “leaders shape the ethical choices of their followers, enhancing or inhibiting their personal growth and flourishing” (Sison, 2003, p. 38). Ultimately what defines moral leadership is loyalty to fundamental ethical and virtuous principles, even when the cost is great. True leadership is both moral and resilient and involves ethical conduct on the part of leaders, as well as the gift and skills to inspire such conduct in followers (Rhode, 2006).

Leaders positioned as current and future agents of cultural change, those attuned to the big picture and sophisticated as conceptual thinkers, are those of moral purpose and coherence-making and demonstrate persistence and diligence in their leadership development (Walker, 2006; Fullan 2001). This intentional, engaged, innovative, competent and diligent leadership is focused on the common and higher moral ground, fostering hopefulness in all stakeholders (Walker, 2006). It is leadership focused on creating resilient sustainable organisations through the development of individual member resilience and is “flexible, agile, responsive, and capable of surviving and thriving in a turbulent environment” (Deevy, 1995, p. xiv). It is sustainable as it provides an integrated understanding of the interconnectedness of human activity with all related man-made and naturally occurring systems and has at heart the goal of sustainable development (Sage, 2012, p. 223). This moral and resilient leadership approach positions not only these leaders but their followers with positive attitudes, proactive behavior, vision and focus, the ability to tolerate ambiguity, strong organisational skills, the ability to regroup and move on and a willingness to enter uncertain situations, secure in the knowledge that learning and adjustments accompany the move forward (Deevy, 1995; Quinn, 2004).

Leadership models recognising the link and perhaps the grounding nature of morality and resiliency in effective leadership have been examined in order to promote not only an understanding but also the potential value of this concept. What has not been systematically or intensely investigated, however, is whether leader resiliency and leader morality are correlated and, if so, how and to what degree they are able to predict sustained, effective leadership. Study results may assist organisations not only in identifying moral, resilient leaders but also in helping them to assist in leader development. An in-depth exploration of these variables within the field of organisational leadership would assist in developing a more comprehensive response to the growing complexities and significant change characterising organisations around the globe by providing guidance to leaders and organisations seeking to achieve effective and sustained efforts.

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COULD SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP PRACTICES HAVE SAVED THE TITANIC AND THE 1510 PEOPLE WHO PERISHED THE NIGHT IT SANK?

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ABSTRACT

Although the Titanic sank over a century ago, events surrounding the tragedy have become a parable for the modern corporate leader and, in the face of current global economic, climate and societal crises, the moral is that there is an ever-increasing need for business leaders to employ more sustainable leadership practices in order to avoid a catastrophic corporate collapse and improve outcomes for society as a whole. This paper reviews the leadership of the White Star Shipping Line and the Titanic in the lead up to and during the night the ship collided with an iceberg and sank, to examine whether sustainable leadership practices could have resulted in an improved outcome on that fateful night in April 1912. Using Avery & Bergsteiner’s (2010) Sustainable Leadership Pyramid (SLP), the analysis shows that leadership practices within White Star’s organisation, and aboard the Titanic, were far from sustainable and culminated in the Titanic’s collision and the death of more than 1500 people. Through the analysis of leadership practices within White Star, and aboard the Titanic, a number of key sustainable leadership practices are identified which this paper concludes could have minimised the risk of collision; improved safety measures; strengthened employee engagement; improved communication in the event of a crisis; and, ultimately, improved outcomes for that disastrous night. Finally, this paper recommends a number of key leadership actions that might have seen the Titanic avoid collision and minimise the tragic loss of lives.

Keywords: Titanic, White Star, leadership, sustainable leadership

INTRODUCTION

The Master of the Titanic, Captain Edward John Smith, is among the most controversial maritime leaders in history. His leadership has been questioned and his reputation arguably tarnished, as a result of the worst maritime disaster of the past century – the sinking of the luxurious ocean liner, the Titanic – which resulted in the death of over 1500 passengers and crew. During the past hundred years, the Titanic, its Master and Bruce Ismay (Managing Director of the White Star Shipping Line that commissioned and owned the Titanic) have been the subject of a great deal of scrutiny and speculation and are an often cited “lesson in leadership”. This paper reviews the practices demonstrated by the leaders of the White Star Shipping Line, specifically Ismay and Smith, using Avery & Bergsteiner’s (2010) Sustainable Leadership Pyramid (SLP) and investigates whether sustainable leadership practices could have prevented the Titanic’s collision and minimised the enormous loss of life that occurred when the Titanic sank. This event was chosen because, despite the outcomes of official inquiries in 1912, many theories have arisen over the past century that call into question the leadership leading up to the time the Titanic sank. As such, the sinking of the Titanic is a fascinating historical event and poignant situation to study from a sustainable leadership perspective.

Leadership is a complex subject (Avery, 2004) and, due to conflicting reports of the Titanic’s history, the events that occurred in the lead up to and during the sinking of the Titanic are equally complex. Avery & Bergsteiner’s SLP provides a practical framework through which to analyse leadership practices of an organisation and identify actions that can be taken to improve the organisation’s sustainability and performance. Whilst the SLP was developed nearly a century after the sinking of the Titanic, given the analogy that can be drawn between the Titanic tragedy and the spate of recent high profile corporate collapses, the SLP was chosen as a framework for studying the leadership practices of the White Star Shipping Line and the Titanic in an attempt to discover what leaders could have done differently to prevent such a catastrophic outcome. According to Avery & Bergsteiner (2010), “Honeybee” organisations are focussed equally on all stakeholders; take a long term view; trust, develop and nurture employees; and manage risks more effectively, all of which lead to higher, more sustainable, organisational performance. “Locust” organisations, on the other hand, are self-interested; exploit their
The hypothesis being tested here is that adopting more sustainable leadership practices would have assisted Smith in avoiding a collision and reduced the disastrous outcome for those aboard the Titanic the night it sank.

**METHOD**

Over the past century there have been many thousands of reports of the events surrounding the sinking of the Titanic, which have created often conflicting information about what occurred that fateful night. This paper reviewed a number of secondary information sources to determine the facts about events leading up to the tragedy as well as the leadership of White Star and the Titanic. Sources reviewed include both the British Wreck Commissioner’s Report and the US Senate Inquiry into the Titanic disaster as well as numerous newspaper articles, websites and books detailing eye witness accounts, as well as biographies and chronologies of the events surrounding the sinking. Using knowledge gained about the Titanic’s leadership from these various sources, the leadership practices of Ismay and Smith were compared with the practices described in Avery & Bergsteiner’s SLP. Each of the 23 sustainable leadership practices was then examined in terms of the information sources.

**RESULTS**

The analysis of the White Star’s leadership practices using the SLP practices is summarised in Table 1. It confirms that White Star and the Titanic demonstrated traits of an unsustainable “locust” organisation. White Star and the Titanic’s leadership demonstrate, at best, 3 out of 23 sustainable leadership practices from the SLP. This leads to the conclusion that White Star was far from an organisation with sustainable leadership practices and Smith’s behaviour was also predominantly ‘locust’.

Table 1: Summary of the leadership practices of White Star and the Titanic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sustainable leadership practices</th>
<th>Comments about leadership practices at White Star and aboard the Titanic</th>
<th>“Honeybee” or “Locust”?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Foundation Practices</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| 1. Developing people             | - Many of the officers and the senior engineers aboard the Titanic were qualified and experienced in their roles, however they were provided with limited ongoing development.  
- The need for getting the Titanic under sail quickly meant unskilled labourers were enlisted as crew just days prior to its maiden voyage and were provided no training for their roles or for responding to emergencies, including the evacuation of the ship (Titanic Inquiry Project, ©1999-2012a&b). | “Locust” |
| 2. Labour relations              | - Relations with employees were predominantly cordial.  
- It should be noted that any crew member who disembarked early was seen to have “abandoned ship” which, at the time, was seen as a crime. This is arguably antagonistic however it was a view held by the community at the time and cannot be held to be the decision of the leaders of White Star or the Titanic. | “Honeybee” |
| 3. Retention of staff            | - At the age of thirty, Smith joined White Star and served aboard the company's major liners, sailing the seas of the world and quickly rising to prominence. Thirty years after joining White Star, Smith was appointed to the role of Master of the Titanic for its maiden voyage.  
- However, as the vast majority of the crew were unskilled and seen to be easily replaced, neither Smith nor White Star were concerned with their retention. | “Locust” |
4. **Succession planning**  
*Honeybees* – promote from within where possible  
*Locusts* – appoint from outside  
- If something were to have befallen Smith, the next Officer in the chain of command would have taken over command of the ship.  
- Similarly, if one of the Titanic’s Officers or Engineers needed to be replaced, White Star would likely have appointed an Officer from one of the other ships within White Star’s fleet.  
- If an unskilled crew member needed to be replaced, another crew member would have been sourced externally.

5. **Valuing people**  
*Honeybees* – concerned about employee welfare  
*Locusts* – people are an interchangeable cost  
- The ship’s Master, Officers and Engineers were highly valued for their skills and experience.  
- However, the majority of crew members was seen to be easily replaced and was, therefore, not highly valued by leaders.

6. **CEO and top team**  
*Honeybees* – CEO is a top team member or speaker  
*Locusts* – CEO is a decision maker, hero  
- Leadership aboard the Titanic was typical of that aboard ships of its day and would be described by Bass (1990) as autocratic. Status and rank drove hierarchical levels of top-down command and control style leadership.  
- The ship’s Master, Smith, bore ultimate responsibility for command of the ship and, according to the chain of command aboard the Titanic, decision-making responsibility resided with Smith (Baxter, 2012).  
- On occasion, when not at the helm (e.g. when Smith was asleep), Smith would be forced to hand decision-making power over to the most senior Officer.  
- Smith held the Officer group in high esteem and valued their competence and, as such, shared navigational and operational information with them on a regular basis. However, on the night of the collision, Smith failed to provide this group with necessary commands and information required to ensure the safety of all those on board.

7. **Ethical behaviour**  
*Honeybees* – doing the right thing is an explicit value  
*Locusts* – ambivalent, negotiable, assessable risk  
- The Titanic was put through only a very brief set of tests at sea before setting sail for England (Titanic Inquiry Project, ©1999-2012a&b).  
- The comparably relaxed maritime safety standards of the early 1900s and the need for more space to house passengers (Havern, 2012) meant that a decision was made for the Titanic to carry only twenty lifeboats – this provided sufficient capacity for less than half the number of passengers aboard the maiden voyage to evacuate the ship (Titanic Inquiry Project, ©1999-2012a&b; Scrivener 2012). Despite having more lifeboats than was mandated at the time, not having sufficient capacity in life-saving vessels for all passengers and crew proved negligent (Havern, 2012).  
- The Titanic was navigating the ice fields of the North Atlantic ocean which were known to be dangerous (National Geographic Society, ©1996 – 2012a) and, according to Havern (2012, p.6), “the Titanic had received no less than six warnings of icebergs and pack ice”. Despite the significant risk of striking ice, the Titanic sailed at high speed, posted no additional lookouts and the Officer in charge took no additional precautionary measures except for instructing the lookout to keep careful watch for icebergs (Titanic
### 8. Long-term perspective

**Honeybees** – long-term overrides short-term

**Locusts** – short term profits and growth prevail

- A decision was made to increase housing for passengers in preference for ensuring adequate safety equipment so as to drive revenue growth.
- A desire to get the Titanic into the water as quickly as possible meant that only 6-7 hours of testing were completed with usually only one test of each of the ship’s operations/actions (Titanic Inquiry Project, ©1999-2012a & b).
- As previously stated, despite the significant risk of striking ice, the Titanic sailed at high speed, posted no additional lookouts and the Officer in charge took no additional precautionary measures except for instructing the lookout to keep careful watch for icebergs (Titanic Inquiry Project, ©1999-2012a).
- Iceberg warnings were either withheld from the Master for fear of slowing the Titanic’s passage to America or were ignored by the radio room due to the huge volume of communications required to be sent and received on behalf of passengers.

### 9. Organisational change

**Honeybees** – evolving and considered process

**Locusts** – fast adjustment, volatile, ad hoc

- Change was commanded from the top within White Star and aboard the Titanic; hence organisational change was relatively swift.
- Fast adjustments were made to the Titanic’s course and speed on the night it sank. These decisions were made in a reactive, ad hoc fashion (Titanic Inquiry Project, ©1999-2012a & b).

### 10. Financial markets

**Honeybees** – seek maximum independence

**Locusts** – follow the market, often slavishly

- During the first decade of the 20th century, the trans-Atlantic travel industry was fiercely competitive (Historyonthenet, 2012) and the workhorse of this global industry was passenger-carrying ships. The key players in the British market were Cunard and the White Star Line and, in order to increase profits, both companies were in a race to build ever faster ships with more capacity for even more passengers (Martin et al, 1998).
- Cunard had just released two new ships and, in response, Ismay commissioned an Irish shipbuilding company to build two of the biggest, most luxurious ships of all time (Historyonthenet, 2012) in order to corner the wealthy travelling elite market – the Titanic was one of these ships.
- This strong competition with Cunard (Havern, 2012) suggests White Star was following the market.

### 11. Environmental responsibility

**Honeybees** – protects the environment

**Locusts** – prepared to exploit the environment

- No discussion about environmental considerations appears in the sources reviewed. However, in 1912, most organisations exploited their environments to the fullest – it is assumed White Star was the same.
12. Social responsibility

*Honeybees* – value people and the community  
*Locusts* – exploits people and the community

- According to Havern (2012, p10): “White Star’s intent was to attract wealthy trans-Atlantic travellers and poor immigrants travelling to America”. This in conjunction with the lack of adequate safety equipment and training indicates that it is safe to assume that, generally, White Star’s leaders were prepared to exploit people and the community to increase White Star’s profitability.
- In an attempt to contain panic on the night of the collision, the Officers did not share the full gravity of the situation with all of the passengers and crew – evidence the Titanic’s leaders were prepared to exploit the poorer, lower social ranking passengers for the safety of the apparently more important First Class passengers.

13. Stakeholder approach

*Honeybees* – everyone matters  
*Locusts* – only the shareholders matter

- It would appear that the glory of being the most luxurious ship of its time and the fastest across the Atlantic was more important to Ismay and Smith than the safety of passengers.
- Based on their wealth, social status and importance of their presence on board, First Class passengers were seen as critical to the profitability of White Star. Smith regularly entertained these passengers and provided them information that other passengers did not receive. On the night of the collision, this group were informed that there was a risk the ship would sink and were given first priority when boarding the lifeboats. (Hall, 1986)
- The majority of crew and passengers had no close relationship with Smith or the Officers based on their low rank and social status as well as their lack of expertise. This group received information on a need-to-know basis only and was stopped from boarding lifeboats in preference for the First Class passengers following the collision. (Hall, 1986)
- Despite the law of the sea being that passenger safety was the number one priority, the differential treatment of people from different societal classes would demonstrate only wealthy stakeholders were considered given their importance to White Star’s organisational profitability.

14. Vision’s role

*Honeybees* – strong, shared vision is a strategic tool  
*Locusts* – here-and-now focus

- No evidence that an overall vision for White Star or the Titanic’s voyage existed (apart from reaching the US in one piece), let alone one that was shared.
- Following the Titanic’s collision with the iceberg, Smith gave “no systematic warning to passengers” (Titanic Inquiry Project ©1999-2012b, ‘Distress Calls’) about the state of the emergency and only ordered Officers to prepare passengers and lifeboats for evacuation (Daino, ©1998).

15. Decision making

*Honeybees* – consensual and devolved  
*Locusts* – primarily manager-centred

- According to the chain of command aboard the Titanic, decision-making responsibility was centrally held by the ship’s Master (Baxter, 2012).
- The Officers were responsible for providing information to Smith to allow him to make appropriate decisions. Thus Smith’s decisions were influenced by information received from those below him in the chain of command.
- The crew was expected to follow orders and was not empowered to make decisions.
<table>
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</table>
| **16. Self-management** *Honeybees* – employees are mostly self-managing  
*Locusts* – managers manage | • The Officers’ role was to control the environment to bring order to the ship’s operations. Thus officers and stewards (i.e. managers) managed the crew in their area.  
• Unskilled crew were “Sheep” (Kelley, 2008) who, out of fear or respect, let their commanding officer do the thinking. Officers and the majority of passengers were positive, motivated “Yes-persons” (Kelley, 2008) who actively followed the Master’s orders. This, combined with the autocratic leadership style aboard the Titanic meant little self-management could exist. |  |
| **17. Team orientation** *Honeybees* – teams are extensive and empowered  
*Locusts* – teams are limited and manager-centred | • Teams of people only existed from the perspective of covering shifts within functions.  
• The crew were organised and managed through the command-and-control of the Officers and Stewards i.e. their managers. |  |
| **18. Organisational culture** *Honeybees* – an enabling, widely-shared culture  
*Locusts* – weak, except for short-term focus | • Leadership aboard the Titanic was autocratic and authority was held by Smith and the Officers which minimised autonomous decision-making by the majority of the crew.  
• Organisational culture was not of concern to Ismay or Smith and their focus was on the short term “here-and-now”. |  |
| **19. Knowledge retention and sharing** *Honeybees* – spread throughout the organisation  
*Locusts* – limited to a few “gatekeepers” | • The knowledge base aboard the Titanic ranged from very low (unlicensed, unskilled crew) to high (experienced officers and engineers). As such, a few key people – Smith, his officers, the ship’s builder and some engineers – retained the critical knowledge of the Titanic’s operation and navigation.  
• Generally the crew and passengers were provided information on a need-to-know basis only.  
• A critical iceberg warning given to Ismay on the 14 April 1912 was kept by him for 5 hours before being given to Smith (Maltin & Aston, 2012; Titanic Inquiry Project ©1999-2012a&b).  
• Following the collision, Smith gave little specific information about the state of the emergency to Officers, the crew or passengers and ordered Officers only to prepare for evacuation.  
• The decision to abandon ship was delayed and a general “abandon ship” order was not given. To make matters worse, the failure of the ship’s Officers and crew to communicate and interact effectively had a major impact on their ability to evacuate the ship and save the lives of those on board. |  |
| **20. Trust** *Honeybees* – relationships and goodwill based  
*Locusts* – control and monitoring in lieu of trust | • Smith and the Officers had only limited relationships with the crew of the Titanic. Relationships between the Master and the crew were based predominantly on the crew members’ respect or fear.  
• Smith and his officers controlled and monitored the crews’ actions as the crew was predominantly unskilled and, therefore, could not be trusted to make effective decisions about appropriate actions to operate the ship. This is understandable however leaders could have taken action to ensure the crew was adequately trained to operate the ship. |  |
Sustainable leadership practices | Comments about leadership practices at White Star and aboard the Titanic | “Honeybee” or “Locust”? | Key Performance Drivers
--- | --- | --- | ---
21. **Innovation**  
*Honeybees* – strong, systemic, strategic at all levels  
*Locusts* – limited, selective, buys in expertise | • “At the time it was built, the Titanic was the biggest and most technologically advanced ship ever built.” (National Geographic Society, ©1996-2012b).  
• The design and building of the Titanic was outsourced to a specialist Irish shipbuilder, Harland & Wolff (Encyclopedia Titanica, ©1996-2012). Whilst outsourcing such as this could be argued to be more of a “locust” trait, it is the view of this paper that, as White Star’s core value proposition was managing a fleet of passenger carrying vessels, this was a strategic and sustainable business decision that Ismay made.  
• Although navigational technology was not well developed at the time of sinking of the Titanic (Lo, 2012), the technology aboard the Titanic was advanced for its time. |  |  |
22. **Staff engagement**  
*Honeybees* – emotionally committed  
*Locusts* – financial rewards govern motivation | • Little evidence exists of any attempt by White Star’s leaders to emotionally engage the crew and it is more than likely that financial rewards governed the crews’ motivation. |  |  |
23. **Quality**  
*Honeybees* – is embedded in the culture  
*Locusts* – is a matter of control | • “The ship was not designed from an engineering perspective, but rather as a vehicle of luxury. The design and strength of the hull, as well as the small size of rudder that did not enable the ship to turn quickly when the iceburg (sic) was spotted, forever changed the regulations and production quality control for future construction of vessels.” (Osgood, 2012).  
• Lack of general regulation of radio use and radio watch-keeping hours not standardised (Dunstan & Associates, 1999-2012).  
• Procedures for distress calls were not followed as only 8 rockets out of 36 were fired and at the wrong intervals (Louden-Brown et al., 2001-2012). |  |  |

**DISCUSSION**

Leadership aboard the Titanic was typical of that aboard ships of its day and would be described by Bass (1990) as autocratic. Status and rank drove hierarchical levels of top-down command and control style leadership, which is characteristic of Avery’s (2004) Classical leadership paradigm. According to the chain of command aboard the Titanic, leadership was provided by the ship’s Master and officers and there were strict protocols in place that governed the chain of command and the role of each crew member which were designed to ensure the effective interaction and operation of the Titanic’s crew (Baxter, 2012). However, following the collision, a lack of leadership and the failure of the crew to communicate and interact effectively had a major impact on the evacuation of the ship. Additionally, strong competition combined with Ismay and Smith’s reliance on the technological advancements of the Titanic’s design and construction meant that adequate risk mitigation strategies were not in place, which further contributed to the disaster.

As shown in the results in Table 1, the leadership practices within White Star’s organisation and aboard the Titanic were far from sustainable (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2010). Being short term focused, without trust and dependant on hierarchical control mechanisms, the leadership of White Star and the Titanic is characteristic of Avery & Bergsteiner’s (2010) unsustainable “locust” model. Furthermore, despite the ship being of high quality in terms of luxury (Osgood, 2012) and innovative in its design (National Geographic, ©1996-2012b), according to the SLP, the Titanic’s leadership crucially lacked employee engagement. Given the increasingly global nature...
and competitiveness of the trans-Atlantic travel industry in the early 20th century and the catastrophic outcomes of the Titanic’s collision, it would have been more advantageous for White Star to have adopted a more “honeybee” approach to ensure the sustainability of leadership aboard the Titanic (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2010) and the survival of the 1510 crew and passengers who perished when the Titanic sank.

A number of factors contributed to the disastrous events aboard the Titanic in April 1912. However this study shows that, as the persons ultimately responsible for the navigation and operation of the Titanic as well as the safety of those on board, Ismay and Smith’s actions leading up to the collision and Smith’s abdication of the command post following the collision were fundamentally to blame for the loss of lives that night. Through analysis of the sustainability of White Star and the Titanic’s leadership, it has been identified that by utilising a number of key sustainable leadership practices the likelihood of the Titanic colliding with an iceberg would have been minimised and, in the event of such a catastrophic accident, the loss of lives would have been significantly reduced, if not completely avoided.

This paper concludes that a number of foundation-level sustainable leadership actions would have minimised the risk of the Titanic’s collision with an iceberg and increased the likelihood that, under the chaotic circumstances of a collision, the crew would have been ready and willing to act autonomously, take charge and make difficult decisions, thus increasing the chances of survival for all on board – these recommended actions are outlined in Table 2. The lesson for modern day corporate leaders is that ensuring the SLP’s most fundamental leadership practices are in place can, ultimately, make a significant contribution to the organisation’s long term viability and performance.

**Table 2: Recommended sustainable leadership actions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SLP tier</th>
<th>Recommended actions</th>
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| Foundation Practices      | • Creating a long term vision for White Star as well as for the successful operation of the Titanic, particularly in the event of an accident, and sharing this vision with the crew (Avery, 2004; Avery & Bergsteiner, 2010) to provide the organisation and its employees purpose (Pink, 2010);  
  • Clarifying goals for each of the crew member’s roles, particularly in a time of crisis, that are aligned to the vision (Avery, 2004);  
  • Providing feedback to enhance the crew’s performance;  
  • Creating standard procedures for all aspects of the ship’s operation, particularly evacuation and distress signal procedures, and sharing these with the crew;  
  • Providing training to the crew to build their skill and mastery (Pink, 2010), particularly in the contingency plans for responding to crisis situations. Eventually, those crew members who were more experienced in each aspect of the ship’s operation could have trained and mentored others so as to improve knowledge sharing and retention;  
  • Sharing information regularly with the crew to improve communication and transparency;  
  • Taking more decisive action in the event of a crisis (Yukl, 1997); and  
  • Doing the right thing by ensuring:  
  - Adequate and thorough sea-going tests were completed before setting sail;  
  - Sufficient safety equipment and life boats were on board for all crew and passengers;  
  - Evacuation drills were completed with all crew and passengers;  
  - The speed of the Titanic was slowed when sailing through treacherous waters; and  
  - All crew and passengers, no matter what rank or class, had an opportunity to safely disembark the Titanic in the event of a crisis. |
| Higher Level Practices     | • Devolving decision-making power (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2010) by taking a more consultative and collaborative approach, particularly in the event of a crisis.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 |
Ismay, leaders of the Titanic and White Star, taken a more sustainable “honeybee” approach to leadership from the outset, the risk of collision would have been markedly reduced, the chances of survival for those on board would have dramatically increased and, overall, the long term viability and success of the Titanic and White Star would have been assured. Lessons from the Titanic disaster serve as a timely reminder to leaders of today’s organisations that in the face of global economic, climate and societal crises there is an ever-increasing need to employ more sustainable leadership practices in order to improve outcomes for business and society as a whole.

FUTURE RESEARCH

As leadership practices evolve and improve over time, future research might compare best leadership theory and practice during the early 1900s with the more advanced leadership practices described by the SLP to further examine how the tragedy could have been minimised if these more advanced leadership practices existed at the time the Titanic set sail. Furthermore, future research could also compare the leadership practices of the other early 20th century ships, such as Cunard’s Carpathia (which rescued those who survived the sinking of the Titanic), with that of the Titanic to identify if differences in leadership practices on other ships could have contributed to improved outcomes for the Titanic.

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SUSTAINABILITY DETERMINANTS FOR FOOD SUPPLY CHAIN: DEVELOPING A QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY

BEST STUDENT PAPER

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ABSTRACT

The increasing push for sustainability has opened up new growth avenues for the corporate sector. It has revitalised hopes to expand the customer base and increase market share even during the global recession. The challenge for supply chains is to develop the concept of sustainability and then operationalise it since every country, industry, company and even brand has its specific and unique requisites for procurement, storage, transportation, production and reverse logistics. However, it is difficult to find a generic model that is able to determine the sustainability requirements for all these stages of various supply chains. Concrete research can be done, using content analysis, to develop a ‘qualitative methodology’ that could help to elicit valid and reliable ‘sustainable supply chain constructs’ for the food supply chain. This should be able to be adapted to the specifics of any industry, company, country or brand. This paper will discuss the three phases of a proposed qualitative methodology which would help to determine the basic set of sustainability indicators for specific contexts, merging them with different stages of the supply chain, and finally testing them for reliability and validity.

Keywords: Sustainability, Content Analysis, Food Supply Chain

INTRODUCTION

The often-quoted definition of sustainability comes from the Brundtland Report, i.e. the “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs” (Brundtland, 1987). The definition has an extensive purview that makes it difficult for the organisations to adopt practices that could realise the desired vision. It neither provides a holistic framework nor an operational methodology. This macro-level definition fails to determine the role and responsibility of organisations towards internal stakeholders, such as shareholders and employees, and external stakeholders that include customers, supply chain partners, environment and society at large. However, a broader look at the literature shows that the Brundtland Report and the Rio Declaration proved to be the foundation stones for stimulating sustainability research across many disciplines (Linton et al., 2007). The management expert, Shrivastava (1995), defined sustainability as: “the potential for reducing long-term risks associated with resource depletion, fluctuations in energy costs, product liabilities, and pollution and waste management”. However, Gladwin et al. (1995) argued that sustainability is not synonymous to eco-efficiency and that socio-economic factors are equally important. More recently, Carter and Rogers (2008, p. 361) stated that the term sustainability refers to “an integration of social, environmental, and economic responsibilities”.

Sustainability is a recent phenomenon in the field of supply chain management as researchers have realised that true sustainable development is only possible if appropriate actions are taken across all the stages of a supply chain (Green et al., 1996). Seuring and Sarkis (2008) defined sustainable supply chain management as: ‘the management of material and information flows as well as cooperation among companies along the supply chain while taking goals from all three dimensions of sustainable development, i.e., economic, environmental and social, and stakeholder requirements into account’. However, the characteristics of a supply chain are substantially different for each industry, country and brand. The combination of these three factors results in
numerous supply chains and it is difficult to find a “generic model” that could operationalise the vision of the Brundtland Report for all stages of various supply chains. This research paper attempts to fill the gap and to present a qualitative methodology that is used to develop, in particular, sustainability criteria for the “Halal food industry in Australia”. The methodology is intended to be generic in nature and therefore, easily adaptable to a specific industry, country and business domain. The remaining paper will present the analytical technique used in this research, different phases of the methodology, further research directions and concluding remarks.

CONTENT ANALYSIS

There are three phases of this methodology and, in each phase, literature is analysed through content analysis done in NVivo software. NVivo was selected based on its state-of-the-art features that help to both organise and analyse unstructured information. Its ability to handle loads of versatile data (audio, video, numerical, textual, pictures etc.) in various file formats; import YouTube videos and Facebook posts; powerful query tools; annotations, memos and links to glue items for theme development; user-friendly interface etc., made it a preferred choice for this research study. In Phase I, sustainability themes were identified through open coding. Nodes were created through word frequency query, tree maps, tag clouds, broad brush coding and close analysis of literature. These themes were then filtered through industry and country specific literature. The results were further blended with Halal food literature resulting in a “basic set of sustainability criteria”, which was used as an input for the next phase. In Phase II, sustainable supply chain constructs were identified for supply chain planning, procurement, production, warehousing, transportation and reverse logistics. These were then combined with the “basic sustainability criteria” from Phase I to form a comprehensive set of sustainable Halal food supply chain criteria for each stage of the supply chain in Australia. Finally, in Phase III, the results were compared and tested against prevalent industry standards and sustainability reports of the top 10 firms in the Australian food industry. Elements were added, modified and sometimes deleted to ensure reliability and validity of the results.

In all the phases, “constant review and comparison” were used for data conceptualisation. The inductive approach used for this thematic content analysis emerged from Grounded Theory. Sustainability themes initially created in the form of NVivo “free nodes” were developed and matured during each phase of the methodology till “saturation” was achieved. Free nodes later grew into “tree nodes” which were further refined through syntactic and semantic analysis to develop a reliable and valid taxonomy of sustainability criteria for Halal food industry in Australia. This became possible through continual review and recoding of nodes. This entire methodology, extended across three phases, was based on content analysis, which generally followed the following non-linear and iterative steps:

- Creation of free nodes (open coding)
- Selection of emergent themes
- Coding (using emergent themes) or arranging data into categories
- Enhancement of coding structure/hierarchy
- Clustering of codes/nodes to form analytical taxonomies
- Identification of key sustainable themes, constructs and elements
- Review of literature and recoding

Phase I: Development of Basic Sustainability Criteria

Step 1 – Analysis of Sustainability Frameworks

Initially, various high-level sustainability frameworks were studied to comprehend the purview of sustainability; compatibility of different approaches; commonalities and differences; strengths and weaknesses; measurement techniques and underlying philosophies. These included natural capitalism, biomimicry, cradle-to-cradle, social return on investment, the natural step, life cycle analysis, and triple bottom line (Shedroff, 2009; McDonough & Braungart, 2010; Cook, 2004). Content analysis helped to develop a basic taxonomy of ideas discussed in these frameworks. It became evident that at its core, sustainability is about “efficiency”. It preaches elimination of any kind of waste and better utilisation of resources. It encourages a “systems perspective” so that impacts of decisions and strategies can be evaluated on a broader scale. It endorses “diversity” of workforce, ideas, solutions and approaches because a diverse enterprise is more capable of facing a challenging situation related to market trends, unprecedented catastrophes and financial crunch. Analysis showed that these frameworks focused on the three main dimensions of sustainability – economic, social and environmental. Also, the focal areas were almost the same such as biodiversity, air quality, water contamination, toxic materials, emissions, renewable resources, recycling, freedom of speech, work-life balance, child labour, accountability, cost-reduction, product design, etc. Identification of common areas served as a roadmap for further investigation into food industry literature.
Step 2 – Analysis of Industry Specific Literature: Food Industry

The analysis of industry literature helps to identify the unique set of sustainability criteria specific to that industry. All the frameworks analysed in Step 1 above are very generic and do not cater to the industry requirements. However, organisations have recognized the significance of considering the industry setting for sustainability issues. Global Reporting Initiative (GRI, 2002) stated in their guidelines: “…the GRI recognises the limits of a one-size-fits-all approach and the importance of capturing the unique set of issues faced by different industry sectors”. This research study focused on the food industry and analysed both academic literature and industry publications to extract the industry specific sustainability variables. It found that consumers need to be confident that the food on their tables is “safe, wholesome and nutritious”. Also, changing lifestyles have led to new trends such as “organic, convenient and ethnic food” (Kosher, Vegan or Halal). The use of “genetically modified (GM)” foods is also a contentious issue. In 2010, a record area of 148 million hectares was used for growing GM crops by 15.4 million farmers in 29 countries (Anthony & Ferroni, 2011). An examination of Codex Alimentarius (book of food) showed that industry experts are very conscious about “food labeling” and “food hygiene” and suggests the use of the “hazard analysis and critical control point (HACCP)” approach for prevention of any possible hazards to human health (Mayes & Mortimore, 2001). The different food industry concepts and latest trends were added in the form of nodes in NVivo.

Step 3 – Analysis of Country Specific Literature: Australia

The analysis of country specific literature helps to further contextualise the scope of the research. A study conducted by Christmann, Day & Yip (1999), with 99 observations of foreign subsidiaries across 37 countries, showed that country specific attributes were the most significant determinant of subsidiary performance. This implies that firms need to adapt their operations and processes according to local dynamics (Makino et al., 2004). In this research study, the sustainability criteria for the food supply chain are contextualised for the Australian market. Some of the documents used for this purpose are the guidelines prepared by the Australian Food and Grocery Council (AFGC), Australian Packaging Covenant, sustainability challenges outlined by Australian Conservation Foundation, reports related to agri-food safety by Commonwealth Science and Industrial Research Organization (CSIRO), publications focusing on biodiversity and climate change by Department of Agriculture, Food and Fisheries (DAFF), and standards set by Food Standards Australia New Zealand (FSANZ).

Step 4 – Analysis of Business Specific Literature: Halal Food

Some additional variables, specific to a particular business domain, can also be added to the sustainability criteria. These variables will further operationalize sustainability for a particular supply chain. Such contextual variables might focus specific business requirements, needs of stakeholders or brand attributes (Khanna & Rivkin, 2001). This research study targeted the Halal food sector. According to food market analysts, Halal food is the fastest growing segment globally and is worth about USD641 billion (Ali, 2012) with an annual growth rate of 19 percent and consumer base of at least 1.8 billion. According to Nestle (cited in van der Spiegel et al., 2012), Halal food has an impressive market share in global food trade (16 percent in tonnage and about 20 percent in value). Thus the sustainability criteria were filtered through Halal food literature. Thorough review of academic publications and industry reports showed many important indicators pertinent to cross-contamination, traceability, Halal certification etc., which were used to further evolve the basic sustainability taxonomy in NVivo.

Output of Phase I: The output of Phase I was a basic set of ‘sustainability criteria for Halal food industry in Australia.’ The sample output is shown in Table 1. In addition, the various steps adopted in the first phase are reflected in Figure 1, which shows the development process in the form of a funnel. The criteria passes through different levels of the funnel where it is developed and refined through addition and modification of variables (or nodes) based on literature pertinent to sustainability, food industry, Australian context and Halal business.
Table 1: Sample Output of Phase I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. #</th>
<th>Sample Output of Phase I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>All business operations are free of corruption, bribery or any kind of illegal activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Equal opportunities are provided to the entire workforce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Strict policies are maintained against any form of discrimination, harassment and bullying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>There is a well-planned survival strategy to mitigate risk of natural disasters (e.g., floods, bush-fire etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Backup suppliers are used if a primary supplier violates any Australian Halal standard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The organisation prefers local Australian sourcing for production of Halal products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>The organisation does not employ any child labour for its Halal food operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) policies meet Australian standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>All facilities are designed to use energy efficiently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Air pollutants and GHG emissions from operations are regularly monitored and reduced</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Phase II: Incorporation of Sustainable Supply Chain Criteria

The supply chain literature deals with environment, economic and social dimensions of sustainability in a stand-alone manner. Recently, broader purchasing and logistics constructs were developed by researchers through inter-connection of social and environmental aspects of sustainability (Carter & Rogers, 2008). Previous studies tended to equate sustainable supply chain management (SSCM) to green supply chain management (GSCM). Thus, this research study has broadened the foundation work and carved out sustainability criteria for each stage of the sustainable Halal food supply chain at both strategic and operational levels. In Phase II, various constructs and elements related to supply chain planning, procurement, production, warehousing, transportation and reverse logistics are identified. These are further modified and blended with the output of Phase I.

Sustainable Supply Chain Planning: The planning link in the supply chain encompasses strategic decisions and policies that impact on the tactical and operational activities. Content analysis showed that planning usually constitutes institutional policies and standards; risk mitigation strategies; demand and supply planning; and product development. The “institutional supply chain policies” cover transparent business practices; compliance with local and international regulations; contribution to communal welfare; commitment to capacity development and R&D; and focus on good employment practices. In addition, supply chain planning must pay attention to ‘risk mitigation’ related to I.T. problems, natural disasters and suppliers’ issues. Furthermore, “demand and supply planning” covers forecast accuracy, collaborative planning and accurate production schedules that help to improve the overall productivity and efficiency of the supply chain operations (Smart Steps, 2009). Finally, studies have shown that 80 percent of any product’s ecological costs and impacts are established during its design phase (Shedroff, 2009). Thus members of supply chain must contribute to “product design” so that its long-term environmental and social impact could be minimised. Elimination of toxic materials, reduction in weight and size of the product; and minimisation of resource requirements (water, energy and materials) would certainly ameliorate the supply chain’s sustainability outlook.

Sustainable Production: The term sustainable production is used to define: ‘systems of production that integrate concerns for the long-term viability of the environment, worker health and safety, the community, and the economic life of a particular firm’ (Quinn et al., 1998). Production or manufacturing processes require high inputs of energy and materials for value creation. Only electric power generation and fuel combustion for facility heating, during manufacturing processes, are estimated to contribute 9 percent and 25 percent of GHG emissions (Smart Steps, 2005). Even the waste generated from production centres and plants highly contaminate the local and global environment. It usually contains various heavy metals; organic pollutants and pesticides; oil and grease; pathogens; suspended solids; and nitrogen and phosphorous. However, there is a surge of realisation in manufacturing industry to develop and design production technology that requires lesser energy and materials input. The various constructs discussed in literature for sustainable production are environmental management system (EMS), pollution control, production and prevention mechanism, resource consumption, process design, waste minimisation and sanitization (Dou & Sarkis, 2010; Klassen & Whybark, 1999).
Phase I: Basic Set of Sustainability Criteria (Development Funnel)

Material Used in Phase I

- Sustainability frameworks (natural capitalism, biomimicry, cradle to cradle, social return on investment, the natural step, life cycle analysis, triple bottom line)

- Food supply, production and distribution; functional foods; consumer attitudes, beliefs and consumption patterns; biotechnology and GM foods; standards such as HACCP, GMP, Codex Alimentarius etc.

- Academic literature, Australian Food and Grocery Council (AFGC) reports, Australian Packaging Covenant, Australian Conservation Foundation publications, CSIRO reports, DAFF publications, FSANZ standards etc.

- Global Halal food market, Halal food standards, Halal logistics, Halal consumer insights, Halal production processes, Halal marketing, industry reports by A.T. Kearney, Ogilvy Noor, SolisFrance, Pew Research Centre etc.

Figure 1: Development Funnel for Basic Set of Sustainability Criteria
**Sustainable Procurement:** Procurement in food supply chain usually involves a large number of intermediaries, middlemen, brokers, 3rd Party Logistics (3PLs) and agents, spread globally. Thus it inherently poses risks to environmental and social sustainability through risks of pathogenic contamination, improper water utilization, soil degradation, child labour, etc. According to practitioners: ‘sustainable procurement means taking into account economic, environmental and social impacts in buying choices. This includes optimizing price, quality, availability… but also environmental life-cycle impact and social aspects linked to products/services origin’ (PwC, 2010). The need to analyse and focus the origin of products accentuates the importance of procurement. Thus firms must work with their suppliers to reduce the negative environmental and societal impacts of poisonous ingredients, emissions of greenhouse gases (GHG), contamination of waterways and exploitation of low cost labour markets (Sharman et al., 2009). A detailed examination of the literature also shows that there are two sensitive areas, biotechnology and animal welfare, that should be focused on in sustainability criteria. Some of the sustainable procurement constructs identified through content analysis include procurement purview, processes, procurement policy, procurement management system, supplier relationship management, supplier workplace standards, supplier operations, supply base development and contract management.

**Sustainable Warehousing:** Warehousing is one of the most critical functions in a supply chain. It accounts for 24 percent of the logistical costs (ELA, 2004). Chopra and Meindl (2007) defined it as: ‘the storage of materials, usually raw materials, packaging and finished goods at different stages of the supply chain.’ In today’s market, warehousing includes a variety of functions ranging from operating regional to national distribution centres, cross-docking facilities and composite warehouses. Thus it has a wider intensive role based on the provision of many value-adding and customising services and rapid fulfilment of customer orders. Warehouses are usually merged with commercial buildings for analysis that usually emit 3.25 percent of all greenhouse gases (GHG) on a global scale (World Resources Institute, 2006). Also the recent consolidation and centralization trends in the industry have led to lesser but larger warehouses for inventory management. Consequently, the unit fixed cost is decreased but energy consumption per warehouse has drastically increased. In addition, most of the warehouses or cross-docking facilities are now located near urban centres for rapid response to customer orders, thus the more rapid inbound and outbound vehicles result in traffic congestion and noise pollution. Moreover, postponement strategies used in adaptive and agile supply chains have shifted many value-adding activities of manufacturing, such as packing of promotional items, final assembly and labelling, to warehouses. This leads to shorter lead times and high product differentiation and further enhances the role of warehouses (Hugos, 2011). The major constructs identified for sustainable warehousing are facility design, layout, inventory control, warehouse staff, warehouse processes, warehouse management system, onsite facilities and mechanical handling equipment.

**Sustainable Transportation:** A company’s supply chain is conceptually a collection of fixed points connected with each other through transport links, which allow the flow of materials and goods between suppliers, factories, warehouses and customers. Transportation accounts for 40 percent of the logistical costs (ELA, 2004) and thus receives much attention from regulatory authorities, researchers and practitioners. Transportation needs are mainly based on customer requirements, legal restrictions (such as driving times or load limitations), and product characteristics and thus its mode (rail, road, sea and air) is decided accordingly. Transportation creates numerous environmental and social issues on the global, regional and local level. It results in emissions (such as GHG, SOX, Nox, etc.) and also contributes to accidents, noise pollution and congestion. Only freight transport contributes approximately 20 percent of total GHG emitted by the entire transportation industry and diesel fuel has a major stake in this air pollution (McKinnon, 2010). The sustainable transportation constructs identified through content analysis are fleet management, transportation mode, load factors, routing and shipping materials, etc.

**Reverse Logistics:** Reverse logistics is: ‘the process of moving goods back from their final destination toward their point of origin for the purpose of capturing value or for reuse, recycling or for proper disposal’ (Smart Steps, 2009). Research studies have shown that reverse logistics enhances brand value and customer satisfaction; provides revenue opportunities from recycled and reconditioned products; and reduces cost of goods sold (COGS) by reusing materials and parts from returned goods (Mckinnon, 2010). Some of the constructs identified for reverse logistics are product recovery, take-back strategy and returned product management.

**Output of Phase II:** The output of Phase II was a ‘comprehensive criteria for the sustainable Halal food supply chain in Australia’. It merged the output of Phase I with the sustainable supply chain constructs identified for planning, production, procurement, warehousing, transportation and reverse logistics. At first, a separate classification was developed in NVivo that represented the major constructs and elements for each stage of the supply chain. Supply chain literature, books, white papers, industry publications, online magazines and
benchmarking reports were mainly used for this purpose. This was then merged with ‘the basic set of sustainability criteria’ from Phase I to develop comprehensive guidelines for the Halal food supply chain in Australia. Rigorous literature review, analysis and recoding of nodes ensured that these guidelines would be deeply ingrained in both empirical and theoretical academic and professional research. The sample output of Phase II is shown in Table 2 and its graphical representation is provided in Figure 2.

Table 2: Sample Output of Phase II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. #</th>
<th>Sample Output of Phase II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Suppliers focus on efficient use of energy and water conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Suppliers do not employ any indecent form of labour (child or forced)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Warehouse operations use environment friendly &amp; Halal compliant materials (refrigerants, detergents etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Warehouse inbound processes are optimised for efficient unloading, receiving, rework and put-away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Mix transportation of Halal products and non-Halal products is avoided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Vehicle capacity is optimally utilised as per Australian guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>All pollutants resulting from production are captured and treated according to Australian laws</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>All production lines are cleaned and sanitised to eliminate any source of non-Halal contaminants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Supply chain department works with product development to develop sustainable Halal food products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>A pro-active product take-back program is implemented for recycling, reuse or resale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Phase III: Checking for Validity and Reliability

In order to ensure validity and reliability of sustainability criteria, prevalent industry standards and corporate sustainability reports were used respectively. According to Anderson (2010): ‘validity relates to the honesty and genuineness of the research data, while reliability relates to the reproducibility and stability of the data’. For validity, triangulation was used and sustainability criteria were compared with Global Reporting Initiative guidelines (GRI, 2011), UN Global Compact, Wuppertal Institute Sustainability Indicators, Greenhouse Gas (GHG) Protocol Initiative, Kyoto Protocol, European Framework for CSR, and guidelines and framework for Social Impact Assessment. O’Donoghue (2003) states that triangulation is: ‘a method of cross-checking data from multiple sources to search for regularities in the research data’. The “data triangulation” process revealed some inconsistencies and spurred further analysis, re-coding and refinement of the criteria.

Results were also tested against the sustainability reports of the top 10 sustainability performers in the global food arena. These companies were evaluated and selected by Sustainability Asset Management (SAM) – a company that manages sustainability investments and launched the Dow Jones Sustainability Index in 1999 in collaboration with Dow Jones. These companies are supposed to be the paragon for all the players in the food industry. Again, constant review and comparison led to reliable sustainability criteria for the Halal food industry in Australia. The reliability and validity gates of Phase III are shown in Figure 3.

Output of Phase III: The output of Phase III is: ‘a valid and reliable sustainability criteria for the Halal food supply chain in Australia’. Again, in Phase III, a separate categorisation of material was developed through coding in NVivo nodes. Major themes discussed in the industry standards and highlighted by companies in their annual sustainability reports were determined through various content analysis techniques and tools provided in the software. Once themes were finalized, these were compared with the output of Phase III. All major inconsistencies triggered further literature review, analysis and recoding of nodes. Thus ‘constant review and comparison’ were carried out, with both academic and professional literature rigourously examined to extract evidence for further addition, modification or deletion of codes. Consequently, a valid and reliable criteria emerged that comprised key constructs and elements required to ensure sustainable planning, procurement, production, warehousing, transportation and reverse logistics for the Halal food industry in Australia.
Phase II: Incorporation of Sustainable Supply Chain Criteria

Material used for Phase II: Academic Literature related to supply chain planning, sustainable procurement, production, warehousing, transportation and reverse logistics; Industry Guidelines by OECD, Carton Trust, European Logistics Association, Green Buildings Council, Smart Steps etc. Frameworks and White Papers by Gazeley, Green Star, Oracle, SAP, Australian Warehousing Association, Australian Research Institute In Education for Sustainability (ARIES), LBB International etc.

Phase II: Sustainable Supply Chain Criteria for Australian Halal Industry

Figure 2: Sustainable Halal Food Supply Chain Criteria for Australia
FURTHER RESEARCH DIRECTIONS AND CONCLUSION

The methodology used for this research study may be adapted to other industry sectors, countries or businesses in order to generate specific guidelines that could operationalise sustainability for particular supply chains. Some of the steps in Phase I relating to an industry, company and/or business may change accordingly, but a major portion of the methodology in Phases II and III will remain the same. This study also shows that content analysis is a powerful technique that could be effectively applied to embryonic fields such as sustainable supply chain management.

This piece of research has strong implications for “practising managers” as they can use it to develop specific criteria for supply chains under their purview. It will also help them to understand that sustainability is not merely an equivalent to the greening of supply chains, but that, in fact, green supply chains are a subset of sustainable supply chains. This methodology can also act as a tool that could help to compare the current status of their operations with the supply chains constructs (highlighted in this paper) for each stage of the supply chain. These constructs are deeply ingrained in empirical research published in both industry and academic literature and can be rigorously tested for their reliability and validity against the industry standards.

Further, this methodology will help in expanding theory construction in supply chain literature. Researchers can use the concepts, techniques and tools used in this research to further develop specific sustainability criteria for a particular stage of a supply chain that focuses on all three prongs of sustainability – economic, social and environmental. For example, this methodology can be used specifically for government supply chains. In the government sector, procurement is of more significance due to the fact that public money is involved and thousands of contracts are awarded that impact not only the environment but also the general public. Similarly, this method can be further developed and applied to services supply chains, retail supply chains, defence supply chains, and emergency response supply chains.

This methodology should also trigger the need to create a strong theoretical basis for supply chain literature utilizing qualitative methodologies as an adjunct to already established quantitative methodologies in issues of optimisation and/or resource utilisation.

REFERENCES


Valid & Reliable Criteria for Sustainable Halal Food Supply Chain

The phase II criteria is validated against the sustainability indicators recommended in the most prevalent industry standards such as Global Reporting Initiative (ver. 3.0), UN indicators of Sustainable Development: Guidelines and Methodologies, UN Global Compact: The Ten Principles, Wuppertal Institute Sustainability Indicators, Greenhouse Gas (GHS) Protocol Initiative, Kyoto Protocol, European Framework for CSR and Guidelines and Framework for Social Impact Assessment.

Gate 1
Prevalent Industry Standards

Gate 2
Sustainable Reports of Food Sector leaders in DJSI

Gate 3
Phase III: Final Reliability & Validity Gates

The gate 1 output is then tested against annual sustainability reports of top 10 firms in the food sector. These sustainability leaders are taken from SAM Sustainability Yearbook 2012, which forms the basis for Dow Jones Sustainability Index (DJSI). The companies are listed below in order of rank:

1. Unilever N.V.  
2. Danone S.A.  
3. Nestle S.A.  
4. Campbell Soup Co.  
5. ConAgra Food Inc.  
6. Grupo Nutresa S.A.  
7. Kraft Foods Inc.  
8. General Mills Inc.  
10. Hershey Co.

Final Sustainable Halal Food Supply Chain Criteria for Australia

Figure 3: Valid and Reliable Sustainability Criteria for Halal Food Supply Chain in Australia


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HOW CAN WE TEACH SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP?
EMBEDDING THE LEARNING THROUGH THE APPLICATION OF LEADERSHIP

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ABSTRACT

There is a cost to holding on to ingrained thought patterns and behaviours. We tend to narrow our thinking and collect only data that reinforces our point of view, which in turn constricts the meaning we make of our lives and the learning opportunities we may embark upon. In the university context, there appears to be a developing trend whereby the critical and creative thinking capacity of students may be getting compromised through the requirements of a highly prescriptive adherence to assignment submission standards. In an effort to standardise assessments and create universal assessment rubrics, the consequence for some disciplines is that students are not being challenged to really apply the learning that they have acquired. This is particularly relevant in the discipline of Leadership studies where the very nature of the topic requires confidence to be built by the application of leadership principles beyond just the ability to understand these principles.

This paper describes a preliminary, ongoing, observational and qualitative study that examines the co-creation of an assessment task between lecturer and students who are enrolled in the capstone unit of their postgraduate leadership degree, the Master of Business Leadership. The unit is called Sustainable Leadership Practice and it is structured in a manner that aims to affirm the learning achieved by each student throughout the course of the entire Master’s degree and then apply these acquired leadership skills to assist with the advancement of a project or cause that they identify as being meaningful (and worthwhile) for them. The study seeks to track how students approach a learning opportunity where the parameters of the assessment are negotiated and defined in partnership with their lecturer. In effect, students assume responsibility for pursuit of a learning opportunity that will stretch their capacity and understanding of leadership. This approach differs from the more traditional assessment paradigm where the lecturer imposes expectations and boundaries on students with the presumption that they will ‘follow’ the parameters of the assessment and then produce an outcome that has been defined for them versus being defined by them. In this research project, students are required to be responsible for their own learning and negotiate parameters and milestones to ensure rigorous outcomes are achieved. They are assessed on the outcome (leadership content) and the process (leadership approach) that has been utilised.

The benefits and challenges that this approach presents for the lecturer assessing the work have been tracked, along with the students’ perspective on the benefits and drawbacks of administering this alternative learning strategy. A critical analysis lens has been used to assess whether the quality, depth and rigour of the projects that have been produced exceed expectations, meets expectations or is lacking in the level of academic quality that has been ultimately produced in the form of final project submissions. Data have been collected through observations of student dialogue during class interactions; group-lecturer discussions with each project team throughout the duration of the projects; and the administering of an individual qualitative interview with each student at the end of the course.

This study has implications for leadership scholars, consultants and practitioners who are trying to bridge the nexus between ensuring that there is an understanding of leadership while also revealing evidence of the application of leadership in a manner that can build the capacity of students without compromising the expected level of academic engagement. Furthermore, this research aims to highlight an alternative method that educators of sustainable leadership practices can encourage an environment that effectively guides, supports and challenges individuals who are striving to develop their own leadership capacity.

Keywords: leadership, sustainable leadership, teaching, learning, pedagogy, assessment, capstone unit, co-creation of learning
ENHANCED STEM EDUCATION FOR A BETTER FUTURE

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ABSTRACT

The STEM disciplines play a key role in addressing the scientific, economic, environmental and social challenges facing our modern society. The education in sustainability is equally essential for ensuring a safe and better future of our planet. Developing a well balanced, comprehensive and effective STEM program is in many ways an analogous process to what many experts and educators are doing in developing effective programs for education for sustainability. The STEM education presents a perfect arena for integrating the sustainability issues throughout the academic curriculum. The Program “STEM Students’ Success Through Enhanced Math” (STEM SSTEM) is designed to provide enhanced, learner-centered education for STEM students at the University of Hawaii at Hilo. The program offers a blend of enhanced curriculum and effective teaching strategies, combined with some nontraditional motivational and engaging initiatives. The knowledge gained in the program is used to model real-life problems in various disciplines, including sustainability. In the present paper we discuss a few teaching strategies that helped engage, motivate, challenge and inspire our students. We also share our experience with initiatives that expanded our learning process beyond the walls of the classroom. STEM SSTEM experiences and meta-learning may assist educators seeking to introduce sustainability curricula.

Keywords: STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics), STEM education, integrated education, enhanced teaching, student success.

WHAT IS STEM EDUCATION AND WHY IS IT SO IMPORTANT?

STEM education is the set of conceptual understandings, technical skills and knowledge in four disciplines Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM). A successful STEM program provides well-designed sequences in mathematics, natural/social sciences and engineering/technology that build upon each other. They all contribute to expanding the students’ knowledge about the world we live in. This knowledge then can be applied to solving real-life problems from different areas of human activities.

Why is STEM education important? Because science is the subject that helps us understand our world, study it, explain it and appreciate it. As Francis Eberle [1], the Executive Director for the National Science Teachers Association, said: “STEM education creates critical thinkers, increases science literacy and enables the next generation of innovators. Innovation leads to new products and processes that sustain our economy. This innovation and science literacy depends on a solid knowledge base in the STEM areas. It is clear that most jobs of the future will require a basic understanding of mathematics and science.”

STEM Education – the frontier in building sustainable future

The importance of the science, technology, engineering and mathematics education is defined by the key role that the STEM disciplines play in addressing the scientific, economic and social challenges facing our modern society. The education in sustainability is equally essential for ensuring the future of our planet and the next generations of its inhabitants. Developing a well balanced, comprehensive and effective STEM program is in many ways an analogous process to what many experts and educators are doing in developing effective programs for education for sustainability.

Call for leadership in STEM and sustainable innovations in higher education

It is in the STEM classrooms where the new scientists, researchers, creators, inventors and innovators are “born”. Their discoveries improve our quality of life and create new technologies for the sustainable future of our planet. The institutions of higher education around the world are expected to lead the efforts to educate students and produce the future leaders in STEM as well as in all areas of human progress. The realisation that the natural resources on our planet are not unlimited and add new expectations from our future leaders - knowledge of the real world and expertise to manage its sustainability challenges. These challenges are complex, imposed by concurrent social, cultural, economic and environmental changes.
Colleges and universities respond to this call for leadership by strengthening their STEM programs and research projects, expanding their existing environmental programs and creating entirely new programs focused on the environmental issues. This movement for sustainable innovations in higher education starts with integrating the sustainability issues through the academic curriculum. The STEM education presents a perfect arena for such integration.

Science and technology are the frontier in the mobilised efforts to educate experts who are prepared to study and, more importantly, to solve the complex problems of sustainability and energy that now face our planet. It is STEM that leads to the cutting edge of scientific discovery and technological innovation that will ensure a sustainable prosperous future.

THE PROBLEM

Years of extensive research on the best teaching and learning practices have passed. Yet, the traditional undergraduate STEM education in the United States has not fully met society’s expectations for raising the next generation of experts, scientists and engineers. Recent studies [2, 3] have confirmed that more than half of the high-school graduates in the USA are not ready for college-level assignments in core subjects like mathematics and science. The percent is higher (75%) in some states. In Hawaii it is 80%. The inadequate mathematics preparation yields poor academic performance and low retention rates in all STEM disciplines. On the other hand, the 10-year employment prognosis by the U.S. Department of Labor [4] shows that “15 of the 20 fastest growing occupations projected for 2014 require significant mathematics or science preparation.”

Looking for a solution

The new program “STEM Students’ Success Through Enhanced Math” (STEM SSTEM) has been developed to address the urgent need for a new, more effective ways of teaching the core mathematics courses at university level and to prepare the students for successful careers in STEM.

STEM SSTEM PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

The STEM SSTEM Program is designed to provide enhanced, learner-centred education for STEM students at the University of Hawaii at Hilo. The program implements new techniques and strategies that take the STEM education to a new level. The mathematics knowledge gained in the program is used to model real-life problems in a variety of disciplines, including sustainability.

By integrating learning of mathematics and its applications to modern science and engineering the program aims to prepare the students to become citizens and professionals who are able to: a) fully understand and appreciate the power of the sciences, technology, engineering and mathematics; b) use this knowledge to address the urgent scientific, technological, social and economic challenges of the modern society and create a better future.

STEM SSTEM implements new management of the teaching-learning process and the student-learning outcomes. The program begins with a four course calculus sequence (Calculus I to IV), taught within a two year long cohort model. After completion of Calculus IV the students continue their education in their respective science and engineering majors – Physics, Astronomy, Biology, Marine Science, Computer Science, Geology and Engineering etc. After the freshmen and sophomore years the STEM SSTEM program continues in various out-of-class initiatives and individualised mentorship to prepare students for future careers in STEM.

In the first two years the program utilises the enhanced calculus curriculum together with an innovative combination of new teaching strategies [5,6]. The pedagogy stimulates engaged experimental learning, critical thinking, collaborative work, mathematical modeling of various inter-disciplinary contexts and innovative approaches to real-life problems in various areas. Along with developing problem-solving and decision-making skills, the science education within STEM SSTEM leads the students to consider the impact of their decisions on the global environment and sustainability.

Creative extracurricular activities are organised to ensure an enhanced learning process beyond the classroom. Exposure to the most advanced technologies and recent research developments provides a unique orientation towards future careers in STEM. These initiatives, along with the learning experience in class, ensure a comprehensive structure that educates, provokes, challenges and inspires our students to reach their full potential.
potential and beyond. By the end of the program many of them present original ideas to address various scientific, technological, economic and social challenges.

The program integrates several components, each of them equally contributing to the final success of the students:

- Enhanced curriculum
- Engaging and motivational pedagogy
- Classroom leadership that supports students’ creativity
- Non-conventional classroom assessment strategies
- “Learning beyond the classroom” initiatives
- Real-world relevant issues and global problems to study and model
- Early exposure to advanced technologies and high quality recent research in STEM fields
- Academic guidance for first research experience at appropriate level
- Academic mentorship for success in supplemental programs (internships, REUs, summer institutes)
- Academic mentorship for securing grant awards from various funding agencies
- Academic mentorship for applications/acceptance in leading graduate programs on the US mainland
- Academic mentorship for early career orientation and employment
- Education for citizens of the world with understanding of the important global problems

In what follows we share some of our STEM SSTEM unique experiences that educators developing effective curricula in other areas, including sustainability, might find interesting and helpful.

Leadership in the STEM SSTEM Classroom - engage, motivate, challenge, inspire

The greatest teachers of all times have several qualities in common, besides the great knowledge of their subject—the ability to communicate, motivate and inspire—qualities of a good classroom leader. According to Warren Bennis, leading expert in academic study of leadership, one of the qualities of a good leader is: “Seeing success in small, everyday increments and joys, not waiting years for the Big Success to arrive”.

The teacher is the person who has the best knowledge and understanding of the material to be studied in class. S/he knows what this knowledge can be used for. S/he has a good understanding of what s/he wants the class to learn, engaging the class in the learning process. The teacher knows what the applications of the new knowledge are. S/he can explain to students how the new knowledge and its applications can enhance our lives in the future. One of the most important parts of teaching (which very often is missed in some Mathematics and other science classes) is communicating the significance of the new knowledge. This is what motivates students most. As a recent research on the human brain confirms, we all learn better if we can see the relevance of what we are learning in our present lives and/or in the future.

Academic Challenge

“A great discovery solves a great problem, but there is a grain of discovery in the solution of a problem. Your problem may be modest but if it challenges your curiosity and brings into play your inventive faculties; and if you solve it by your own means, you may experience the tension and enjoy the triumph of discovery.” G. Polya

One of our roles as educators is to present to our students the material they need to know and to help them develop the skills they need to have for their future studies and future careers. But one very important aspect of our work with young people is to guide them to better know themselves and their own capabilities. If we never challenge them they will never know the extent of their potential. If we do not challenge them enough they would not be willing or courageous enough to try.

In STEM SSTEM Program I use different approaches to challenge my students and to encourage them to try harder, even though they think it is beyond their capabilities. Mathematics itself is a very challenging area of human knowledge and it provides wonderful opportunities to create a challenging learning atmosphere in our classes. The lectures are designed so that each of them contains “a piece to discover”. It could be a formula, or a rule, or a pattern, or a relationship. Sometimes it is simply an answer to a question, other times it is a simple conjecture to make. Sometimes the student’s answer is right, sometimes it is wrong. What matters is that s/he “discovers it” alone.
In every calculus class, regardless of the level, there are many challenges for the students throughout the semester. For some even studying every day is a challenge. There is a lot to do: reading, working with the textbook, dealing with the information and examples in the handouts, solving a variety of problems from different areas, considering hard concepts and nontrivial ideas, practicing new techniques, using technology, collecting data about a topic or a problem they found interesting, trying to convey mathematical ideas, trying to do their first research on their own and conveying their ideas in a scientifically intelligent manner. Each course in the calculus sequence is a challenge for the students. But through these challenges they not only learn calculus, they change their perception of mathematics. For the duration of the course, they shift from statements like: “I am stupid, I am not good in math, I hate it”, to an entirely new attitude: “It is interesting, it is exciting, and I love it”. The end-of-the-semester discussions reveal that the STEM students feel that in this program they “have to work much harder than they had ever expected”. But they also realise that they did much more than they ever thought they could.

Experience the joy of discovery

Early in the semester, depending on the material covered in class, the STEM students are encouraged to consider a project of their choice that reflects the material learned in class and illustrates its application to real-life problem solving in the area of their interests - Astronomy, Physics, Biology, Marine Science, Medicine, Social Studies, Computer Science, Weather forecasts, Geology, Volcanology, Oceanography, Pharmacy, Medical Optics, Adaptive Optics, Mechanical Engineering, Civil Engineering, Agricultural Engineering, Environmental Engineering, Alternative Energies etc.

Once the students are already “hooked”, I would give them some more instructions and a few sources of information. Then I ask them to go further and discover some more interesting applications of mathematics in life, sciences and modern technologies. For example, in the very beginning, when the material permits, I’d give my students a small project on conic sections. I give them several examples of interesting applications of those curves in real life and sciences. I also give instructions on where to find more information, pictures, and explanations. Then I ask each one of them to “discover” two things the conic sections are used for in their major (physics, astronomy, marine science, biology, chemistry, geology) that they did not know about before. They always surprise me by not only doing it for conic sections, but also for some quadric surfaces that they have not even heard about yet in class. They go ahead on their own; they do more than they are expected to, simply because they find it very interesting and want to learn more, faster.

Amazingly enough, they come with so many “discoveries” on their own, for example:

- Architecture—bridges, commercial and civil buildings
- Telescopes (parabolic mirrors), antennas
- Satellite dishes (circular paraboloids)
- Mechanical engineering—elliptical gears provide two different speeds motion
- Naval architecture and marine engineering (bow section of the submarines is elliptical paraboloids)
- Optics and World Olympic Games (the flame is lit by using a large parabolic mirror increasing the intensity of sunlight sufficient to ignite the torch)
- The trajectory of Cassini aircraft for recent space exploration

Inspiration for success, Program-Studio “Steep Ways Lead to the Stars”

We all, as educators, want to convince our students that they will succeed if they work hard. Part of their success relies on their innate talent, but the bigger part is hard work. The young people at their age usually do not have a high enough self-esteem to believe in themselves. They think that the people who succeed in life are special people, somehow designed to succeed by a miracle. This all changes when they have a chance to meet with some extraordinary people.

Dr. Earl Bakken is the inventor of the first wireless implantable pacemaker, the author of dozens of inventions in modern medical equipment, who developed an internationally famous company for fine medical technology and built the first “Mind-Body” hospital of the future here in Waimea, on the Big Island of Hawaii. In spite of his hectic schedule, Dr. Bakken was extremely kind and generously agreed to meet with my STEM students, to tell them about his life and about his secrets of success. He came and he spoke. They were never the same again.
Dr. Bakken showed the students the first prototype of the pacemaker he created in his garage, 40 years ago, followed by the newest device that is now in use to save lives. He demonstrated the development of some other medical inventions. He spoke about how to dream and follow your dreams. What an inspiration for success!

Long after our memorable meeting my students kept discussing Dr. Bakken’s story and philosophy of life, oriented to help people. Some of them shared that this was one of the most inspiring experiences they had ever had. We did something that touched their lives forever.

**Supervising research for junior undergraduates**

At the end of the semester the students from the program participate in a STEM SSTEM mini-symposium. They present their findings based on what they had learned in class and some additional relevant “research”. Their abstracts are collected and organised in a professional booklet. Since some of the participants are international students the event is *International Symposium in Calculus and its Applications for Students and Young Scientists (ISCIASYS).* Sometimes, when the class is stronger, they elect an organising committee which reviews the submitted abstracts and prepares the booklet for the Symposium. It is a very exciting time. The students feel they are participating in an international-level symposium at their own academic level. Since they have the freedom to choose the problems to work on, they are interested and motivated. They do the work on their own, with little help. The presentations are very interesting for the rest of the class. Everyone learns and benefits from the work of others. It is a great learning experience for those who present and also for those in the audience.

The Symposium incorporated in the curriculum adds another dimension to the learning process. The students learn important global issues and see the relevance of the science and technology to finding solutions that are environmentally correct. They convey mathematical ideas and use them to solve problems from different areas in an intelligent and elegant manner. In addition, the efforts that they put into preparing their final projects make them truly excited about their chosen subject. They develop a passion for mathematics and its applications to all STEM fields. They also see and experience first-hand how their enhanced STEM education prepares them to be citizens of the world.

At each level of calculus the students have something interesting they have learned in class and want to further explore. A perusal of the student work shows a wide spectrum of research interest, for example: creating solar power plants using parabolic troughs; using the energy of the ocean waves in Hilo Bay to produce energy; mapping Kilauea volcano activity; quadric surfaces in green architecture; using parabolic surfaces to fight hunger in Africa; using solar energy production on the Big Island of Hawaii; using the potential for wind energy production at the Sound Point of the Big Island.

**Learning beyond the classroom**

Another unique characteristic of the STEM SSTEM Program is that for the first time in teaching such a traditional course as calculus, the students have a variety of entirely new, out-of-class activities. This non-conventional approach makes it possible to keep the learning ongoing even beyond the classroom. One of the most successful of these activities was the science afternoon at Imiloa Astronomy Center in Hilo, Hawaii.

The astronomer-in-residence, Dr. Richard Crow, gave the students a special tour through the amazing science exhibition. (We now pay our loving tribute to his memory since he passed away a few months ago). After the planetarium show we had a special presentation in the 3D showroom prepared especially for us by the young, talented astronomer from Subaru observatory Dr. Catherine Ishida. We witnessed the creation and the development of the universe over millions of years. This was an exciting experience for my students.
I wanted my Calculus II students to be exposed to the idea of 3D because in Calculus III we start exploring the real word in 3 dimensions. We learn to model it using multivariable functions. The advanced technology used for the show was something spectacular to see. The mathematics used to create the model of the universe suddenly became exciting. The students could not wait for next semester. Their awakened curiosity made learning multivariable calculus much more successful. It made learning much more enjoyable as well. This was one of the effects that the extra-curriculum activities were supposed to achieve: to illustrate how much mathematics there is in any science, behind any piece of modern technology or in each fascinating discovery.

Our science afternoon was also a time for a special “hands-on” experience. The students not only enjoyed the presentations of such outstanding experts like Dr. Crow and Dr. Ishida; they also gave their own presentations as well. Each student presented his or her research on some of the most interesting applications of mathematics to the other sciences. Doing this first independent “research” on their own was quite a challenging experience for my students, in their first year of calculus. But their research discoveries captured their attention and sparked their enthusiasm. They went further and discovered more. They reported on amazing applications in medicine, astronomy, engineering, optics, space exploration and social sciences. This experience was engaging and motivating.

**Early exposure to the most advanced technologies and research discoveries**

As the old Chinese proverb goes: “Seeing a thing once is better than hearing about it 100 times.” With this in mind, we had another very exciting out-of-class learning activity - a field trip to the Subaru Observatory at Mauna Kea. The Subaru telescope is one of the biggest and most powerful telescopes in the world. It was amazing to see the structure of the telescope, the gigantic mirror, the observation room and the sophisticated technology under the guidance of Dr. Ishida. The students saw how many mathematics and engineering ideas have been used to design, build and operate the telescope. We all were so excited that we did not realise that we had extended the recommended time to stay on the top of Mauna Kea. While our lungs eventually felt the oxygen deficiency, our minds were fascinated. The “thin air” at 13,803 ft (4,207m) above sea level was compensated for by the oxygen masks we had to put on. Our fascination with the modern technology will remain with us for the rest of our careers.

The students kept talking about this visit long after we were back in the classroom. The opportunity to see the telescope and to talk to eminent astronomers changed their perspective about the advanced technologies and about the expertise behind them. It was the experience of a lifetime.
GOING TO THE MOON

We at UH Hilo are very lucky not only because of our location, rightly called by many people a paradise. Our Big Island of Hawaii is the greatest living laboratory one can think of on the face of the Earth. In just miles from our campus we have:

- The ocean for studying marine biology and oceanography
- An active volcano for studying geology
- A rain forest
- A desert
- Eleven different types of climate (while there are thirteen climate types in the world)
- A tropical environment with a well-balanced ecosystem
- Seven of the largest and most modern observatories in the world
- Many world class scientists, researchers and educators
- Volcanic terrain where Apollo astronauts were once trained for moon missions. It is again a testing ground for lunar explorations

Since 2007 we have the Pacific International Space Center for Exploration Systems (PISCES). The centre has been established as a result of a fruitful partnership between advanced technology industries, academia and the governments of the nations involved in space exploration. PISCES is an international research and educational center for development of new technologies that will be needed to sustain life on the moon. The Big Island of Hawaii provides a unique natural environment that is closest to that of the moon.

The abundance of natural recourses makes the Big Island of Hawaii the unique living laboratory for advanced research in all natural and environmental sciences and, of course, in sustainability. Recently it became a perfect place for testing the latest space exploration technologies. It will also host education for students, training for astronauts and public demonstrations of upcoming projects to be taken to the moon. This gives educators in STEM disciplines at UHH a perfect opportunity for taking our teaching and learning process far beyond the classrooms.

In November 2008 a team of NASA scientists, engineers, and technicians came to the Big Island to conduct tests in preparation for their up-coming mission to the moon. This mission is devoted to developing systems that could enable a sustainable and affordable outpost on the moon while minimising the amount of water and oxygen that must be transported from earth. NASA tests included drilling, excavation and transportation on the lunar-like terrain on Mauna Kea. The fact that the terrain on Mauna Kea slopes is closest to the lunar surface, helped NASA observe and experience some of the challenges that the mission would have to deal with. After a few weeks of testing, the lunar robots were brought to our Imiloa Astronomy Center for exhibition and special demonstrations for the public. It was a unique opportunity.

It was a perfect time for another STEM SSTEM event. We spent an unforgettable Saturday at Imiloa Astronomy Center. The NASA team was extremely friendly and approachable. They gave memorable presentations about the future mission to the moon, describing their challenges during the testing including both successful and unsuccessful tests. Dr. John Caruso from NASA told us about the challenges that they had to face when a “moon dust” storm hit their camp. He said that they had experienced first hand how it would feel to work on the moon. This experience, while producing unexpected problems with their equipment, cameras and glasses helped them see what adjustments needed to be made to the technology before it is sent to the moon. It was interesting, funny, very educational and absolutely inspiring.

We met with members of the teams from the Kennedy and Johnson Space Centers, Jet Propulsion Laboratory, and Carnegie Mellon University. The engineers were extremely generous with their time and expertise. They answered the hundreds of questions our students asked, gave us demonstrations of the robots, and explained their functions and respective lunar missions. It was an amazing experience. First we met with the engineers from Carnegie Mellon University who designed the lunar robot Scarab (Selectively Compliant Articulated Robot Arm Rover). According to a news release from Carnegie Mellon University, “Scarab was built to simulate a lunar mission to extract water, hydrogen and other compounds that could possibly be mined by lunar explorers”. Members of our STEM SSTEM group were given an opportunity to single handedly operate Scarab for some simple manipulations. Students who tried it said it was “awesome”.

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The next station had the NASA’s lunar robot, Cratos. It has been designed to penetrate the harsh lunar soil, scoop and deliver it to a station for oxygen production right on the Moon surface. Dr. Caruso was impressed by the students’ genuine curiosity and by their meaningful questions. We were excited, happy and inspired by this charismatic and knowledgeable man. One could not think of a better role model to inspire the young minds to become the best experts they can. It was an exciting, educational and inspirational day.

**LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

One of the limitations for the STEM SSTEM program is that a modest one-time funding was only provided by NSF Keaholoa Program at UHH to develop the new curriculum for the first course (Calculus I). There is no further funding and no supporting staff. Despite this challenge, the program continues on a smaller scale (two classes per semester). The small size of the department serving a wide range of mathematics classes, from general education courses for the entire university to specialised courses for mathematics majors, imposes limits on our teaching schedules. We can only maintain STEM SSTEM for Calculus III and IV level and no longer for Calculus I and Calculus II.

Due to the size of our institution (about 4,500 students), we can only offer 6 sections of Calculus I, and four sections of Calculus II per semester. Given the low success and retention rates in mathematics at this level (taught the traditional way), less than 50% of freshmen are able to continue to Calculus III and IV. This limitation imposes two problems. From one point of view, having the students enter STEM SSTEM in their sophomore year only allows them to stay in the program for one year. Yet, the results they achieve are impressive and long term. On the other hand, having only one section of each, Calculus III and Calculus IV, makes the data statistically insignificant.

Regardless of the small enrollment and the statistical insignificance of the numbers of successful students, each personal story demonstrates a life-altering experience. This shapes our future plans to continue offering the integrated enhanced teaching-learning model of the STEM SSTEM Program.

**FINDINGS**

The new teaching of Calculus in the STEM SSTEM Program demonstrated the importance of integrating all components in one coherent process of effective every day learning: well developed curriculum, appropriate pedagogy, active student participation in the learning process, variety of engaging teaching approaches in class, level appropriate academic challenge, a “discovery” element, learning beyond the limitations of the textbooks, learning beyond the walls of the classroom, applying the knowledge, exposure to new ideas and open questions,
exposure to modern research and technology, interdisciplinary approach to complex problems, using multidisciplinary knowledge for solving relevant real-life problems of global importance and inspiration for success, thus encouraging creativity and multifunctional academic mentoring for enhanced employability and research careers in STEM fields.

Metalearning

After many years of trying different teaching approaches and experimenting with various pedagogical techniques our experience shows that the best results are being achieved when all the components discussed above are integrated in one comprehensive program. Each of the learning experiences, in the classroom and beyond, helps our students gain confidence. It transforms them from passive listeners to active learners. More importantly, by becoming pro-active in the process they can take control of their own learning. This is exactly what Jon Biggs’ [8] describes as metalearning in education. In STEM SSTEM we want our students to achieve a high level of metalearning awareness so they are able not only to learn, but to assess how effectively they learn. In this way, they will be able to adapt to challenges and solve more sophisticated problems.

The opportunity to work with the same students and mentor them for over 3 years makes it possible to provide much needed guidance for their success after graduation. The academic mentorship for, and acceptance in, appropriate internships and summer research institutes for undergraduates prepares the STEM SSTEM students for success in their future careers.

Criteria for success

The best indication for success of a program is the success of its students. Our colleagues visiting from the US mainland and overseas often describe UHH as “a small university in the middle of the Pacific Ocean”. While this is true our STEM students are accepted in leading summer institutes, REU’s, research laboratories and graduate programs on the US mainland and abroad. To mention a few: California Institute of Technology (CalTech), University of California Los Angeles (UCLA), NASA Space Research Program, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (National Security Program), San Francisco, CA, Washington University, Washington, DC, California State University, Bakersfield, CA, Center for Adaptive Optics - KEK observatory, HI, Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY, Cornell University, General Atomics, San Diego, CA, MURF Program CalTech, CA, Mathematics Summer Institute Prague, Czech Republic, Brandies University, Boston MA, University of Urbana Champaign, IL, and the National Radio Astronomy Observatory. For first time in Hawaii an undergraduate was awarded the prestigious National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship in mathematics. These results are a very encouraging indication that we are on the right path to building a solid STEM education, sustainable for long after college graduation and well into well-chosen, successful careers.

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THE MANY CHALLENGES OF A SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP APPROACH: THE CASE OF A SMALL ENTERPRISE IN ITALY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the paper is to determine to what extent it is possible to sustain leadership of a small enterprise given the range of internal and external disruptions (Avery and Bergsteiner 2011). This is pertinent at a time when crises within economically, critical SME sectors are being experienced globally. In Italy, for example, at a time of serious economic downturn, the SME sector is facing many challenges not all of which they can control, in terms of a sustainable leadership approach. This paper adapts Avery and Bergsteiner's (2011) model of sustainable leadership to an illustrative, qualitative case study analysis of a small family enterprise, a bed and breakfast hotel (B&B), in the tourist industry in Italy where two different generational approaches to leadership are apparent. These disparate approaches provide internal constraints on the business and a vulnerability that requires resolution. It is also apparent that the external environment creates another range of constraints to sustainable enterprise leadership. The external dynamics for small business leadership in Italy are as complex as the internal system. Obvious constraints are created at different levels of government and show how difficult small enterprise leadership is to sustain.

Keywords: sustainable leadership, small business enterprise, tourism industry, Sicily

INTRODUCTION

Australian media commentator Alan Kohler in late 2012 claimed that anecdotal evidence suggests that many small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Australia are closing or failing at an unprecedented rate. He contended that this represents a potential but unforeseen future threat to economic stability, a possible situation, which largely has been ignored by policymakers. Australia, of course, is not unique in this regard and crises within SME sectors are already being experienced globally, not least of all in numerous countries of the European Union. In Italy (European Union 2012; New York Times 2013), for example, at a time of serious economic downturn and where government is seen to have failed to address the warning signs, the SME sector is in crisis. According to the European Union (2012: 15) Italy is one of the countries that has experienced “negative real value added and employment growth” since the 2008 financial crisis.

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2012) reports that more than 99.9 per cent of enterprises in Italy are SMEs, that is, organisations with less than 250 employees. The SME label also includes micro-enterprises, organisations with more than one employee other than the owner-manager and less than 10 employees. Morone and Testa (2005) highlight the importance of micro-enterprises as they comprise around 95 per cent of the SME sector in Italy. This makes the number of micro-enterprises in Italy higher than in most other OECD countries (OECD 2012). For Italy, the European Commission (2008) indicates that there are more than 3.6 million micro-enterprises employing over 7.1 million people. Overall, SMEs in Italy employ around 80 per cent of the service and industrial sectors’ working population. Included in the “less knowledge intensive sector”, which makes up around 52 per cent of enterprises in Italy, is the accommodation and food sector (European Union 2012).

The SME sector in Australia, in contrast to Italy, is different and smaller although actual comparisons are difficult because of varying definitions between countries. It is estimated that small enterprises of up to 19 employees make up 96 per cent of total businesses in Australia. While there is no category of micro-enterprise with less than 10 employees, small enterprises with 1-4 employees comprise 24 per cent of the small enterprise group. It is also noted that small businesses with no employees make up 61 per cent of the small enterprise group. These enterprises, seemingly, would not be counted in the SME sector in Italy. In real terms, it is likely that only 57 per cent of total Australian businesses would fall within the SME sector (Connolly, Norman and West 2012), which is far less than in Italy.
The OECD (2012) research, focusing on a period up until 2010, demonstrates that after the financial crisis many SMEs in Italy and elsewhere were particularly at risk and continue to be so. This situation is attributed to the difficulty of raising finance, the increase in interest rates and the significant reduction in enterprise grants. It is also noted, however, that the government in Italy did support the financing of SMEs through a number of initiatives. This did not prevent nearly 12,000 bankruptcies in 2010 and just over 20 per cent of insolvencies of SMEs (OECD 2012), contributing to serious unemployment and even suicides. Suicides may be committed out of desperation related to business failure as bankruptcy in Italy is seen as shameful (Bianchi 2012; Daily News 2012; La Repubblica 2012).

Another study of small and medium enterprises, conducted by Forbes (2010), which focused primarily on Canada after the Global Financial Crisis, used five other countries for comparison, including Italy. Twenty-nine per cent of Italian respondents in this study indicated that they were equally concerned about “economic uncertainty” and “finding new customers and prospects”. Financing concerns were shared by 25 per cent of respondents. Seventy-six per cent of respondents also reported that revenue for the last year was either the same or less than the previous year. Perhaps, surprisingly, only nine per cent were concerned about government regulation, although this predates the Monti government’s range of severe fiscal initiatives (The Economist 2012). Seventy-one percent of small enterprise respondents saw quality improvement of goods and services as the key to their future success in the following year (Forbes 2010).

The last Annual Report of SMEs in Italy conducted by the European Union (2012), as an academic study, also indicates that economic recovery for this sector has been slow since the financial crisis. The implications are that without growth in the sector economic and employment growth generally are likely to be inhibited, possibly for some time to come. All the studies touching on SMEs in Italy depict a negative outlook at least in the short term and confirm that sustainable leadership in such a business environment is going to be difficult, at best.

**METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH**

To begin an examination of the micro-enterprise area in Italy, the interest of the research reported in this paper is to move from an aggregated, statistical account to one that is more specific and qualitative. The paper uses a case study of a micro-enterprise in Sicily, Italy within the tourism industry. The choice of the case study enterprise was opportunistic and the research was not pre-determined before the writer travelled to Sicily in late 2012 and stayed in the B&B establishment that is the main subject of the case. The idea for this research was stimulated following initial observations and discussions with the son of the owner, who is the manager, about how challenging the management must be and whether leadership is sustainable.

Following the development of the case, Avery and Bergsteiner’s (2011) model is applied, post hoc, to the analysis of the findings, in the sense of the development of “an argument after the fact” (Merriam-Webster Dictionary Online 2013). Avery and Bergsteiner (2011) contend that their model can be applied to SMEs as well as a range of other organisational types. On the one hand, it would seem that some of the practices promoted within the model, outlined in more detail below, may have limited application in the micro-enterprise environment, in terms of sustainable leadership. It would be assumed, for example, that there are some significant differences between large, global enterprises and micro-enterprises in Italy. On the other hand, it is possible that the model and practices can be adapted and applied to the micro-enterprise environment as it could be argued that the broad descriptors of practices could apply in any context.

This qualitative case study is structured using Avery and Bergsteiner’s (2011: 11) “strategic performance outcomes” for a sustainable business. The case has been developed using an ethnographic-style, methodological approach. As Madison (2005) argues, ethnographic studies usually result in subjective connection within some kind of intense relationship. While absolute truth may not be possible, qualitative researchers as they commence sense-making will, hopefully, seek an “approximation” of a perceived reality (Lincoln and Guba 2000: 9). This method was not the purposive intention of the research when it commenced. However, extensive day-to-day observation of all management and leadership aspects, while staying at the B&B on five occasions amounting to over six weeks since September 2012, forms the basis of the case. Observation has been supported by numerous interviews, discussions, clarifications and access to business documents (B&B 2012-2013) provided by one family member with whom contact is ongoing. Intensive perusal and analysis of relevant websites has also occurred.
Michele is a name used, for the purpose of the case, to protect family anonymity. Some pertinent details have also been omitted to avoid identification of the family. Claims by Michele have been confirmed, to some extent, in conversations with others in the B&B and through the writer’s observation of other places. Most conversations have been in Italian. The writer is sufficiently familiar with the Italian language to understand these discussions to a reasonable extent. As another form of validation of the research, additional discussions have taken place with a colleague at UTS (Hermens 2012-2013) who has had extensive experience with a small family enterprise over many years.

The research question is: Within the context of Avery and Bergsteiner’s (2011) “Sustainable Leadership Model”, to what extent is it possible to sustain leadership of a small micro-enterprise in Italy, given the range of internal and external disruptions?

**MICRO-ENTERPRISE AND SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP IN ITALY: A CASE STUDY OF A SICILIAN B&B**

**Background:** The micro-family enterprise in question is situated in Sicily not far from some of the major historical sites and tourist attractions. The business comprises a B&B hotel (opened late 2000s), a resort-style hotel (opened early 2000s) and commercial rental properties (of long-standing). The last segment of the business portfolio is designed to address hotel income shortfalls during periods of seasonal fluctuations in the tourism industry. For the purpose of this analysis the B&B is the main focus, although other parts of the business are relevant to this case. Michele has confirmed that businesses in this area are not subjected to Cosa Nostra (Mafia) pressure.

Two members of the family, a father (in his 70s) and a son, Michele, are directly involved in the business and for the purpose of this case, are the critical actors. The father, who is the owner and speaks no foreign languages, has a professional qualification, which is not related to the tourism industry. He is clearly experienced, competent and highly regarded in his field, but seems less capable of managing or fully understanding the financial side of the business. He has accrued extensive personal and business-related debts. The business is supported by bank-funded mortgages, overdrafts and credit card use, but due to his age the father is no longer able to obtain further bank loans. He is now seeking other ways to service his debt. The financial situation has also been exacerbated by one leased commercial property, which has failed to return rental income for over two years. This matter was recently resolved through legal and other means.

The father has now offered, through a formal letter from a notaio, notary public, one family business asset to each of his three adult children in return for the same significant payment each, obtained by them through personal mortgages. Only Michele has agreed to this arrangement and he will purchase the B&B and then manage it in his own right with his own VAT (Value Added Tax) number. The process of transfer is now in train but taking an exceptionally long time. Who will hold the licence to operate the B&B is still being negotiated but it will most likely transfer to Michele. This outcome is critical to future control by Michele; otherwise there is a high likelihood that disruptive intergenerational differences will continue. In the case of his father's eventual death, while substantial business and personal debts remain outstanding, other family members have agreed, informally, that the B&B will be protected by selling other assets within the business portfolio. If on the father's death, assets are gifted to other members of the family, it is also informally agreed that Michele will be compensated in terms of related mortgage costs.

The father and son relationship is a patriarchal, coercive-power-over arrangement and the father refers to his son as his ‘employee’. Michele says:

’I am not my father’s employee; I am my father’s slave. When there is limited monthly income my father does not pay me. My father has lost his brain. Maybe it is the beginning of Alzheimer’s. Probably if he had lived a different life not working from early morning until the middle of the night and if he would have lived weekends with his family and enjoyed the personal and family life, I am sure his mind or way of thinking would be more flexible and he would understand other people’s needs. This is something I really appreciate that my brother does in a more civil country like England where he lives. He has a successful professional career but he has also great satisfaction in living his family life with his wife and daughters, of course. My father knows nothing.’

It is apparent that there are issues relating to the father-son relationship that are based in long-term personal issues. They create extraordinary tensions on an ongoing basis. These differences remain unaddressed and unresolved, with father and son constantly in dispute. The son, who is highly professional in the management of

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4 The writer is particularly grateful to Michele for allowing this research to be conducted and for being willing to provide confidential data that forms the basis of part of this discussion.
the B&B, is particularly concerned about his father’s lack of financial management responsibility and his old-fashioned way of running the business. For example, his father is not necessarily mindful of the requirements of employment conditions and hours worked and will do things his way. As Michele comments: “My father's way of doing things is part of his generation's DNA”.

**Brand and Reputation:** Michele has specific experience in the hotel industry over many years, has trilingual fluency and is currently completing a formal, post-graduate qualification in tourism and hotel management. He has management responsibility for the B&B and does the bookings for both hotels. Nevertheless, the father sets the rules and Michele has limited autonomy to make even minor changes. He also assists his father in relation to other aspects of the business, including the payment of bills.

In the last twelve months, since his return from working in the hotel industry overseas, Michele has been solely responsible for raising the B&B ratings to a very high level as a result of guests’ feedback on websites such as Booking.com and TripAdvisor (2013). However, there is little to differentiate the top ten B&Bs and hotels in the area, both in their ratings and the services that they offer. Michele is aware that Sicily has a highly competitive tourism market (Provenzano 2009) and he will do whatever he can to maintain or increase these ratings in the longer-term.

**Customer Satisfaction:** As Michele recognises, customer satisfaction in this market sector is difficult to manage and control. Customer satisfaction is largely assessed on the basis of the customer's individual perceptions and is highly subjective and personal. It is difficult under these circumstances to determine an average objective reality, which might please the majority of customers for the majority of time. These perceptual contradictions are evident in the ratings available on the various internet booking and rating sites, where one guest will rate the B&B highly and yet, on the same dimensions of service, it can be rated at a low level by another guest, even over a short timeframe. “Some of these people are crazy, the way they rate.” It is equally apparent that the factors relating to customer satisfaction change in their importance so, given a restricted budget, it is difficult to always be responsive to customer needs.

Furthermore, there is a contradiction in attempting to create exceptional customer satisfaction because of the regulatory obligations that exist. For example, all B&B managers are required by law to record the passport details of their guests. A daily schedule of guests, including these details, is required to be sent to the regional police. Guests can feel irritated, or worse, with this requirement, which in turn can taint their review of the place in question.

To a large extent, it can be seen from web feedback that customer satisfaction for this B&B is highly dependent upon Michele himself (booking.com 2013; TripAdvisor 2013). For example, Solo Traveller, April 2013, records: “[Michele] was extremely helpful, including an unexpected ride to the bus stop. It is my impression that he will do much to assist travellers. My room was very comfortable; more like a small suite. [Michele’s] recommendation for dinner was a very good choice.” While it is good that Michele's personality and extraordinary willingness to serve guests is greatly appreciated, he has realised that this situation is unsustainable given the excessive hours he already works. When waiting for guests to arrive recently, late into the evening, Michele said: “I am going to charge 15 euro extra for check-in after 8.30 p.m.” The next day he altered the confirmation letter sent, following a booking, to include this proviso. He is also totally occupied with day-to-day operations and decision-making, which means that he dedicates little time to strategic concerns. Nevertheless, Michele does have a vision for his business and this is what drives him to a significant extent. “My dream is to own a small chain of hotels in Sicily.”

Michele will find it highly challenging to move the B&B from a cottage industry, family business model, to something more sustainable and professional. While the staff of two or three are supportive and loyal, they simply do not have the same level of leadership competence or language skills that Michele displays. Nevertheless, with increasing customer satisfaction ratings and good positioning on external websites, it looks as if this aspect of leadership may be sustainable in the longer term. This is dependent upon Michele being able to continue to develop his staff to the point where they can substitute for him when he is taking well-needed time off.

Anticipating his ownership, Michele and the writer are already examining the various service interactions in the guest experience and are developing strategies for enhancement. These include improvements to the rooms, more offerings at breakfast, enhanced service at Reception, formalised information for guests, food on request throughout the day, additional small local items to buy and self-guided tours of the region. By necessity, though,
Financial Performance: In 2012 the B&B turned over nearly 100,000 euro with a reasonable net profit that was immediately invested in an environmental sustainability initiative in the resort hotel. The B&B profits transferred to the hotel did not cover the full costs and the overall family business debt was increased. Nothing was retained for the B&B for capital improvement, asset replacement or the refurbishing of rooms. A conservative Profit and Loss estimate for 2013, based on 2012 figures for the B&B (prepared by the writer, 2013), suggests that there will be around 13,000 euro profit at the end of the year as long as there are no exceptional losses of income or unplanned expenditure events. This estimate also shows that for six months of the year, due to seasonal variations in the tourism industry, losses exceed profits.

The difficulty of these low season months is that there are low occupancy rates as well as competitive discounting of rooms within the industry sector. It is unrealistic to expect that these months will ever produce a significant return. While owners of tourist accommodation in Italy, affected by seasonal fluctuations, may choose to close down for at least one month each year, this is not a viable option for the B&B, for reasons that cannot be stated here for fear of identification. An additional month is around a breakeven point and the remaining five months are profitable, with August being exceedingly profitable, or at least it was in 2012. In 2013, “early bookings for July are looking really good, better than August.” (Michele, 2013)

When he takes over the ownership, Michele plans to operate ethically and legally: “I am going to offer [the person in charge of breakfasts and house-keeping] a contract and I will arrange for her to have days off. I am going to do it properly, not like my father”. Moving the business towards a totally compliant employment footing, however, also means that profit will be substantially decreased. The current budget does not identify in what part of the businesses costs accrue. Additionally, the aggregate figures for each month's costs against expenditure simply record cash flow. This is a practice that has to be remedied, with a full and detailed budget, including asset depreciation and replacement costs and the like, for the business to be sustainable in the longer-term. Michele is working towards this: “My business advisor will set this up for me, a real budget, like I have been learning at my course”. At the moment, the lack of appropriate information puts the business at risk.

Long-term Owner Value: How long-term Owner Value (rather than Shareholder Value in Avery and Bergsteiner's [2011] terms) can be achieved and sustained is the critical challenge for this business. Maintaining the status quo is unsustainable especially given that the B&B under Michele's ownership and leadership will not have the other seasonally-unaffected, supporting businesses that have been part of the family portfolio, to date. There is one family rental property business, located beside the B&B that Michele has tried to obtain within the negotiations, but his father resolutely refuses to consider the inclusion of this asset as part of the current deal: “I would like to use this property to create a restaurant and bring in my [chef friend and his partner], but my father won't allow it.”

This means that Michele must achieve at last three broad strategic outcomes if the business is to be sustainable, not necessarily in this order. First is the reduction of costs, including attention to environmentally sustainable practices, with the various forms of energy use. Sustainable business practices have been considered to date, but require a far more determined application. During the winter, for example, Michele was heating the whole of the hotel to keep the writer's room warm when she was the only guest:

“Are you heating the whole of the hotel just for me?”
“Si.”

“Turn it off Michele. Let me use the [reverse cycle] air-conditioning if I am cold.”
“I don't want you to get cold.”

However, there are occasions when a sustainable environmental practice, for example, will result in guests’ dissatisfaction.

Second, the B & B will need a significant increase in customer visits across the year. This is not impossible to achieve but it will need concentrated attention. A search to determine the trend in tourist numbers in the region failed to produce any results. Analysis of the month by month occupancy rates for the B&B is currently underway so that new targets can be set. There are already some supporting strategies being discussed, including links and networking, as well as updating the B&B's website.

Third is the addition of ancillary income or as Michele calls them: “Unique Selling Points”, a term that he has learnt at his course. There is opportunity to add a range of products and services that could return additional income, but this is unlikely to add more than a basic contingency fund. The challenge for Michele is to develop
this range of products and services, as well as implementing the other strategies, while he is doing everything else: “When I was here late last night and back again early this morning I have not had time to regenerate my brain. I sit at the computer and my head is not in the right place. It is like the problem that my father has had and I must make sure that I do not do the same thing.”

Long-term Stakeholder Return: Internally, once he is the owner, the critical stakeholders are Michele and his small staff. Working towards longer-term sustainability will mean that each person will need to contribute beyond any immediate financial reward. This will take teamwork and considerable commitment and trust. It is fair to say that a strong foundation for this already exists. As indicated already, Michele still needs to consider how best he can develop and value his staff as he will be highly dependent upon their good will as well as their labour: “I am beginning to fully understand what sustainable means in a small business. I must create a happy environment for my staff and now I think I must be environmentally conscious too.”

Externally, the stakeholder situation is far more complex. Michele has had extensive discussions with local government (the commune) about many small initiatives to improve tourism. In spite of good discussion little has eventuated: “Every time we have started something, people have agreed at the beginning but nothing has come of it and it is just a waste of time.” There is an apparent lethargy within this environment about how to be strategic and, for example, how the local infrastructure could better support the tourism industry.

Beyond local government there are issues relating to provincial and national governments (New York Times 2013). When asked whether the Mafia was relevant to business here, Michele replied: “It is not the Mafia in Sicily that we should be concerned about any more, it is the Mafia in Rome” (meaning the politicians, some of whom are strongly reputed to have Mafia links, e.g. Silvio Berlusconi [Squires 2010]). “Possibly in Sicily it is the Mafia who are the politicians”. Michele acknowledges that the Mafia still retains strongholds in certain parts of Sicily but that it is now often small-time. Mafia influence in Sicily is generally on the wane, especially because of grass-roots civil action. One example of illogical political decision-making relates to a completed, new commercial airport based on an old military site, in the general area, which Michele reports, has been sitting idle for a number of years, un-commissioned. Were that airport to become operational, it would inevitably increase the flow of tourists and business travellers into the region. Apart from politics and the willingness to allocate a budget, there is no logical explanation as to why it is not in operation.

At the moment in Italy, according to Michele, the banks are generally unsupportive of small businesses throughout the country because of the financial crisis. The dire general economic state in Italy is a matter of fact, not made easier by a recent election that provides no clear political winner overall (New York Times 2013). It is also apparent that the previous national government under Prime Minister Monti’s leadership needed to bail out the Sicilian government. If this had not occurred the Eurozone could have been at risk. Small businesses in Italy have questionable futures. The negative impact of this recession can be seen in the number of small businesses that have closed, even in the more prosperous north. It is understandable that the money-lending business is tight but it is often during such times of crisis that businesses need the most support. Michele has already assessed the next two to three years and because of seasonal fluctuations in the tourist market he believes that he might need to seek additional financial support: “It is likely that I will have to ask the bank for more money to manage my business, especially in the first few years. I hope not”.

All the B&Bs in the town are stakeholders too as are other connected local businesses. In a small town especially, it is not surprising that from an external perspective the B&B is not a standalone business. There are connections that involve dependent business relationships whether on a clan or on a familiar basis that already exists. There is considerable potential for Michele to develop more links and contacts, especially those which support innovation. With any relatively small community, there are also sensitivities and loyalties which may, or may not, affect the best business outcomes. The extended management of external stakeholders and networks is an area that could be further developed and the opportunities exploited. Again the question arises, who will do this work when Michele is doing everything else?

A final significant area relevant to external stakeholder return is the internet and the numerous websites that provide marketing, booking and review services to the B&B, whether welcome or not. This is a complex area of management and leadership and one that needs constant attention and considerable time, every day, to manage those stakeholder relationships.

Conclusion to the Case: In summary, it can be seen that sustainable leadership of this micro-enterprise in Sicily is an extraordinary challenge. The identified internal and external disruptions all contribute to this situation (Avery and Bergsteiner 2011: 6). For example, the internal disruption related to the uncertainty about the change
of ownership means that all the planned and important strategies and tactics that need to be implemented and managed are currently on hold. This delay is due to the complexities of Italian law, slow bureaucracies, incompetence in drawing up the terms and “perhaps, the family issues of paternal power and control. Michele’s mother says: “My husband may never let go”. Externally, especially in terms of government inaction at all levels - local, provincial and national - the operating environment causes all kinds of disruptions in that there is little direct support for these micro-enterprises, even in a community sense. Disruptions caused by the global financial crisis and continuing recession in Sicily, according to Michele, have also led to punitive polices, especially financial ones, that are applied equally to any enterprise, regardless of its size. The highly dynamic nature of the external environment also means that it is often difficult to anticipate or manage these disruptions.

The case study also shows that multiple community and other stakeholders are central to this business and to sustainable leadership, as Avery and Bergsteiner (2011 citing Porter and Kramar 2011) claim. This business is not a standalone entity and it has numerous interdependencies ranging from high to low in significance. Whether it is possible: “to keep people, profits, and the planet in balance over the life of the firm and, in so doing, ensure that the business generates the social capital needed to weather downturns”, remains to be seen (Avery and Bergsteiner 2011: 6).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In attempting to determine the utility of Avery and Bergsteiner’s (2011: 7-8) Sustainable Leadership Model- Pyramid to this case, it is clear from the analysis that the model has relevance. In particular the “higher-level practices” and “key performance drivers” are directly pertinent. This means that the model has universal application including for SMEs and, in particular, to a micro-enterprise. These factors can act as a checklist for audit, review and action. Similarly, the “performance outcomes”, which have been used to shape and focus the case, are a useful basis for framing analysis and considering many aspects of leadership. Appropriately, the emphasis here is on the “honeybee” determinants - the stakeholder interests- rather than shareholder return.

When it comes to the 14 “foundation practices” however, this case study suggests that their specific relevance is, to some extent, limited. As a result of analysis of this case, the total number of foundation practices is reduced to 12, rather than 14. The six foundation practices that hold in unaltered concept are: 7 (5) (new order in brackets) ethical behaviour; 9 (7) organisational change; 11 (9) respect for the environment; 12 (10) corporate social responsibility; 13 (11) stakeholders; 14 (12) vision’s role in the business. The six, refocused, foundation practices arising from the case are outlined in Table 1, as set out below:

Table 1: Adapted Foundation Practices

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<td>-continuous development</td>
<td>-cooperative labour</td>
<td>-promotes from within and hires externally as necessary</td>
<td>-provides leadership</td>
<td>-short term management is as important as the longer term</td>
<td>-aware of threats and opportunities - seeks maximum independence from banks, as far as possible - works with local government and community organisations - keeps watching brief on competitors - assesses value of external websites - uses business / personal links and networks</td>
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<td>-long-term retention</td>
<td>-intergenerational family cooperation and resolution of differences</td>
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<td>-concerned about staff welfare</td>
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Original Table: Adapted from Avery and Bergsteiner (2011) and as a result of the empirical case (2013) reported above.
**Valuing Staff** (1), which now includes “developing people” and “retaining staff” is seen as one of the most critical foundation practices, especially given the burden on the owner in a micro-enterprise. Increasingly other staff will be required to accept a higher level of responsibility for managing the business sustainably. The relationship with staff and the co-dependencies in this context are likely to be far more intense than in other larger enterprises. With **Labour and Family Relations** (2), the impact and role of the family relationships need to be to the fore and included, for sustainable leadership. These relationships are more personal and intense than in many other employment arenas and can be highly disruptive. Even when the younger male in a generational disagreement is correct and has a far greater professional attitude to the business, this becomes irrelevant because the older male has the established power and is the source of family rule, which is supported through entrenched family traditions in Sicily and elsewhere (Hermens 2012-2013). The father is omnipotent and intractable in understanding any of these dynamics. As one small example about his place in the family, Michele recently said in a family setting: “I am going to call my brother.” He was told in no uncertain terms by an older family member that he was younger and it was not his right to call his brother, the oldest in the family. He would have to wait until his brother called him.

**Succession Planning** (3) cannot simply rely on internal promotions in the case of a small number of staff. Michele needs to recruit externally as circumstances demand. This does not mean that he would not encourage greater responsibility to be taken within the business for existing staff but staff members are not necessarily multi-skilled. Times of high demand for the B&B services means that a flexible attitude towards succession planning is needed for sustainable leadership. Foundation practices also need to focus strongly on the **Owner** (4) because the concept of CEO and Top Team is largely meaningless in a micro-enterprise. Equally, it is evident that the Owner cannot do everything and needs to rely on staff and seek support for strategic development. This is important given that the day-to-day operational responsibilities involve extremely long hours and, on some days, continued and varied tasks to be performed, all of which require a comprehensive knowledge of the business and industry.

This leads to **Long and Short Term Perspective** (6), rather than long or short term. As indicated above, the business requires a short-term perspective simply to keep afloat and to do the best for guests on a day-to-day basis. However, the management of aspects of the business such as bookings and how to improve revenue flows involves a longer-term horizon and planning for the future. The ‘or’ is not appropriate in the case of this micro-enterprise. **External Engagement and Community Relations Orientation** (8) replaces ‘Financial markets orientation’ in this analysis. The external focus of the micro-enterprise is essential and is multi-faceted but it goes well beyond concern for financial markets. Finances are one consideration but so are many other aspects of the business and they require dedicated leadership application if the business is to be sustainable.

**LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

This paper outlines a single case study of a micro-enterprise in Sicily, tracked over a period of months, which may or may not be typical of other micro-enterprises, especially family-based ones, either in Sicily or elsewhere. While intuitively the research suggests that some or all of these disruptions and issues outlined in the case could have more general application, this will need to be tested with future research. Nevertheless, discussions with Hermens (2012-2013) who reports on a small family business in a totally different context, confirms that the intergenerational issues particularly and other issues more generally, are typical. However, for the moment, the research allows conclusions to be drawn that are case specific.

The research is also limited, given that what happens in families in Sicily is meant to stay within the family. This reduces the opportunity for verification, although some facts have been confirmed during unrelated discussions with family members. Documentary and web evidence also support the consistency of detail provided through Michele as a single source. As the research is in the early stages, it has also not been possible to conduct interviews with external stakeholders. Necessarily such interviews would have to take place with Michele’s Italian-English language support and this has not been requested at this stage.

It is also noted that in the process of conducting this research the writer and Michele have formed a close friendship and the writer has become an unpaid business advisor to him. This situation could reduce the writer’s capacity to report objectively. For this reason, the writer has requested Michele to verify details in the case. It is the intention, for the future, to conduct continuing research on this business and to determine how the challenges of leadership sustainability are best addressed.
CONCLUSION

The evidence from the case study strongly indicates that sustainable leadership of this micro-enterprise in Sicily will continue to be extremely challenging. Not only will the range of external disruptions test sustainable leadership capability but the internal disruptions are likely to be difficult to manage as well. Overall, though, the greatest potential disruption to sustainable leadership is the role of the owner, himself. Michele, as the leader, is already over-taxed in terms of the long hours he works, the array of daily matters that need to be attended to quickly, limited time for longer-term planning and no real financial leeway to employ additional, qualified and experienced staff with foreign language competency. As it stands with the existing but extremely loyal staff, it is difficult to delegate these owner responsibilities to any useful extent. Inevitably this causes a leadership dilemma.

In relation to the research question, the evidence also suggests that as the research proceeds, it may be possible to create a model of sustainable leadership that is more micro-enterprise specific. That is not to say that Avery and Bergsteiner’s (2011) existing model is not relevant but, rather, that it could be enhanced according to some of the particular internal and external disruptions that this micro-enterprise in Sicily has to face. As part of continuing this research, it is also anticipated that a specific and practical self-guide for micro-enterprises could be developed.

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UN DECADE OF EDUCATION FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT (2005-2014): A PROGRESS REPORT

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ABSTRACT

As we are approaching the closing stages of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005-2014), it is timely to review progress. Among many events in this decade we have seen the establishment of the Principles of Responsible Management Education (PRME). This paper will review the new literature on Education for Sustainability and the progress of leading business schools in experimentation and implementation. It will document what we now know about creating a more global perspective and how academics are accommodating sustainability within an overcrowded curriculum. Themes that have emerged include systems thinking, trans-disciplinary study, critical thinking, reflexivity and student centred and experiential learning including action learning.

INTRODUCTION

The UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (UNDESD) is being led by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and runs from 2005-2014. As the decade is drawing towards its end, it is timely to revisit its aspirations and start to develop a summative discussion of its impact on the offerings of business schools globally. UNESCO defines:

“Education for sustainable development as including key sustainable development issues into teaching and learning: for example, climate change disaster risk reduction, biodiversity, poverty reduction, and sustainable consumption. It also requires participatory teaching and learning methods that motivate and empower learners to change their behaviour and take action for sustainable development. Education for Sustainable Development consequently promotes competencies like critical thinking, imagining future scenarios and making decisions in a collaborative way.” (UNESCO 2013)

This paper works by reviewing recent literature created by researchers, who have been either involved in the UNDESD or have reviewed the progress of business schools to make a determination of how far the learning and teaching within these schools has moved towards the ideals set down for the Decade by UNESCO. It demonstrates that thinking has shifted from a predominant focus on the first of the UNESCO concerns above, a concern to create a sustainability curriculum content, to the second, a concern for andragogy. The analysis also suggests that progress has been uneven, constrained in business schools by competitive pressures and the acceptability of curriculum to academics and students.

The analysis is guided largely by the new institutionalism of Political Science (March and Olsen 1984; Peters 2005), rather than the new institutionalism more associated with organisational analysis (DiMaggio and Powell 1984). The new institutionalism of Political Science posits that institutions matter to outcomes, because they direct political energy and control of the agenda. The higher the status of the institution promoting a particular area of knowledge, the higher the status of that knowledge and the more likely that associated norms will become entrenched.

The Australian Government responded to the UNDES early in the decade with some limited funding towards research and development within the field. What will probably be its penultimate response came in 2009 in the form of a plan entitled Living Sustainably – the Australian Government’s National Action Plan for Education for Sustainability (DEWHA 2009). The plan lays out a number of principles including:
“Transformation and change

Education for Sustainability is not simply about providing information but involves equipping people with the skills, capacity and motivation to plan and manage change towards sustainability within an organisation, industry or community.

Education for all and lifelong learning

Education for Sustainability is driven by a broad understanding of education and learning that includes people of all ages and backgrounds and at all stages of life and takes place within all possible learning spaces, formal and informal, in schools, workplaces, homes and communities.

Systems thinking

Education for Sustainability aims to equip people to understand connections between environmental, economic, social and political systems.

Envisioning a better future

Education for Sustainability engages people in developing a shared vision for a sustainable future.

Critical thinking and reflection

Education for Sustainability values the capacity of individuals and groups to reflect on personal experiences and worldviews and to challenge accepted ways of interpreting and engaging with the world.

Participation

Education for Sustainability recognises participation as critical for engaging groups and individuals in sustainability.

Partnerships for change

Education for Sustainability focuses on the use of genuine partnerships to build networks and relationships, and improve communication between different sectors of society.” (DEWHA 2009: 9).

Despite the grandiose title of the national action plan, there are two major deficiencies. First, it relies for its impetus on its capacity to inspire the efforts of concerned individuals and groups. There is no new funding allocated to make the plan a reality. Secondly, its capacity to inspire is constrained by the fact that the thinking behind these principles is pre 2005 in origin. There are no new ideas, and so it becomes all the more necessary to review the more recent academic literature to assess the true extent of this deficiency.

There are signs in the academic literature that it has been written during the decade of the ascendancy of genuinely new mental models. Daniels’ metanalysis of the field of Ecological Economics (2012) demonstrates that the field, which examines how economics can support environmental outcomes rather than the reverse, has produced a dramatic increase in publication output and addressed many mainstream concerns. We have also seen the emergence of Sustainable leadership (Avery 2005, Avery and Bergsteiner 2005, 2010).

The United Nations has sponsored large-scale institutions that promote global responsibility such as the UN Global Compact. Challenges to capitalist based materialism exist in new ways of conceiving progress, eschewing GDP in favour of quality of life indexes such as the OECD’s Better Life Index (OECD 2013). This metric is based upon a wide range of welfare measures including life satisfaction, governance, education, income distribution, work life balance and measures associated with social capital.

While the ideas are not new, what is new in the last decade is the high status of the proponents. No longer quaint academic notions: they have high-powered industry support. Triple bottom line reporting has received high-level global industry support in the establishment and the growth to prominence of the GRI. Daniels’ (2012) survey of the Ecological Economics literature demonstrates commensurate dramatic increase in the last 4 years in research into the questions surrounding triple bottom line reporting.
One of the Outcomes of the work of the UN Global Compact with respect to Education for Sustainability is an initiative called the Principles of Responsible Managing Education (PRME). The principles are as follows:

“Principle 1 | Purpose: We will develop the capabilities of students to be future generators of sustainable value for business and society at large and to work for an inclusive and sustainable global economy.

Principle 2 | Values: We will incorporate into our academic activities and curricula the values of global social responsibility as portrayed in international initiatives such as the United Nations Global Compact.

Principle 3 | Method: We will create educational frameworks, materials, processes and environments that enable effective learning experiences for responsible leadership.

Principle 4 | Research: We will engage in conceptual and empirical research that advances our understanding about the role, dynamics, and impact of corporations in the creation of sustainable social, environmental and economic value.

Principle 5 | Partnership: We will interact with managers of business corporations to extend our knowledge of their challenges in meeting social and environmental responsibilities and to explore jointly effective approaches to meeting these challenges.

Principle 6 | Dialogue: We will facilitate and support dialogue and debate among educators, students, business, government, consumers, media, civil society organisations and other interested groups and stakeholders on critical issues related to global social responsibility and sustainability.” (PRME 2013)

The principles refer to sustainability but have a greater global responsibility flavour. There is a sustainable leadership working group within the PRME, but it is fairly tightly focused on climate change rather than organisational leadership and is currently inactive. The PRME is steered by a high-powered group including representatives of the UN Global Compact, the Globally Responsible Leadership Initiative (GRLI), the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) and the European Foundation for Management Development (EFMD) among others. As such, it fits the emerging theme in this paper that sustainability has achieved a much greater gravity and momentum because of the status of its backers over the last decade.

PRME has been criticised as lacking teeth (Hamid and Joiner 2010) and there have been calls for a strengthening of its rigour (Mather et al 2011). Signatories gain whatever kudos is available but are not delisted for a lack of compliance with their reporting obligations. By contrast, the UN Global Compact is a more entrenched institution, which has recently flexed its muscles by excluding large numbers of signatories that have not met their commitments under the compact.

The key measure of compliance with PRME is the proportion of signatories that have not loaded their Sharing Information on Progress (SIP) reports in which they are expected to explain how they have enacted the principles. A recent survey Mather et al (2011) demonstrated that as of November 2010 only 111 of 198 signatories had reported.

The literature on the actual effect of PRME on learning and teaching is sparse. It is mainly concerned with lamenting the poor progress within the PRME, but it is fairly tightly focused on climate change rather than organisational leadership and is currently inactive. The PRME sharing Information on Progress reports is the PRME website where they are all available in open access to the public. These reports are more concentrated with rhetoric than practice. However, there has been one attempt in the literature to trawl the reports to harvest a number of impressive innovations (Alcarez et al 2011). These range from operational tricks that can be replicated (e.g. Bentley University removed trays from its cafeteria, which encouraged students to purchase only what they could carry and eat, reducing food waste by 52000 pounds per year), to action research into the curriculum (e.g. the European Business School surveyed its staff to identify the sustainability content in all its curriculum). The Audencia Management School provides an award program, which is run by the students, in which local businesses are recognised for enactment of global responsibility. Several of the universities reporting to PRME have developed extra curricula activities, such as clubs and societies devoted to responsibility themes. Another group is encouraging and even incubating social enterprises conceived and run by their students. What is impressive are the number of initiatives that are occurring outside the classroom; innovations that do not necessarily relate directly to institutions’ saleable products, but which would not have occurred in the absence of those institutions.
Moving from the influence of Education for Sustainability on business schools, to its impact on curriculum, there is a literature on the nature of Education for Sustainability that has developed throughout the decade. Prior to the construction of the UNDES academic called for a focus on Education for Sustainability as opposed to education about sustainability, a distinction first put forward by Huckle (1991) and Fien (1993). At the beginning of the UNDES Tilbury (2005) had pointed out that existing business school treatments of sustainability had been limited to issues of risk and compliance, corporate reporting and marvellous technological environmental enhancements (Tilbury, 2004). A distinction was made between sustainability content and Education for Sustainability, with content being seen as exclusively a knowledge base and Education for Sustainability being seen as a the development of fundamental thinking and working skills, such as ethics, systems thinking, working collaboratively, scenario planning etc. Wals (2002), Springett (2005) and Parkes and Blewitt (2011) all provide a critical theoretic perspective calling for activities that improve student reflexivity: the capacity to recognise the effects of socialisation on the self and in so doing increase the power of agency to choose the norms, values and principles that the individual wishes to bring into being. Petocz and Dixon (2011) further subdivide these elements into skills and what they call “dispositions.” Sustainability and ethics they class as dispositions. They argue that students cannot be taught to have a preference for sustainability or to be ethical, although there are no doubt facts that can assist the shaping of a more receptive frame of mind. The task of education is to provide activities that build the dispositions. Practices such as systems thinking are argued to build a disposition towards holistic appreciation. Springett (2009) posits that the critical perspective that Education for Sustainability brings builds a critical self-reflection capacity in students. There have also been calls for transdisciplinarity, which would also develop these skills and dispositions (Wu 2006; Benn and Martin 2010; Daniels 2012).

These thoughts on the nature sustainability knowledge have not yet been thoroughly tested. Vu et al (2011) points out that we still do not know how to develop these skills. Nor have we yet developed a set of graduate attributes that can be codified for the pursuit of assurance of learning, let’s say in the way in which the Australian Office of Learning and Teaching has done in Accounting and Marketing. One attempt to do so is Macquarie University’s project to develop sustainability as a core graduate skill (Mather et al 2011).

While we now have a set of fundamental practices, dispositions and some knowledge that can underpin teaching across all disciplines and that seems likely to build a disposition towards sustainability, there is very little research that provides actual validation that these practices will actually engage those who do not have a pre-existing disposition towards sustainability.

A subset of the curriculum literature promotes action learning or research as a vehicle by which broader perspectives and dispositions can be fostered (Huntington and Tilbury 2006; Haugh and Talwar 2010; Jones and Kramar 2010). These studies link the reflective processes of action learning with systems thinking, visioning and critical self-reflection and demonstrate how the fundamental dispositions can promote engagement at all levels in organisations through a disciplined practice.

At the level of new courses, some notable schools have been able to develop whole sustainability-focused Masters Degrees, including the Green MBA at the Dominican University, California, the University of Exeter’s “One Planet” MBA and the Master of Studies in Sustainability Leadership at Cambridge University. However, across business schools globally change has been restricted for the most part to the post-graduate level and has been severely limited by perceptions of market demands (Wilard 2004; Christianson et al 2007; Stubbs and Cocklin 2008). According to the Aspen Institute’s Beyond Grey Pinstripes project more than 150 business schools have adopted or adapted some sustainability content. However, the quality is uneven. Most institutions that have engaged with sustainability have done so at the level of specialist electives. Such treatments have been criticised as tokenistic (Mather 2011; Tilbury 2011). A survey of 47 universities in Australia and New Zealand found that many sustainability-oriented courses were offered in Economics and Tourism but few in business disciplines and none within the marketing discipline (Rundle-Theil and Wyner 2010). Where business schools have developed close collaborations with businesses, internships have emerged (Alcaraz 2011). However, few business schools have chosen to mainstream sustainability as the core feature of a business credential.

The Education for Sustainability literature gives some recognition to the fundamental tension between those business educations that support traditional, capitalist-materialist values (the vast majority) and those that seek to undermine and replace those values and dispositions with more sustainable approaches (Starik et al 2010; Audebrand 2010; Springett 2010). A market based, enlightened materialism is the basis of the business case literature, which argues sustainability from a prosperity optimisation perspective. This literature is vast and cannot be summarised here. However, one observation with relevance for Education for Sustainability is that business case proponents tend to promote critical thinking: i.e. about managerial problems and dilemmas, without a critical theory, which tends to question the worth of the whole enterprise (Springett 2005). Surveys of
students and alumni have shown that students themselves tend to criticise sustainability courses that simply reproduce unsustainable thinking (Christensen 2007; Aspen Institute 2009).

Although curriculum is somewhat market driven, with business reluctant to introduce courses that students may dismiss as “ideology” rather than theory driven (a dubious distinction), academics have not been so constrained in choosing their research focus. Seven scholarly journals are listed on the Australian Business Deans Council list, which have emerged during the UNDES. However, the willingness of researchers to publish in journals dedicated to sustainability is constrained by the level of the publication, with journals taking many years to climb in the rankings. Of the seven journals in the ABDC list, all are classified as C grade journals. The only A level journal was established in 1993 and has a narrow focus on Tourism, which excludes the vast majority of researchers. There is a Journal of Sustainability Education and an International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education, but neither is recognised on either the ERA or ABDC list.

There have been better prospects in higher status mainstream outlets with the Academy of Management making sustainability its theme for its 2009 Annual Conference and the Academy of Management Education and Learning Journal producing a special edition on Education for Sustainability in September 2010. Similar special issues have also been offered by the Journal of Teaching in International Business (2004), the Journal of Management Education (2003) and Business Strategy and the Environment (2005).

CONCLUSION

The ideological debate appears intractable. Many academics write “sustainable,” but teach a market philosophy. The implications of a move in curriculum focus to underpinning skills are profound. They have the potential to overcome the division between Sustainability tagged courses that are marketed to the converted and traditional courses that are marketed to the reminder of students wanting a materialistic focus. There is also the potential to addresses the Holy Grail question of how we engage those business people who would not naturally engage with a sustainability based curriculum and through these students to influence what is unfortunately still the vast majority of businesses not pursuing a sustainability agenda. The promise of an apparently mainstream business education that engages students in sustainability by stealth through the teaching of apparently mainstream skills and dispositions within a framework of change management holds some promise in overcoming the impasse. However, this focus may not be acceptable to those who want to teach sustainability content. These academics will continue to want to teach in niche courses and there is a place for such courses. However, in assessing the impact of sustainability thinking on curriculum, we will need to look beyond the obvious labels and content markers to examine the underpinning andragogy principles in order to determine whether a course truly does stimulate a change of cognitive, affective and spiritual orientation.

The high profile support of international institutions is encouraging. The new institutionalism would predict that this would lead to a mass change in orientation but the evidence is that that change has yet to be felt on a global scale. In Australia, institutional support appears weaker. The thinking apparent in the plans of the Australian Government at the beginning of UNDES was informed by the academic literature of the day. However its most recent statement has not developed much from that point.

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POWER: THE LIAISON BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to make evident that a solid correlation exists between Leadership that is employed in various Lebanese industries, Organisational Justice (OJ) and Power that acts as the mediator between the two variables under study. Our study intends to empirically validate that Leadership affects Organisational Justice provided that power acts as the liaison. Our sample consisted of 400 individuals working in small to medium sized multinational and Lebanese firms located across Lebanon. Path and regression analyses were employed to analyse data and reach our conclusions. Our findings show that leadership paves the way to organisational justice through the bases of power exerted in an organisation. These findings are of additional value to the wide-ranging studies of human resources in business organizations and will widen the scope of just treatment and fairness perceptions in the workplace. Promoting justice in organisations will lay the ground-work for a successful organisation that has what it takes to excel and become the pioneer in its field. Successful leaders should strive to promote perceptions of fairness in their organisation in order to construct an ethical and a just workplace for their subordinates.

Keywords: Organisational justice, leadership, power, managers
DETERMINING NEEDS IN SUSTAINABLE CAPITALISM: GOVERNMENT REGULATION OR BUSINESS INNOVATION?

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ABSTRACT

Fred Keller, a recognised leader in sustainable business practices and former chair of the U.S. Manufacturing Advisory Council, believes that “just because something is sustainable doesn’t mean it is good from the market standpoint. In the long run, only those products that are meeting current AND future needs should be invested in for mass acceptance.” In this presentation the authors take up the implications of that assertion via a model case, Cascade Engineering and Keller's decisions to structure his company, Cascade Engineering, almost solely with regard to sustainability principles.
DEVELOPING SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP IN NEW ZEALAND SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT
The National Aspiring Principals Programme in New Zealand is a personalised, professional development programme for middle and senior leaders who aspire to be school principals. The world is increasingly complex and challenging and in this context schools of the future will need leaders who are adaptive, culturally responsive and digitally literate. Developing transformative learners and leaders is key to the delivery of the programme in order to have a growing capacity of school leadership built on a strong moral purpose for equity and social justice with a strong sense of self efficacy and self-awareness. Robertson (2012, p.3) states: “It is not more content knowledge that leadership learning today requires but rather the development of the metacognitive skill of self-regulated learning from practice of how to be and become in leadership practice”. This is when professional learning and leadership becomes sustainable – when it is continually lived and learned as part of the leaders’ way of being in the school community. This paper sets out to describe the important ways-of-being that this programme encompasses in order to create opportunities that enable the development of sustainable, transformative learning within leadership practice in school communities.

INTRODUCTION
The New Zealand National Aspiring Principals Programme is a pre-principalship professional learning and development programme that is led by the Te Toi Tupu consortium contracted to the Ministry of Education. This leadership development programme is part of the Ministry of Education’s Professional Leadership Plan 2009. The Priorities as stated in the plan say:

- Implement a national programme for 230 aspiring principals with a focus on hard to staff schools and embedding culturally responsive leadership practices.
- Evaluate professional learning for aspiring principals against a set of national indicators of leadership effectiveness to ensure professional learning leads to improved outcomes for Maori, Pasifika students and those with special education needs.
- Explore options for pre-principalship qualification to ensure applicants for principals’ positions are well prepared to lead change and improve teaching and learning for every student.”

The results from the Programme for International Student Achievement (PISA) indicate that New Zealand has a world-class education system, but with inequities for particular groups of students, resulting in a long-tail of underachievement.

Research syntheses in New Zealand (Timperley et al, 2007; Robinson et al, 2009) commissioned by the Ministry of Education have focussed on the development of leadership capability within schools and on leadership to raise student achievement. The focus has also been on designing pre-principal and principal programmes to develop a sustainable leadership capacity in schools to lead this learning.

New Zealand moved to a self-managing model for schools in 1989 and there have been many tensions that have developed over the ensuing years (Wylie 2012). In our self-managing model school communities are responsible for the appointment of Principals and the running of the school. There are over 2,500 schools in New Zealand ranging from schools with less than 20 students through to schools that have over 2,000 students, schools that have one teaching principal who attends to all the teaching and learning and all the administration requirements of running a school, through to principals with over 150 staff. These differing situations require a pre-principalship programme that focusses learning across the whole spectrum. A lot of the small schools are in remote locations, and distance and geographical conditions create a feeling of isolation from the larger education community.

There is another programme in New Zealand for first time principals and while it is voluntary, almost 98% of first time principals join this programme. The group of those appointed as first time principals to small schools
The overarching aim of the National Aspiring Principals’ Programme (NAPP) is to develop sustainable leadership in schools, leadership that develops leadership in others, leadership that works together with other leaders to create new knowledge and new ways of being, leadership that is about learning in context with others, and leadership learning that happens through their leadership practice (Robertson, 2012). This is the definition of sustainable leadership for the purposes of this paper.

Hargreaves and Fink (2003, p 10) outline developing sustainability in this way: “Leaders develop sustainability by how they approach, commit to and protect deep learning in their schools; and by how they sustain themselves and others around them to promote and support that learning; by how they are able and encouraged to sustain themselves in doing so, so that they can persist with their visions and avoid burning out; by how they try to ensure the improvements they bring about over time...by how they consider the impact of their leadership on schools around them; by how they promote and perpetuate ecological diversity...; and by how they pursue activist engagements with their environments.”

In the National Aspiring Principals Programme (NAPP), leaders are learning about sustainable leadership on two levels: that of their own personal development and that of the leadership of the school. The National Aspiring Principals Programme supports leaders from schools as they develop their learning through leading other adults in change processes that will improve student outcomes. The inclusive ‘student outcomes’ is our moral purpose. Fullan (2001) states: “What is needed for sustainable performance then is leadership at many levels of the organisation. Pervasive leadership has a greater likelihood of occurring if leaders work on mastering the five core capacities: moral purpose, understanding the change process, building relationships, knowledge building and coherence making. Achieving such mastery is less a matter of taking leadership training and more a case of slow knowing and learning in context with others in the organisation. Ultimately, your leadership in a culture of change will be judged effective or ineffective not by who you are as a leader but by what leadership you produce in others.” The idea of slow knowing in context with others is powerful and our participants are involved throughout the year in a leadership inquiry that is based in their own context, where they lead their colleagues to affect change that will improve student outcomes. Fullan and Sharrat (2006) and Goleman (2002) warn that sustainability is not about prolonging programmes/innovations but it is about people development. Goleman (2002, p.302) explains: “Avoid the traps of many leadership development programmes that we’ve seen...focused on engaging people in learning topical content from experts: strategy, marketing, finance, general management, and similar abstractions. While all of these academic areas are of great importance to many leaders, no discrete program focused on them will add up to transformation of the person or company. The best of these leadership development initiatives are based on an understanding that true change occurs through a multifaceted process.” NAPP provides for multiple voices and ways into the leadership learning as can be seen below in the diagram that outlines the programme.

In designing leadership development for aspiring school leaders, the NAPP development team was mindful of the issues that face New Zealand schools and how these can be addressed. The work is focused on a leadership journey for participants. It was set up as a system to develop the mind-sets and ways of being that will enable these leaders to continue the journey after 12 months on the formal programme has finished. The design of leadership learning in the National Aspiring Principals’ programme has been under the direction of Dr Jan Robertson, a senior researcher at the University of Waikato, New Zealand and a leadership consultant in coaching leadership. Many of the ideas presented here have developed from her work with our project team.

DESIGN OF THE NATIONAL ASPIRING PRINCIPALS’ PROGRAMME

Between 200 and 230 leaders from the range of education institutions in New Zealand are selected annually for the National Aspiring Principals’ Programme. These leaders are grouped into regional groups, area groups and professional learning groups. There are 20 experienced leaders, many who are past principals working across the country as facilitators supporting and coaching these leaders (Robertson, 2005).

The diagram below demonstrates how the facets of this programme work together in order to enable aspiring leaders to develop the skills and ways of being that are outlined later in this paper. This diagram outlines the
‘wrap around’ nature of the work in supporting the participant. The flowing design of each of the strands indicates the ‘ebb and flow’ nature of the work. This diagram was used for Generation 2012. Generations 2011 and 2013 also have the same overview.

1. The pink coloured strand outlines the role of the current principal within his or her school. The principal supports the aspiring principal in understanding the role of the principal. There are four modules: understanding self-managing school contexts; school resourcing; personnel and employment systems and planning and strategies. This work is delivered through modules online that create opportunity for discussion and developing understanding with the other participants in their professional learning groups and across the whole cohort of Generation 2012 (in this case).

2. The white strand indicates the work of the aspiring principal in leading a leadership inquiry into a facet of the school that leads colleagues to improve student outcomes.

3. The purple strand indicates the work of the facilitator who works in a coaching/mentoring relationship with the participant and the professional learning group in the participant’s area.

4. The blue strand indicates the links and connections with aspiring principals from a previous cohort. In this case it is those from the 2011 cohort.

5. The green part of the diagram indicates the National Hui (conference) for all participants and facilitators.

The number of contributing leaders the participant works with enhances metacognitive strategies enabling the formation of new and innovative ideas about leadership that help in the development of sustainability. Goleman (2002, p.21) states: “Sustainability is not possible unless school leaders and system leaders are working on the same agenda... agreement is continually tested and extended by leaders...putting pressure on each other.”

Te Ara Rangatira Generation 2012

SELECTION PROCESS

Research from the Wallace Foundation (2007, 2008, and 2012) showed that the success of this work depends on paying attention to the selection process in order to get the types of leaders schools require in the face of an uncertain future. The NAPP selection criteria are based on a demonstration of the participant’s leadership skills, attitudes and dispositions through a focus on culturally responsive leadership and future focussed leadership. In New Zealand we focus on the Treaty of Waitangi – a founding document signed by Maori and Pakeha in 1847. These expectations are encapsulated in three criteria:

Leadership skills and dispositions
This lens seeks to determine an applicant’s overall leadership identity, which includes qualities, capabilities, potential and efficacy for transformation.
Leadership for 21st century learning
This lens seeks to determine an applicant’s understanding of the changing nature of knowledge and learning and of the need for future focus in the establishment of effective learning environments.

Leadership and the Treaty of Waitangi
This lens seeks to determine an applicant’s readiness to recognise that principalship is about developing future citizens of Aotearoa/New Zealand and that our underpinning constitution is the Treaty of Waitangi.

National Aspiring Principals Programme Documentation 2011
The participants are required to present a digital presentation as application of no more than 3 minutes in whatever format they choose in order to demonstrate their abilities according to the selection criteria. This encourages the contenders to be creative, to be reflective, and to be solution-focussed.

Goleman (2002, p.311) states: “Organisational leaders need to create a selection process that allows for the paradox of involvement: The best of the best get in and everyone has a chance. All this means having real conversations, not merely releasing a memo or voicemail telling people… It’s more effort, yes – but worth it: Attending to the entry process can determine the success of the entire initiative.”

The facilitator uses the digital presentation submitted for the selection process with the participant to begin the discussions about their leadership learning and to refer to throughout the year. It also becomes a powerful tool as a reflection at the end of the year, as these leaders reflect back on their thinking at the beginning of the journey.

NAPP CURRICULUM
The NAPP curriculum has five strands that are the focus for the work: developing self; leading change; leading learning; future focussed schooling and the role of the principal. Piggott- Irvine et al (2009, p.166) state: “The strands were derived from and further underpinned by the KLP ( Kiwi Leadership for Principals’) document (Ministry of Education, 2008) and strongly influenced by the Leadership BES ( Robinson et al , 2008).” Each of these strands has a number of specific concepts that sit under it. These strands are interwoven and threaded through all the work the participants are involved in and the concepts that sit under these topics are made explicit as the facilitators and peer coaches dialogue and work with the participant. This linking together in a sense-making process ensures the development of the interpersonal and intra-personal skills that Piggott et al (2008) refer to. Piggot et al (2008, p.166) state: “The NAPP curriculum is aligned with Elmuti’s (2004) suggestion that emphasis needs to be placed on developing the ‘soft’ skills (inter and intrapersonal) rather than the ‘hard systems and analytical skills.”

This is about the participants experiencing transformational change themselves as they grow their leadership skills. The transformational change contributes to the development of sustainable leadership that will address the localised issues, and support these leaders to address inequities in our system, and be future focussed in order to be an integral part of a world leading education system. The integration of all the activities outlined above in Te Ara Generation 2012, through the emphasis on the curriculum, with processes that enable reflection on beliefs and values and the generation of new ideas and ways of being, supports the development of sustainable leadership. Robertson (2013, p.4) states: “It is not about ‘doing NAPP’ – our design is about developing the dispositions and capabilities and structures for these leaders to continue with their communities and learning on into the future as they head towards principalship.”

The design of NAPP is demonstrated through the Theory of Action, (Appendix One) with expected outcomes that influence the individual and the education system in New Zealand. Robertson (2013) outlines these expected intermediate programme outcomes for participants in the National Aspiring Principals in the Theory of Action as:

“Reflective leaders who:
…feel self-efficacy and agency as a learning leader
…are self-directed leaders and learners
…have a growth/learning mind-set (open to learning)
…are comfortable with ambiguity and not knowing
…are culturally responsive
…solve problems and shape the future
…are intentional in leadership decisions
…are driven by moral purpose of equity and social justice
…are self- aware as people and leaders
...engage in single, double and triple loop learning
...are confident and engaged with e-learning environments
...are comfortable using evidence and data for decision making
...are knowledgeable about the multi-faceted role of the school principal
...deliberately challenge ideas, their own and others, to improve the ideas
...provide descriptive feedback to colleagues
...have experienced a personal/professional transformation
...have led transformative practice
...are ready to take on formal leadership roles.

The expected long-term programme outcomes are:
- Leaders from NAPP with self-efficacy and agency in addressing disparities in New Zealand,
- Leaders from NAPP as change agents
- Leaders from NAPP actively connected across the country in learning networks and partnerships to share and create knowledge.

The expected long-term systemic outcomes are;
- Leaders in New Zealand connected and working together
- Leaders in New Zealand as adaptive experts and agents for 21“ century system change
- Equitable and culturally responsive education in New Zealand.”
(Robertson, J., 2013a)

There are three themes that have developed as the essence of the design that underpins the work of the National Aspiring Principals Programme of New Zealand. These themes work together to develop sustainable leadership in the schooling sector and gain the expected long-term outcomes from the theory of action.

1. Transformational Leadership with a focus on leadership of moral purpose for equity and social justice.
2. Metacognitive Leadership and the ability to be deeply reflective.
3. Future-focussed Leadership in order to enable currency and relevancy in a diverse society.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP: LEADERSHIP THROUGH MORAL PURPOSE FOR EQUITY AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

Transformational leadership is about achieving deep change in order to become something that has not been before. New Zealand’s dual cultural heritage and its multi-cultural society requires school leaders to continually be a force for equity and social justice, and be driven by moral purpose in the work they do. The New Zealand curriculum document (2007) for schools sets the parameters for schools to develop their own curriculum and learning programmes for the students. This document enables community ownership of its strategic direction and implementation. These factors require school leaders who are relational and can seek and develop new ways of being and doing in order to be innovative and creative in their work with their communities, to utilise the strengths the community brings and address the needs of the students. Being a transformational leader is needed. These leaders are authentic, they are visionary, they have good interpersonal skills and they are leaders who are explicit about what they stand for. Goleman (2002, p.301) states: “The next step is to design a process that continually builds leadership that gets results. The process will include helping your organisation’s leaders uncover their own dreams and personal ideals, examine their strengths and their gaps and use their daily work as a laboratory for learning…”

Built into the work is a requirement for leadership inquiry that enables the participants to address their personal attributes, as outlined by Goleman, in their own ‘laboratory for learning’. The facilitators coach the participants in this work. The leadership inquiry requires participants lead other colleagues in their school, to look at evidence and adapt their methods to seek solutions, in order to raise student achievement through a focus on an important facet of their school development connected to the school strategic plan. This focus enables them to develop their skills of adaptive leadership and inquiry mindedness so they can work effectively in an increasingly complex and challenging world. Working within the school with a specific group of teachers to bring about change on a daily basis and then dialoguing with experienced principals and peers about what has happened and where to next helps leaders understand practice for leading learning and leading change. Timperley et al (2007, p.154) outline the importance of this when they state: “The importance of repeated opportunities for teachers to encounter, understand, translate and refine new theories and related practices was apparent in most of the core studies. In most, extended time was structured so that teachers were given multiple opportunities and a variety of activities to link theory and practice, revisit theoretical understandings and refine
practice. Where such opportunities were not given, neither extended time nor frequency of contact was sufficient to change teacher practice or improve student outcomes.”

It appears therefore that unless adult learners are able to address their own values and beliefs through timely investigative processes, change will not be sustainable. Facilitators in NAPP enable participants to surface their values and beliefs about the work they are doing in order to provide challenge as well as support in a trusting relationship that is based on coaching for metacognitive leadership (Robertson, 2005). Participants are also encouraged to use this coaching methodology with the colleagues they are leading. Robertson (2005, p.24) states that coaching “depicts a learning relationship, where participants are open to new learning, engage together as professionals equally committed to facilitating each other’s leadership learning development and wellbeing (both cognitive and affective) and gain a greater understanding of professionalism and the work of professionals.” The process of the coach asking the questions that are going to support transformational leadership, understanding participants’ own values and beliefs and ownership of the new ways, helps support the sustainability processes required. Coaching enables triple-loop learning through reflective questioning and goal setting. Questions that ask: ‘what’ for clarification, ‘why’ and ‘how’ in order to go deeper and the ‘so what’ question encourages metacognition and deep reflective processes (Robertson, 2013).

A focus on developing self through emotional and intellectual learning is the result of this work. Goleman (2002, p.303) states: “The best development processes create a safe place for learning, making it challenging but not too risky. Strong leadership development processes are focussed on emotional and intellectual learning and they build on active, participatory work: action learning and coaching, where people use what they’re learning to diagnose and solve real problems in their organisation.” The wrap around focus in NAPP on the leadership inquiry places this work in the participants’ context. The participants are encouraged to develop new ways of being through action research within their own organisation. The online communities and the facilitator support this work ensuring it is safe to discuss new ways and challenges. Participants are encouraged to develop coaching methodologies with the teams of teachers they are leading in their schools so they too are involved in action learning.

In the programme, everyone is a learner. The concept of leadership as learning is very real. Robertson (2012, p.3) states: “The act of leadership pushes into the realm of the unknown for transformative change. Leaders do not have the answers in the new realm - or it would not be leadership. Thus learning in leadership and therefore leadership as learning is paramount to effective engagement and ownership of the change process in developing shared vision.”

METACOGNITIVE LEADERSHIP AND THE ABILITY TO BE DEEPLY REFLECTIVE

It is a priority in self-managing schools in New Zealand for the school leaders to be self-regulating learners. The NAPP curriculum focus on ‘Developing Self’ has the following concepts embedded in it:

Developing Self Outcomes:
Aspirants will reflect on their personal growth including:
- self-awareness: personal effectiveness, beliefs and values
- emotional, spiritual and social intelligence: understanding own strengths and weaknesses
- developing and communicating a moral purpose
- personal goal setting and a PD plan
- appreciating the bi-cultural nature of Aotearoa-New Zealand

New Zealand National Aspiring Principals Programme documentation 2011 - 2013

Robertson (2012, p.5) states: “Metacognitive skill is, then, a pre-requisite for self-regulated learning – where the leaders understand fully their strengths and their areas for further development and take responsibility and ownership of this self-directed process.”

Metacognitive leadership requires leaders to engage in deep reflection on their practice. The ability to deeply reflect is related to their perceptions of themselves. Robertson (2012, p.5) states: “Leaders’ levels of consciousness and self-awareness are directly related to their metacognitive skill in reflecting on their practice. The National Aspiring Principal’s Programme of New Zealand is set up in such a way as to enable this deep reflection in multiple ways, with an underpinning of coaching leadership (Robertson, 2005)

(1) The coaching relationship with the facilitator:
- who meets face to face with the participant for coaching sessions,
- who has Skype coaching sessions with the participant,
- who arranges the meeting of the participant’s professional learning group and the PLG group of leaders coach each other around aspects of their work,
- who responds to the reflective e-portfolio the participant keeps, and
- who contributes to the discussion and dialogue through deep questioning in the online module work in relation to the leadership scenarios based on the work of school context, school resourcing and employment and personnel.

(2) The coaching relationship with the peer partner:
- who responds to the reflective e-portfolio the participant keeps,
- who often participates in the professional learning group, (Note: While it is encouraged to have a peer partner within the professional learning group some participants choose to have more than one peer partner or a peer partner who is focussed on the same inquiry question as themselves. This person then may be located in a completely different geographical region and their face to face meetings are at National Hui and through Skype.)

(3) The interactions, questioning and support from the twenty experienced leaders who work across the country as facilitators and dialogue with the participants in the online communities.

All of these processes encourage the participant to develop a sense of personal agency and high levels of self-efficacy through enabling the generation of new knowledge and a generation with new knowledge. Earl and Hannay (2011, p.188) (as cited in Robertson, 2012) stated that deep change comes from creating new knowledge and that our leaders of schools need to become knowledge leaders “who work together to engage in a productive interchange between tacit and explicit knowledge to generate new collective knowledge.” The collective knowledge developed through sharing online develops into a resource that is available to participants long after the yearlong formal programme has finished. Communities remain open with the ability to continue to access and contribute.

FUTURE-FOCUSED LEADERSHIP IN ORDER TO ENABLE CURRENCY AND RELEVANCY IN A DIVERSE SOCIETY

A focus on the future and what is required has never been more critical than it is today. The knowledge society requires us to do something different. Earl and Hannay (2011 p. 187) (as cited in Robertson 2012) contend that a “knowledge–based society focusing on creativity and innovation… is problematic. Public organisations like schools and school systems do not typically foster innovative thinking that could challenge or question the ‘black box’ that frames their world views.” Developing creativity and innovative practices and ways of being in schools competes with other demands for the focus of a school leaders’ work. Fullan (2007, p.93), implores readers “Something direct must be done about the principalship in which new expectations have been added to the principal as leader of leaders in improving learning and closing the gap.”

The importance of school principals as being more than managers: principals as leaders of learning who are able to look to the horizon with the challenges faced and be able to position their learners to take the opportunities offered in complex and challenging times; principals who value and foster creativity; principals who seek innovation and new ways of being and doing and principals with vision are needed. Wenmouth (2013) identifies the importance of keeping this focus when he states: “Vision is an essential aspect of leadership. Great leaders are those who have vision, are able to articulate that vision clearly in others, and who engender trust in others to pursue that vision.”

Relationships, trust, vision and intentional leadership are required for the generation of new knowledge in order to address the challenges and complexities facing schools. A recent paper commissioned by the Ministry of Education (NZ) by Bolstad and Gilbert (2012), identifies six themes that need attention to support future-oriented learning and teaching. The six themes as identified are as applicable for the Aspiring Principals Programme as they are for the present school leader and the teachers in the schools:

1. personalising learning,
2. new views of equity, diversity and inclusivity,
3. a curriculum that uses knowledge to develop learning capacity,
4. changing the script: rethinking learners’ and teachers’ roles ,
5. a culture of continuous learning for teachers and educational leaders, and
6. new kinds of partnerships and relationships.
The NAPP participants are engaged in each one of these.

(1) Personalising learning - The opportunities provided to engage the participants through the online forums in dialogue about their own work in their own context while at the same time addressing a topic that is related to leadership and management of a school is powerful. The online communities are set up in such a way as to enable dialogue with just their own professional learning group, with their own peer partner, with their facilitator, with NAPPs from previous generations or with the whole cohort of their generation. The reflective processes that are embedded in all the online and face-to-face work and the understanding of theory to action through the work of the whole facilitation team in dialoguing online encourage deeper understanding at a personal level.

(2) New views of equity, diversity and inclusivity- Bolstad et al (2012) refer to education for diversity in both the people-sense and the knowledge-sense. The generation of new ideas as we listen to each other and develop culturally responsive ways of being is a huge focus of our work. Reflection and coaching with another enables the generation of new ideas, and being explicit about our views and intentions in a supportive learning environment is also a vehicle for creating new knowledge.

(3) A curriculum that uses knowledge to develop learning capacity - The project team has worked carefully to construct a year-long programme that will continue for the participants after the formal work has completed. The collective impact of this work is shifting the thinking in order to be and become something more. The focus on the use of online tools, the development of connections and becoming more connected to others with high expectations for our New Zealand schools and the support structures enables vision and trust.

(4) Changing the script - Rethinking learners’ and teachers’ roles- Robertson (2012) continually reinforces that leadership practice is about learning in leadership and that leaders need to see leadership as learning. Changing the leaders’ views about the work they are involved in to being a learner is very much a part of the work promoted and is explicit throughout the programme, as is developing mind-sets that link with theme five.

(5) A culture of continuous learning for teachers and educational leaders - It is imperative as educational leaders look to the future that they understand the importance of and become immersed in, a culture of continuous learning. This is promulgated in NAPP through the online forums, as we focus on a ubiquitous way of being and the focus of being a self-regulated learner is made explicit.

(6) New kinds of partnerships and relationships - Again, the connected nature of programme design and the opportunity to engage with a wide range of others pursuing the same goals for education in New Zealand enables many new partnerships and relationships.

In summarising, Bolstad et al (2012, p. 65) state that these themes link into three big ideas - diversity, connectedness and coherence and suggest that these ideas provide a way to structure thinking for future-focused schooling. These thinking frames are embedded in the NAPP through the design of the programme.

CONCLUSION

The National Aspiring Principals Programme of New Zealand is a multi-faceted programme that has processes, supports and activities based on a self-directed learning model through the development of coaches, the development of learning environments and the development of e-portfolios and online connections. The need for school leaders to be self-regulating is never more important than today. Dr Jan Robertson, as Academic Director of NAPP (2013, p.6) outlines this fundamental driver of NAPP in developing sustainable leadership:- “The most important learning you can do as a leader is learn from your leadership, while you are in your leadership. Learning how to learn means developing the mind-set, skills and tools to enable you to reflect deeply on what you are doing and the impact of your actions.”

There is some preliminary evidence that these generative, personalised approaches to learning are working. The results from self-reflective surveys from 2012 show:

- 93% of participants in the 2012 cohort are more confident in their role as a leader.
- 97% of participants know more about culturally responsive pedagogy and leadership.
- 90% of participants believe NAPP provided them with wide ranging experiences to meet their needs as future Principals.
- 96% of participants now model a future-focus in their leadership.
• 90% of participants stated their inquiry helped them develop and communicate a stronger moral purpose.
• 96% of participants stated their inquiry had been a real learning experience
• 96% of participants agreed that working with a coach had developed their sense of self-efficacy.

The leaders in the project team of this work are mindful of the need to be future-focused, to become a real community of learners and to develop sustainable leadership for the education sector and principalship in New Zealand. In a recent seminar on sustaining teachers’ professional growth (Frost et al, 2013 p.12) the following 10 characteristics were identified in environments that sustain teachers’ professional growth: “professional autonomy, dialogue and reflection, shared leadership, values of inclusivity and community, flexible and diverse approaches to support professional learning, norms of self-evaluation and enquiry, leadership for capacity building, collaboration, structures and tools that support career development and knowledge-building.” All of these characteristics are present in the design and implementation of the NAP programme. Being transformative, metacognitive and future-focused also support the sustainable nature of this leadership development. A focus on transformative change through engaging in an inner shift in values, beliefs and aspirations as well as a shift in the processes and practices supports the development of sustainable leadership. Alongside this, a focus on metacognitive leadership and developing the skill of thinking about thinking, where leaders are deeply reflective of what guides their thinking, strengthens the sustainability of the work.

As we face an uncertain future a focus on future thinking and on ways of being that include being culturally responsive and valuing diversity, ensure that this model of professional development and learning supports sustainable leadership in New Zealand schools.

REFERENCES


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APPENDIX ONE – NATIONAL ASPIRING PRINCIPALS’ PROGRAMME THEORY OF ACTION

EXPECTED INTERMEDIATE PROGRAMME OUTCOMES FOR NAPP PARTICIPANTS

- Reflective leaders who:
  - feel self-efficacy and agency as a learning leader
  - are self-directed leaders and learners
  - have a growth/learning mindset (open to learning)
  - are comfortable with ambiguity and not knowing
  - are culturally responsive
  - solve problems and shape the future
  - are intentional in leadership decisions
  - are driven by moral purpose of equity and social justice
  - are self-aware as people and as leaders
  - engage in single, double and triple loop learning
  - are confident and engaged in a learning environments
  - are comfortable using evidence and data for decision making
  - are knowledgeable about the multi-faced role of the school principal
  - deliberately challenge ideas - their own and others to improve the ideas
  - provide descriptive feedback to colleagues
  - have experienced a personal/professional transformation
  - have led transformative practice
  - are ready to take on formal leadership roles

EXPECTED LONG-TERM PROGRAMME OUTCOMES

Leaders from NAPP with self-efficacy and agency in addressing disparities in NZ education

Leaders from NAPP as change agents

Leaders from NAPP actively connected across the country

Equitable and Culturally Responsive Education in New Zealand

ASSUMPTIONS

Leadership is relational
Leaders are learners throughout and about their leadership
Leaders are self-regulated learners in a generative process
Learning is individual or social. Leaders learn with others through their leadership practice
Leadership is about transformational change and requires moving into the unknown.
Leaders themselves need to change within the change process
Educational leadership is driven by a moral purpose of equity and social justice
Trust and respect underpin effective leadership practice
Awareness of self is key to developing in leadership capability.
Learning is a process of knowledge building that requires the blending of both tacit and explicit knowledge in an interactive and iterative consideration of ideas.
Surfacing values, beliefs and assumptions make them overt and available as tacit knowledge for use in new learning
Collaborative inquiry provides a forum for challenging and developing ideas and creating new learning and feeling through feedback and reflection.
Learning occurs through problematical beliefs and practice and challenging ideas.

PRINCIPLES OF PROFESSIONAL LEARNING

- Personalized, self-regulated, reflective meta-cognitive learning
- Connectivitiy and networked leaders sharing and creating knowledge
- Coaching leadership capacity in self and others
- Inquiry-based leadership and learning informed by research and evidence

CURRICULUM

Self-development, Leading Change, Leading Learning: Future-focused Learning Environment, Role of the Principal

PROCESS SUPPORTS AND ACTIVITIES

Self-directed learning through inquiry
Coaching from an experienced and skillful educational leader
Peer coach
National PLG with one bi-cultural hut and e-network
Local PLG face-to-face and e-network
Multiple and broad learning environments
Reflective e-portfolio

NATIONAL ASPIRING PRINCIPALS’ PROGRAMME: THEORY OF ACTION

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BUILDING SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP IN THAI ORGANISATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Leadership across all aspects of Thailand’s society is under stress. The future shape and capabilities of effective leadership in Thailand to achieve its stated sustainability goals must grow from the seedbed of its unique identity.

The Paper reports on the author’s original research conducted on behalf of the Thai Consulting Group APM. The research engaged a diverse pool of Thai individuals and leaders, utilising systemic thinking and methods to illuminate the intersection of an uncertain sustainable future with the current Thai leadership norms, tendencies, and practices.

The research did not start with a hypothesis or a theory to prove or disprove. The research findings are impersonal; the insights are born of the collective wisdom of the diverse participants over the months of May to October 2012.

Six clusters of sustainable leadership competencies were identified as a starting point for improvement. Specific competencies most often required to improve Thai sustainable leadership identified by participants are:

- Appraising change.
- Assessing new knowledge and ideas, based not on who created them but on the quality and scope of improvement they offer.
- Egalitarian forms of collaboration and discourse.
- Utilisation of experiential knowledge.
- Working with options not solutions.
- Being accountable for performance and outcomes
- Using the reason for the organisation’s existence (higher purpose) and not just immediate outcomes (like profit) to shape plans and programs.

The outcomes of the study can be used to inform theoretical constructs like the Sustainable Leadership Pyramid.

INTRODUCTION – SCOPING THE CHALLENGE

Leadership across all aspects of Thailand’s society is under stress. Such stress is true globally, however Thailand’s history and culture is unique. (Sooksan Kantabutra addresses the essence of this “stress” in several of his publications on Thailand’s Sufficiency Economy Philosophy) The future shape and capabilities of effective leadership in Thailand must grow from the seedbed of its unique identity. Blindly grafting “leadership practices” from Western business authorities fails to recognise the inherent strengths and limitations of current leaders. Despite all efforts to succeed, if an organisation’s leadership fails so will the organisation. Leadership is not a static resource; it must evolve to meet the challenges from changing organisational demands. Every leader faces the questions of why to evolve, when to evolve and how to evolve. Uncertainty about what actions to take generates significant leadership dysfunction.

The traditional expectation that leadership is created and delivered by one individual, the nominated leader, also adds to the stress. Today and tomorrow the complexity of organisations and their relationships with the world

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around them is too much for any one person to comprehend. More and more organisations are seeing collaborative leadership as central to an organisation’s sustainability. The resistance of many Thai organisations to the idea of collaborative leadership is seen as one reason for the leadership gaps discussed in this paper. Throughout this research we have used the term “leader” in a way that allows it to be interpreted as a single “nominated person” or as a “collective of people”. However, it is emphasised that few examples exist where the gaps in leadership have been filled through the actions of a single person.

The goal here has not been to find fault but rather to illustrate where investment and transformation are required if leaders are to embody and manifest those new sustainable leadership capabilities needed for the country to thrive. Some traditional capabilities need to be “unlearned,” because they will cause trip-ups and breakdowns. Some capabilities, although counter-intuitive and counter-culture, need to be “learned” and adopted as the new norm.

Current Thai leadership is often characterised as strongly hierarchical. It is powered by wisdom drawn from past experiences and by a culture that mixes tolerance with elitism. Current Thai leadership is bounded by entrenched respect and reverence for position and age. Events in the political sphere have, in recent history, seen these characteristics aggressively challenged. New values and attitudes to inherent issues such as corruption and the common good are disrupting entrenched “ways of doing”. In some areas of Thai society these traditional characteristics remain dominant and generally unchallenged. As Selvarajah et al (2012) claim, no organisation can exist separately from others and people coming into an organisation bring different values and attitudes implying change is near for all.

The plausible future challenges that could place many aspects of Thai life at risk come from many directions, both within and outside the national borders. There are many examples, a few of which are enumerated here. The cross border impact of globalisation, social media and sustainability are three worldwide influences highlighting gaps in national leadership capability. Others within Thailand include technology adoption rates; public accountability; resilience preparation; trust and confidence of employees; mental models and worldview of the common good; new communication channels; sharing of knowledge across traditional boundaries; and flexibility to respond rapidly. All these issues are being accentuated as Thailand prepares to join the Asean Economic Community (AEC) in 2015.

It is apparent that there is a need for new emphasis on collaboration and anticipation design that is only possible with higher utilisation of existing staff and supporters. The pace and scope of radical shifts requires “many shoulders to carry the load.” The conclusion is that future leaders in Thailand need to rapidly acquire these and other required leadership competencies and place them at the forefront of their activities along with the traditional and continuing needs for visioning, strategising and decision-making. Such action will enable Thai organisations to flourish and not die in the face of any challenge.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research did not start with a hypothesis or a theory to prove or disprove. The findings were generated through non-directive techniques such as “story-telling”, Conversation Mapping and self-moderated group conversations. Participants contributed their insights anonymously, working with full transparency. Further, participants identified all the emerging issues, perceived consequences and forward directions that are reported in this paper. The use of story to generate research data follows research conducted by David Snowden. Holism rather than a reductionism epistemology has been used to shape the research.

The conceptual framework used to guide the research

The Future Leadership Project research presents a participant’s exposition of the required future direction of Thailand’s leadership capabilities. The work is based on three recurring fundamental factors: the current leadership capabilities in Thailand; the challenges that will emerge in the coming years; and the new leadership capabilities that will be required. From the outcomes of analysing these factors and the relationship between them we are able to postulate the leadership development programs that will be required. Sustainable leadership

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is considered “as if” it is a system in which changes to any one of the parts (categories) will have an impact on each of the other parts.\textsuperscript{11} This is not a “do it once and you’re done” perspective. The process is a continuous one. The framework shown below is forever changing as new challenges emerge.

Diagrammatically the Conceptual Framework can be presented as:

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The Framework implies that we need to assemble data which:
- Audits current leadership capabilities available to and used by Thai enterprises and institutions;
- Imagines and extrapolates the challenges likely to be encountered by Thai enterprises and institutions in next ten plus years; and
- Anticipates the leadership capabilities that will be required to guide Thai enterprises and institutions to a prosperous future through these challenges.

From a systemic perspective this means sweeping in” multiple and diverse knowledge that has been gained by Thais’ experientially. It is assumed that leadership is a phenomenon that is experienced by those who are led more than those who lead, therefore the audit of current capabilities should assemble the experiential knowledge of leadership as expressed by a widely diverse cross-section of Thai society. This can be accomplished using systemic thinking and practice techniques such as Conversation Mapping\textsuperscript{12} and Story Telling\textsuperscript{13} activities.

\textsuperscript{11} ‘as if’ is a characteristic of Soft Systems Methodology, see Checkland, P and Scholes, J. (1999) Soft Systems Methodology in Action, Chichester, Wiley and Sons

\textsuperscript{12} Conversation Mapping is a structured avenue to dynamic conversation. It works when the conversation is in business, government, community, NGO or education. It works when our intention is exploratory or evaluative. It works whether our purpose is learning, strategic, innovation or just sharing different perspectives. Conversation Mapping is great fun as well as serious business. It lets people listen and talk, by reading and writing through our fingertips. It happens in real time or over time, among people wherever we live. And it is fast because Conversation Mapping capitalizes on the fact that we can capture information through reading faster than we can by listening, and on the fact that all participants can talk at once without being rude or confusing. Conversation Mapping protects every contribution, no matter when it is made in the conversation, holding it for reflection and re-consideration when the ongoing meaning and learning from the conversation is being assembled. Conversation Mapping is egalitarian and lets the quality of the ideas speak not the person who made them. Anonymity works to limit the negative consequences of hierarchy. We can say what needs to be said, what we want to share and this nourishes a culture of imagination and innovation. New breath comes into the organization with the freedom of speech and the time to carefully consider other perspectives. Conversation Mapping enables all of us to create unique meaning from the ‘rich picture’ created by the whole conversation. It works on the principle ‘all of us are smarter than any of us’...especially in today's complex world. See http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eqwL4k2easU for further explanation.

\textsuperscript{13} The Experiential Learning people gather everyday about a situation (especially complex issues) is embedded in the stories they tell about their experiences. Generally people know more than they can write or directly recall with much of this untapped knowledge being incorporated in their favorite stories. Sharing stories about the same issue reveals many new patterns of meaning, which provide insights that can be leveraged to improve the complex situation.
Challenges can be extrapolated as long as the conditions pertaining to the basis of the extrapolation are carefully monitored to ensure they are sustained; any change in the creating conditions will distort understanding of the extrapolated challenge. Challenges can also be imagined and the “collective imagined wisdom” has proved through time to be a valuable asset for future planners. Both these forms of challenge can be collected through WindTunneling software\textsuperscript{14} in a manner that ensures the diversity and independence of participants.

Emergent leadership capabilities can also be collected from those who proposed the challenges by tapping their imagination about future leadership. Another source of identifying emergent leadership capabilities is by enquiring what leadership capabilities would be required to meet the nominated challenges that are not currently available. These future leadership capabilities are being collected through the Conversation Mapping and Transformational Ideas techniques; other ideas will be gleaned from WindTunneling activities. (For a theoretical discussion of Systemic Intervention see Midgley\textsuperscript{15} and for the basis of collective wisdom see Surowiecki\textsuperscript{16}.)

THE RESEARCH STRUCTURE AND PROCESS

The research is being conducted in three Phases. Phase 1 (reported here) was designed to identify the “gaps” in current leadership practices that are limiting the building of sustainable leadership capabilities. Phase 2 explores and develops strategies and programs to overcome these gaps. Phase 3 aims to verify the findings of Phases 1 and 2.

Leadership in Thailand has a strong national cultural context. During the last half century the historical context has been subjected to external influences, especially in the business sector, from American and European consultants and the hundreds of Thais who have completed graduate studies outside the country. These dual forces have created unique leadership phenomena that are both a strength and weakness within Thailand.

To understand these current phenomena the Project adopted a systemic approach to data collection and analysis of the data collected. The research engaged a diverse pool of Thai individuals with varied life experiences. Some of the participants are living temporarily overseas for study and work whereas some have never travelled outside Thailand. Some participants have come from the professional sector while others come from industrial or educational enterprises. This participant diversity helped to illuminate the intersection of an uncertain future with current Thai leadership norms, systemic thinking and practices. Munsch highlights this phenomenon in his short article: “Participation, Diversity and Dominance”\textsuperscript{17}.

Participant’s knowledge of sustainable leadership, based on their life experiences was collected in two major ways:

- Through participants’ engagement in compiling conversation maps that focused on some aspect of leadership; or
- Through storytelling, where participants shared their best and worst stories about their experience of leadership in Thailand.

In both these activities once the knowledge had been shared those contributing spent time in making sense of their collated information through identifying patterns of behavior that emerged from the whole data-set (known as a “rich picture”). The emergent patterns were labelled and described by the participants and became the basis for further exploration to cluster related patterns and to describe categories of leadership that could be used to leverage improvement in the future capability of Thailand’s leadership resources.

To give greater focus to the discussion about future leadership needs, a second cohort of Thai nationals were asked to “anonymously and transparently” imagine the issues they expected would challenge Thai leaders and their capability to lead in the next ten to fifteen years. The WindTunneling software was utilised to manage this activity. Some of those issues are listed here:

\textsuperscript{14} WindTunneling is a software program based on Systemic Thinking principles, created by Future Insight Maps Inc.
\textsuperscript{17} http://c.ymccdn.com/sites/www.istr.org/resource/resmgr/abstracts_barcelona3/munsch.chantal.pdf
- Escalation of “social networks”
- Proliferation of “virtual organizations”
- Emergent leaders with extensive international backgrounds
- English as the common language
- Greater exposure to the world
- Meeting international sustainability requirements
- Energy insufficiency
- More chaos from nature and politics
- More people in cities
- Finding time to address the long-term, multifaceted issues
- Secrecy versus transparency
- Leadership succession in both public and private businesses
- Challenges to cultural icons
- ASEAN free trade agreement
- Providing universal quality education
- Employment opportunities for all.

From the many issues submitted, a diverse range of issues were chosen by the participants for their assessment as to the impact on Thai leadership and the probability of the issue’s occurrence. From this process the six most significant issues (high impact and high probability) were used to identify where the current Thai leadership capability may be insufficient.

**DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

Project participants identified six broad categories of leadership capabilities and their embedded competencies from the collated research data. Each category is focused around a challenge that can be identified in different situations in all walks of Thai life. The way in which the risks and opportunities posed by these emergent challenges are managed will play a major part in shaping Thailand’s wellbeing and standards of living. These aspects of leadership will also be critical in the implementation of the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy.

Examining how the existing patterns of leadership could manage the many complex issues emerging from both within Thailand and from wider afield identifies areas where new competencies, new processes and a new leadership culture are required. Some of these complex issues are already at the forefront of leader’s responsibilities. Issues such as corruption, environmental protection and universal education are well known. Other foreseen issues include:

- Sufficient transparency that will enable people to judge the leader and their organisation’s integrity
- Up-to-the-minute knowledge of change and its impact in areas relevant to the arena of leadership
- Interconnectivity that sees decisions in one situation having immediate and usually uncontrollable impacts on unexpected others
- Separation between generations greater than the issues that separate many nations
- Getting up and going on after unexpected setbacks where uncertainty is the norm.

A number of current fundamentals of good leadership will continue to be an essential part of the leaders’ set of competencies: visioning the future for those they lead; identifying strategic pathways that offer direction to reach the vision; and excellent communication skills to share a consistent message of why we need to do what we are doing. However, other fundamentals, lauded in the past, may now be dangerous and promote unnecessary risk to the survival of an organisation, diminish its performance or destroy confidence and trust in the leadership. Specifically, these formerly advocated leadership principles are: the culture of rigid command and control hierarchies; organisational silos to quarantine departments from each other; and separation of strategy, operations, risk and innovation. These practices will all escalate the problems associated with many of the complex, emerging issues.

In this section of the paper each of the six categories is described and discussed using the material collected from the many participants. The authors have made no attempt to interpret or infer outcomes that could be generated by the challenges. This is a matter for debate and further research in the coming months. Some of the challenges have also been identified in other nations and, where appropriate, references are given to this wider work. However, while the challenges may sound the same they will impact and have unique consequences in...
each affected nation. In this paper we are only concerned with the way in which Thailand can respond through enhancing the capability of its pool of competent leaders.

The six categories of leadership that can also be perceived as “gaps” for the future are:

- Leading to build resilience through uncertainty and ambiguity
- Leading with flexibility to improvise and innovate
- Leading conversations across generational boundaries
- Leading to restore and sustain confidence and trust in leaders and their institutions
- Leading into the future through continuous learning
- Leading simultaneously in both short and long term frameworks

Each category is discussed in the following paragraphs.

**Leading to build resilience through uncertainty and ambiguity**

When all the stories and conversations are viewed together the need to build resilience and appraise uncertainty stands out above all other required sustainable leadership competencies. Any business, community or government that cannot withstand discontinuities to its supply chain, productivity or markets and rebuild from negative circumstances will struggle to survive in this era where rapid change is a daily occurrence. The idea that something is without risk is nonsense; the claim that we know all we need to know about our enterprise is dangerous; and the dependence on someone else’s best practice to solve our complex problems is a recipe for failure.

Both the stories and the focused conversations reveal how many Thai enterprises, projects and schemes have disappeared because there was no resilience capability. There was a total failure to appraise plausible future events as both planners and implementers proceeded on the conviction that tomorrow will be the same as today. Michael Useem is reported in the McKinsey Quarterly’s October 2012 Monthly Newsletter in an article on Future Leadership as saying: “ . . . being able to come back from setbacks and, maybe above all, being very good at reading the increasingly ambiguous and uncertain universe we operate in . . . is essential for organizational survival ”. Elsewhere in the article he reiterates that the core capability for a new generation of leaders is building resilience: “ . . . the leadership quality of standing strong, coming back from adversity, being focused on a better place ahead even if it looks terrible now, all these facets we tend to sum up in the word ‘resilience’. These are the vital elements . . . for anybody with responsibilities for just about anything . . .”

The data in this study strongly supports the extensive studies Useem and his colleagues have completed in other parts of the world. Participants sharing their good sustainable leadership stories referred to the competency of appraising uncertain situations and noted the following competencies were essential to its development:

- Good listener
- Interaction with wide range of people with different knowledge and experience of the situation
- Intellectual humility (they didn’t claim to know everything)
- Exploration beyond the usual boundaries
- Use of imagination to generate conversation about what might be
- Always creating options rather than committing everything to one solution
- An appetite for risk-taking
- Trusting their intuition
- A sense of urgency

The resilience of strategies and programs is not accidental. Resilience requires the intentional engagement of an organisation’s sustainable leadership exploring plausible future circumstances through both extrapolation and imagination. Appraising potential strategic risks from unexpected sources and directions is the competency that enables strategies and programs to build-in the ability to bounce back from adversity.

**Leading with flexibility to improvise and innovate**

One emerging theme from the collated data set identifies the capability to improvise as an almost universal trait of Thai people. Referring to recent natural disasters, stories revealed a deep capability to “make do” in the most adverse situations. However, these same stories revealed that this capability was used only after the disaster was

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18 Professor Michael Useem is Director of the Center for Leadership and Change Management, Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania
well established and was of short-term duration, rarely being the basis for longer term and innovative change. This action reinforces the perception that Thais tend to be more adaptive than creative in crisis.

Many reasons are advanced as to why this national trait to “make-do” is not currently recognised as a Thai leadership characteristic. One explanation is that deeply entrenched dependence on a hierarchal decision-making process severely limits flexibility among directly affected people. The first response is always: “someone else will fix it”.

In stable and predictable circumstances this respect for hierarchy brings a high level of order and control to any situation. However, if the circumstances are uncertain or ambiguous, as the world has become, this inflexible leadership model threatens the capability of an enterprise to survive and prosper. Similarly, the capability to build an innovative organisational culture is severely curtailed by this inflexibility.

Innovation requires the free flow of ideas, some of which need to be outside the usual mindset of the organisation and its mental model of the future. Hence sustainable leadership needs to support several organisational models simultaneously: the more traditional control-and-command model sitting alongside an egalitarian model that enables diversity of experience in the organisation to have unfettered interaction.

Participants in the research process identified the following competencies as contributing to the sustainable leadership capabilities of flexibility, improvisation and innovation:

- Considering ideas as more important than materials
- Open mind to the new and different
- Judging ideas by their quality to improve rather than by the idea’s author
- Learning from failure of innovative ideas as well as from successes
- Seeing no end to learning or imagination and no limit to creativity
- Optimism in the face of adversity
- Encouraging others to experiment.

For many in Thailand, flexibility is seen only as being able to adapt but it means more in this context. Leaders will therefore need to deliberately “let go” so that they can move into a space where ideas are not directly managed but are encouraged to circulate, to cross pollinate with other ideas and to generate options rather than solutions for managing emergent issues.

**Leading conversations across generational boundaries**

The President of Israel, Shimon Peres, in the McKinsey publication referred to earlier, clearly articulates the leaders’ imperative to generate conversations across generational barriers. Peres is quoted as saying: “... Today the separation between generations is stronger than between nations. Our children say: ‘Please don’t impose upon us your arrogance – the world you created, wounded by war, corrupted by money, separated by hatred and don’t try to build artificial walls between us and other young people.’ The young people were born in a new age, for them, modern communication is what paper and pen are for us. They can communicate much more easily and don’t feel all this hidden discrimination that we were born with ...”

In the research behind this paper the collated information suggests that there are two distinct arenas of conversation going on everyday in Thailand. On the one hand older persons, often in positions of responsibility, are conversing about what they are doing and how this will advance their organisation or the country. On the other hand young people, using technology-empowered social media, are having a parallel conversation about what would be good for the organisation and the country. These parallel conversations rarely integrate. The vocabulary used and the way ideas are expressed are increasingly barriers for the cross-pollination that will be essential for effective sustainable leadership into the future.

The initiative to address this situation must be with those who currently have power to open up new channels of interaction and sharing across the actual or imagined generational divided.

One of the most striking differences in behavior that deepens the gulf between generations is the different usage of communication media. Young people exploit the speed of Facebook and Twitter so that information is simultaneously available to thousands whereas older generations use more personally directed sources. Younger generations do not hesitate to use Google or other browser apps, to check out strategic information, enabling them to quickly cross-reference every claim made by a leader. Older generations do not do this but are happy to accept the word of the leader. However, often the nuances and intent of an issue are lost in the sledgehammer
The approach of a Google search, leading to major misunderstandings and deterioration of mutual trust. Further, older leaders often claim that this behavior by younger people is an example of a “no accountability” culture that distracts from cross-generational conversations.

A recurring theme from older participants in the research is that young people do not have enough experience to make responsible contributions to leadership and decision-making. Yet in most circumstances only the young people have the daily face-to-face encounters with the new world being created and recreated hour-by-hour by science and technology. Rapid change in every facet of life has not decreased the value of long-term experiences and knowledge; rather it has increased exponentially the value of recent and continuous experience of the change phenomena. The sustainable leadership challenge is to build partnerships between the generations to enable exploratory conversations that benefit from the different perspectives each can bring.

Participants in the research process identified the following competencies as contributing to a sustainable leadership capability that enabled cross-generational conversations:

- Intellectual humility: appreciating no one has all the knowledge about the changing world but everyone has some knowledge
- Diversity of perspectives as a strength not a weakness
- Knowing that the past is not a good foundation for understanding the future
- Understanding that historical hierarchy can limit essential organisational communication
- Creating opportunities for younger people to practice leadership skills in meaningful (real) situations
- Treating all with dignity.

The development of this sustainable leadership capability may be particularly difficult for many institutions in Thailand. The highly valued cultural phenomenon of respecting and revering age and position is a significant part of the national psyche. Young people as well as older people sustain this respect. The respect has served the country well and is entrenched in the belief system of many. However, its current form is causing a split between the generations and a significant challenge faces all Thais to develop a means by which respect can live beside change and where ideas and not people are the critical engine for future prosperity and wellbeing. One could say that traditional hierarchical leadership is the “elephant in the room” that no wants to acknowledge and address.

**Leading to restore and sustain confidence and trust in leaders and their institutions**

This category has some close connections with the previous category since the breakdown in communication between generations is one of the underlying factors that have led to a global collapse in confidence and trust of leaders and their leadership practices. Restoring trust is a challenge being confronted by all levels of business, government and community organisations. In this case there is value in exploring what led to the breakdown in trust and confidence over recent years.

The stories of bad experiences of leadership are riddled with references to inconsistent messaging:

- Changing the story to suit the audience
- Wanting to pass responsibility for failure on to others
- Avoiding meaningful assessment and accountability for projects and programs
- Striving to remain aloof from the difficulties faced by frontline people because of inaction or inappropriate action by their leaders.

In Europe and the USA it is convenient to link this collapse in trust and confidence to the Global Financial Crisis (GFC). However, it appears to have been well under way before 2008. It is more likely that the GFC brought the issue into clear focus, not just with those most affected by GFC but everywhere, including Thailand. As a result the trust and confidence behaviors identified by our storytellers were given greater emphasis. Groups who do not enjoy trust and confidence in their leadership display high levels of uncertainty and fear of change, often leading to an absence of forward planning.

Trust and confidence is a sustainable leadership capability that is exclusively in the hands of the leader; trust and confidence cannot be learned from a book. Together they are attributes that emerge from the interaction between people; the effectiveness of communication; keeping promises; and transparency and consistency. Those who experience another’s leadership give this capability to them. Trust and confidence are continuous indicators of the health of an organisation’s sustainable leadership and the viability of the organisation’s performance.
Participants in the research process identified the following competencies as contributing to a sustainable leadership capability that enabled trust and confidence to be re-established:

- Consistency of messages conveyed in public and in private
- Transparency in their dealings with others and their representation of the organisation
- Evidence of continual learning about the organisation, its environment and its short and long-term performance
- Listening to others at all levels of the organisation
- Accepting responsibility for both the successes and failures in organisational performance
- Linking all they do back to the higher purpose and shared values of the organisation
- Encouraging teamwork and treating everyone as equals, enabling all to grow through personal relationships
- Suspending judgement while new ideas are explored

Re-establishing trust and confidence throughout an organisation will require a deliberate change in the culture of accountability. Any continuance of a “them and us” attitude is likely to thwart attempts to improve the situation. Finding the model that accommodates respect and equality will also contribute to the regeneration of trust as a much wider group becomes responsible for providing leadership. That is, the broadening of the sustainable leadership capability will be as important as ensuring processes and activities are transparent and accountable.

Leading into the future through continuous learning

Larry Fink the CEO of BlackRock, one of the world’s largest asset-management firms and in 2011 named the CEO of the Decade by the Financial Times describes his personal approach to leadership as: “I’m still a student”. One of the clearest demarcations in the research data is between those who see leadership as continuous learning and those who consider that learning is for others. The latter group does not usually claim they know everything; they just know all they need to know to provide the leadership the organisation requires.

Admitting ignorance has been seen in many spheres of leadership as a weakness. When challenges rarely occurred this may have been defensible. It is no longer defensible in a world of rapid change at every level of every sector. With a virtually borderless level of interconnectivity between nations, businesses and communities change in one place or situation has an impact on every other situation. While Larry Fink’s world is that of “big international corporations” his words are valid for everyone offering leadership: “… It is imperative that all of us worldwide take the time to be a student. That’s the most important lesson I’ve learned watching other firms. They (leaders) forget that their job has to evolve and change all the time, and that what worked in the past will not work in the future. In my opinion, if you’re not a student, you’re probably going backwards (and taking others with you)”\(^\text{19}\).

No one can know all that is necessary to provide the breath and depth of sustainable leadership required in times of rapid change. The call for continuous learning is also a call for team leadership. Sustainable leadership is an emerging quality of the whole group, not the responsibility of one person. With change having so many different contexts and such diverse content, any group is now dependent on the learning, the knowledge and the wisdom of everyone in the organisation.

Participants in the research process identified the following competencies as contributing to a sustainable leadership capability that enabled continuous learning to be the powerhouse of effectiveness and efficiency:

- Awareness that change outstrips a person’s ability to know enough
- Knowing that complex issues\(^\text{20}\) cannot be understood from a single perspective
- Creating sessions for all to share knowledge equally
- Encouraging and supporting a range of learning activities
- Exposing themselves and other leaders to diverse and contentious information.

The need for continuous learning issues a challenge to associations seeking to support leaders. One of the most valuable contributions they can make is to improve and extend the learning opportunities available to the leaders they serve. A similar responsibility falls to all institutions of learning. They must identify whether they offer education that will enhance the capability of leaders. Participants in the research claimed much of what is

\(^{19}\) McKinsey Quarterly - Monthly Newsletter, October 2012, Leadership in the 21st Century

\(^{20}\) For explanation on how ‘complex’ is used in this context see Snowden, D. & Boone, M. A. Leader’s Approach for Decision Making, Harvard Business Review, November 2007
offered as appropriate learning opportunities is based on the past and not on the future; based on old paradigms of leadership not on paradigms appropriate to a rapidly changing, complex world.

**Leading simultaneously in both short and long term frameworks**

An interesting aspect of the research was the late emergence of the concept of time\(^{21}\) and its influence on the sustainable leadership capability of organisations in Thailand. Most of the initial data in the study was collected from Thais temporarily living and working outside Thailand - particularly in Australia, the USA and Europe. The later data was collected in Thailand. Although in retrospect it is apparent that the ability to manage both short and long-term timeframes was appearing as a weak signal in early data, it became a significant theme when all the data was collated, suggesting it weighs heavily on the experience of participants in Thailand.

According to the storytellers and Conversation Mapping participants, the time management issue is the tendency to deal with the immediate situation to the exclusion of the longer-term. This is reported as a mindset that carries the general philosophical perspective that the future will look after itself (a Mai Pen Rai position). The challenge is that the future may well be tomorrow. Not engaging with the forward consequences of today’s decisions can have repercussions very quickly.

As a group of senior leaders meeting to review the early outcomes of the research highlighted, both the previous category of “learning” and this category of “time” are factors of influence in all the categories. How leaders use their time, how they accommodate different timeframes and how they engage with other people’s time is a sustainable leadership capability that will be reflected in every leadership activity.

It is interesting to note that time does not often appear in recent research about leadership in developed countries other than the footnote that there is never enough of it or in some version of Benjamin Franklin’s statement “time is money”. However, it is a recurring theme in developing countries, especially those with a strongly entrenched culture that has not been neutered by modern management theory and practice. Hence, as with the issue of “respect”, Thai leaders will need to develop their own unique, sustainable, time-management capability. This is not an easy task as the pressures of globalization and connectivity mean that the concept of “time” in Thailand is similar to that of the rest of the world and thus in conflict with its traditions.

Participants in the research process identified the following competencies as contributing to a sustainable leadership capability that accommodated multiple timeframes simultaneously:

- Maintaining a close link between strategic and operational
- Considering people as a long term investment
- Searching for the future consequences of decisions
- Moving easily between the “big picture” and immediate problems
- Taking “time out” to reflect on the demands of immediate activities.

This research project has highlighted how time management is a sustainable leadership capability that will be utilised differently in every situation influenced by and influencing the other leadership capabilities being used.

**PARTICIPANTS’ CONCLUSION**

“Sustainable leadership, as with every other aspect of life, is dynamic and will continue to change as the context (environment), the knowledge and experience of people, the interconnectivity of Thailand into the global community and the complexity of issues to be resolved changes. Doing nothing is not a survival option for any enterprise. Change is hard, but we believe we can have confidence that Thai leaders will make the sacrifice to learn new capabilities to advance their work”.

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\(^{21}\) Time is used in the sense that everything that happens in the current timeframe has consequences for future timeframes. A change issue today has to be managed today but also the future consequences of the change and our response to it has to be managed in terms of amending strategies, medium term plans and possibly the vision of the organization’s future.
WHAT DOES NOT KILL YOU (SOMETIMES) MAKES YOU STRONGER: LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES FOR DEANS OF BUSINESS FACULTIES

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“*The challenges for business schools have never been greater*” (McTiernan & Flynn, 2011: 325).
“Jack Welch once warned that when the rate of change outside the organisation exceeds the rate of change inside, the end is near. There can be no doubt about the rate of change outside. The question is whether we can boost the rate of change inside business schools” (Bach, 2012: 24).

ABSTRACT

In Australia, the Bradley era has brought major changes to the higher education environment, with 2013 and beyond heralding what one VC has metaphorically labelled a “cold Autumn” (Craven, 2012), characterised by increasing uncertainty; political and policy volatility; real financial stringency with further budget pressures; increased competition within/between universities locally and rising global competition for staff and students; technological impacts with e-learning; and the fall in the international marketplace for Australia.

A recent Ernst & Young report on the *University of the Future* (2012) sees the following drivers of change: democratisation of knowledge and access; contestability of markets and funding; digital technologies; global mobility; and integration with industry; suggesting that current models are outdated and unviable for the future. These drivers and challenges require increasing flexibility and the capacity to deal with uncertainty and change among leaders in the sector.

This is especially true with the many challenges facing Business Deans in an increasingly uncertain, dynamic and volatile environment with more demands for accountability and relevance from a growing number of key stakeholders and with pressure to change the traditionally successful models for B-Schools.

This paper explores some major challenges confronting B-School Deans in Australia and questions the sustainability of traditional B-Schools under the current pressures.

INTRODUCTION

Seen through the lens of disruptive innovation theory, universities are at a critical crossroad. They are both at great risk of competitive disruption and potentially poised for an innovation-fuelled renaissance (Christensen and Eyring, 2011:xxii).

Deans have been variously described as “jugglers”, “jacks of all trades, but masters of none”, “dictators”, “doves of peace” and “dragons”. Taken together, these metaphors illustrate the multifaceted, important and often stressful role of leading a business school ... (Fragueiro and Thomas, 2011:xi).

Simply put, not only in Australia, but worldwide, the higher education sector is engulfed in an environment of rapid and complex change, wrought by the GFC, a technological revolution, diminishing resources and increasing globalisation. In Australia, the higher education landscape is being reshaped by a myriad of factors, key among them being rising costs; increasing government intervention across diverse areas, including quality with the arrival of TEQSA; pressure on research funding and outcomes; and an increasingly competitive marketplace for students with university enrolment caps removed. Moreover, new entrants to the marketplace offer enriched alternative experiences such as publishing company Pearson’s Business and Enterprise degree program, accredited by the University of London’s Bedford New College.

In short, a changed environment now demands B-Schools review their identities, missions, purposes and roles, both in the education sector and broader society.
SOME KEY INTERNATIONAL CHALLENGES FACING B-SCHOOLS

Changing Organisation Forms

For B-Schools to continually adapt to changing external circumstances requires transformational/visionary leadership. Yet, universities are generally structured along classical/transactional lines, which mediate against change, especially rapid change. And, whilst there remain many types of effectiveness emanating from traditional bureaucracies, dominated by hierarchical control and authority, as Child and McGrath (2001) argue, a conventional perspective on dealing with organisational activities is now being challenged by emerging perspectives. For them, the key design challenge is building systems able to cope with paradox such as centralised vision and decentralised autonomy.

One key macro design question is whether or not B-Schools should be independent or more integrated within their universities and the extent to which they should collaborate with other faculties. And, of course, many successful world-ranking B-Schools, such as IMEDE and INSEAD, remain entirely independent accrediting institutions outside the often dysfunctional hierarchies and silos of the traditional university system. Not that such institutions are without their own challenges, including financial ones. All, however, need to review their current business models in a globally turbulent environment for the sector (Thomas and Peters, 2012; Flanagan, 2012).

At a more micro level, the need for effective governance structures is also paramount. Challenges here to academic autonomy, compared with other professionals, can create a variety of problems (Rowley and Sherman, 2003).

Add a layer of technological innovation and lower costs, as seen with the development of massive open online courses (MOOKS), and the traditional B-School production-based model will morph into a learning and knowledge network with “a much more customer-centric, ‘service-station model’ where regular top-ups of education and networking become the norm” in lifelong learning (Hawawini, G, 2005:779), though perhaps a more apt metaphor could be considered given the lack of a customer focus at many service stations!

Curriculum Reform

In the future the business school curriculum should offer students a value proposition beyond status and salary... ensure that it has a new, more exalted mission as a professional school, acting as a conscience for business and focusing on how it can contribute to creating a better world... (Fragueiro and Thomas, 2011: 5,6,7).

Spurred on by disasters such as Enron and the GFC, there is now accelerating major concern with research and teaching inadequately aligned with the needs of the business world (Cornuel (2007; Chia and Holt, 2008). This encompasses arguments for including “Executive Professors” to bring a much more real world approach into B-Schools to even out the emphasis on the importance of academic education (Clinebell and Clinebell, 2008). Or, as Bennis and O’Toole (2005:1,7) put it: “...business school faculties simply must rediscover the practice of business.” Yet, perhaps the situation is worse than this. It’s not just that B-Schools are out of touch with the real world but rather that the real world has become largely dysfunctional (with the failure of current business models) and that B-Schools have contributed to this by teaching the wrong MBA curricula (Ghoshal, 2005).

And, alongside a growing emphasis on the need to educate for soft as well as hard competencies, many are turning to non-traditional disciplines, such as calling for the provision of “a solid grounding in the humanities” (Starkey and Tempest, 2009:9). Other suggestions for reforming curriculum incorporate the following foci (Navarro, 2008): multidisciplinary integration; experiential learning; soft-skill development; a global perspective and information technology focus; and ethics and corporate social responsibility. Or, in summary, consideration across two categories: (a) What to teach – soft skills, a global mindset, values, ethics, CSR, and sustainability; and (b) How to teach – multidisciplinary, experiential, and multicampus (or cotutelle) approaches.

There is also a warning that rankings and accreditation are making for a worrying sameness rather than differentiation in curricula, especially MBAs. The nature of student outputs is consequently undifferentiated and less competent (Bennis & O’Toole, 2005). Indeed, perhaps we need a completely different kind of accreditation and ranking system – e.g. how green, sustainable, socially responsible/ environmentally considerate, etc. is the MBA.
Moreover, as the quotation at the beginning of this section suggested, there is clear concern from many in the field about educating solely for enhancing one's career and salary (e.g., Pfeffer & Fong, 2004; More & Zhuravleva, 2013). Finally, then, we see the emergence of argument for a need to infuse different value systems throughout curricula that move beyond the focus on self.

Linked with this is a movement to have management recognised as a formal profession (Fragueiro & Thomas, 2011) with all the responsibilities that this involves, including, as with medical professionals, the potential for graduates to swear an oath and to submit to the requirement for ongoing professional development as occurs with many professions. In order so to do in increasingly uncertain environments, the issue of culture becomes crucial.

**Changing B-School Cultures**

Given turbulent environments and vulnerability to unexpected events, there are calls for a change in organisational cultures, including the need for B-Schools to be “mindful”, eschewing outmoded and automatic ways of thinking and behaving, paying close attention to what is occurring, being alert to new possibilities and ensuring resilient, adaptive practices for action (Ray, Baker & Plowman, 2011). This must be matched by appropriate and innovative human resources practices:

For the schools to be responsive to ongoing market developments, administrators will need to actively manage organisational culture in ways more similar to what corporate managers have had to do… become more responsible to revenue-generating opportunities. Yet administrators face entrenched traditions and ongoing faculty expectations for shared governance. They simply cannot manage by fiat and will have to focus on nurturing faculty dialogue over external market questions. They must ask faculty to discuss and debate how they can change, not whether they will change (Seers, 2007: 565-6).

Turnbull and Edwards (2005:396) report on an Organisation Development (OD) case study within an English university, emphasising the need for major cultural change design, with findings highlighting a range of tensions needing to be managed by leaders:

- Administrative vs. faculty leadership
- Transformational leadership vs. desire for no leadership
- Managerialism vs. collegiality
- Organisational leadership vs. departmental leadership
- Business interests vs. academic freedoms
- Faculty autonomy vs. administrative control
- Pragmatism across learning and teaching vs. democratisation across teaching, research, and administration
- Leadership at the top vs. distributed leadership responsibility across the organisation.

It is noticeable that culture and climate are integral components of Fraguerio and Thomas’ (2011:174, Fig. 5.1) contextual framework for depicting strategic leadership practices:

![Figure 1: A contextual framework for understanding SLPs at business schools](image-url)
SOME KEY CHALLENGES FACING AUSTRALIAN B-SCHOOLS

As with their American counterparts, in Australia, B-Schools also face the double accusation of irrelevance in preparing students for industry and of not producing useful research ideas (Pfeffer and Fong, 2002 and 2004), whilst facing new forms of competition, increasing demands on educational outcomes and the consequences of disruptive technology (Christensen and Eyring, 2011). Our marketplace challenges us because of new marketplace needs, an unpredictable environment, new paradigms emerging in learning and teaching, outmoded rigid governance models and processes and the changing nature and expectations of students, both domestic and international. Additionally, the economic outlook from both State and Federal governments suggests cuts and severe constraints on higher education; competition between universities/faculties; plus uncertainty and fiscal challenges, resulting in a climate of increased uncertainty and policy volatility, both within and external to the sector.

A major challenge is that of technological developments with the emphasis on online education and blended learning. In a recent article, headed “Online is killing the university model”, Dodd (2013:21) argues that: “When some of the best universities in the world offer their courses online for free – and allow anyone, anywhere, with an internet connection to enrol – then it’s clear that the days of the existing university system are numbered. ... [the] average, run-of-the mill university ... should be terrified.” Certainly, such technological change, especially in terms of social media, affects not only what occurs in teaching and learning but also how B-Schools communicate with their students. On the other hand, as Thomas and Peters (2012:384) claim: “By investing in learning technologies, business schools can provide valuable, cost-effective tuition in many of the basic areas of management. This will then allow an efficient, high value-added use of faculty time as they will be able to focus on more sophisticated, complex areas of the business curriculum”, such as the soft skills so difficult for learning through online teaching.

Perhaps the key challenge is financial health in a shifting and uncertain economic landscape. Unsurprisingly, then, there are now suggestions that most business models are both unstable and unsustainable, requiring change in the economics and dynamics of business education in B-Schools. Solutions may be found in considering more equality between teaching/clinical and research faculty; in focussing on the main form of evaluation being teaching rather than research performance; introducing performance-related pay; and removing tenure (Thomas and Peters, 2012).

A more recent catchcry in Australian B-Schools is the option of looking for funding diversity. With rising costs in the sector, Government is forcing students to become increasingly responsible for funding their own education, given the pressure to decrease government funding. Alternate additional sources of funding for B-Schools exist in the opportunities provided by executive education (highly competitive) and fundraising/philanthropy (also highly competitive both within and external to the higher education sector). The latter is much more difficult than in other international countries, most notably in America, where there is a much more highly developed culture of giving to one’s alma mater, alongside a more motivational tax regime.

As if such headaches were not enough, Deans must also contend with issues such as the following:

- Accreditation/Accreditation agencies and the changing emphasis from inputs to learning outcomes
- Rankings and ratings
- Curriculum design
- Theory cf practice
- Competition locally and globally within the sector and also with alternative providers (who do not have to meet research criteria)
- Increasing marketing costs given the rise in the competitive landscape
- More alliances and partnerships to be managed
- War for talent – academics and administrators
- Internationalisation and International Engagement – the uncertainty of international student numbers and the need to grow international networks and offer international experiences
- Employer engagement
- Increasing sessional staff management
- Cross-Campus Alliances
- Governance structures
- Government and Business Relations
- Enterprise Bargaining/HR matters
Alumni – lifelong partnerships requiring more attention
- Expectations of increasing high quality relevant research and teaching with less government funding and more competition
- Increasingly sophisticated students demanding more
- Workload models often reducing teaching loads, thus having an impact on B-School finances.

B-SCHOOL DEANS AND LEADERSHIP

Deans have to engage in a true balancing act by paying attention to both outer stakeholders’ demands and inner constituencies’ needs while prioritising the school’s ultimate goal of sustainable growth (Fraguerio and Thomas, 2011:203).

One notices, both in the literature and in practice, a growing recognition of the need for different leadership in higher educational institutions. One example is Brown’s (2001:312) emphasis on transformation leadership: “This new organisational environment requires leaders who thrive on the challenge of change; who foster environments of innovation; who encourage trust and learning; and who can lead themselves, their constituents, and their units, departments, and universities successfully into the future.” Yet, ongoing inconsistent demands confronting B-Schools and having to deal with a multidirectional focus can prove challenging and often debilitating for Deans, both in Australia and internationally (Pfeffer and Fong, 2004).

In describing B-School Deans, Davies and Thomas (2009:1398) emphasise multiple identities: “... chief academic officer, CEO, entrepreneur, scholar, in the context of contested organisational identities.” They also point to multiple tensions needing skilful leadership – rigour vs. relevance, academic vs. professional practice, and scholarship vs. practice. On top of this, there is the ongoing problem of tensions between long-term strategic and short-term operational demands.

Davies and Thomas (2009), Gemelch (2004), and Starkey and Tiratsoo (2007) all emphasise a Dean’s role as ambidextrous and Janus-like, wearing numerous hats as mediators between the university executive and the faculty, challenged by financial demands, requiring new ways of organising in the dynamic and chaotic current higher education environments, a far cry from what the role demanded in the past. Such role complexity is exacerbated by the many frustrations Deans encounter. Chief among these, as Mintzberg (1983) and later Clark (2008) outline, are:
- Inflexible internal university professional bureaucracy
- Structures that prevent the type of innovation and enterprise required by B-Schools
- Performance systems that do not allow individuals to be held adequately to account
- Constraints on strategy because of concentrations on compliance with accreditation bodies
- Overly ideological academic cultures
- An inherent conservatism
- Dealing with asymmetric power
- Technologies creating impersonal communication, whilst needing to have an engaged and committed workforce
- Coping with, and thriving on, uncertainty and complexity
- Standardisation and differentiation in the marketplace
- Meeting diverse stakeholders’ interests
- Increasing complexities of university processes
- Communicating effectively for internal and external relationship management
- Brand management and increasing marketing demands
- An ongoing lack of adequate resources

Similar to partners in professional service firms, Deans have to balance university values with professional ones – the internal/external nexus, constantly challenged with individual professionals, shared power and intangibility (Fraguerio and Thomas, 2011). However, partners tend to be long-lived and retire from such positions, whilst some Deans, wanting to innovate and achieve excellence for their Faculty, simultaneously know they may return at the end of their term to the Faculty they are currently leading.
Moreover, in discussing one of the mainstays of academe, collegiality itself emerges as a two pronged sword, as Fraguerio and Thomas (2011: 186) claim: “Collegiality involves a dual challenge: providing enough room for consensus in order to preserve and promote motivation and commitment and avoiding endless debates that could jeopardise growth, causing organisational paralysis.” In Australia, the added dimension of union membership can also provide further issues needing consideration.

These challenges and cultural dimensions often mean that Deans lack the power and control existing in private companies as they are often constrained in strategic directions, innovations, and the like by the broader University Executive and competition for resources across faculties and campuses. No wonder then, that Bolman and Deal’s (2008) political frame or, more recently, the emphasis on a political approach (power and political context) and “contextual intelligence” are now deemed requisite competencies for successfully leading a B-School (Fraguerio and Thomas, 2011).

This is echoed in the growing literature in the field, with Turnbull and Edwards (2005) reporting on research evidence for collegiality to coexist with managerialism. But, as Kulati (2003:21 in Turnbull and Edwards, 2005: 401) clarifies: “The leadership challenge for strategic managerialists is to get the institution to think and act more strategically and to convince the academics that ‘being managed’, and working in an institution that is run on sound management principles, does not constitute a threat to the traditional values of academe, such as academic freedom.” Such an ongoing tension, between academic and managerial leadership, requires development of a leadership model valuing both equally and one that encourages opportunities for effective teamwork including academic leaders, managers and administrators (Yielder and Codling, 2004).

And, sadly, as many discover, brilliant academics do not necessarily make excellent Deans! So, not surprisingly, there is a growing breadth in the domains from which B-School Deans are being hired – more now from outside the traditional university sector and from industry and government.

Yukl (2012) proposed a new hierarchical taxonomy for understanding leadership behaviours and Schoemaker, Krupp, and Howland (2013: 131) suggest the key leadership skills, used together, for capitalising in unpredictable environments are: “anticipate, challenge, interpret, decide, align, and learn.” Both seem rather simplistic formulae for a complex phenomenon. Perhaps a more enhanced process model is provided by Fraguerio and Thomas (2011:124), see Figure 2 below.

What, unfortunately, results from the foregoing discussions of challenges for B-School leadership, is, however, a real sense of short-term survival mechanisms rather than the sustainable leadership approach advocated by Avery and Bergsteiner (2010).

CONCLUSION

Obsolescence is not amenable to repair. ... We need not remain passive through the environmental shift that is now unfolding, but we can effectively shape our future environment only if we see things how they are, not just how we want them to be (Seers, 2007: 564).

![Figure 2: Leadership process dynamics](image-url)
The points raised in this paper clearly demonstrate the growing complexity of the university context, a challenging organisational one within which most B-Schools have to exist, survive, and, hopefully prosper. Yet, “the more unpredictable the environment, the greater the opportunity – if you have the leadership skills to capitalise on it (Shoemaker, Krupp, and Howland, 2013: 131).” So what are some potential solutions/opportunities that B-School Deans need to be cognisant of and investigate?

First, whilst there has to be a business-like and managerialist dimension to leading, B-Schools need a new set of values and a soul so that they may be more potent in the competitive management education environment (Pfeffer and Fong, 2004). Second, an effective and sustainable approach for B-Schools to deliver on their enhanced value propositions requires a refocus on and revitalisation of current traditional models across three crucial elements operating simultaneously – the academic and economic models, and the strategic agenda (Fragueiro and Thomas, 2011).

Finally, as we see increasingly with more redundancies in the Australian university landscape, with the Bradley reforms to the marketplace, the downturn in international students, technological advances, constant competition from alternative providers and inadequate resources, the pressure to move to a more locust philosophy and management of B-Schools, rather than that of the honeybee, using Avery and Bergsteiner’s (2010) metaphor, is clearly emerging. Locust behaviours of businesses precipitated the GFC and, whilst both locust and honeybee approaches generally exist, a swing to an extreme locust approach to leading the B-School would be dysfunctional, retrograde, and must be resisted. Instead, B-Schools can and should play a crucial role in “correcting” these socially, environmentally and economically destructive behaviours.

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INTEGRAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: APPLYING AN INTEGRAL FRAMEWORK FOR INNER DEVELOPMENT OF LEADERS

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ABSTRACT

The world is in a state of creative chaos. We are going through a collective transition in terms of our economy, ecology and culture in business and society at large. This transition calls for redefining growth, success, leadership and change that is holistic and sustainable. In a world seeking to be harmonious, ethical, world centric and sustainable, transformation needs to be from within each individual and the collective. From an organisational context, the change needs to be embodied first by the leaders. This requires an inner transformation that goes beyond abilities, capacities and mindset to a shift in consciousness of the leaders themselves, which in turn will influence change at the collective teams and organisational levels. This theoretical paper discusses leadership development frameworks that are integral in approach and that include the external and internal elements of leadership. The paper provides an overview and comparison of integral approaches to leadership development and its characteristics. It also attempts to apply an integral development framework for evolving leaders using the “Telos framework” (holistic inner development based on Sri Aurobindo’s “Integral Yoga”) that maps various parts of our being (physical, vital, mental, deeper self and higher self). This emerging perspective supports leadership transformation and links to the individual leader, team, and cultural elements of the sustainable leadership pyramid.

Keywords: Integral, leadership development, consciousness, inner leadership development, evolving leader

INTRODUCTION

"The condition in which men live upon earth is the result of their state of consciousness. To want to change the conditions without changing the consciousness is vain chimera.”
(from the Works of Sri Aurobindo and The Mother)

Inspired and touched by consciousness-based development, this paper is part of an ongoing research journey to further our own development in the field of consciousness and to explore how our own inner integral development impacts behaviour and the collective space. The world is in a flux. The creative chaos that we witness globally on the economic, business, social and environmental fronts is massive and yet interesting. Transformation of this nature is the need of the hour. This transition calls for redefining:

(a) our framework and understanding of the world,
(b) our ideas of change, growth and development, and
(c) our approaches to leadership and change.

The post-modern era calls for a newer way of knowing and being (Reams, 2002). Newer paradigms are emerging that go beyond the currently observable and directly explicable to include the intangible and the subtle parameters. Newer approaches to leadership of a sustainable and holistic nature are also emerging. The current models of studying organisations are innumerable and at best provide economic, political, managerial or social viewpoints. Though there are comprehensive models and methods of studying leadership and organisations, the
studies on inner deeper realms and their influence on the individual and the collective in an organisational context are as yet emerging. The field of consciousness centred leadership, which is the development of the inner consciousness that influences the outer actions or behaviors, or integral leadership is still relatively new and emerging. Organisations and corporates and the way we do business are key areas to sustainable change and transformation in the world today. Becoming harmonious, ethical, world centric, sustainable and transformational needs to come from within each individual and the collective. From an organisational context, the change needs to be embodied first by the leaders. This requires an inner transformation that goes beyond abilities, capacities and mindset to a shift in consciousness of the leaders themselves, which in turn will influence change at the collective teams and organisational levels.

The focus of leadership development needs to go beyond skills, knowledge and becoming successful in the world to a more holistic approach to leadership. The current paper provides an overview and comparison of integral approaches to leadership development and its characteristics. It also attempts to apply an integral development framework for evolving leaders using the “Telos framework” (holistic inner development based on Sri Aurobindo’s “Integral Yoga”) that maps various parts of being (physical, vital, mental, deeper self and higher self) (Telos, 2012).

LEADERSHIP IN FOCUS – EVOLUTION OF LEADERSHIP AND EMERGING PERSPECTIVES

Leadership has been the source of more extensive investigation than almost any other aspect of human behavior (Kets de Vries, 1993, as cited in Martin and Ernst, 2005). In spite of this, the construct of leadership does not have a common and established definition to study its variation against (Barker, 1997, Higgs, 2003 as cited in Martin and Ernst, 2005). Leadership has also been going through a massive shift in paradigm and focus over the last 15 to 20 years. A snap shot is provided in Figure 1 to outline the underlying essence of leadership development over time.

Earlier theories of leadership began with the notion of leadership as something that a person is born with (Great Man Theory). Subsequently the trait and behavioral approaches emerged, which emphasised that leadership traits, qualities and behaviors can be cultivated. With the situational/contingency and path-goal theories of leadership, the context or situation emerged as another element to be considered in leadership. Around the 1970s and 1980s, leadership theories further brought out the emphasis on leader-follower relations, nature of relationship and followers’ abilities and readiness through the transactional, transformation theories of leadership (May, 2010). The evolution of leadership theories has been studied extensively from the Great Man theory to transformational and beyond. The focus in this paper will be on emerging leadership perspectives.

Emerging Perspectives of Leadership

“Becoming a leader”, says Warren Bennis, “is synonymous with becoming yourself. It is precisely that simple, and it is also that difficult” (as cited in Casserley and Critchley, 2010). When we look at the evolution of leadership theories and the emerging trends and concepts that surround leadership (from academics, empirical research to application / practitioners), it can be seen that leadership as a concept is evolving and adapting to
address the emerging needs of increasing capacities, scale, complexity, interconnectedness and depth required of today’s world and leaders. Around the 1990s, 2000s and beyond, significant and diverse concepts of leadership have emerged and the authors have categorised those under three areas (Refer Figure 1):

1) The leader themselves and the orientation they hold to self and the followers

*Level 5, Authentic Leadership, Servant Leadership, Stewardship, Value based Leadership and Open leadership.*

These concepts of leadership look upon the self, of leaders being self-aware, authentic, at the same time recognising that leadership is beyond oneself in the service of the follower of the larger good. These theories bring in an inner and outer development, but move beyond skills and behaviors to include values, qualities and service orientation. They acknowledge the collective as co-creators in the journey.

2) Leadership of larger scale, complexity and interconnectedness

*Global Leadership, e-leadership, Cross Cultural Leadership and Complexity Leadership*

These concepts address the ability of leaders to scale up their leadership across a cross-cultural, virtual, and globally connected world today. This brings enormous complexity and leaders need to adapt in order to meet the growing pace of change.

3) Leadership development that is more deep and sustainable, integrating the earlier and transcending

“More recently, there have been a number authors exploring new territory about how to look at leadership and organisations…. These explorations have ventured into areas such as consciousness, spirituality, and new scientific theories. They have taken leadership theory into new territory and help to bridge between older views of leadership and an integral approach to leadership” (Reams, 2005, pp.9).

It is this realm that is the focus and interest of the authors towards leadership development. The next few sections outline a few of the emerging concepts of this nature, explore select models (Transpersonal, Spiritual, Leadership Development - Inside – out approaches) and then describe the integral approach more in detail. Finally, the paper will also explore the Telos framework as an integral approach to leadership development and its link to sustainable leadership.

**Transpersonal leadership**

Transpersonal leadership involves transcending one’s personality that is caught on ego and going beyond the self, where leaders are interested in the needs of the collective and identify with the larger self or the entity one is part of.

‘Transpersonal Leadership’ can be defined as “The values, attitudes and behaviours necessary to intrinsically motivate one’s self and others so all have a desire to:

1. Serve others – and in so doing derive purpose and meaning in life, and
2. Establish an organisational culture whereby leaders have genuine care and concern together with appreciation and understanding for self and others (all stakeholders), while having the will, energy, aspiration and sense of doing one’s best (excellence) to achieve the highest level of performance to fulfill the organisation’s vision.” (LeaderShape Ltd, 2008, derived from Fry, 2003)

**Spiritual leadership**

As Kranzrowitz (1994) asserts “People are hungry for this kind of meaning in their lives. They are trying to integrate their spiritual selves with their professional or work lives” (as cited in Fairholm, 1996). Heerman (1995) noted “Spirituality connotes the essence of who we are, our inner selves” (as cited in Fairholm, 1996). A working definition of spiritual leadership therefore must include ideas like teaching our followers correct principles and the application of techniques that enable self-governance….It is redefining leadership in terms of service and stewardship. ….. The model is holistic, with the individual parts providing synergistic support for the whole. These model characteristics include: a) a carefully designed corporate philosophy or vision embedded in a corporate culture; b) a value of personal and other forms of development (growth) to become one’s best self; c) commitment to serving others; d) a sense of interactive, mutual trust; e) an authentic concern for people and organisational goals; f) an environment that encourages openness, fairness, individuality and creativity; g) commitment to group unity, teamwork and sharing; h) integrity in all interpersonal relationships; i) simplicity and flexibility of structure and systems; j) a process that emphasises continuing evaluation of progress” (Fairholm, 1996, pp.13).
LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT – THE INSIDE OUT APPROACH

The nature of leadership development is evolving. Leadership is adopting a more inside-out approach to development, going far beyond the competencies and skills to inner state of being. Fuhs (2008) noted "Popular leadership books put forth collective and objective realities as more important or more fundamental than other aspects of a leader’s territory". This provides a need to further explore the inner elements of individual leaders from an application angle.

“Vedic psychology explains that the single intervention of developing consciousness exerts a positive influence on the complete psychology, physiology, behaviour, and environment of the individual” (Harung, Heaton and Alexander, 1995). In their paper that studied world-class leaders accessing higher states of consciousness, they brought about a unified theory of leadership (Figure 2) where leadership was looked at as a function of development of consciousness. Their theory had four levels:

- Beneath the leadership behaviors are characteristics of leaders.
- Underlying the characteristics are stages of psychological development and
- Beneath the stages lies development of consciousness.

Higher states of consciousness, which they term transcendental consciousness are described as ‘universal self’ and ‘Holistic evolution in accordance with natural law’.

A holistic intra-individual model of a leader

The movement of leadership towards “holistic intra-individual perspective” has been considered (Campbell, 2007). She proposed a holistic framework (Figure 3) for examining leadership on the individual level which is intra-individual with the components of Being, Emotion, Cognitive and Spirituality, emphasising the inter-relationships between them as being of prime importance. The framework emphasised (a) the importance of the “Being” dimension of the human (where most of the studies focus on “Doing”) (b) the emphasis of interrelatedness and interrelationships and that (c) each dimension is “important and essential”. Each component is necessary for leadership development and no one component alone will suffice for an explanation of leadership.

INTEGRAL APPROACH

An integral approach explores leadership development from within and studies the underlying consciousness that animates behavior. As Chatterjee (1998) noted “Leadership is not a science or an art, it is a state of consciousness” and that “we can now begin to grasp the phenomenon of leadership as the field of awareness rather than a personality trait or mental attribute” (as cited in Reams, 2005; Prinsloo, 2012). This is as yet an emerging field and calls for greater clarity around the concepts and constructs of integral leadership development. According to Reams (2005), “Integral theory has as its goal to contextualize the “truth” about everything – that is, to show the domain of validity of any theory – its truth and its limitations, as well as the relationship of the theory to other theories”. “Integral reality is the world’s transparency, a perceiving of the world as truth: a mutual perceiving and imparting of truth of the world and of man and of all that transcends both” (Gebser, 1984). A core aspect of integral theory is its fundamental principle of wholeness (Reams, 2005). Integral approach recognises the individual and the collective, the exterior and the interiors and their interrelatedness (Wilber, 2000; Reams, 2005). The same is outlined in Figure 4a and 4b. The upper left hand quadrant covers the interior or intra-individual aspects of experience and is intentional. The lower left hand quadrant is the interior collective space, which is behavioral (culture, inter subjective and interpersonal domain).
The upper right hand quadrant is the exterior individual (cultural - behavioral and physical and observable sciences) and the lower right hand quadrant is the exterior collective (the social system) (Reams, 2005).

Pauchant (2005) brings out two elements to be considered in an integral approach (based on integral theory of Ken Wilber) that of width and depth. This outlines a holistic approach and also brings role of consciousness-based approach that can provide the depth dimension. According to Wilber (1996), “Consciousness is simply what depth looks like from the inside, from within. So yes depth is everywhere, consciousness is everywhere, spirit is everywhere. And as depth increases, consciousness increasingly awakens, spirit increasingly unfolds. To say that evolution produces greater depth is simply to say that it unfolds greater consciousness.”

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Leadership, Integral Approach and Consciousness

Literature, in these areas at best emphasises the emerging nature of this field of study. Research conducted attempts to explain the concepts (Reams, 2002, 2005); provide a framework and is exploratory at this stage (Pauchant, 2005; Bozesan, 2009). Although the underlying elements are similar, there is yet to be a common accepted understanding or adoption of these concepts. The concepts themselves vary across a spectrum of fields from philosophy, psychology, sociology, neurosciences to quantum physics. Reams (2005) reinforces that integral theory has as one of its core aspect as wholeness and that the other core aspect is consciousness. He brings together the concept of quadrant model, stages of development and streams of development as elements to consider in integral theory. He brings forth a distinction between “an integrally informed approach to leadership” and “integral leadership”. According to him “The integrally informed approach has a broad appeal, can be used by a wide spectrum of people, and sets the stage for some very strategic approaches to leadership development. Integral leadership in and of itself refers to a very specific level of development and set of capacities being present in a leader.”

Consciousness has been viewed differently in different disciplines (Bozesan 2009). In her work on consciousness leader, Bozesan (2009) establishes a link between conscious leaders and post-conventional levels of interior development. The study attempts to understand conscious leaders within a business context. According to Bozesan (2009) “Consciousness leadership will enable not only the development of the interior and exterior aspects of the leader but also those of society and culture in an ecologically sustainable way”. The common characteristics/indicators of consciousness leaders and development included the physical, emotional, cognitive and spiritual. “Consciousness leaders are people who evolve to higher levels of consciousness not only within their own interiorities, but who also help their cultures, societies, and environments do the same”.

“The aim of transformation and integral transformation is not a way of an escape, nor a limiting goal but the attainment of integral consciousness – which is not a piecemeal addition of different attainments; it implies a quintessential grasp of consciousness which is one and infinite – a consciousness of the whole, not a sum, however complete, of parts. .Human experience however is fragmented, piecemeal. Our thoughts, feelings, desires, physical impulses are mostly discontinuous, a stream of consciousness where various movements interrupt each other in an unsteady flow which we take for granted. To such an experience, the idea of integral consciousness seems illusory or presumptuous. The project of the yoga of integral transformation is to find a process by which human beings can arrive at an integral consciousness and an integral action of that
consciousness in the world, thereby experiencing a divine life. ... it is important to emphasise that such a process cannot but be existential and experiential and hence experimental in each case” (Banerji, 2012, 34-35, 39).

**Comparison of integral, consciousness and other models of development**

Adapted from the extensive conceptual study done by Prinsloo (2012), the consciousness and integral models are presented below in Table 1 as a comparison. Putz and Raynor’s model of integral leadership has been added. These models position integral as a stage in development, the indicators of the emergence of which are already appearing. It also positions a movement beyond the self (transpersonal view) and integrates the earlier stages. The current paper also outlines another view of integrality which is holistic and aligned. (This is also posited earlier through an inside – out approach). One such theory is Integrative leadership by Hatala and Hatala (2005). Hatala and Hatala (2005) (as cited in McInnes 2009) defined integrative leadership as “a wholistic approach to leading oneself and others in a reflective, conscious, thoughtful and responsive way”. They noted that “developing a natural capacity to see multiple perspectives – on any given subject, object, problem, situation or decision – is essential for successfully walking the path of integrative life and leadership”. Their Integrative Leadership Model (See Table 2) uses the shorthand 4-3-2-1, where four represents the four domains of intelligence; three represents three levels of awareness; two reflects our ability and power to choose; and one reflects our ultimate integration or oneness. Living in integration means being aware of the sacred presence in life by experiencing or acknowledging (as cited in McInnes, 2009). Integrative leadership represents another fundamental shift in leadership theory. The other model that focuses on integral as a holistic approach is the Telos framework described in detail in a later section.

**Table 1: Comparison of integral, consciousness and other models of development**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Graves memes / world views</th>
<th>Wilber’s (&amp; Gebser’s) Integral AQAL model</th>
<th>Maslow’s need hierarchy</th>
<th>Kegan six equilibrium stages of evolving self</th>
<th>May’s Whirl model on consciousness development</th>
<th>Putz and Raynor Levels of Self Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I survive</td>
<td>Sensoi-physical Instinctual</td>
<td>Physiological</td>
<td>Incorporative (reflexes)impulsive impulsive (impulses, perceptions)</td>
<td>Reactive: impulsive</td>
<td>1) Impulsive “I” am my impulses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beige</td>
<td>Reptilian mind (Magic)</td>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>Reactive: impulsive rule bound</td>
<td>Reactive: rule bound</td>
<td>Interpersonal “I” am defined by my relationships and social roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We belong Purple</td>
<td>Phantasnic-emotional Reptilian mind</td>
<td>Belonging</td>
<td>Imperial (needs, interests desires)</td>
<td>Reactive: rule bound</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We conform Blue</td>
<td>Rule/role mind (Mythic)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Reactive: rule bound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We control Red</td>
<td>Egocentric (Mental)</td>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>Imperial</td>
<td>Intentional: Individualistic</td>
<td>Egocentric “I” am my needs and desires, take the perspective of others, but solely driven by self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orange</td>
<td>Formal reflexive Achieving self</td>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>Imperial</td>
<td>Intentional: Interpersonal</td>
<td>Autonomous “I” create my own identity, inclusive of but not defined by my roles, relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We relate Green</td>
<td>Vision logic Sensitive self (Integral)</td>
<td>Self-actualization</td>
<td>Inter-individual (the inter-penetrability of self-systems)</td>
<td>Intentional: Interdependent Integrative</td>
<td>Integral “I” am a continually evolving person aware of development in myself and others, flexible sense of identity, embraces complexity and paradox</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn Yellow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We experience Turquoise</td>
<td>Psychic Holistic self</td>
<td>Self-transcendence</td>
<td>Integrative: Transcendent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-dual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adapted from “Consciousness Models in Action: Comparisons” by Prinsloo, 2012, Integral leadership Review, August 2012. Extended by the authors to include other models (Reams, 2005).
Table 2: 4-3-2-1 Integrative Leadership Model (Hatala & Hatala, 2005, McInnes, 2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4 domains of intelligence</th>
<th>3 Levels of awareness</th>
<th>2 choices</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Physical reflects body, mind and soul</td>
<td>• Conscious (literal)</td>
<td>Individual’s ability and will to choose the process of integration</td>
<td>Ultimate integration or oneness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Mental – mind, reflection, awareness</td>
<td>• Subconscious (dual &amp; paradoxes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Emotional – sensations and feelings</td>
<td>• Superconscious levels (interconnectedness &amp; unity)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Spiritual – sacred presence in life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary and Rationale for the Integral Approach

Integral has been used for two approaches:
1) An holistic approach that includes all elements
2) Emergence of a new structure or stage that is integral.

Though there is not a unified agreed view or definition of integral approach, some of the essence of this approach includes the following:
- Integrality is about the “truth” of things
- It takes a Holistic view - recognises the individual and the collective, the exterior and the interior and includes the physical, emotional, cognitive and spiritual components to be integral.
- Makes it Non-divisive and inclusive
- Integration of work and life – work and life are extensions and are integrated
- Spirituality at work – acknowledges one’s unique being at work
- Essence of development from within, that impacts and transforms the outside
- Recognises the systems approach – of the individual interlinked with the larger whole/ collective

It’s for the above that the authors were interested and explored the integral approach to leadership development.

INTEGRAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Some of the characteristics to further understand this approach to leadership development are outlined in Table 3 below. The table has been adapted from the work of Harung, Heaton and Alexander (1995) on development towards leadership. The authors have extended the columns to include the worldview, perspectives and essence of leadership development in the light of the emerging perspectives.

Table 3: Development towards transformative, evolving, transpersonal, integral leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Development towards Leadership</th>
<th>&gt; Development towards transformative, evolving, transpersonal, integral, sustainable leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technician</td>
<td>&gt; Strategist &gt; Transformative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactive</td>
<td>&gt; Proactive and preventive &gt; Includes awareness, presence and intuition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part</td>
<td>&gt; Whole &gt; Synergy and Systems thinking/ perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>&gt; Collaboration &gt; Collaboration and Harmony</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short-term</td>
<td>&gt; Long term &gt; Long term – Holistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent to feedback</td>
<td>&gt; Welcoming feedback &gt; Goes beyond to include feedback from larger collective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Path following (conventional)</td>
<td>&gt; Path finding (post-conventional) &gt; Evolutionary path (co creating) (integrative)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency (doing things right)</td>
<td>&gt; Effectiveness, performance (doing right things) &gt; Sustainable as pre requisite for performance (doing sustainable things)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureaucratic administrator</td>
<td>&gt; Leader &gt; Integrates Individual and collective, aligning with deeper purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive (“Win-lose”)</td>
<td>&gt; Collaborative (“Win-win”) &gt; Collective and holistic (“win-win-win”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>&gt; Collective &gt; Servant, Stewardship, transformative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Outside – In’ development</td>
<td>&gt; ‘Inside – Out’ view of development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“By Me” Leadership</td>
<td>&gt; “Through Me” Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success</td>
<td>&gt; Truth, Goodness, beauty, harmony and perfection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills and competencies</td>
<td>&gt; Underlying state of being / consciousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One size fits all set of competencies</td>
<td>&gt; Holistic Integration of Physical, Emotion, Cognition and Spirit; Individual, Collective, Culture and Context</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adapted from Harung, Heaton and Alexander (1995) on their view of development towards leadership. Extended by the authors to include development towards transformative, evolving, transpersonal, integral, sustainable leadership (Manoj and Arul Dev, 2010, Reams, 2005, Casserley and Critchley, 2010, Conscious Leadership Forum, 2013)
Exploring the Telos model as an integral framework for leadership development

The authors in this paper take the approach of using the Telos Model and exploring it as a tool for integral leadership development. Detailed below is an overview of Telos - An Integral Map of our Being. “Telos is a model of consciousness and its evolutionary journey, based on the pioneering work of Sri Aurobindo, a philosopher yogi and well known spiritual master of India who articulated an integral perspective nearly a century ago. Telos has in focus the evolutionary transformation of the individual who is the agent of change in groups in the context of a global evolutionary transformation, a core theme in Sri Aurobindo’s work. Its experiential and experimental base is in the explorations of integral yoga, a transformational practice developed by Sri Aurobindo. Telos is a Greek word meaning ‘study of purpose’ and it is the evolutionary purpose seen from a scientific psycho-spiritual perspective which is in focus” (Manoj and Arul Dev, 2010).

The Telos Model provides an Integral framework, a map of transformation of the human being through the methodology of Integral Yoga. It is at once a map of the terrain of consciousness and a framework for transformational practice both individual and collective. The model focuses on different parts of our being, the nature and workings of the instrumental layers - physical, vital and mental (PVM), the subconscious and the two poises of the spirit – Inner Guide (referred in Telos as the Deeper Self) and the transcendental (referred as the Higher Self). Each part is influenced by the other parts, and there are healthy and limiting manifestations. The Deeper poise, which is our own inner psychological core, is the true leader of our lives that is connected to the larger oneness.

Integral is when the different parts of the being are aligned and centered in one’s own deeper self, allowing for the inner center to govern thoughts, emotions and body – influencing our outer actions and behavior. In the path of Telos, the goal is not only awareness but a transformation of our mind, life and action. Some of the core essences similar to other integral approaches include:

- ascending and integrating
- presence and recognition of a true central inner guide that influences our actions and behaviors
- harmony and alignment of different parts of our being with the deeper self as the center

THE PARTS: PHYSICAL, VITAL, MENTAL, SPIRITUAL

(Source: Collected works of Sri Aurobindo; Telos, 2012)

1. **Mental Part of being (Mind):** The mind is the reasoning, cognising and thinking part of our being. The mind itself is sub-divided into three parts as detailed below. It is important that the three parts of the mind need to be fully developed and function harmoniously for a coordinated mental functioning and direction.
   - **Pure Mind:** Its function is to think, perceive and live by intelligence and reason. This is the part of the mind that is involved with pure reason, logic, cognition, intelligence, ideas, thought perceptions, perspectives, mental vision, world views and mental will. This includes the ability to stand back and grasp the core essence or underlying principles of what is being observed.
   - **Vital Mind:** The vital mind plans, dreams, imagines, speculates, creatively visualises or makes formations. Not satisfied with the actual experience, it constantly seeks to extend the limits of experience. It is the dealer of unrealised possibilities and new worlds and a passion of novelty.
   - **Physical Mind:** This is the part of the mind that is in contact with the outer life and the physical reality. The communication is two ways through this channel of the mind – the inflow and the outflow of practical knowledge, data and information either through speech, word or sensory data.

2. **Vital Part of Being (Vital):** Vital means ‘prana’, which is the life-force or desire-force that links mind and physical and animates actions. Translating the vision and ideas into action and manifesting them into life requires working with people and facing day-to-day transactions. This brings into play the whole vital field of emotions, power, passion, desire and enjoyment. The vital is subdivided into three main parts:
   - **Higher Vital:** This is the domain of the emotions – of love, joy, hope, longing, grief, pity, sorrow, hatred, bonding, care, togetherness, affection, gratitude and goodwill.
   - **Central Vital:** This is the center of stronger vital longings and reactions. This is the domain of dynamic energy, power, courage, heroism, ambition, pride, passion, quest for fame and status. This part of our vital is the “dynamic energy” or “power” and for manifestation - self and larger scale.
   - **Lower Vital:** This is the domain of desire, enjoyment of the senses, enjoyment of food, sexual desire, physical comforts and fear; seeking variety, sensory pleasure and enjoyment.
3. **Physical Part of Being (Physical):** The essential nature of the physical is self-preservation, persistence, stability, routine, passivity, repetition and inertia. The body learns through habitual repetitions and once established, it is difficult to forget. The formula of bringing in change in our human body is repetition. This domain seeks habit formation, persistence and stability in our actions and in the physical manifestation.

4. **Spiritual : The Deeper Self and the Higher Self**
   In Telos we highlight two centres of the spiritual:
   - **Deeper Self:** This is the inner being, the inner guide, the representation of the Spirit. This self is beneath the physical, vital and mental (PVM); supporting and transforming each to its truest potential in harmony. The Deeper Self is the true leader and the seat of one’s own unique nature and purpose. The Deeper Self spontaneously points out, from within, to what represents Truth, Goodness, Beauty, Love, Purity and Harmony in our lives. Connecting with deeper self brings in pure devotion, deep sense of gratitude, unconditional self-giving and surrender. The deeper self is relatable to other terms used in the Western and Eastern philosophy. Rowan (2012) noted that “The subtle is the realm of the soul” and that often the soul is suspect, due to its different associations and dogmas. He also provides a list of synonyms for the soul: namely, ‘Higher Self’, ‘Inner Teacher’, ‘Deep Self’, ‘Heart’, ‘Transpersonal Self’, ‘Genius’, ‘Daimon’, ‘Guidance Self’, ‘Higher Intuitive Self’, ‘Archetype of the Self’, ‘Guardian Angel’, ‘Wise Being’, ‘Bliss’, ‘Savikalpa’, ‘Luminosity’, ‘Psychic centre’.
   - **Higher Self:** The spirit or higher self is the true central being that is above all nature, physical, vital and mental. It is the self that is not affected by the evolution but still supports it. It is one in all, always free, wide, pure and untouched. Its essential nature is peace, freedom, light, wideness, universality, and oneness.

The Telos model provides a map and a method to a holistic development. Leaders have different parts of their being – physical, vital, mental, deeper self and higher self. All these parts are operational beneath ones behaviour and actions – at various levels of development and maturity. The health of these parts of being (instrumental parts, deeper self and higher self) influences the quality of the leaders actions and behaviors, in turn influencing the collective. In integral transformation, key components for a leader is aligning and centring each of our parts of being with the deeper self, nurturing one’s unique nature and enabling manifestation of truth, goodness, beauty and harmony in the individual and collective.

If a leader works on his or her behaviour, actions or styles there will be some change in their leadership. If they can work upon their instrumental parts of being they enhance their fundamental potentials and faculties to the fullest and have a greater degree of clarity, inclusivity, reach and effectiveness of their outer actions and behaviors. If they can touch their deeper and higher self they can bring in more of their unique inner nature; sense their life purpose and essential purpose of the organisation; bring in the presence of truth, goodness, beauty and perfection in self, teams and organisations. The leader then becomes an evolving leader; capable of living life aligned with deeper aspirations, nurturing others towards the same and yet excelling and succeeding doing quality work and gaining goodwill. The journey of an evolving leader is one that constantly evolves and requires a certain level of readiness, ability, will or aspiration to evolve; excel to one’s true potential; and be motivated towards a more sustainable focus not only for self but to manifest it in the outer world.

**IMPLICATIONS FOR SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP**

The approach to leadership development needs to be different and more suited to the emerging new order (Casserly and Critchley, 2010). Their view of developing ‘sustainable leadership’ extends over a number of levels

- at a personal level - sustaining personal health (psychological and physiological)
- at an organisational level - sustaining a work environment that enables people to realise their own potential in the service of organisational purposes (seen as worthwhile and sufficiently congruent with their own sense of personal)
- at a sociological level - playing a responsible part in the broader community.
- at an ecological level – that of sustaining the environment

The integral approach and Telos framework lends to such a view as it integrates and aligns the different parts of being, recognises the larger system that we are a part of and reinforces bringing forth truth, goodness, beauty, harmony and perfection. An integral approach sits beneath the four levels of sustainability and begins with the individual transformation of the physical, vital and mental. More importantly the alignment of these practices to the deeper purpose of the individual and the collective is sustainable in itself.
FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND CONCLUSION

This paper is part of an ongoing research project that endeavours to open a field of research that focuses on the objective and subjective elements of change and development of leadership – using an integral approach to development. From a leadership context:

- To build awareness of an integral and consciousness-based approach to leadership development into mainstream organisational behaviour and context
- To provide a framework/model and approach for leaders to be aware of their inner development and also be aware of their influence on the collective team and space.
- To explore tools, behaviour and a practice that leaders can apply towards a holistic development.

While there are challenges in applying consciousness or integral theory, the transformation that is needed in today’s organisation and leaders is real and urgent. It starts from the individual leaders themselves and yet needs to sit in the larger context of the collective organisation, culture, system and the world at large. The integral approach provides a deeper understanding of us, others and the world. Though an emerging field which is yet to receive widespread acceptance in the empirical or organisational space, it indicates a potential to enable transformation of a sustainable nature.

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DEANS’ PERCEPTIONS ABOUT LONG TERM RETENTION OF ACADEMIC STAFF

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ABSTRACT

Skilled and committed staff is the greatest asset for any organisation. Nevertheless, as a result of the proliferation of newly established public and foundation universities in Turkey, long-established public universities face the challenge of retaining their experienced academic staff. In view of the fact that long term retention of staff is one of the foundation practices of sustainable leadership, the aim of this explorative study is to understand the deans’ perceptions of long term retention of academic staff. The participants were a total of 10 professors who were either serving or have served as deans of Turkish universities. The results from in-depth interviews were presented under the broad categories of: (a) reasons for leaving a public university; (b) evaluations about the results of leaving public universities; (c) solutions for the barriers to academic staff retention. Implications for future research are also discussed.

Key words: staff retention, academic staff, deans, universities

INTRODUCTION

The Turkish higher education system is one of the largest higher education systems in the world with 4,315,836 students and 118,839 teaching staff in total (ÖSYM, 2012). Upper bodies of this system are The Council of Higher Education (hereafter YÖK) and The Inter-university Council (hereafter ÜAK). YÖK is responsible for planning, coordination, governance and supervision of higher education, while ÜAK is responsible for some academic matters as an academic advisory and a decision making body (Özcan, 2011). As is clear from these definitions, the Turkish higher education system is a highly centralised and mandated structure (Mizikaci, 2003), so much so that rectors are appointed by the President of the Turkish Republic from among the candidates after the completion of rectoral elections in universities (Özcan, 2011).

All academic staff are civil servants and, except for research assistants and assistant professors, they all have tenure (Aksaray University, 2013). In this centralised system, salaries of the academic staff are also decided by the government (Mizikaci, 2006).

In addition to public universities, there are also foundation universities of non-profit foundations. Although they are free to manage their own affairs in accordance with the decisions of their trustees, they are still required to conform to the Turkish Higher Education Law and the appointment of their rectors is subject to the approval of YÖK (Özcan, 2011). These universities create their own income sources earning largely from student fees. They can receive state subsidies as well (Mizikaci, 2006).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The Turkish higher education system is increasingly flourishing. As an example, the number of state universities is 53 in 2001 and 103 in 2011. The first foundation university was established in 1984 and the total number of foundation universities reached 62 in 2011 (Günay and Günay, 2011). This astounding proliferation of universities also has a great impact on the long-established public universities. Because the academic development process takes years, the existing academic staff of long-established universities have become a great resource for the newly established ones. It is a widely known fact that some public universities are not able to launch doctoral programs any longer, because of their staff deficiency.

Pienaar and Bester (2008) argue that although labor turnover can provide some advantages for higher education institutions, its disadvantages outweigh the advantages. So, universities should attempt to retain as many employees as possible. This judgment sounds reasonable given the fact that turnover is associated with
“potentially serious institutional problems such as faculty dissatisfaction, loss of talent, non-competitive salaries, and negative organisational climate” (Zhou, 2003, p.13). Under these conditions, the educational administrators of the long-established universities may be expected to push the limits of their authorities and create attractive working conditions to retain their staff. However, the Turkish higher education system has a highly centralised and rigid structure (OECD, 2003; World Bank, 2007; Estermann and Nokkala, 2009) and it is quite apparent that the educational administrators are deprived of formal authority in the face of staff turnover.

Because academic staff turnover in long established universities is now an acute problem, there is a need to understand educational administrators’ perceptions about academic turnover in depth. As a result, the aim of this explorative study is to develop an understanding by answering these questions: “What are the perceptions of deans regarding the phenomenon of academic turnover and what solutions can they offer?”

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms were defined for the purpose of this study.
Dean: A full professor who works as the head of a university faculty.
Former dean: A full professor who previously worked as the head of a university faculty.
Public University: A state university, which charges its students either no fees or relatively low fees (for the evening programs).
Foundation University: A University of a non-profit foundation. Although this term suggests a free university education, they may charge fees at varying rates.

RESEARCH METHOD

The method of conducting in depth interviews was chosen to collect the data for this study. Patton explains the rationale of interviewing saying: “We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe” (p.340) and adds that: “The purpose of interviewing, then, is to allow us to enter into the other persons’ perspective” (Patton, 2002, p. 341). After considering possible ways to conduct the study, this approach to data collection seemed appropriate in order to reach an understanding of the phenomenon from the perspectives of the deans.

Data Collection

Although it was planned to have interviews with 8 participants because of the time limitation of the researcher, thanks to the opportunity he had later, this study was realised with the help of 10 participants, nine of whom were male and only one of whom was female. These participants were from three different universities located in a central Anatolian city of Turkey. While eight participants were deans of faculties, two participants were former deans with considerable experience in this role.

The interview process was completed in February 2013. At the onset of the study, the participants were given written consent forms created according to the form content listed by Creswell (2003). This form was intended to reveal the issues of audio recording for the purpose of transcription and participants’ rights, such as withdrawal from the study whenever they want.

After building rapport at the beginning of each in-depth interview with these 10 participants, three open-ended questions were posed to elicit their evaluations. Seven of the interviews were digitally recorded and detailed notes were taken for the interviews of those who refused tape recording. The interviews were approximately 30 minutes in duration. The questions were as follows:
1. Could you please tell me about your observations about the reasons why an academic leaves his or her university for another one.
2. What are the consequences of academic turnover?
3. Do you have any solutions for improving academic staff retention?

ANALYSIS OF DATA

In order to reach an understanding of the phenomenon, the content of the recorded interviews was transcribed verbatim. In this phase of the study, Dikte (a Turkish speech recognition product) was used for transcription. The transcription, coding and translation were carried out by the author himself trying to reflect the exact meaning of the statements. The researcher began the process of analysis by reading through the transcriptions
twice in order to immerse in the data. The coding strategy was very similar to that identified by Coffey and Atkinson (1996): “to start from the foreshadowed research question that inspired the research project” (p.32). Within this scope, the author used the interview questions (created in harmony with the research question) as broad categories and then formed sub-categories by coding the transcriptions. The frequencies were specified at the end of each sub-category.

RESULTS

Results of the interviews are presented in three broad categories: (1) Reasons for leaving a public university; (2) Evaluation of the results of leaving public universities; (3) Suggestions for improving academic staff retention.

Reasons for leaving a public university

The participant evaluations about the reasons for leaving universities can be collected under three headings: (a) reasons for leaving a public university either for a public or for a foundation university; (b) reasons for leaving a public university for another public university and (c) reasons for leaving a public university for a foundation university. The latter headings (b and c) cover the factors unique to either newly established public universities or foundation universities, while the first heading (a) is made up of the factors effective in leaving long established universities regardless of the type of receiving university.

Reasons for leaving a public university either for a public or for a foundation university

The reasons for leaving a public university either for a public or for a foundation university are as follows:

1. Monetary advantages (10 participants)
2. Taking up an assistant professorship position (8 participants)
3. Mandatory retirement age (4 participants)
4. Lack of institutionalisation (2 participants)

When we look closer at the perceived reasons for leaving a public university, either for another public university or for a foundation university, the most frequently mentioned theme was the monetary advantages offered by the receiving university (10 participants). Some public universities, especially the newly established ones, are located in the underdeveloped areas of Turkey and the state pays higher salaries in order to encourage the academics to take charge in these smaller universities. The foundation universities, in turn, offer much higher salaries to academics and, in some cases, astronomical transfer fees to those who have proven themselves in their field of study. Most academics tend to wait for their retirement date in order to receive both a retirement pension from the state and a salary from the foundation university. Not only the experienced academics, but also some younger PhD holders find the foundation universities more lucrative, given the fact that in some faculties of the public universities (e.g. the faculties of Engineering or Medicine), it is not unusual that fresh graduates may earn higher salaries than their teachers.

The second frequently mentioned theme was the problem of getting an assistant professorship position (8 participants). Because of the highly centralised higher education system of Turkey, public universities cannot determine the numbers of their academic positions on their own and have to distribute the assistant professorship positions in accordance with the resolutions of YÖK. As a result it can take quite a number of years for a doctor research assistant to take up a position of assistant professor. Those who do not have the luxury of waiting for years may either head towards the public universities in underdeveloped areas or apply to the foundation universities, some of which are desperate to set up their academic cadres as soon as possible.

Mandatory retirement age was the third frequently mentioned theme as a reason for turning towards both newly established public universities and foundation universities (4 participants). In Turkish public universities mandatory retirement age is 67 for professors. If they agree to work in newly established public universities, they can continue until they reach the age of 72. However, in foundational universities there is not any age limit for those who wish to continue their academic studies.

Although it was mentioned only by two participants, the interviews revealed the fact that lack of institutionalisation may play a role in leaving a public university as well (2 participants).

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22 The concept of “institutionalization” is used here to mean the development of organizational processes in order to make organizations work independently from personal attitudes and practices (Bezirci, n.d.).
Reasons for leaving a public university for another public university

The probable causes of leaving a public university for another public university are as follows:
1. Living in a city of their choice (8 participants)
2. Need for a peaceful working atmosphere (6 participants)
3. Taking administrative roles (5 participants)
4. Need for joining a prolific team (3 participants)
5. Academics’ need for monetary resources and research facilities (2 participants)
6. Friendship relationships (1 participant)
7. Need to be with people of the same worldview (1 participant)
8. Rectors’ tendency to develop and improve their own departments (1 participant)
9. Academic staff needs of newly established universities (1 participant)
10. After rectoral elections, the losing candidate’s quest for new opportunities (1 participant)

In this category the most frequently mentioned theme was the academics’ preference for living in a city of their choice (8 participants). Some academics prefer to leave their universities to be able to live and work in their hometowns while for others, better educational opportunities for their high-school age children play an essential role. In some cases, the reason is just to live in a metropolitan or naturally beautiful, scenic, seaside city.

The second most frequently mentioned theme was the need to leave behind a hostile work environment to find a more peaceful atmosphere (6 participants). Such conflicts were reported to arise either during the course of routine workplace interactions or as a result of having backed the losing candidate in the rectoral elections.

Another frequently mentioned theme was some academics’ intentions to take administrative roles in newly established public universities (5 participants). The reason behind this intention may be either the attractiveness of such positions per se, or their determination to create the working environment they dreamed of.

Academics’ need to join a prolific team was mentioned as a theme as well (3 participants). Those who do not find a harmonious study atmosphere in their universities may head towards alternative universities where they can improve their skills and augment their academic achievements.

Another theme was the academics’ need for monetary resources and research facilities to conduct their studies (2 participants). Some public universities attract academics thanks to their relatively rich monetary resources and laboratories without which it is impossible to conduct any research in some fields.

Reasons for leaving a public university for a foundation university

The probable reasons for leaving a public university for a foundation university are as follows:
1. Academics’ need to be appreciated (2 participants)
2. Sense of security of being entitled to pension (2 participants)
3. Comfortable physical conditions (1 participant)
4. Academics’ self-confidence to achieve success in a for-profit institution (1 participant)

A prominent theme among the reasons for leaving a public university for a foundation university was the need to be appreciated. Two former deans of public universities articulated their feelings about being in a foundation university after long years of service in a public university. They seemed to be impressed by the foundation universities’ efforts to retain their qualified academic staff and emphasised the appreciation and esteem they feel for them. Another prominent theme was the academics’ sense of security relating to pension entitlements. As was explicitly mentioned by two participants, this security enables the academic to test himself or herself in unfamiliar work settings. If the test goes badly, the retirement pension is enough to maintain their lives.

Evaluation of the results of leaving public universities

The participants’ evaluations regarding academics’ leaving public universities subdivided into two subcategories: (a) favorable evaluations and (b) unfavorable evaluations.

Favorable evaluations
1. A better working place with all the proper conditions to realise their potential (7 participants)
2. The foundation universities also serve the country in the fields of research and training (5 participants)
3. Useful in terms of providing experience to academics and broadening their viewpoints (3 participants)
4. The need for being appreciated could be satisfied only in profit oriented institutions (2 participants)
5. Universities’ competition for qualified academics brings quality (1 participant)
6. Overemployment problem of some departments can be eliminated in this way (1 participant)
7. The academic culture of prestigious universities can be spread in this way (1 participant)

The participants articulated their beliefs that, given the conditions of some public universities, sometimes it could be best for an academic to shift to a foundation university, not only for his or her interests but also for the good of the society he or she serves. The most frequently mentioned reason for this approach was the belief that in order to realise their potential both as a teacher and a researcher, an academic should find a working place with all the proper conditions (7 participants).

Another obvious reason why the participants did not have a negative attitude towards the shifts to foundation universities was their belief that the foundation universities serve the country in the fields of research and training (5 participants). The fact that foundation universities are subject to the same laws regulating Turkish higher education seemed to lead the participants to take a positive attitude rather than a competitive point of view towards them.

Some participants were obviously in favor of voluntary withdrawal (3 participants). They hoped that it would be useful in terms of providing experience to academics and broadening their viewpoints. These participants tend to give preference to some prestigious universities in this respect. Lastly, two participants spoke highly of the new trend for leaving public universities in favour of foundation universities on the grounds that the need to be appreciated could be satisfied only in profit oriented institutions. These participants were former deans of public universities and after their retirement they joined a foundation university. One of them spoke mainly about being tired of the nerve-wracking organisational politics of his former workplace, while the other one talked about the joy he found in being in a challenging work atmosphere – an experience that was new to him.

Unfavorable evaluations
1. If the academics quit their posts all together, it could take a toll on their former departments (5 participants).
2. Foundation universities did not contribute to the training process of academics (2 participants).
3. Academics would have some difficulties realising their potential in those institutions (2 participants).
4. Public universities offer a free service to the public, so they should not be weakened (1 participant).

The participants in this study touched upon the undesired results of academics’ voluntary withdrawals as well. Their accounts revealed that if the academics quit their posts altogether it could take a toll on their former departments (5 participants). When this is the case, some departments try to maintain their educational activities by appointing their research assistants as temporary instructors. In some other instances, departments could not launch doctoral programs due to lack of full professors in the necessary numbers.

Two participants who have a negative impression of foundation universities considered the issue from a different angle. They believed that these institutions did not contribute to the training process of academics. To top it all, they were practicing unfair competition against public universities by dispossessing them of their qualified staff. The same participants with a negative impression of foundation universities argued that academics would have some difficulties in realising their potential in those institutions. Most foundation universities lacked sophisticated laboratory facilities needed for high quality scientific research. Another concern was that the academics would avoid asking challenging questions in exams because they work for profit-oriented organisations.

Solutions for improving academic staff retention
First and foremost it must be noted that almost all the participants (9 participants), articulated their views that educational administrators in public universities lacked monetary resources and authority to create appealing working conditions in order to retain their qualified academic staff. When asked to suggest solutions to the problem of losing academic staff, their comments revealed a variety of strategies, which should be taken into consideration. The solutions offered are as follows:
1. YÖK should take some steps to solve the academics’ problem of income inadequacy (3 participants).
2. YÖK should adopt a performance-related pay system to pay more satisfying salaries (2 participants).
3. The deans should make their academic staff feel valued and esteemed (3 participants).
4. Offering high-quality research facilities, which the academics would be reluctant to leave (2 participants).
5. Splitting all the public universities into the categories of research universities and teaching universities (2 participants).
6. The deans should try to prevent “interpersonal hostilities” in departments (1 participant).
7. The newly retired professors should not be dispossessed of their office rooms; on the contrary, they should be given the opportunity to teach some courses (1 participant).
8. Instead of their political views, their academic performance should be taken into consideration (1 participant).
9. Institutionalisation should be achieved (1 participant).
10. Autonomy of individual academics should be respected (1 participant).
11. Academics’ sense of belonging should be strengthened (1 participant).

Because the conditions of public higher education are determined centrally in Turkey, some participants suggested that YÖK should take steps to solve the academics’ problem of income inadequacy (3 participants). Earning less than their newly graduated former students could have a negative effect on academics’ willingness to keep on working in a public university. In connection with this, two other participants suggested that YÖK should adopt a performance-related pay system to provide more satisfying salaries to those who achieved higher success either in teaching or research.

One remarkable suggestion was that the deans should make their academic staff feel valued and esteemed in their work atmosphere (3 participants). Three participants who had formerly worked in public universities said, that none of their educational administrators asked why they leave their universities during the early days of their retirement process. One participant emphasised that the deans’ efforts to honor their staff could be more effective than monetary solutions because it provides more consistent results compared with monetary rewards.

Apart from these solutions, participants spoke about YÖK-level actions regarding working conditions as well. In this context, prominent suggestions involved offering high-quality research facilities which the academics would be reluctant to leave (2 participants), or splitting all the public universities into the categories of research universities and teaching universities (2 participants). If these arrangements were made, the academics who are content with their productivity could not think of leaving public universities just for the sake of money.

DISCUSSION

One of the obvious conclusions drawn from the findings is that the highly centralised and rigid structure of the Turkish higher education system is a barrier to the retention of qualified academic staff in public universities. Deans with limited authority are not able to offer staff positions to those needed in the faculties and could not prevent the loss of qualified professors who reached mandatory retirement age. Because all the academic and administrative staff of public universities are employed according to Higher Education Personnel Law No: 2914, there is a lack of an efficient performance evaluation system for the academics. Consequently, those who give an outstanding performance feel neither any informal or formal acknowledgement, nor do they get any salary promotion in their work environments. On the other hand, it should be noted that some of these problems are not limited to the highly centralised Turkish case. As Sanderson, Phua, and Herda (2000) showed, low salaries and a simple need for new challenges were important factors when academics considered a career change even in the decentralised system of the USA. This universal phenomenon can be readily explained by content motivation theories. In this context, faculty members’ monetary needs could be seen as one of the physiological needs in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1943); or existence needs in Alderfer’s ERG theory (as cited in Koo and Weihrich, 2006); or hygiene factors in Herzberg’s Two-factor theory (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1993). In the same vein, a challenging work experience could be seen as one of Maslow’s self-actualization needs, Alderfer’s growth needs and Herzberg’s motivators. No wonder, when these emphasised needs are unmet, it is almost impossible to retain high caliber staff in public universities.

Another interesting result of the study was that, although it is anticipated that an educational administrator would be uncomfortable with the loss of his or her academic staff, in this study almost all participants expressed favorable opinions about the phenomenon. This is partly because they knew they lacked the authority to create the needed working conditions for the staff. It is quite obvious that the system of higher education in Turkey is not able to meet the needs of society and the economy because of its highly centralised structure (The World Bank, 2007). It has been recommended that this overly regulative YÖK-based system is changed. (Şimşek and Adgünzel, 2012). In this context the recurring theme that academics should find a working place with all the proper conditions to realise their potential gives the impression that the participants give priority to the academics’ and the public interests instead of the prestige of their faculties.

When it comes to the solution offered, two approaches stand out. Firstly, the participants expect YÖK to take radical steps. Although good leadership is commonly regarded as a vital factor for the retention of core employees (Chew, 2004), given the highly centralised structure of the Turkish higher education system the participants’ tendency to focus on YÖK-level solutions before the issue of leadership skills is very
understandable. In the second place, they spoke to dean-level practices such as making the staff feel valued and esteemed or creating a warmer work atmosphere. These practices require limited authority and budgets but considering the causes of academic turnover mentioned, it is apparent that these solutions would fall short of meeting the needs of such highly complicated institutions.

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that it is personal needs that cause academics to leave their long-established universities. In addition the highly centralised, YÖK-based system deprives the deans of the authority they need to retain high caliber staff. Future research should consider academics’ views about an academic employment model suitable to the peculiar conditions of Turkey. It appears that, without a well thought out system, none of the higher education institutions can provide a remedy for academics that need to realise their full potential.

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SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP IN THE EVENTS INDUSTRY: ASSESSING THE POTENTIAL OF HONEYBEE APPROACHES

BEST PAPER AWARD

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ABSTRACT

Fifteen years ago, the study of events as a specific field of inquiry did not exist. Today, students’ interest in taking up papers in event management is met with rapid growth of courses that are catering to this specialised body of knowledge, signalling the emergence of Event Studies. These developments are parallel to the growing number of events being held around the world. Events are now seen as important phenomena, with cities and nations recognising the social, economic, and cultural potential of major, hallmark and mega events. Not only are these seen as a vital part of tourism’s export economy, events can also provide people with meaningful social and cultural encounters, eventuate in lasting memories and give hosting destinations a competitive advantage. The growth of events, however, comes with concerns about sustainable practices and leadership. Whilst the first has been addressed by a number of events scholars, sustainable leadership remains an unchartered territory in the domain of Event Studies. This paper addresses some of the key issues and developments in the events sector and outlines the more problematic areas concerning leadership and sustainability by drawing on the Honeybee philosophy.

Keywords: events, events sector, sustainable leadership, stakeholders

INTRODUCTION

Events are part of our daily lives and although they are not a new phenomenon - they go back thousands of years - they have increasingly become an important aspect of the tourism product. Events now have a firm place in strategic documents of many cities and destinations, they are being recognised as an important tool for local and global communities and they have the ability to act as an agent in the making, re-making and de-making of places, leading to revival and new developments. The thousands of events that are organised daily around the world and the need to do so professionally resulted in a specialised industry. The events industry is unique in contrast, for example, to banking or hospitality and it is vastly different to manufacturers of goods. Events fall under the category of service economy and experiential industries, which “manufacture” experiences and cater to different needs of varied businesses, customers, and individuals. Pine and Gilmore (1999) foresaw the demand for experiences more than two decades ago and it is perhaps surprising that more and more events take place in the experience economy. Compared to other industries, events produce experiences which are “consumed” onsite and through media. Furthermore, they are intangible, which means that what people purchase does not have a visible shape or a form; there is nothing physical to be taken away, apart from the items that can be purchased on site.

Yet people can be part of something exceptional, such as the celebrations organised for Queen Elizabeth II jubilee in 2011. People also go to events to witness outstanding performances, which can be seen at sporting events, cultural shows and festivals. Through events, we can increase our know-how, network with others and even continue our education. Business events, conferences, symposia, meetings, workshops, exhibitions – all of these enable us to connect, communicate, learn and collaborate. Importantly, events also allow like-minded individuals to come together and share similar values and interests. This fairy tale portrayal of the industry, however, poses some challenges to sustainable leadership and to the Honeybee approaches advocated by Avery and Bergsteiner (2011). The structure of the events industry - the way it operates in order to survive and prosper - plus the large number of different stakeholders, creates an environment that is varied, challenging, volatile and dependent on many factors. To begin with, the literature on event management stipulates that for events to be defined and conceptualised as such, they have to meet certain criteria. All events have a beginning and an end, they are organised on a specific date or for a specific period of time and they have a finite length (Allen, O’Toole, Harris, & McDonnell, 2011). All planned events are temporary and unique and it is perhaps best to
think of these as the outcome of many things, including management, programming, setting and people (Getz, 2005). Inevitably, the fact that events are short-term projects that may only take place sporadically and irregularly poses some pitfalls for the adoption of the Honeybee approaches (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011).

The aim of this paper is to outline the possible difficulties with adopting the Honeybee philosophy in the events sector and to find ways in which some of the principles can be implemented by businesses that manage and organise events. The rationale behind this paper is underpinned by the fact that the events industry is estimated to be worth over US$500 billion globally. In the UK solely, events contribute approximately £36.1 billion to the national economy, sustaining over 535,000 full-time jobs (Britain for events: A report on the size and value of Britain’s events industry, its characteristics, trends, opportunities and key issues, 2010). In Australia, events are valued at AU$10 billion to the economy, a figure which is forecast to reach AU$16 billion by 2020 (2020 Tourism Industry Potential...The Business Events Sector, 2011). While the growth of events is noticeable on an international scale and with countries competing for international visitors, academia continues to grapple with some of the concerns pertaining to sustainability. There is a need for more conceptual works and research into sustainable leadership.

**SUSTAINABILITY AND THE EVENTS INDUSTRY**

Over the past few years, the term “sustainability” has become a popular and trendy term in the events sector. It has been the premise of a number of texts such as: The Complete Guide to Greener Meetings and Events by Goldblatt (2012); Events and the Environment by Robert Case (2012); Sustainable Event Management: A Practical Guide by Jones, (2010); and Raj and Musgrave’s Event Management and Sustainability (2009). In their edited volume Events Society and Sustainability, Pernecky and Lueck (2013) provide an overview of the developments in the field of Event Studies and note that whilst environmental and economic sustainability has attracted a lot of attention, inquiries into social and cultural sustainability, for example, are still lagging behind. Perhaps due to the nature of the industry, a lot of focus in the events literature has been directed towards the practical aspects of events and their impact on the environment. As a result, mainstream academic debates around sustainability tend to concentrate on “eco” and “green” events and offer solutions to reducing carbon footprint, offsetting emissions and encouraging recycling.

In order to navigate through the sustainable landscapes of the events industry, Pernecky (2013) distinguishes between events that can be understood as intentional agents promoting messages of sustainable practices (i.e. events that have a strong environmental programme and that are promoted as “eco” and “green” events) and a broader macro-perspective, which takes as its focus events at large. With regard to the second category, the need to manage possible negative impacts of events has gained international momentum and the International Organisation for Standardisation, for instance, developed a new ISO standard 20121:2012, which is to promote and encourage sustainable management of events.

There is no doubt that sustainable event management has become an important global issue, however, when it comes to sustainable leadership it is somewhat surprising that there are not a great many insightful publications that tackle leadership in the broader sense of the term sustainability. There is a multitude of books covering topics such as the feasibility of events, event design, event production, risk management, event marketing, fundraising, event planning and event management. Despite this wide repertoire of management-oriented books, not much attention has been devoted to the study of leadership in general and apart from Goldblatt’s (2008) text Special Events: Event Leadership for a New World, understanding sustainable leadership in particular is not yet a well-mapped territory. Sustainable leadership is often interpreted and presented as the manager’s competency to implement sustainable practices during the different stages of an event. What is not yet widely acknowledged is that taking care of the environment and understanding the impacts an event may have, is only one aspect of sustainable leadership.

Furthermore, research publications that do provide good and useful insights on related issues such as the workforce in the events sector - People & Work in Events & Conventions: A Research Perspective (Baum, Deery, Hanlon, Lockstone, & Smith, 2009) is one of those – have not been integrated and conceptualised in terms of sustainable leadership. The different pockets of knowledge need to be linked, addressed jointly and holistically to form a broader perspective. This paper therefore seeks to expand the discourse on sustainable leadership by assessing the potential of Honeybee approaches (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011) and hopes to tease out future strategies for formulating a more wholesome vision for sustainable leadership in the events sector.
The Events Industry: A Quick Overview

The events industry consists of a range of phenomena such as festivals, sporting events, music events, political rallies, business events (conferences, congresses, symposia, exhibitions, world fairs and meetings), various cultural events, PR events and so forth. It is marked by growth, complexity and heterogeneity. When it comes to event ownership and stakeholder arrangement, the events industry is comprised of different structures and scenarios. These have been discussed in a number of textbooks (see for example Allen, O'Toole, Harris, & McDonnell, 2008; J. Goldblatt, 2011). In order to examine the applicability of the Honeybee approaches within the context of events, it is necessary to at least briefly distinguish between the ways in which events can manifest.

First, there are event organisations of various sizes, such as the Sydney Festival, that stage and host events periodically. They employ a number of staff throughout the year, but rely on having to recruit additional contractors and volunteers closer to the event. These event organisations are businesses devoted to organising, hosting and staging a specific event or a series of events.

Second, there are international governing bodies such as the International Olympic Committee (IOC), which has the overarching authority over the Olympic Games. The IOC works closely with the National Olympic Committee (NOC) to form The Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (OCOG), which is ultimately responsible for the organisation and delivery of the Olympic Games. The OCOG can reach several thousand employees as it moves through the different phases – i.e. event planning, implementation, execution and shutdown (Organising Committees for the Olympic Games, 2012). In this instance, we are speaking of colossal committees and subcommittees that come together to deliver a project (the Olympic Games, the Rugby World Cup etc.).

Third, there are corporate organisations that utilise events as part of their business practices. Many companies in fact take part in the meetings, incentives, conference and exhibition sector, commonly known under the acronym MICE. Fenich (2011) notes that virtually all businesses have the need to plan and organise gatherings. The purpose of these may be twofold: aiming either at internal communication with staff and stakeholders (examples may include workshops, seminars, national and global conferences); or they may have a need to communicate with external stakeholders, such as wider public, clients and customers (examples include sales events, expos, PR events, and product launches). When it comes to planning these events, the corporations may either have staff members, or a small team of people, who are responsible for the management and delivery of events. In some cases, the events can be outsourced to other companies – typically a professional conference organiser (PCO). It is worth noting that the organisation of events is not the core business of these companies.

Fourth, there are professional conference and congress organisers known as PCOs, who specialise in the management of events and offer their services to companies and organisations that do not have the necessary skills and resources. PCOs are most prominent in the MICE sector and are usually outsourced by a wide range of businesses. These can be educators wanting to organise an academic conference, a pharmaceutical giant in need of professional expertise to host a large international congress, or a professional association seeking to gather all its members together. With regard to the stakeholder relationship, it is important to understand that PCOs are employed to manage and execute the event. Although PCOs are involved in the decision-making processes, they do not own the rights to the event and, in most cases, are not involved in making decisions about future events and strategic planning. The client (e.g., an association) dictates the rules, needs and wants. The PCO is employed to execute such needs. The implications of this relationship are that final choices are often made by the client. This can include decisions on the resources used, such as the printing of thousands of handbooks (as opposed to providing information electronically), the outsourcing of material to China (as opposed to finding a local manufacturer), recycling, and so forth.

Fifth, there are organisations and agencies, typically at a national level, which increasingly perceive events as an important aspect of what they do, and will therefore have a team of staff dedicated to events. City councils, for example, offer information on the planning, licensing and promotion of events. They can also offer assistance with traffic management, road closures, waste management and safety. In addition to these activities, the Council may also produce and deliver events for the community. The Auckland City Council, for example, works with Auckland Tourism, Events and Economic Development to produce events such as the Lantern Festival and the Pasifika Festival – both community events.
Finally, with the increased importance of events, many government agencies are starting to form new divisions and to move away from operational funding to actively developing the event product for a destination. O’Toole (2011) gives a comprehensive account of the factors and steps that are involved in the drafting of long-term strategies. He also explains that the goals and objectives may be to increase the number of events, or to improving the quality of existing events. Apart from that, there may be higher objectives, such as utilising events to promote social harmony. To put this in context, New Zealand Major Events, for example, was established to attract, retain, grow and deliver major events in New Zealand. Apart from administering funding, this body is also responsible for the development and monitoring of the National Business Events Strategy (New Zealand Major Events, 2013). Similar agencies are noticeable around the world. Dubai Events and Promotions is responsible for promoting, supporting and facilitating the events and retails sector; they were also given the mandate to create the official Dubai calendar of events (Dubai Events & Promotions, 2013). EventScotland is a national events agency that bids for events that not only drive tourism in Scotland but also increase the international profile of the country (EventScotland, 2013). In this case, we are therefore speaking of strategic planning and development, rather than execution and management of events. The event, or event portfolio, is seen as an asset.

In addition to the scenarios outlined above, there may be other subtle nuances with regard to ownership and stakeholder structure. Hotels and restaurants, for instance, may hold specific events to diversify their products and services and to increase revenues. Nonetheless, the key distinctions to be noted for further discourse on sustainable leadership can be formulated as follows: (1) some companies own and are devoted to the organisations of their own events; (2) some bodies and associations only have an overarching role but are part of more complex, large, and relatively short-term structures; (3) some companies use events in order to support the running of their business – events are part of many ongoing activities; (4) some organisations offer guidance and regulate the events industry (e.g. city councils); (5) some agencies only deal with the strategic and promotional aspect of events and focus on developing an events portfolio; and (6) there are specialised groups of professionals and businesses (PCOs) that cater to the needs of the MICE industry. This basic understanding of the ways in which the events industry operates is important as all events are different and shaped by varied stakeholders. What this means in regard to the Honeybee approaches discussed in detail in the following section, is that the event, depending on the context in which it is embedded, can be seen through different lenses and with wide-ranging levels of importance. Many events are short-lived or short-term; some events demand a large number of volunteers while others demand none and the strategic decisions and responsibilities are not always easily traceable. The focus tends to be on project delivery - the event - which creates a challenging climate for the implementation of the Honeybee approach to leadership.

Honeybee versus Locust Approaches

In the management literature, Avery and Bergsteiner (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011) distinguish between two contrasting approaches to leadership. They use the analogy of honeybees and locusts to argue that the first, Honeybee leadership style, is more sustainable than the Locust philosophy to leading an organisation. The evocative notion of diligent, cooperative and forward-thinking honeybees is contrasted with swarming locusts, which can, in a very short period of time, destroy crops, create havoc and leave a catastrophic impact on the environment. These opposite approaches can be traced to two distinct forms of capitalism – Rhineland capitalism and Anglo/US capitalism. In her preceding book Leadership for Sustainable Futures: Achieving Success in a Competitive World, Avery (2005) explains that Rhineland capitalism earned its name from a conference held in 1959 on the banks of the river Rhine in Bad Godesberg, Germany, where the German Social Democratic Party decided to devote its future efforts to capitalism. Pertinently, Avery and Bergsteiner (2011) point out that businesses can and do behave in a similar fashion. They can either be part of a larger eco-system (inter-related businesses and society at large), take care of the environment and be of benefit to all involved stakeholders, or they can be driven by short-term profits and seize opportunities regardless of the impact on others, including ethical and environmental considerations.

The Rhineland model, as Avery clarifies (2005, p. 15), is “based on consensus, corporatism and collective achievement over the long term”. In short, all stakeholders are considered to be important. This means that consideration is given to employees, clients, suppliers and also the local community. Employees are valued assets that need to be taken care of in the same way all assets must be maintained and looked after. The Rhineland model makes a provision for a more comprehensive social welfare system and places a large emphasis on long-term investments, innovation and stakeholder loyalty. On the other hand, the Anglo/US capitalist model, also called neo-American model, is underpinned by the view that “the purpose of business is to maximise shareholder value” (Avery, 2005, p. 9). Inevitably, this has implications as to how a business is run. It
approaches to running a business

Tough, ruthless, asocial, profit at any cost. The practice of developing people tends to be the first budget to be cut when a business is responding to events. It is also often the interests of shareholders that are a priority to top management. Organisations need to have transparent standards for accounting, and the validity of reports is controlled by experienced auditors (with regard to points 3 and 4, finance is at the very core of this approach with Wall Street playing a significant role); and investment is devoted to projects that promise to bring a return significantly higher than the cost of capital (Avery, 2005, p. 11). The Anglo/US system is therefore a shareholder oriented approach. In contrast to the Honeybee approach, it does not strive to serve other stakeholders. Table 1 further outlines the key differences distilled from Avery and Bergsteiner’s work (2011).

Table 1: Contrasting Locust and Honeybee approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANGLO/US CAPITALISM</th>
<th>RHINELAND CAPITALISM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liberal market economics (common law, market oriented, shareholder centred, known also as Neo-liberalism).</td>
<td>Social market economics (stakeholder centred, known as the Continental model).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No need for business to partner with society – focus on maximising wealth of owners.</td>
<td>High level partnership between business and society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on business practices originally promoted by the Chicago School.</td>
<td>More egalitarian, focuses on stakeholders (including society).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOCUST APPROACHES</th>
<th>HONEYBEE APPROACHES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continuous stream of profit and growth for shareholders.</td>
<td>Stakeholder oriented, social, and sharing. Delivering outcomes more responsibly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for regular profit, growth and dividends.</td>
<td>Motivated by responsible outcomes for more stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on the short term.</td>
<td>Focus on the long term.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusive focus on shareholders.</td>
<td>Takes into consideration the needs of all stakeholders. Stakeholder value approach. Not a sole focus on stakeholders, although shares are important too.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More likely to be unethical (e.g. profit is a priority, bribes and “creative accounting”, polluting the environment).</td>
<td>Cares about the environment and protects its image &amp; branding through ethical behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit at any cost leadership.</td>
<td>Focus on long-term and a more responsible delivery of outcomes for more stakeholders. Sustainable leadership only possible if all stakeholders are considered, including future generations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research and development tends to be the first budget to be cut when a company does not perform according to forecasted figures.</td>
<td>Values systematic innovation even during difficult times and across all divisions (management, processes, services, pro-ducts). Strong research and development (R&amp;D) programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develops a select few (often managerial) staff members. Prepared to cut training budgets severely to meet short term financial targets.</td>
<td>Develops people equally. Invests in staff training.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Distilled and adopted from Avery and Bergsteiner (2011, pp. 11-19)

In addition to the brief overview of the two approaches in Table 1, Avery and Bergsteiner (2011) developed 23 elements that underpin the Honeybee leadership philosophy. These are divided into three distinct categories: 14 foundation practices that can be implemented immediately; 6 higher level practices that emerge once an organisation implements and adheres to the 14 foundation practices; and 3 key performance drivers that drive performance by taking into consideration the needs and wants of customers. The 23 elements are listed in Table 2.

Table 2 also offers insights on some of the challenges the events industry poses when it comes to implementing the practices. For example, the first foundation practice developing people suggests that organisations that apply Honeybee philosophy develop all staff continuously. This can be challenging in the events industry for a number of reasons; many events are only organised once a year and rely on a large number of volunteers and contractors who are employed closer to the event (e.g. music festivals); one-off events, for example, are only organised to mark a unique occasion; some events change destinations, management teams, and do not eventuate for years - this is typical of international sporting events where teams of professionals are recruited several years before the event and disestablished once the event has run its course. Moreover, depending on the ownership of the event, when a large corporation commissions a PCO to manage an event – for example a large conference for 10,000 delegates – the role of the PCO is to plan, manage and successfully execute the event. Problems may arise when the corporation follows Locust philosophy; the event then becomes an extension of the ways in which the business operates. The PCO often has no choice but to conform to the requirements of the client and execute the event accordingly.
Table 2: Contrasting Honeybee philosophy with the events industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Elements</th>
<th>Honeybee Philosophy</th>
<th>Relevance and issues in the Events Industry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FOUNDATION PRACTICES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Developing people</td>
<td>Develops everyone continuously</td>
<td>Developing people is dependent on the event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ownership and stakeholder configuration, the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>event type, length, and recurrence.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Labour relations</td>
<td>Seeks cooperation</td>
<td>The events industry relies heavily on contractors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and volunteers. Stakeholder management is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>increasingly important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Retaining staff</td>
<td>Values long tenure at all levels</td>
<td>Difficult to achieve where the event relies on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>volunteers and contractors. More applicable to</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PCOs and event companies, which also employ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>part &amp; short term staff.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Succession planning</td>
<td>Promotes from within wherever possible</td>
<td>Succession planning is possible in event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>organisations where event management is the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>core business.</td>
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<td>5. Valuing staff</td>
<td>Is concerned about employees welfare</td>
<td>Many events rely on temporary workers to reduce</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>costs and volunteers. Managers can develop good</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>quality relationships with reputable agencies and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a pool of staff where applicable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. CEO and top team</td>
<td>CEO works as top team member or speaker</td>
<td>Many events are the result of team work.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Depending on the event type and stakeholder</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>structure, decisions can come from top but</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>also involve many stakeholders.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Ethical behaviour</td>
<td>“Doing the right thing” as an explicit core</td>
<td>Defining “the right thing” or what is morally right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>value</td>
<td>is a problematic issue. It is increasingly important</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>to be seen as a green and sustainable company –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>some businesses deploy “green washing”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Certification and new and norms such as ISO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20121:2012 offer some guidance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Long – or short-term perspective</td>
<td>Prefers the long term over the short term</td>
<td>Some events are only organised for one occasion</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>such as one-off events. The management team</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>may change with every event, which is typical of</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>large international sporting events. Short term</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>perspective is more common with the focus on</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>project delivery (the event). Long term</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>perspective is increasingly important for</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>government agencies and for event organisations.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Organisational change</td>
<td>Change is an evolving and considered</td>
<td>At the higher level, change can be an evolving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>process</td>
<td>process, however focus remains on project</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>delivery. Change is inevitable in the events</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sector with ad hoc decisions and unexpected</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>challenges. Events are susceptible to external</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>environments (economic, political, social, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>cultural).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Financial markets orientation</td>
<td>Seeks maximum independence from others</td>
<td>The vast majority of events rely on sponsorship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and funding. The events industry is very</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>competitive and more relevant terms are: survival</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>competitive advantage and stakeholder</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>management.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Responsibility for environment</td>
<td>Protects the environment</td>
<td>The extent to which event companies care about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the environment depends on the ownership,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>stakeholder configuration and the event type.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Some events (e.g. “green” events) tend to</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>follow sustainable practices. ISO 20121:2012</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>encourages more sustainable behaviour on an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>international scale.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Social responsibility (CSR)</td>
<td>Values people and the community</td>
<td>Many events are treated as business entities. They</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>have a specific purpose and do not necessarily</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>take into account social and cultural</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sustainability, local communities etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Stakeholder consideration</td>
<td>Everyone matters</td>
<td>Considerations are subject to stakeholder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>configuration, the event type &amp; purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Client/event owner, profit, successful event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>delivery and customers matter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Vision’s role in the business</td>
<td>Shared view of future is essential strategic tool</td>
<td>Only applicable to long-term events. Many business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>events are driven by utility and short term</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>focus on the event delivery. With more</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>complicated event structures and mega and</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>hallmark events the vision and mission</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>statements tend to be well formulated. Event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>legacy is increasingly important.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The analysis offered in Table 2 highlights several problematic areas, which may be an obstacle to adopting Honeybee approaches in the events sector. Due to the complexity of the event environment and the various stakeholder relationships, it is difficult to apply all 23 leadership elements across the events industry. The reason for this is the nature of the events phenomenon itself. Most events only last for a few days or weeks, which has further implications for staff retention - event companies have to endure long periods of time before the next event is organised (e.g. yearly festivals) and cannot afford to pay full-time salaries. The events industry is therefore to a large extent supported by contractors, event professionals and volunteers. Furthermore, different aspects of events are often outsourced to specialists, which is not only a cost saving exercise, it also enables the event organiser to shift responsibilities for each area onto sub-contractors (e.g. using radio-frequency identification technology – RFID – for managing registration and payments).

In regard to stakeholders, as explained in the events industry overview section, the ownership and stakeholder arrangement can be varied and underpinned by different purposes. The event type or category tells us whether an event is a festival, sporting event or a business event and ultimately determines the stakeholder structure. While many business events are driven by profit and utility, civic festivals may be less motivated by financial gains and more by contributing to the wellbeing of the community. There is therefore a great variety across the spectrum of events and many reasons as to why they are held.

The event’s size dictates the level of impact and complexity. International mega, major and hallmark events have complex structures and can make an enormous difference to the local community, the country’s visibility, infrastructure and associated economic benefits - examples include the Rugby World Cup and the Olympic Games. However, with regard to sustainable leadership and the 23 elements listed in Table 2, the management comes together for a relatively short period of time and all tasks are oriented towards the event delivery. On the other hand, small events tend to be run by small companies and entrepreneurs. Local and community events are

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**HIGHER LEVEL PRACTICES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>15. Decision-making</th>
<th>Is consensual and devolved</th>
<th>Is mostly management centred and driven by event professionals.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16. Self-management</td>
<td>Staff are mostly self-managing</td>
<td>Managers delegate responsibilities to staff and contractors. Event companies and PCOs are more likely to self-manage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Team orientation</td>
<td>Teams are extensive and empowered</td>
<td>Teams are manager-centred and devoted to specific areas (e.g. technical requirements, accommodation and registration management). Quality control, KPIs and regular meetings are necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Culture</td>
<td>Fosters an enabling, widely shared culture</td>
<td>Culture tends to be driven by the delivery of results (e.g. the event) and therefore short-term and project specific.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Knowledge-sharing and retention</td>
<td>Spreads throughout the organisation</td>
<td>Operational knowledge is of utmost importance. Knowledge can be compartmentalised according to different needs. Communication and regular updates are vital for the successful planning and delivery of events. Long-term and strategic decisions tend to be made by management, executive teams and clients.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Trust</td>
<td>High trust through relationships and goodwill</td>
<td>High level of control and monitoring. Deadlines, prices and delivery drives decision making. Large and business events may be subject to external audit.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**KEY PERFORMANCE DRIVERS**

| 21. Innovation      | Strong, systemic, strategic innovation evident at all levels | Innovation is important in the delivery of events, so is creativity and technology. Innovation drives the events industry and new experiences designed for attendees. Innovation = competitive advantage. |
| 22. Staff engagement | Values emotionally committed staff and the resulting commitment | The events industry utilises a combination of both: emotionally motivating staff (e.g. volunteers) and offering financial rewards (e.g. mostly for project/event managers, commission schemes etc.). |
| 23. Quality          | Is embedded in the culture | Quality is a matter of both control and culture. Quality is closely associated with efficiency, sound planning and communication skills, capability and industry experience. |

**Source:** Adopted from Avery and Bergsteiner (2011) and expanded to address issues in the events industry
often the outcome volunteers, local agencies, governments (council) and trustees. This poses a completely different stakeholder arrangement in contrast to mega and hallmark events.

Regardless of scale, it is important to underscore that many events depend on volunteers. The numbers can range from a few individuals to tens of thousands of people. The Olympic Games in London in 2012, for example, required nearly 70,000 volunteers. These were selected out of 240,000 applicants and were called “Games Makers” (London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games, 2012). Having to rely, manage, recruit and motivate volunteers is of course a different way of running a business. While it is relatively easy to implement the Honeybee philosophy in a typical corporate environment, the events industry is rather volatile when it comes to staff turnover and job continuity.

Moving towards Honeybee Approaches to Leadership in the Events Sector

The first inevitable question that comes to mind after reading the analysis of the events industry is whether the short-term nature of events and the way in which the industry is structured, can lead to the application of the Honeybee approaches to leadership. The events industry is too heterogeneous to be able to make generic statements and apply the principles in Table 2 across the whole sector, to all events. Nevertheless, there are some similarities and overarching principles that offer a lot of promise. One of the key areas includes stakeholders. Successful events have a clear purpose and a vision and pay attention to all stakeholders equally. Events are susceptible to changes in the environment in which they operate (social, cultural, political, economic and natural) and rely heavily on volunteers and sponsorship – factors which point to the need to cultivate and nurture relationships with people and organisations that are involved in, or impacted by, the event. In other words, stakeholder relationship is one of the building pillars in sustainable leadership, regardless of the length or size of the event. The need to pay sufficient attention to stakeholders is discussed in many event management textbooks. However, in practice, securing sponsorship is likely to take precedence over consulting the local community. Furthermore, many events, hallmark and mega included, do not have a great track record of consulting communities. The typical stakeholder structure observable in the events industry is demonstrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Stakeholders in the events industry

![Stakeholders in the events industry](image)

**Source:** Adopted from Allen et al. (2008, p. 127) and McCartney (2010, p. 261)

Figure 1 highlights that the event is a unique phenomenon that brings together a lot of stakeholders. Due to the fact that events are treated as projects, which go through different stages until they eventuate and are executed, the focus of event managers is on the short-term. It is a misconception, however, to think that a short-term event cannot deliver positive outcomes for all stakeholders. Events, whether they are short-term, one-off, or recurring periodically, can be sustainable along the lines of Honeybee approaches if they consider all stakeholders equally. In other words, short-term events can be sustainable if they are beneficial to, or at least considerate of, the impact and benefits to all parties concerned. This requires a more holistic approach to leadership and asking questions such as whom the event benefits and how exactly. Moving away from swift financial gains and considering the environment as well as the potential an event may have for local community are subtle yet significant steps towards sustainable leadership.

In the MICE sector (meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions) and when it comes to large corporations that organise events as part of their ongoing business (e.g. to train staff or inform suppliers), there is potential to
think about the different outcomes an event may provide. The return on investment (ROI) does not have to be measured by an increase in sales. Instead, the focus can shift to developing people by way of increasing creativity, knowledge, skills and building confidence. The committee members and executives that organise large events can also plan for donating a portion of the conference revenues towards local projects. Similarly, they can choose destinations and venues that may leave a positive impact on the place and its people. For instance, it is not out of the ordinary to plan a symposium in Auckland, London or Sydney, but it is courageous for a committee to organise an event in the city of Christchurch after it was badly damaged by earthquakes in 2011 and 2012. Such a decision would have a lasting effect on the community still in the process of recovery. The event, be it a simple symposium, can become a powerful tool capable of making a difference to many and not just a few. It is therefore leaders who ponder the consequences of their business decisions that speak of the quality of leadership, not the type of the business they run.

The responsibility rests ultimately on both the corporations that have the need to organise an event (e.g. the pharmaceutical giant Pfizer) and the event management company (a PCO), which ought to demonstrate sustainable leadership practices and guide the client towards stakeholder-oriented choices. This, of course, is not as straightforward as it seems, for PCOs are the bees employed to execute the wishes of the client. Yet there is a potential for professional conference organisers to assist with the type of decision-making that is more aligned with sustainable choices. After all, the expertise and knowledge rests with the PCO, which is well suited to recommend venues, supplies and projects that may help local communities and use trading partners that demonstrate strong ethical and sustainable principles.

Volunteers and contractors pose more problematic pitfalls in the application of Honeybee approaches in the events sector. Whilst it may be fitting for a manufacturer of goods to focus on continuity, on the long-term and on retaining and motivating staff, this is not always easy to achieve in the events sector. The heavy reliance on volunteers and the short-term nature of events makes it difficult to plan long-term. One possible way of overcoming this problem is to treat short-term staff and volunteers as if they were full-time employees. The people who are willing to devote their time for free in order to make an event possible ought to be nurtured and appreciated. Likewise, contractors need to become part of the “event family”, albeit for a short period of time. These actions are more likely to yield a better performance, emotionally invested individuals and contractors willing to return for future projects. The traditional approach to seeing temporary staff and contractor workers as a “quick fix” with minimal resources and development is short-lived. It is the responsibility of the event organiser to create desirable and rewarding experiences for all staff members, including volunteers and temporary workers.

Lastly, it is vital to acknowledge that the concerns expressed by the Honeybee approaches to sustainable leadership overlap with some of the issues discussed under the banner of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). Increasingly, event organisers are under pressure to demonstrate CSR, give back to the community, behave ethically and engage actively in community development. Cave, Robinson and Locke (2013) explain that CSR has been recently broadened to include social and corporate governance issues and can include outreach programmes, charity work and employee well-being. Richardson (2009, p. 113) further argues for CSR to be viewed “in terms of disparities of commitment within the wider context of stakeholder relationships” and Mallen with Adams (2012) recommend that CSR is promoted to other stakeholders in order to enhance the reputation of the event. What can be said at least briefly is that, although corporate social responsibility is attracting the attention of an increasing number of academics, it has not been fully integrated into the discourse on sustainable event leadership. There is therefore a potential to further examine the commonalities of CSR and the Honeybee approaches and so articulate a more encompassing vision of sustainable leadership in the events sector.

CONCLUSION

Academic literature on event management has not paid much attention to the Honeybee approaches to sustainable leadership. The premise of this paper was therefore to examine the extent to which Honeybee approaches are relevant and applicable to the events sector. The findings suggest that due to the character of the events industry, which is vastly different to other industries, it is difficult to adopt this philosophy in its current form and shape – with all 23 elements as specified in Table 2. In its present conceptual framing, the Honeybee approaches are more easily adopted by organisations that manufacture goods and deliver services on an ongoing basis. These require permanent business structures, full time staff and long-term visions. In contrast to phone manufacturers and banks, for example, planned events have a beginning and an end, and are better thought of as projects dependent on volunteers, contractors and short-term staff.
There are, however, some common areas, which were found to have merit. Despite occurring intermittently, events have the potential to demonstrate sustainable leadership principles by paying equal attention to all stakeholders. Event organisers ought to ponder questions such as: Why are we organising this event? Who will it benefit and how? Who will it impact and how? Have we paid attention to all stakeholders? What do we need to do to ensure negative impacts are reduced and benefits are increased for all stakeholders? Contemplating these questions is one of the first steps an organisation can take towards sustainable leadership. This extends also to professional conference organisers (PCOs), who do not always have to assume a passive role and become active advocates of sustainable practices. It is important that large corporations do not merely see events as a secondary and perhaps a less important facet of the business. Events, when tackled from a more integrated viewpoint, can have a positive impact on the environment and people. In the context of the Honeybee approaches to sustainability, the event is perhaps better understood as an opportunity for many - not a “cash-cow” for a privileged few.

Lastly, it is important to acknowledge that the discussion in this paper has neglected the role of regulatory bodies and agencies. The focus was placed mainly on the managerial/operational side of the events industry, which is concerned with the running and delivery of events. In terms of governance and the role various agencies have in promoting, developing, and regulating the industry, it pays to at least briefly state that these can play a pivotal role in providing information, training event professionals and connecting sustainable businesses (see for example The Sustainable Event Alliance, 2010).

Questions for further discussion at ISL Nice 2013

Can short-term projects be sustainable? Are there examples from other industries? How does CSR differ from the Honeybee approaches in management literature? What are the key points of difference? Can these be applied to the events industry?

REFERENCES


DOES CHARISMA FUEL SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP?
LESSONS FROM THE CASE OF A FRENCH CEO

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ABSTRACT

Sustainable leadership relies also on top executives’ ability to develop positive personal leadership. Building on the colorful and thoughtful case of Jean-Marie Messier (former CEO of Vivendi-Universal, 1996-2002), this research paper would like to stimulate the discussion about charismatic leadership among top executives and its paradoxical contribution to sustainable leadership. The story of Jean-Marie Messier is that of a charismatic CEO, one of the most powerful in the French history, who dramatically transformed an old-fashioned French utility services firm into a global media giant in just 5 years. Unfortunately, he was unable to build sustainable leadership for himself as well as for his company: his charisma turned into hubris leading his psyche near to borderlines and his company near to bankruptcy. Messier became a scapegoat for the French business community and was forced to resign. 10 years later, he published a book on the lessons he received from this tragic episode…In this research paper, we will build on the Weberian analysis of charisma, the recent work done on CEO hubris, charismatic leadership, and sustainable leadership to describe the particular challenge for charismatic leaders to build sustainable leadership. This will lead us to explore two pitfalls of charismatic leadership (which is often the most socially desirable and therefore promoted leader in our societies): its transitory nature and its ego-centered psychology.
THE ANATOMY OF RESILIENCE: HOW FAR CAN ENVIRONMENTAL SYSTEMS ENDURE?

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ABSTRACT

Business leaders that continually seek for strategies to maintain competitive position in the industry find that all aspects of business are connected to everything else and that long-term success cannot be achieved if problematic areas are addressed in isolation. Leveraging on their operating environment’s resilience and understanding the preponderance of limits – be it economic, ecological, or social – can help them sustain competitive advantage. Resilience, a crucial characteristic of virtually all environmental systems, provides enduring resistance to external disturbances. The presence of balancing feedback loops allows it to return to equilibrium as long as the degree of disturbance does not exceed the threshold. This paper constructs a system dynamics model to show how the structure of a resilient system affects its behavior. Simulation results show that when disturbance is lesser than the threshold, damped oscillation behavior results; but when it exceeds the threshold, system failure is inevitable. Insights are provided on how system dynamics modeling approach can help decision-makers identify leverage points to avoid irreversible environmental systems collapse.

Keywords – Damped Oscillation, Equilibrium, Panarchy, Resilience, System Collapse, System Dynamics

INTRODUCTION

Resilience describes a system’s ability to retain integrity around stable processes (Sundstrom et al., 2011). The system may shift from one state to another resulting from external perturbations (Derissen et al., 2011). If it is able to absorb the disturbances without losing its structure, the system is resilient. A recently developed adaptive renewal cycle, or panarchy (Figure 2), is gaining increasing attention. According to Folke (2006), disturbances cause series of incremental and rapid changes to the system, thereby creating stable and unstable structural behaviors simultaneously. Researches on resilient systems span a wide variety of disciplines, for instance: biology (BenDor & Metcalf, 2006; and Downing & Leibold, 2010); climate change (Gallopin, 2006); psychology (Van Egmond & De Vries, 2011; Henning, 2011; Cabanys Truffino, 2010; and Ungar, 2011); archaeology (Redman, 2008); sociology (Young, 2010; Wadsworth, 2010; and Wilson, 2010); geology (Knis & Vogt, 2003); economics (Bussiere et al., 2012; and Jones et al., 2002); international trade (Rees, 2006); medicine (Howe et al., 2012); agriculture (King, 2008); and even war (Kimhi & Yohanan, 2009).

In materials science parlance, resilience corresponds to the strength of a material, which is the ability to withstand an applied stress without failure (Philpot, 2010). A load applied to a mechanical member will induce internal forces within the member called stresses. The stresses (or disturbances, in the case of resilient systems) acting on the material cause deformation of the material. When stress exceeds the elastic limit of the material, permanent deformation occurs. When further stress is applied, the material eventually reaches its rupture point, the point where the material breaks. The breakage of the material is similar to an overshoot and collapse in a system when external disturbance can no longer be sustained.

Though resilience in various disciplines may have different usage, all literatures agree on a common understanding: a system is resilient only up to a certain point. External disturbance that goes beyond the capacity of the system to absorb will tend the whole system to change its state or trigger a collapse. This paper seeks to use system dynamics methodology to model resilient systems. Causal-loop diagram (CLD) and stock-and-flow diagram (SFD) are constructed to show the dynamics of the system structure when responding to disturbances. Understanding the behavior of a system through its structure helps the policy maker in identifying the system’s weak points to be cautioned about, and leverage point from which policies can be made to ensure that the system maintains its resilience.

While disturbance may impose risks of collapse, it can also provide opportunities for improving the system (Folke, 2006). In a vulnerable system even small disturbances may cause dramatic consequences. Holling (1973) explained in detail the dynamics of two interacting populations (i.e. a predator and its prey). When both
populations are proportional and stable, disturbance on one will cause fluctuations on both. Holding other factors constant, the fluctuations eventually diminish until both reach their equilibrium levels again. In a study on the Mediterranean ecosystem, Lavorel (1999) argues that environmental resilience is a function of abundance of species and efficiency of regeneration. Santos (2005) shows that organisms that sustain extreme conditions have more chances of survival; while those that are not capable are more susceptible to extinction.

**Approaches to modeling resilient systems**

Previous researches have sought to study and model resilient systems in various ways. Cimellaro et al. (2010) provide a framework for quantitative definition of resilience on health care facilities. Another study (Strickland-Munro et al., 2010) analyzes the impacts of protected area tourism on communities by using resilience assessment principles. There has been an increasing recognition in using system dynamics approach to modeling environmental systems (Bossel, 2007a). Arquitt et al. (2005) describe the dynamics of shrimp aquaculture industry; while Jones et al.’s (2002) study reveals that increasing the efficiency and productivity of sawmills can hasten the collapse of forest ecosystem. Taylor et al. (2011) model the stratospheric ozone depletion case to aim at influencing policy makers in addressing risks posed by changes in a natural system. They establish a link between the policy makers’ attention to natural system risk and the ability to mitigate societal risks.

Non-linear relationships between system elements produce counter-intuitive behaviors. They are important because they determine the dominance of feedback processes in the system (Meadows, 2008). When time delays are introduced, the situation becomes even more dynamically complex (Ford, 2010). This paper constructs a general structure of resilient systems (e.g.: Henning, 2011; Knies & Vogt, 2003; BenDor & Metcalf, 2006; Downing & Leibold, 2010; Gallopip, 2006; Van Egmond & De Vries, 2011; Redman, 2008; Young, 2010; and Wadsworth, 2010) with the emphasis on the introduction of disturbance into the system and how it manages to absorb such perturbation and reaches back to equilibrium after a specific time for the system to regenerate itself.

**Model Construction**

*Causal-loop diagram*

Figure 1 shows a simple CLD of a resilient system. A resilient system naturally stays in equilibrium due to interacting feedback loops. On one hand, the state of the system improves when it regenerates (R). On the other hand, dissipation (or degeneration) continually occurs at the same time (B1). Both loops are balanced according to the desired state of the equilibrium intrinsic to the system. The system regenerates itself to compensate for the degeneration until the gap between the current state of the system and the equilibrium closes. Another loop works on the system when an external disturbance acts upon it. Disturbance tends to alter the state of the system and brings it away from the state of equilibrium (B3).

Disturbance and equilibrium are two most interesting variables in a resilient system. As long as the loops R and B2 dominate both B1 and B3, the system has the ability to restore its original characteristics. The moment disturbance and/or dissipation overwhelm regeneration and equilibrium, the state of the system alters to a point that it cannot go back to its original state. This consequently brings the entire system to a collapse. The CLD in
this paper shows the “skeletal structure” of a typical resilient system. In reality, these systems may far be more complex and can involve more than two stocks.

**Stock-and-flow diagram**

The behavior of a system is determined by its structure, which consists of stocks, flows, feedback loops, and non-linearities (Sterman, 2000). Fundamental behavior patterns (i.e. exponential, goal seeking, s-shaped growth, oscillation, overshoot, and collapse) govern most dynamic systems (Ford, 2010). More complex systems exhibit a combination of these patterns. In the case of resilient system, its behavior is assumed to be constant when it is in equilibrium. The introduction of an external disturbance causes some degree of oscillations in the system. However, the presence of balancing feedback loops (dissipation and regeneration), the disturbance is dissolved by the system and the system self-organizes until it reaches equilibrium. This behavior is typical of a damped oscillation. External disturbances cause the system to oscillate. When the system is able to sustain such degrees of perturbation, it will eventually stabilize around equilibrium.

A damped oscillations structure is a sustained oscillations structure with a negative feedback loop (Zhu, 1998) and can be produced by a two-stock model (Bossel, 2007b). Figure 4 shows the SFD of a resilient system. The system stock contains two inflows (biflow) – regeneration and degeneration. When external disturbance is introduced, both inflows fluctuate until all disturbances are dissolved. The stock also contains two outflows (uniflow) – collapse and dissipation. As soon as disturbance becomes greater than the value of resilience, these two outflows work in a downward spiral manner, overwhelming the inflows, and thus collapsing the whole system. The transient condition is a dummy variable that accumulates information on the change in the condition of the system. In the real world, this variable represents the ongoing “internal struggle” of the system in response to the overlapping dominance of disturbance and equilibrium. Refer to Appendix for the equations of the SFD.

**Model specifications**

The control panel of the model is shown in Figure 3. The model has eight exogenous variables. For simplification purposes, only the five key leverage points are included in the control panel. Sliders are used for the variables resilience, disturbance, and time when disturbance occurred; while the regeneration rate and time to absorb disturbance are in knobs. Resilience is scaled from 0 to 100. This is in terms of percentage of the equilibrium. In this model, the equilibrium is set at 100. This means that when the resilience in 40; the system can sustain its behaviour when disturbance is up to 40 percent, or 140 units, of the equilibrium. Disturbance is also scaled from 0 to 100 percent, the same with the variable resilience. The variable time when disturbance occurred is expressed in months. The temporal scale of the model is in months. Regeneration is in terms of units per month. A range from 5 to 10 units per month is provided. Lastly, the time to absorb disturbance is expressed as months. A range from 0 to 12 months (or 1 year) is given as option. By using the control panel through
changing different parameters run after run, it can be observed that the behaviour of the system changes at varying degrees. It is worth to note that the system is only resilient when the disturbance is lesser than the resilience; else, the behaviour will overshoot and collapse.

When the system is in equilibrium, a value of 100 is assumed. Disturbance is expressed as an impulse of a value introduced into the stock at a certain point of time. Time step in months is a fairly reasonable estimate to observe changes in the behaviour of resilient systems. In reality however, some systems may take years, or even decades before substantial developments are observed. All inflows and outflows are expressed in units per month. Two hundred months is included in the simulation with simulation time step (DT) of 0.5 and Runge-Kutta 4 integration method.

Simulation results

Three scenarios with different parameter values are provided to show the responses of the system to varying external disturbances. In the first scenario, no disturbance is introduced; in the second scenario, disturbance is lesser than the system’s resilience; and, in the third scenario, disturbance is greater than resilience. Each scenario is explained in detail as follows:

**Scenario 1: Resilience 50; disturbance 0**

When no disturbance is imposed into the system, the graph of the behavior of the system remains constant at 100 units, as in Figure 5. The resulting state diagram in Figure 6 is a dot located at the center of the diagram.
State diagram (or phase plot) is a graph showing the net rate as a function of the state of the system. It shows how dynamics can be derived from the phase plot without tedious computations (Sterman, 2000).

**Scenario 2: Resilience 50; disturbance 20; time when disturbance occurred 67; regeneration rate 5.0; time to absorb disturbance 6.0.**

In Figure 8, from time=0 up to 66, the system is in equilibrium at 100 units. At t=67, a disturbance of 20 units is fired into the system, causing the system to fluctuate. However, as soon as the pulse is introduced, the negative regeneration and dissipation feedback loops begin to work as well. Since resilience is greater than the disturbance, the system starts to dissolve the disturbance and attempts to reach equilibrium once again. After some time, the disturbance disintegrates. The amplitude, frequency, and degree of damped oscillation are dependent on the values of the different parameters in the model. The state diagram in Figure 7 explains the structure of the system. The disturbance forces the system to sway away from the 100-unit equilibrium, as shown by the slanting graph towards the value of 115 on the x-axis. The reacting balancing loops, however, forces back the state into equilibrium; hence, the inward spiral directions of the plot in the state diagram (Holling, 1973).

**Scenario 3: Resilience 40; disturbance 57; time when disturbance occurred 104; regeneration rate 5.0; time to absorb disturbance 6.0.**

Since the imposed disturbance is greater than resilience (by 17 units), balancing regeneration loop is overwhelmed by the collapse feedback loop. As shown in Figure 10, the disturbance overshoots the limit of 40 and the dominance is shifted to the collapse feedback loop. Though the dissipation and regeneration loops still works on this situation, the collapse is nevertheless significantly stronger. The sequence of feedbacks leads the whole system to plunge down. The state diagram in Figure 9 shows that after the disturbance is introduced, the system does not spiral back to equilibrium, but rather plummets down to zero.

**DISCUSSION**

The stock-and-flow diagram in Figure 3 provides a simple but powerful way for modelers, as well as policy makers, in looking at the fundamental feedback processes found in resilient systems. The representation of different elements the system can show hints on which parts of the system can be leveraged in order to sustain equilibrium. In Figure 7, As soon as disturbance is introduced, the system activates a mechanism of dissipating the imbalance; while at the same time relays information throughout the feedback loops about the size of the gap between the current and desired (in this case, the equilibrium) state of the system. The system behavior fluctuates until the gap reaches zero. Holling (1973) considers two perspectives in managing natural resources. The first is stability, which focuses on equilibrium and extracting the fewest resources as possible; the second is resilience, which focuses on the need for perseverance. In understanding the susceptibility of environmental systems to collapse, Jones et al. (2002) propose collaboration between the modeler and stakeholders in identifying leverage points in the system in order to avoid undesired outcomes.

Holling (1973) studied how the cattle grazing lands of the western United States had become invaded by shrubs and trees. In some cases, grazing and the reduced incidence of fire through fire prevention programs allowed invasion and establishment of shrubs and trees at the expense of grass. Over a period of time after the disturbance diminishes, some systems that have been substantially perturbed had restored its original vitality. This is reflected in Scenario 2 of the experiment (Figures 7 and 8), which shows how the system struggles to absorb perturbations and slowly regains equilibrium after a period of time. Though disturbance may seem undesirable, it may also bring some benefits to the system. Folke (2006) suggests that disturbance may bring about the emergence of a better and more robust system structure. Due to the generic structure of the model of this paper, however, the analysis of such emergent behaviors is beyond its scope.

**Implications for sustainability leadership practice**

From the conventional bottom line (e.g. profit and return on investment) centered goal, more business models are now revitalized as the triple bottom line (i.e. economic, ecological, and social values) paradigm enters into mainstream strategic management (Gimenez et al., 2012). Business leaders that continually seek for strategies to maintain competitive position in the industry (Proff, 2002) find that all aspects of business are connected to everything else and that long-term success cannot be achieved if problematic areas are addressed in isolation (Sterman, 2000). In simplest terms, system dynamics help decision-makers appreciate the underlying interdependences between elements of complex systems. Systems thinking, which is the ability to see
interconnections between cause and effects that are distant in time and space (Meadows, 2008), enriches sustainability leaders’ understanding on the limitations of environmental systems on a holistic point of view.

The elementary model in this paper shows how important understanding the principle of resilience is. Although resilience is a fundamental attribute of all environmental systems, many people still have misperceptions about this rule-of-the-thumb (Moxnes, 2000). In order to sustain competitive advantage, business leaders should not only have firm grasps on their potentials for growth (Gary & Wood, 2010), but also on leveraging on the resilience of the environment where they operate (Ford, 2010) and on improving their mental models (i.e. understanding on how a system works) about the preponderance of limits that their environment imposes – be it economic, ecological, or social.

CONCLUSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

This paper has sought to help increase understanding of how resilient systems behave by using simple CLD and SFD. Different values for disturbances and resilience are shown to observe the varying reactions of the system to different degrees of disturbance. It is shown that when the disturbance is lesser than the resilience of the system, it triggers damped oscillation behavior; however, when disturbance is greater than the resilience the system collapses. Through the principles of feedback processes and macro-level perspectives in analyzing the behavior of resilient systems, system dynamics can help policy makers craft policies that take into consideration long-term effects. A platform for discussion brought about by the modeler among competing stakeholders results into a shared understanding of the system (Ghafrarzadegen et al., 2010). It also provides opportunities for establishing open communications between different parties, in which the ultimate goal is to ensure the sustainability of environmental systems at stake.

Different resilient systems may have different spatial and temporal distinctions. Other systems may have largely complex structure, and perhaps can involve more stocks than what is modeled in this paper. However, system dynamics models are flexible enough to be used as benchmarks in modeling different systems with closely related characteristics or behaviors. For instance, geology and international trade may be unrelated at all; but constructing a model to describe the behavior of the two systems may require a basic parameter – an equilibrium balancing feedback loop that keeps the system in a stable state. This paper shows that when the disturbance exceeds the resilience, the system collapses. However, there are instances that when disturbance is imposed, a resilient system changes its state, but does not collapse. Future researchers can incorporate this premise in the model, depending on the context of resilience. In this paper, disturbance is represented by a pulse with a positive value. This may be improved further by including what-if scenarios when the imposed value is negative. Furthermore, the disturbance is introduced into the system only once. More complex models may incorporate more than one disturbance that can be imposed into the system at different time frames. Future studies aiming to model resilient systems in more detail can have more flexibility in adding chaos or stochastic behaviors. Furthermore, scenario analysis may be helpful to determine to what extent the system responds to different degrees of changes in the parameters.

REFERENCES


**APPENDIX**

Model Equations:

**Stocks:**

\[ \text{System}(t) = \text{System}(-dt) + (\text{Degeneration} + \text{Regeneration} - \text{Dissipation} - \text{Collapse}) \times dt \]

\[ \text{INIT System} = \text{Equilibrium} \{\text{units}\} \]

\[ \text{INFLOWS:} \]

- Degeneration = Net\_disturbance*Time\_to\_degenerate \{units/month\}
- Regeneration = if (Response>0) then (0) else (Gap\_2*Regeneration\_rate) \{units/month\}

\[ \text{OUTFLOWS:} \]

- Dissipation = if (System=Equilibrium) then (0) else(System/Time\_to\_absorb\_disturbance) \{units/month\}
- Collapse = if (Response>0) then (step(System/Time\_to\_collapse,Time\_when\_disturbance\_occured)) else(0) \{units/month\}

\[ \text{Transient\_condition}(t) = \text{Transient\_condition}(t-dt) + (\text{Change\_in\_condition}) \times dt \]

\[ \text{INIT Transient\_condition} = \text{Equilibrium} \{\text{units}\} \]

\[ \text{INFLOWS:} \]

- Change\_in\_condition = Gap\_1/Time\_to\_change\_condition \{units/month\}

**Variables:**

- Disturbance = 0 \{unit\}
- Equilibrium = 100 \{units\}
- Gap\_1 = System-Equilibrium \{units\}
- Gap\_2 = Equilibrium-Transient\_condition \{units\}
- Net\_disturbance = pulse (Disturbance,Time\_when\_disturbance\_occured,0) \{units\}
- Regeneration\_rate = 5 \{1/months\}
- Resilience = 50 \{percent\}
- Response = Disturbance-Tolerance \{units\}
- Time\_to\_absorb\_disturbance = 6 \{months\}
- Time\_to\_change\_condition = 2 \{months\}
- Time\_to\_collapse = 4 \{month\}
- Time\_to\_degenerate = 1 \{months\}
- Time\_when\_disturbance\_occured = 100 \{month\}
- Tolerance = Equilibrium*Resilience/100 \{units\}
SUSTAINABLE PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT OF ACADEMICS IN A THAI UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the performance management system of a university in Thailand from the sustainability perspective. Themes related to sustainable leadership practices (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2010) are used to evaluate the performance management system. These themes are stakeholder-focus, strong-shared vision, self-management, ethical behavior and change management. Derived from 20 interviews with the key implementers of performance management at 20 units (faculties, centers, and institutes) of a Thai university, the findings reveal the variety of performance management implementation. Implementation was mostly gradual, with consultation with academics. Broader stakeholder measures were introduced later. Challenges in implementing performance management, especially within the academic context where work is more fluid, autonomous and complex, are reported.

Keywords: performance management, sustainability, public sector, higher education.

INTRODUCTION

One of the major trends that characterise recent developments in Management and Human Resource Management (HRM) is the growing emphasis on organisation and employee Performance Management (PM) systems. Internationalisation, intensification of competition, the increasing complexity of operations and higher expectations from customers and stakeholders have elevated the importance of performance management policies and practices as a way to increase organisational performance (Compton, 2005). Many organisations are also becoming more “strategic” in their management of human resources in order to promote “high performance” working and maintain competitive advantage. Performance management schemes can also have wider effects in underpinning various initiatives aimed at changing organisational culture (Kessler and Purcell, 1992). Despite this increased emphasis, performance management remains a major source of frustration for managers and employees (Aguinis & Pierce, 2008; Lawler, 1994).

Performance management so far has been studied solely from the perspective of its impact on business outcomes. Currently, as issues such as energy and resource shortages, climate change, pollution, unethical business decisions and actions and the economic crisis are increasing, the notion of corporate sustainability as an organisation goal has started to receive more attention from corporate executives (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2010; Wong & Avery, 2009). Business leaders are more aware that while they have relatively short-term economic horizons, a failure to account for environmental and social impacts would make their corporations unsustainable in the long term.

There are many definitions of what sustainability means. The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) in 1987 defined sustainable development as the ultimate goal; meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (UN, 1987). Roger, Jalal and Boyd (2008) define corporate sustainability as having a capacity to balance the “triple bottom line”, which includes measuring and managing social, environmental, and economic outcomes. Others (Avery, 2006; Kantabutra & Avery, 2011) define corporate sustainability as an enterprise having a capacity to deliver consistent and strong financial performance, demonstrate a capacity to endure numerous difficult economic and social situations and maintain a leadership position in its relevant market. Most recently, Avery & Bergsteiner (2010) suggest that a sustainable enterprise is one that is competitive, resilient, fast to respond and appealing to stakeholders.
A sustainable corporation operates with a business approach that creates long-term stakeholder value by taking into consideration every element of how an organisation operates in the economic, social and cultural environments. Strategies are developed to create an organisation that fosters longevity through fairness, transparency and valuing staff. Corporate sustainability is the broader term that also includes more traditional terms such as corporate social responsibility (CSR) or corporate citizenship. Unlike the other terms that focus on “added-on” policies and practices, in order to achieve corporate sustainability an integrated set of business practices built around organisations, stakeholders, society and environment will be implemented.

Around the world, there are increased efforts to drive enterprises towards becoming more sustainable. In the education sector, universities can be models of sustainable practices as well as transform students into “citizens of the planet”. However, this paper focuses on how universities can practice sustainability in their performance management process. In terms of sustainable performance management, the literature seems to suggest that organisation performance measurement and reporting are components particularly important to sustainability (Hubbard, 2009). Sustainability concepts have dramatically widened the scope of measurement options. Leading organisations are grappling with sustainability reporting, but there is no sign of consensus on a common reporting standard and the competing frameworks are impossibly complex. Nevertheless, Winstanley & Stuart-Smith (1996) and Perrini & Tencati (2006) argued that performance measures containing references to stakeholders would bring about better sustainability outcomes than those without. This type of performance measure content might be needed to drive management and employees to sustainable actions. Avery & Bergsteiner’s (2010) Honeybee organisations have high performance, resilience and sustainability and consider all stakeholders, not only shareholders. Winstanley & Stuart-Smith (1996) argued for ethics and a stakeholder approach to performance management.

Furthermore, in addition to measures with sustainability content, the process and the way the performance is cascaded, communicated and measured throughout all levels in organisations is important. Some of Avery & Bergsteiner’s (2010) elements of “Honeybee leadership” that contribute to high performance and resilience in sustainable enterprises have relationships with the performance management process. For example, vision and culture can be operationalised through sustainable performance management practices. Sustainable performance management should also facilitate self-management practices and support a culture of valuing staff and ethical behavior.

In Thailand, the study of performance management is very limited and little is known about how organisations develop it. Thai organisational leaders seem to be aware of the concept of performance management, but whether performance management is practiced in a sustainable way needs to be examined. Furthermore, large numbers of past studies were conducted in Western cultures, with a limited amount of research on the effectiveness of performance management systems in Eastern cultures (Rao, 2007). In the public sector in Thailand, under the influence of various global and local factors, many recent public service reform initiatives have been implemented. These initiatives also follow the New Public Management (NPM) model that emphasises devolution of authority, “agentificiation” of autonomous public organisations and increased customer-orientation (Hage, 2007). Consequently, results-based budgets, service targets and performance agreements have been introduced. These can present challenging and interesting contexts to examine performance management in organisations providing public services in Thailand.

This study examines performance management from the sustainability perspective, focusing on higher education institutions in a Thai university. It contributes to the debate on the effectiveness of performance management approaches in public service organisation settings. This study can also have wider implications for managing knowledge workers. Academics provide knowledge-intensive services and are not easily controlled by administrators. Hence, a study of a performance management system in a Thai university would be valuable. The paper starts with a literature review on performance management and sustainability. Then the methodology of the study is described, followed by its findings. Finally, the discussion is provided.

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT AND SUSTAINABILITY

Performance Management
Performance management can be understood as a generic term embracing a variety of approaches in managing employee performance. It is an HRM-based definition in which performance management is a distinctive set of techniques. Two levels of performance management practices are organisation/unit performance management and individual performance management. Within the HRM perspective, individual performance management can be regarded as an extension of “performance appraisal” (Thorpe & Beasley, 2004). In addition to appraisal,
the evolving concept of performance management has led to the inclusion of other elements, for example, the linkage and communication of a company’s “shared vision” through the cascading of the organisation’s objectives and targets to individuals in performance agreements, the use of regular feedback and reviews to establish how the individual is progressing and for managers to provide on-going feedback, coaching and the linking of performance evaluation results to rewards (Bevan & Thompson, 1991).

Techniques applied under the umbrella of performance management vary widely from one organisation to the next. The dominant approach, particularly for professional and managerial staff, continues to be the assessment of individual performance against set objectives and target measures or standards (Bach, 2000). There has also been an increase in the use of a combination of methods such as output and competencies (Armstrong & Baron, 2002). Many studies find that appraisal is still the main activity of performance management, while the ongoing feedback element is still lacking (Rao, 2007; IDS, 2005).

The recent emphasis on organisational performance management is also a phenomenon in the public sector. Performance Management has been a key feature in public sector modernisation agendas associated with the New Public Management ideology in countries such as the USA, UK, Australia, Canada and New Zealand (Butterfield, Edwards, & Woodall, 2004). The intensification of centralising strategies of control, multiple layers of accountability and explicit and rigorous performance regimes under NPM movements may present challenges to performance management, especially in the developmental and motivational aspects. Many studies of performance management in the public sector in Western countries were conducted from a critical perspective. These studies, especially those in the context of universities and colleges, tend to suggest a controlling agenda rather than motivation (Barry, Chandler, & Clark, 2001; Townley, 1992). These studies reported instances of tension between operational goals on the one hand and developmental purpose on the other. It is the differences between the promise and real practice of performance management in organisations such as universities for which intellectual capital has great significance that drive this research. University academics, who can also be described as knowledge workers, are thought to present challenges to performance management as their work tends to be complex, fluid, autonomous and thus difficult to supervise. One of the dilemmas that universities may face is how to retain a certain level of managerial control and at the same time deploy the performance management systems that simultaneously allow staff operational autonomy (Bailyn, 1985).

Many authors suggest that instead of a formal intervention from managers, organisations should develop a strong culture or informal control (through socialisation and recruitment programs) or normative control (professional standard and personal pride) (Alvesson & Johansson, 2002; Currie & Kerrin, 2003). However, research found that this form of informal control serves to complement but not to replace more formal techniques of control (Robertson & Swan, 2003). Despite this acknowledgement, the majority of the literature, however, generally lacks substantive empirical evidence, particularly in explaining how the “delicate balance” is achieved between formalised forms of control such as performance management and the implicit forms of control required to facilitate autonomous knowledge workers such as university academics (Robertson & Hammersley, 2000).

The next section discusses performance management and sustainability. The topics include a stakeholder approach to performance management, ethics, people-focused performance management, shared strong vision and change management. These topics cover both the performance management content needed to drive people to sustainable actions and sustainable performance management process requirements.

Performance management and sustainability
In terms of performance management and sustainability, a number of scholars have discussed the stakeholder-focused performance management. Companies need stakeholder-centered performance systems to measure in order to assess whether they are responding to stakeholder concerns in an effective way and to communicate the results achieved (Perrini & Tencati, 2006). This is because the capacity of a firm to continue operating over a long period of time also depends on the sustainability of its stakeholder relationships. This new stakeholder view of the firm goes beyond previous work on the triple bottom line and balanced scorecard. Furthermore, public service organisations around the globe are facing enormous challenges to bring about change amidst an increasingly ambiguous and complex context, under pressure to better meet high expectations of their wide range of stakeholders. Butterfield et al. (2004) found that the demands and expectations of staff and other stakeholders, as well as resource constraints appear to be key factors influencing the implementation of performance management within the UK Police Service.
From the HRM perspective, performance management is introduced to manage employees in order to achieve firm goals (Storey, 2001). This perspective has suggested solidarity-based work environments or a unified approach, assuming harmony of interests between employers and other groups. This unified perspective is challenged by stakeholder-focused practices. In some cases of performance management, it might not be possible for all stakeholders to agree on the performance management system, process and measures. Nevertheless, leaders need to be careful to prevent the existence of different perspectives from various parties. This requires mechanisms to ensure that it is not just the power holders whose voice is heard. In the higher education sector, Lemons (2011) suggests that universities increasingly tend to respond primarily to the powerful parties in society such as businesses, at the expense of other groups. Furthermore, this raises a question of employee involvement in the design of the performance management system. Performance management is still something that is largely “done to” the individual. Employee involvement and consultation in performance management design and implementation is one of the keys to success.

In addition to the stakeholder approach to performance management, Winstanley & Stuart-Smith (1996) also argued for ethics in performance management. There is a need for procedural fairness and transparency to limit the adverse impact on individuals of subjectivity and bias in performance management systems. This should be backed by opportunities to scrutinise the basis for decision-making, the right to comment on appraisal review findings and the right to appeal against decisions that are believed to be unfair. In addition, the criteria used for performance evaluation also need to be clearly communicated upfront.

Another ethical appraisal of performance management would concern itself with its effects on the individual. There is an important question as to whether individuals in the process are treated as “ends in themselves”, or simply “means to other ends”. One of the problems within performance management systems is that they have generally led individuals to feel that the latter is the reality. Ethical performance management requires managing people with respect, care and focusing on their development. It is not about creating a culture of “hire and fire” or a distrusting environment. Furthermore, much of the academic research on performance appraisal has been focused on measurement issues (DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006). Effective use of performance management systems requires effective developmental feedback, but so far this developmental aspect of performance management has remained under-used and under-explored.

One of the dilemmas that universities may face is how to determine a balance between retaining a certain level of managerial control and at the same time allowing staff self-management to develop trust and motivation (Bailyn, 1985). A sustainable performance management process is different from the directing and controlling of traditional performance management. Sustainable performance management may be used in Avery & Bergsteiner’s sustainable ‘Honeybee’ organisations, the opposite of ‘Locust’ organizations, to support employee self-management and trust through relationships and goodwill with employees. In contrast, locust organisations may have tight control and monitoring to compensate for low trust and rely on managers to manage.

In addition to “self-management”, Avery & Bergsteiner (2010) also include “strong shared vision” and “culture” among the 23 elements of “Honeybee leadership”. Vision can be operationalised through performance management and core values. One of the key assumptions in performance management is the linkage and communication of a company’s “shared vision” by cascading the organisation’s objectives to individuals in performance management (Nankervis & Compton, 2006). Having a strong vision, a set of values shared by employees and appropriate performance management contributes to employee self-management by helping employees understand their goals and the way to get there. The importance of “strong shared vision” and “culture” is also supported by an argument that formal performance management practices may not be as rational and objective as they appear to be. Management literature is quite silent on the fact that the employment relationship is, by nature, imprecise (Edwards & Wajcman, 2005). The subjective nature of performance has led a number of writers to suggest problems inherent in formulising performance management measures. Winstanley & Stuart-Smith (1996) stress that it is difficult to set performance objectives that cover the whole job (including intangibles) and are flexible in response to changes. Therefore, in order to manage the whole performance, performance measures and goals as well as vision and culture should be utilised.

Lastly, the way performance management practices are introduced and implemented is also important. Avery & Bergsteiner’s Honeybee organisations (2010) see change as an evolving and considered process. In order to implement sustainable performance management practices, employee involvement in the design and implementation of performance management processes is important. For example, setting objectives can be problematic if the objectives are perceived to be imposed from the centre and when key targets are not jointly negotiated. This problem may occur when employees are unable to influence the determination of performance
targets that are arbitrarily set by managers who are politically motivated and irrational. In addition, the way change is managed also contributes to the question as to whether individuals in the process are treated as “ends in themselves”, or merely “means to other ends” as discussed earlier. If the implementation of a performance management system is well managed, employees may feel that the former is the case.

OBJECTIVES FOR RESEARCH

There are several important research objectives concerning sustainable performance management that are explored in this paper:

- to identify the forms of sustainable performance management utilised; to identify issues and problems in implementation of sustainable performance management.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study used interviews to focus on the performance management implementation experience of 20 key implementers who were responsible for implementing a performance management system in various units of a university. Interviews were also conducted with senior management of the central HR unit of the university. The study was carried out at one of the large universities in Thailand. This university, formerly a Thai governmental university, gained its autonomous university status in 2007. Autonomous universities manage independently from the government system in many areas of their operation including personnel management. In Thailand, autonomous universities are also moving to a contract system for university employees to gradually replace the permanent civil servant status. A new performance management system was introduced at this university in 2009. The university has been a pioneer in this area in the Thai higher education sector. The university-wide performance management implementation was applied to all units. The key informant or key person responsible for performance management implementation at each unit was selected for interview by purposive sampling, allowing a maximum variation sample of academic units to capture the breadth of implementer experiences. Variation among the academic units included discipline, unit type, campus, size and age of unit, and nature of academic work. Interviews followed a semi-structured common template. Each interview lasted from 1-2 hours. Published sources, university and unit documents and websites were also utilized.

FINDINGS

The interview findings illustrate the variety of performance management implementation. Practice appeared to vary widely from strict performance management systems to relatively laissez-faire performance management practices. Nevertheless, most implementers interviewed suggested that the performance management system was gradually implemented for academics at the units. In part, this was due to negotiation and consultation with academics regarding performance management measures in most units. Broader stakeholder measures were introduced into the organisation’s performance management measures later by the university management team after the system has been implemented for 3-4 years. However, all implementers interviewed reported challenges that tend to characterise the effort in implementing performance management, especially within the academic context where work is more fluid, autonomous and complex. More specific findings are discussed next.

Stakeholder-focused performance management

Two levels of performance management practices implemented were organisation performance management and individual performance management. In terms of the organisation performance management, there were measures within four university strategic priorities, which are Research Excellence, Learning Excellence, Service excellence and Internationalisation. Each unit developed its own performance contribution presentation for its dean to deliver to the university management team in an annual performance agreement meeting. Between 2009 and 2012, these four strategic priorities were assessed by up to 100 Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) from the university. Most interviewees felt that in this meeting the unit told the university management team what they achieved, rather than the university management team telling the unit what to do. This could also be because of difficulty in communicating and discussing a large number of KPIs in the meeting. Since 2013, the number of the university’s strategic priorities has become nine, adding Social Responsibility, ICT-based University, Harmony in Diversity, Management for Sustainability and Human Resource Excellence. But the number of KPIs has been reduced to around 50 under nine strategic priorities. This makes it more manageable to communicate to unit management teams and academics in the annual meeting.
The organisation performance measures were then cascaded to the individual level. Four categories of performance targets for individual lecturers included teaching, research, service, and art & cultural activities. The majority of academics focused on the first two areas (teaching and research). The latter two received less importance, being rather more symbolic. However, because of the diverse nature of university disciplines, some units emphasised services and art & cultural activities as well. These four categories still remain despite the change to the new nine strategic priorities of the university. In most units, academics were involved and consulted in determining the individual-level measures in detail. In sum, the performance management measures were determined internally. The content concerning broader stakeholders is increasing for the organisation-level measures.

**Strong shared vision and core values**

The university management team, the university council, all the deans and directors developed strategic directions, a set of core values and goals. The examples of explicit core values were Integrity, Altruism, and Leadership. These explicit core values have been developed since 2008. The university management team strongly communicated the world-class research university vision, being in the world top 100 university ranking. In the past, teaching was a priority and research was considered as extra work for most academics. Most units shared the university’s vision and goal. However, again, due to the diverse disciplines within the university, a few units emphasised professional practices, and therefore did not feel that they shared this research university vision. A few interviewees were not sure where their units would be placed under this vision. However, the university did not strongly force this research university vision on these types of units.

When the university management team talked about the strategic direction, vision, value and targets in the annual performance agreement meeting at each unit, a majority of the time was spent on communicating targets due to its detailed content. For individual performance management, targets were the only focus. Few interviewees mentioned that academics should be managed by vision and culture, rather than solely by targets. At the individual performance management level, some of the core values were operationalised into competencies. However, a common problem regarding subjectivity in evaluating competencies has obstructed the benefits of utilising competencies in performance management. In many units, the competency system was just symbolic (i.e. everybody got the same competency ratings). Nevertheless, there were also some university activities to create initial awareness of the core values such as training and communication through publicity materials.

**Self-management and autonomy**

The findings suggest that determining a balance between retaining a certain level of managerial control and self-management is important in the academic environment. Again, two levels of performance management system (the organisation and individual levels) can be analysed. In relation to the level of organisation performance management between the university and units, a delicate balance between control and autonomy seemed to surface. For example, as discussed earlier, deans of units presented an overview of their achievements to the university management team during an annual visit, rather than the university telling them what the university wanted. However, units had to complete and submit the target forms detailing the desired KPIs and achieved targets to the university. No supporting evidence of target accomplishment was required. Comments and feedback were then provided in the annual meeting by the university management team, together with comments regarding targets for the next year. For some units, a few interviewees thought that the university management team may not be sufficiently familiar with the content of some disciplines to give feedback in detail. Furthermore, whether targets were achieved or not, there was no consequence. No reward or punishment was provided. The need for discussion and provision of resources or support to units by the university to achieve targets was mentioned by a minority of people interviewed. A few interviewees mentioned that holding only one meeting per year may not be sufficient. These issues led most interviewees to feel that they were not heavily controlled via the organisation’s performance management system. One interviewee even commented that it was rather like window dressing. For some units, pressure in achieving these targets came from external factors such as units in the surrounding areas or competing units in another university, rather the university management team.

Since 2013, there have been few changes. After the deans’ presentation, the university management team started to give presentation on their nine strategic priorities and desired targets. Since the number of targets was reduced and the targets were categorized into nine key strategic themes, the messages were effectively communicated. They also asked whether the units needed any support, although this was again not thoroughly discussed. The university management team also started to ask for evidence supporting the unit accomplishment.
At the individual performance management level, most interviewees felt that the unit management has buffered the controlling aspect of performance management through employee participation in target and measure determination. Pressuring staff to achieve these targets was reported by only a few of the implementers interviewed. One issue reported by most interviewees was the weak linkage between individual performance and adequate rewards such as pay increases (and even punishment). Some units did not establish a direct link between performance management and rewards. They only used the result of the performance management as one among different types of input to determine pay increases. In addition, the resources and budget constraints in the university and units may also prohibit the use of appropriate salary increase to motivate people to achieve a desired performance outcome.

Another common issue raised by a majority of the interviewees is that some academics declined to do work that was not listed among the performance management measures. Many interviewees commented that this might be because the workload requirement of academics was not clear from the beginning. Furthermore, some units had another problem of developing too many measures in detail and this created a feeling of bureaucracy and being micro-managed among academics. On the other hand, some units have not been able to start implementing their individual performance management scheme due to difficulty in developing agreed performance measures that would evaluate academic work completely and fairly.

The development purpose, rather than control, was strongly stated when the performance management program was firstly introduced. However, most interviewees reported that little connection was made between performance evaluation and development at the individual level. The development actions were reported more at the organisation level. Unit support, for example publication incentives and training support, was provided to academics in the whole unit to achieve these targets.

Change process
All interviewees reported that the performance management process was developed by the central HR unit of the university in 2009. Then the HR unit introduced the performance management regulations. In terms of performance evaluation, the unit/department performance management panel would evaluate each academic according to achievements against the performance agreement and competencies. If those people who are being appraised do not agree with the evaluation results, they can appeal within 14 days. There was no implementation pilot project at any unit. There was a two-hour information session about performance management for academics held by the central Vice President HR at most units. The real implementation varied among units. Some implemented the system straight away. Some delayed the implementation for a few years. And some have not implemented the system yet. There has been involvement and collaboration of academics in most units in determining the performance measures. Having a variety of units also presented challenges in tailoring performance management systems to fit within each unit context. Most implementers thought that their HR units still needed help in implementing the system, while the central HR function at the university only provided a general template and expected that each faculty or unit should tailor it to fit its own environments.

DISCUSSION

This research examined the experiences of 20 performance management implementers in a Thai university. Some elements of sustainable performance management have been adopted such as shared vision, autonomy and self-management and involvement of staff in developing performance measures. Later, broader stakeholder content has been included. While this is consistent with the findings of previous research about incorporating sustainable performance measures in the organisation-level performance management systems, organisational performance management measures are still determined internally by the university management team. Academics were involved in determining individual performance measures in most units. No external stakeholders were involved directly in determining the performance measures.

Issues in implementing sustainable performance management tend to be at the individual-level performance management. At many units, the introduction of an individual performance management system may also imply the replacement of a former psychological contract, based on relationships, with the new one that is more transaction-based or contract-based. This was evident in many units when academics hesitated or declined to do work outside the performance agreement. This transaction-based performance management may also lead academics to feel that they were simply “means to other ends”. This may consequently result in employee disengagement with the organisation.
Furthermore, many problems of individual-level performance management may stem from the nature of academic work, which tends to be complex, fluid, autonomous and thus difficult to manage and measure. Complete measures to cover all academic work are difficult to develop. Winstanley & Stuart-Smith (1996) claim that traditional approaches to performance management are flawed. Grint (1993) also stresses the complexity of the variables being assessed and that job performance cannot be disentangled from systems effects – performance is affected by many other factors apart from the individual. Grint questions whether performance management can ever be carried out in anything approaching an objective manner. These authors suggest that performance management is bound to result in a degree of demotivation and dissatisfaction on the part of some employees. This view is also shared by a number of authors who think that this further explains why the performance management process is often viewed as nothing more than an imposed bureaucratic chore and that, despite the rhetoric, the organisation does not really take the process seriously (Winstanley & Stuart-Smith, 1996).

This difficulty of determining measures and evaluating performance within the formal performance management system may also signal the importance of re-communicating the vision and developing core values, in addition to the current sole emphasis on target measures. This might support a line of argument that performance management for knowledge workers like academics should also focus on management by norm or normative control (professional standards and personal pride) (Currie & Kerrin, 2003; Alvesson, 2002). This research also starts to explain the "delicate balance" could be achieved between formalised forms of control such as performance targets and the implicit forms of performance management such as core values and vision required to facilitate autonomous university academics. Formal performance management needs support from a strong, shared vision and a set of values shared by employees in order to facilitate employee self-management.

This is not inconsistent with the findings of previous research such as that of Prichard & Willmott, (1997), who presented findings based on interviews with senior staff in four universities where the process of management control has a greater presence within senior management. The findings here indicate that the senior university management team took a careful step in balancing control and autonomy and gradually introduced organisational performance management over time. A greater presence of management control has been seen in recent years, and not in the beginning. This research shows that as the system was moving downwards to individual-level performance management, it also tended to become mediated and moderated en-route by most unit management teams. In most units, staff consultation can be interpreted as negotiation taking place over performance management form and applications, as unit management and academics muddled through the system. This may give an impression of Strauss et al.'s (1963) "negotiated order" with a kindly face. Nevertheless, this may also be because the unit management teams were trying to understand performance management practices that were new to them as well. The finding here is consistent with the findings of Chandler, Barry, & Clark (2002) where heads of department and those in line management positions were often seen as embracing supportive and co-operative relationships with academics in implementing the performance management system.

CONCLUSION

This paper contains the examination of sustainable performance management practices. It is an important and timely contribution to research on the implementation of western HR management practices in Asia and, specifically, within universities. The research findings clearly illustrate the variety of performance management implementation systems and many issues that need to be addressed in order to have sustainable performance management. These findings may be due to two important factors: the nature of academic work and workplace culture. As previous research and literature (for example, Buttlefield et al., 2004; Armstrong & Baron, 1998) has demonstrated the need to draw out the implications of specific organisational-contextual characteristics on performance management, it is critical that any educational institutions provide great care when importing private sector management practice into their organisations. Universities and units need to have a clear understanding of how to adapt and tailor performance management to fit with their institutional context.
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LINKING SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP PRACTICES AND ORGANISATIONAL HIGH PERFORMANCE: A PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT

Which leadership practices drive organisational high performance? Practitioners and academics alike are seeking answers to this question, searching for alternative leadership approaches to generate high performance. One alternative is Sustainable Leadership (SL), which seeks to balance people, profits and the planet over the life of the firm, while simultaneously creating high performance and resilience. Although there has been much research into leadership and organisational performance in the past decades, current understanding of leadership and organisational performance is limited. Previous research also lacked sophisticated statistical methodologies, such as cluster and configuration statistical techniques and analyses, to simultaneously examine multiple variables and identify meaningful patterns that drive organisational high performance and resilience. Several gaps in the literature remain and this paper attempts to addresses major gaps in the field. This paper reviews the existing literature on high-performance in organisations and concludes that 21 of the 23 SL practices are linked to high performance. Specific research propositions and suggestions for future directions are provided.

Keywords: Leadership, sustainable leadership, high performance organisations, organisational performance

BACKGROUND

Scholars have long searched for the key practices that drive high performance in organisations (e.g. Collins & Porras, 1994; Kaplan & Norton, 2005; Kirby 2005; Peters & Waterman, 1982). The resulting research underscores the importance of leadership behaviors and management practices in contributing to and strengthening organisational performance (e.g. Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011a, b; Drucker, 2003; Joyce et al., 2003; Joyce & Slocum, 2012; Knoepfel, 2001). The U.S. Malcolm Baldridge National Quality Awards have also highlighted that leadership drives the overall system underpinning organisational performance (Wilson & Collier, 2000).

Identifying the specific leadership practices driving organisational high performance has become an important quest for both practitioners and academics and is the underlying question that this paper addresses. Extensive research has been undertaken in the field of leadership and organisational performance (such as Lieberman & O’Connor, 1972; Pratt & Pratt, 2010; Werbach, 2009). Much of this previous literature has narrowly focused on the leadership styles of individual leaders and performance, for example research on the transactional and transformational leadership studies (e.g. Bass, Avolio, Jung, Berson, 2003; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Howell & Hall-Merenda 1999). Others have examined individual variables; however, more recent studies have started to look at a larger number of variables (e.g. Collins, 2004; Joyce, Nohria & Roberson, 2003; Boedker et al., 2011).

Despite many attempts to identify key leadership and management practices associated with high performance in organisations, getting reliable data has been fraught with difficulty due to the complex effects of multiple interrelated practices on performance and to challenges in measuring performance outcomes. Facilitated by more modern statistical techniques, e.g. cluster analysis, it becomes feasible to examine patterns or configurations of variables and relate them to leadership practices. Through the use of more sophisticated statistical tools, diverse literature calls for more configuration research in leadership studies to uncover unique, valuable leadership clusters in organisational theories and to further examine how such strategic configurations affect managerial actions and organisational outcomes (Dufour & Steane, 2006; Fiss, 2007; Rodwell & Shadur, 2007; Short, Payne, Ketchen, 2008). Responding to these developments, this paper proposes further studies of leadership configurations driving high performance (using statistical techniques such as cluster and configuration analysis) to advance current knowledge.

Furthermore, a consistent set of criteria for assessing leadership practices is often missing from studies of high performance. This paper adopts as its framework Avery & Bergsteiner’s (2011a, b) 23 practices from their
Sustainable Leadership (SL) model. Diverse research shows that organisations embracing SL principles generate organisational high performance and competitive advantage (Avery, 2005; Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011a, b; Kantabutra, 2012; Kantabutra & Suriyankietkaew, 2012). As this paper will show, much of the research into high-performance organisations (e.g. Australian Industry Group, 2012; Boedker et al., 2011; Eccles, Ioannou, & Serafeim, 2012; Leggatt & Dwyer, 2003; Overholt et al., 2007; Waal, 2007) identifies practices similar to those arising from Avery & Bergsteiner’s research as drivers of organisational high performance. Avery & Bergsteiner (2011a, b) also claim that SL practices are associated individually and together with organisational performance. Therefore, this paper examines the relationship between specific SL elements and findings from the research published on organisational performance.

METHODOLOGY

The paper is predominantly based on literature review. In this paper, ‘Sustainable leadership’ terminology is adopted from the well-established research of Avery & Bergsteiner’s (2011a, b) Sustainable Leadership framework. Papers on organisational high performance were selected using the search words ‘high performance’ and ‘high performance organisation’ in Google Scholar and scholastic research databases, namely Emerald and EBSCOhost databases. Derived from the literature review, research propositions and future directions are proposed in the later part of this paper.

SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP

SL emphasises a holistic leadership and management approach for enhancing organisational performance and resilience. Using evidence-based management practices, the objective of SL is to balance people, profits and the planet to promote longevity and high performance of a firm (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011a, b). Originally, SL was grounded in the Rhineland model of capitalism (Albert, 1993; Avery, 2005) but has since been expanded and renamed the ‘Honeybee’ business model (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011a) to remove geographic connotations implied by the former name. Avery’s (2005) study of 28 case studies from diverse regions in the world led to an initial proposal of the following 19 SL practices: CEO and top-team leadership, consensual decision-making, ethics, challenging financial markets or other external would-be masters, strong systemic innovation, knowledge-sharing, long-term perspective, promotion-from-within, organisational culture, strong people priority, high quality, strong staff retention, highly-skilled workforce, strong social responsibility, environmental responsibility, broad stakeholder focus, self-governing teams, considered change as process, plus cooperative union-management relations. Building on that research, Avery & Bergsteiner (2011a) then expanded the model to 23 SL practices associated with high performing and sustainable enterprises. Four additional SL practices (i.e. trust, innovation, staff engagement and self-management) were added in Avery & Bergsteiner’s (2011a) version of the SL model. Today, the SL practices are arranged in a pyramid as displayed in Figure 1. The lower level consists of 14 foundation practices that can be implemented individually at any time. Various combinations of these practices are needed to support the six higher-level practices in the second row. The third level contains three key performance drivers that the customer experiences. Finally, research-based performance outcomes form the apex of the pyramid.

Figure 1: Sustainable Leadership Model (Source: Avery & Bergsteiner, 2010)
Considerable research (e.g. Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011a; D’Amto & Roome, 2009; Eccles et al., 2012; Harris & Twomey, 2008) indicates that organisations adopting SL practices perform better than their peers and are likely to be more sustainable over the long run. The literature suggests that individual SL practices and some acting in bundles drive high performance, sustainable value and competitive advantage (e.g. Australian Industry Group, 2012; Boedker et al., 2011; Overholt et al., 2007). However, research linking specific SL practices with organisational high performance is currently scant. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to examine this gap.

ORGANISATIONAL HIGH PERFORMANCE

Concepts and measures of high-performance organisations are relatively new to management theory (Kirby, 2005). Peters & Waterman’s In Search of Excellence, published in 1982, first popularised the concept of high-performance organisations. They found that high-performance (excellent) companies engaged in active decision-making, close customer relationships, autonomy and entrepreneurship by fostering innovation, productivity through employees, hands-on and value-driven, business focus, lean staff, autonomy at the frontline and centralised values. Later, Collins & Porras (1994) proposed that ‘built to last’ companies focused on visionary (charismatic) leadership by building mission, vision and a strong culture. However, these influential management books were criticised for their methodological biases and measurement flaws (e.g. Kirby, 2005). Early ideas about high performance organisations were initially driven in the U.S. by the perceived superiority of the Japanese management approach towards job rotation, teamwork, participative employee decision-making, as well as by the Swedish streaming-process and empowerment approach to management (Shih, Chiang & Hsu, 2006; Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg & Kalleberg, 2000). According to the literature, there was no single factor or metric that guaranteed organisational success, but rather, high performance is a composite of many factors (Overholt et al., 2007). But which factors?

Thus, more studies are needed to identify these factors and advance knowledge about high performance organisations. Writers (e.g. Overholt et al., 2007; Kirby, 2005; Waal, 2007) are calling for more research in this area. Overholt et al. (2007, p. 6) state in How to Build a High Performance Organization: “More high-performance studies are likely to emerge in the future, partly because the business environment continues to shift and partly because the science of analysis continues to improve”. Likewise, Kirby (2005) argues that today’s management experts are still building on one another’s work, improving with more sophisticated survey instruments, mining richer data with better tools, and creating theories with greater explanatory powers about high performance. Therefore, this paper aims to expand the current limited understanding of factors leading to high performance in organisations, starting by summarising the literature using definitions of high performance that were adopted in the published papers.

STATING THE PROBLEM

Integrating the literature, this paper attempts to examine multiple practices simultaneously using the criteria in the SL framework to uncover essential practices found to drive high performance in organisations. As noted above, investigating which leadership practices contribute to high performance in organisations is much more complex than just factoring in a few dependent or independent variables. The literature stresses the complexity of interactive relationships among diverse practices that influence high performance, since multiple practices in different combinations can affect organisational performance (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Leggatt & Dwyer, 2003). For example, the Dow Jones Sustainability Group Index suggests that innovation, governance, shareholders, leadership and society drive long-term organisational sustainability and performance while delivering more predictable results; financial data show that DJSGI organisations outperform their counterparts in major stock markets (Knoepfel, 2001). Moreover, Leggatt & Dwyer (2003) concluded that leadership, human resource management, culture, structure, organisational learning and knowledge transfer, quality management and training and development are the eight most relevant practices driving high performance. Considerable research indicates that “high performance organisations use ‘bundles’ of human resources, skills utilisation practices and work organisation arrangements, to increase organisational performance and competitive advantage” (Australian Industry Group, 2012, p.3).

Achieving high-level organisational performance is thus multidimensional and requires organisational leaders to understand the rapidly changing business context and gain competitive advantage by focusing on different facets of resource management, particularly human-oriented management (through employee engagement and commitment) and managing various stakeholders (Berthon, Grimsley, Lacy & Abood, 2008). No single factor or metric guarantees organisational success, but rather high performance is a composite of many things (Overholt et al., 2007).
SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL HIGH PERFORMANCE

A considerable body of published research shows that individual SL management practices lead to high performance in varying degrees (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011a), and numerous researchers have reported that in combination bundles of several SL practices drive high performance in firms. In this section, some of the relevant literature linking individual and bundles of SL leadership and management practices to organisational high performance is discussed. The discussion extracts findings from multiple studies on each SL practice. Table 1 below summarizes the literature on high performance, commencing 30 years ago with Peters & Waterman (1982), and maps the findings to the relevant SL practices across that period. Table 1 shows that 21 out of the 23 SL practices have been studied (except labor relations and financial market orientation) and all 21 found to be associated with high-performing organisations to varying degrees.

Most research into the factors underpinning organisational performance primarily focuses on developing humanistic management as a key strategy for creating and maintaining high-performance organisations. These organisations are traditionally said to harness the power of human resource management practices to improve performance and competitive advantage for the firm (Boxall, 2003). Linking people, strategy and performance is frequently associated with organisational success (Becker, Huselid & Ulrich, 2001; Purcell et al., 2009). Numerous studies support people development as a strategic leadership practice to enable high-performance in organisations (e.g. Aon Hewitt, 2010; Australian Industry Group, 2012; Boedker et al., 2011; Eccles et al., 2012; Harter et al., 2009; Joyce et al., 2003; Joyce & Slocum, 2012; Leggatt & Dwyer, 2003, Overholt et al., 2007; Waal, 2007).

Examining individual SL people practices, staff retention is associated with organisational performance (i.e. Australian Industry Group, 2012; Collins, 2001; Collins & Porras, 1994; Joyce et al., 2003; Joyce & Slocum, 2012), as is succession planning (e.g. Aon Hewitt, 2010; Collins & Porras, 1994; Collins, 2001; Joyce et al., 2003; Leggatt & Dwyer, 2003, Overholt et al., 2007; Waal, 2007). Additionally, valuing staff has long been recognised as an imperative for creating and maintaining high-performance organisations (e.g. Aon Hewitt, 2010; Australian Industry Group, 2012; Boedker et al., 2011; Collins, 2001; Collins & Porras, 1994; Covey, 1999; Eccles et al., 2012; Foster & Kaplan, 2001; Harter et al., 2009; Joyce & Slocum, 2012; Katzenbach, 2000; Overholt et al., 2007; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Waal, 2007). Recent empirical research (Australian Industry Group, 2012) shows that continued development and improvement of human-related skills is a key to long-term competitiveness and growth; and that high-performance organisations focus on maximising the potential of their workforce and utilising this potential for mutual benefit and competitive advantage. In short, considerable literature supports SL humanistic management practices as an underlying foundation for organisational high performance.

In addition to an emphasis on human-oriented practices, numerous studies signal the importance of other SL foundation practices to high levels of organisation performance. Collins (2001), Joyce et al. (2003) and Joyce & Slocum (2012) highlight that top team leadership is essential practice for high-performance firms. Some scholars (i.e. Covey, 1999; Overholt et al., 2007; Weber, 2005) urge that ethical behavior needs to be considered when creating organisational high performance. Moreover, the literature stresses the importance of a long-term perspective (i.e. Collins 2001; Collins & Porras, 1994; Eccles et al. 2012; Joyce & Slocum, 2012; Overholt et al., 2007; Peters & Waterman, 1982).

Multiple studies identify well-managed organisational change as a crucial leadership practice in high performance organisations (i.e. Boedker et al., 2011; Collins, 2001; Collins & Porras, 1994; Covey, 1999; Foster & Kaplan, 2001; Joyce & Slocum, 2012; Katzenbach, 2000; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Overholt et al., 2007; Weick & Sutcliffe, 2001). Diverse literature, namely Berthon et al. (2008), Boedker et al. (2011), Covey (1999), Eccles et al. (2012), Joyce et al. (2003), Joyce & Slocum (2012) and Kotter & Heskett (1992) finds considering the interests of a range of stakeholders enhancing for organisational performance. Furthermore, embracing strong and shared visions helps drive high-performance in organisations as advocated by many authors and researchers including Boedker et al. (2011), Collins (2001), Collins & Porras (1994), Covey (1999), Joyce & Slocum (2012), Katzenbach (2000), Kotter & Heskett (1992) and Overholt et al. (2007).

In addition to the internal leadership and management practices that enable high organisational performance, the literature suggests that other external practices, such as environmental and social responsibility, need to be taken into account to cope with a fast-changing business environments and increased pressure from external stakeholders. Covey (1999) articulated that high performance is attributed to organisations not only because of their capacity to value, trust, empower people and work collaboratively, but also because of their ability to...
connect effectively with the wider community and other stakeholders. Wilcoxson (2000) also urged future researchers to include environmental responsibility by aligning internal systems with the larger ecosystem within which the organisation is located. Along with others, Weber (2005) has demonstrated that ethics and social responsibility enhance a firm’s reputation; this brings benefits in that a reputable company known for its ethics and social responsibility may attract the top talent needed to drive organisational performance. More recent research shows that good corporate governance, social responsibility, environmental responsibility, taking a long-term perspective, creating a sustainability culture and stakeholder orientation positively enhance high performance and sustainability in organisations (Eccles et al., 2012). Eccles et al. (2012, p.27) also highlight that “…companies can adopt environmentally and socially responsible policies without sacrificing shareholder wealth creation…”, and further suggest that companies adopting a culture of sustainability may enjoy a source of competitive advantage over the long run.

According to the literature, other high-level SL practices are also associated with high performance in organisations. Research (i.e. Australian Industry Group, 2012; Boedker et al., 2011; Joyce et al., 2003; Joyce & Slocum, 2012; Leggatt & Dwyer, 2003) indicates that devolved decision-making through employee involvement and empowerment improves organisational performance. Australian Industry Group (2012) and Leggatt & Dwyer (2003) also identify self-management as another important leadership practice for high performance. Various studies such as Australian Industry Group (2012), Collins (2001), Collins & Porras (1994), Covey (1999), Joyce & Slocum (2012), Kotter & Heskett (1992), Leggatt & Dwyer (2003), Overholt et al. (2007) and Weick & Sutcliffe (2001), support teamwork (a team orientation) as an essential enabler of organisational high performance. In numerous publications, enabling and supportive organisational cultures were found crucial to enhancing business performance (i.e. Aon Hewitt, 2010; Boedker et al., 2011; Collins, 2001; Collins & Porras, 1994; Covey, 1999; Eccles et al.2012; Joyce et al., 2003; Joyce & Slocum, 2012; Katzenbach, 2000; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Leggatt & Dwyer, 2003; Overholt et al., 2007; The Stat, 2005; Weick & Sutcliffe, 2001; Wilcoxson, 2000). Additionally, the literature stresses that knowledge sharing and retention (organisational learning) improves performance in organisations (i.e. Australian Industry Group, 2012; Boedker et al., 2011; Covey, 1999; Foster & Kaplan, 2001; Joyce et al., 2003; Joyce & Slocum, 2012; Leggatt & Dwyer, 2003; Overholt et al., 2007). Collins & Porras (1994) and Joyce & Slocum (2012) further specify trust as an important performance-enhancing practice in successful organisations.

The three key drivers in the SL model have been found to drive performance as well. Several studies (i.e. Boedker et al., 2011; Collins, 2001; Collins & Porras, 1994; Joyce et al., 2003; Joyce & Slocum, 2012; Peter & Waterman, 1982; The Stat, 2005) highlight the importance of innovation as a strategic driver of high performance in organisations, while staff engagement is another crucial driver for enhancing organisational high performance (Australian Industry Group, 2012; Boedker et al., 2011; Berthon et al., 2008; Harter et al., 2009; Katzenbach, 2000; Joyce & Slocum, 2012). The literature also stresses the importance of high quality products and services as a key driver of performance (e.g. Australian Industry Group, 2012; Leggatt & Dwyer, 2003; Joyce & Slocum, 2012; Peter & Waterman, 1982).

In addition to individual variables, the literature reports that various bundles of SL management practices also are associated with high-level organisational performance. Based on a meta-analysis performed by Waal (2007), the results across 91 studies since 1992 show that high-performance organisations display diverse characteristics that are similar to many SL practices. Specifically these practices are: people development, succession planning by growing leaders from within the organization, valuing staff, long-term orientation, organisational change, stakeholder consideration, shared vision and values, devolved decision-making, organisational change management, teamwork, enabling culture, knowledge-sharing, trust, innovation and quality. Additionally, Joyce et al. (2003) mention that a formula for sustained business success combines strategy (particularly a stakeholder focus), execution (including devolved decision-making), culture (via empowerment and shared values), structure (through information/knowledge sharing and retention), talent management (including people training and development and succession planning), innovation, leadership (through top-team management), and partnerships with customers and stakeholders.

Furthermore, Overholt’s (2007) survey identified that certain bundles of SL practices, including continuous people development via a talented and skilled workforce, valuing people by treating employees well, ethical behavior, taking a long-term perspective through understanding customers’ long-term needs, considered organisational change via agility and resilience, shared vision, teamwork, strong enabling culture via values and beliefs, and knowledge retention and sharing, are likely to characterize organisations with sustained high performance over long periods and drive high performance organisations. More recently, Joyce & Slocum (2012) classified organisations into four capability clusters of Winners, Losers, Climbers and Tumblers, and
revealed that the profile of high performance organisations, the Winners, possesses the following set of SL management practices: people development, staff retention, internal succession planning through talent management, valuing people, CEO and top team management via team leadership, long-term approach, considered organisational change, stakeholder focus, strong and shared vision, devolved decision-making, enabling organisation culture through shared values, knowledge sharing and retention, trust and empowerment, innovation via continuous improvement, staff engagement and quality.

Some studies have contrasted organisations performing high or low on various sustainability criteria, and concluded that financial and other performance is significantly better in the ‘high’ groups. For example, the literature emphasises that high-sustainability organisations outperform low-sustainability organisations in terms of financial performance, profitability, customer satisfaction, and productivity. Eccles et al. (2012) indicate that ‘high sustainability’ companies are more likely to be associated with enhanced organisational performance, and significantly outperform their counterparts in the ‘low sustainability’ group who place little emphasis on factors, such as social and environmental responsibility. Boedker et al.’s (2011) data show that high-performing workplaces are 12% more productive, three times more profitable and enjoy 22.7% higher levels of job satisfaction and 24.8% higher customer satisfaction than low-performing workplaces. Similarly, Harter et al. (2009) indicate that companies with high levels of employee engagement outperform those with less-engaged employees on various financial measures including operating income, net income growth rate and earnings per share growth rate.

Overall, the literature consistently highlights the significance of almost all the individual SL practices. Numerous studies have correspondingly supported the importance of bundling SL practices in order to drive outstanding performance in organisations and enhance organisational sustainability.

PROPOSITIONS

Derived from the literature and based on the above discussion, the following research propositions emerge:

**Proposition 1:** Examining high-performance and low-performance SL clusters of organisations reveals a significant difference in the number of SL practices adopted.

**Proposition 2:** The more SL practices an organisation adopts, the higher the organisational performance.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Based on an extensive literature review, major problems and gaps in existing studies identifying factors underpinning high organisational performance were identified. First, current knowledge in the field of SL and high performance is underdeveloped, although the extant literature overall indicates the important contribution to organisational performance of individual SL practices. Second, the literature criticises current leadership research for its often piecemeal and fragmented methodology, and narrow focus on single or small groups of variables that do not reflect the complexity of organisational leadership. Statistical techniques such as cluster and configuration analysis now enable multiple variables to be examined and patterns to be identified. Thus, future researchers should consider examining the patterns among multiple variables and bundles of leadership practices hypothesised to drive high performance in organisations. Third, many studies have been ad hoc and not used a systematic framework for examining the factors contributing to organisational performance.

This paper has summarised the existing literature using the SL framework. The results of the literature review, as depicted in Table 1, show 21 of 23 SL practices are supported by the organisational performance literature, with two variables not having been examined as yet in published papers. Based on the preliminary analysis of this paper, recent studies support Avery & Bergsteiner’s claim that SL practices are associated individually and in bundles with organisational performance. However, we need to understand this phenomenon in greater depth. Therefore, more systematic studies are required to examine SL variables and organisational performance, using consistent definitions of variables, a sufficiently large sample size of e.g. 300 to ensure statistical robustness, a systematic measuring tool such as the Sustainable Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ), and sophisticated statistical techniques that examine patterns among the variables.

Two testable propositions have been provided for future researchers. One critical area to test is whether and which SL practices predict enhanced organisational performance by examining the contributions of all 23 practices simultaneously. Another is to differentiate between high and low sustainability groups in terms of the patterns of SL practices they use. Findings from future studies can improve our understanding of the interrelationships as well as provide insights into the essential characteristics of organisational high performance.
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Remark: Each checkmark (✓) represents a matching SL criterion

* In Good to Great: team leadership = CEO & Top team management
** In Good to Great: business passion = vision’s role

Source: Suparak Suriyankietkaew (Author)
REFERENCES


REFLECTIONS ON SUSTAINABILITY LEADERSHIP FROM A PRACTITIONER’S PERSPECTIVE

KEYNOTE SPEAKER

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ABSTRACT

Lynette Thorstensen has held leadership roles in sustainability for more than 30 years. She has worked in radical activism, government, business and international institutions. In her keynote presentation to the ISL Symposium 2013, Lynette will present some personal perspectives and observations about sustainability leadership in these differing contexts and sectors. In particular, Lynette will examine the role of the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD). She will speak frankly about observed strengths and weaknesses within the WBCSD and recent changes in their immediate focus. She will also offer her conclusions about what is required to quicken the pace of collective business leadership from some of the world’s largest companies. Finally, Lynette will offer her thoughts on what it would take for the WBCSD and other similar international business entities to drive ‘a transformative global business agenda’.
EXAMINING RELATIONSHIPS AMONG SUSTAINABLE BUSINESS PRACTICES, STAKEHOLDER BENEFITS AND HAPPINESS AND SUSTAINABILITY PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES: A THAI MODEL

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ABSTRACT

The philosophy of Sufficiency Economy is widely recognised as an approach to corporate sustainability in Thailand with increasing research support. Although it has been widely claimed that Sufficiency Economy business practices enhance stakeholder benefits and happiness, little research has been conducted into this relationship, especially from the stakeholder perspective. This paper reviews the theoretical and empirical literature on the philosophy of Sufficiency Economy in the business sector, resulting benefits and happiness of stakeholders, and sustainability performance outcomes. A model is then derived, expressing relationships between Sufficiency Economy business measures and sustainability performance outcomes, as intervened by benefits and happiness as perceived by stakeholders. Hypotheses and a direction to test them are also discussed.

Keywords: Stakeholders, public benefits and happiness, sustainable business practices, Sufficiency Economy philosophy, sustainable leadership.

INTRODUCTION

The Sufficiency Economy philosophy stems from remarks made by His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej of Thailand throughout his 58 years on the throne (NESDB, 2004a), stressing the “middle” path as the overriding principle for Thai people’s conduct and way of life at the individual, family, and community levels. Within the philosophical principles, choice of balanced development strategies for the nation in line with the forces of globalization is allowed, with the requirement for adequate protection from internal and external shocks. In particular, after the 1997 Asian economic crisis in which numerous businesses in Thailand went bankrupt, His Majesty reiterated the philosophy as the way to national recovery that would lead to a more resilient and sustainable economy (NESDB, 2004b). The Sufficiency Economy philosophy has been applied in a broad range of areas, including business, to ensure sustainable development.

In business, relationships between Sufficiency Economy philosophy and the expected sustainability performance outcomes have been examined (Kantabutra & Siebenhüner, 2011). It was found that firms adopting the philosophy essentially lead to sustainability performance outcomes such as capacity to deliver competitive performance, capacity to endure social and economic crises, and capacity to maintain market leadership.

The Sufficiency Economy philosophy is consistent with a new theory of the firm, which would more accurately describe the firm’s behavior by focusing on stakeholder relationships and replacing the dominant theory of the firm – the economic model (Brenner & Cochran, 1991; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Hosseini & Brenner, 1992; Jones, 1995; Wood, 1991). Although the concept of stakeholder focus has become more recognised when it comes to a discussion on corporate sustainability, further research must focus more attention on the linkage between stakeholder focus and sustainability performance outcomes. Specifically, recent literature relating to stakeholders focus indicated that, to achieve sustainability outcomes, a firm has to fulfill benefits of its own and those of its stakeholders (Fassin, 2012; Oruc & Sarikaya, 2011). In order to fulfill the benefits to stakeholders, a firm needs to thoroughly understand their needs and how they perceive the benefits that they would gain from a
firm, since Peloza, Loock, Cerruti, & Muyot (2012 p.74) have suggested that “there is often a major gap between stakeholder perception and firm performance”.

This paper, therefore, reviews the theoretical and empirical literature on the philosophy of Sufficiency Economy in the business sector. It also reviews the literature on stakeholder theory, stakeholder benefits and happiness, and sustainability performance outcomes. A model and hypotheses are then derived. Conclusion and future research directions are then discussed.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF SUFFICIENCY ECONOMY

The Sufficiency Economy philosophy framework is composed of three components and two underlying conditions (Piboolsravut, 2004). First, Sufficiency entails three components: moderation, reasonableness and built-in resilience (i.e. the ability to cope with shocks from internal and external changes). Second, the two underlying conditions necessary to achieve Sufficiency are knowledge and virtues/ethics. Sufficiency Economy requires breadth and thoroughness in planning, carefulness in applying knowledge and the implementation of those plans. As for the virtues/ethics condition, Sufficiency Economy reinforces the conditions that people are to possess - honesty and integrity - while conducting their lives with perseverance, harmlessness and generosity. The Sufficiency Economy philosophy serves as a guide for the way of leading life for people of all levels and is in concert with universal domain applicability, including business organisations (Piboolsravut, 2004).

Regarding business organisations, a theoretical model has been developed (Kantabutra, 2006). This model, derived from the empirical and theoretical literature, suggested that corporate leaders wishing to sustain their business success espouse a vision characterised by clarity, brevity, stability, challenge, abstractness, future orientation and desirability or ability to inspire. Moreover, content of the vision should contain reference to moderation, reasonableness, the need for a self-immunity mechanism, knowledge and morality. A corporate leader espousing such a vision should then develop a business strategy and plan to achieve the vision, communicate the vision to organisational members, realign organisational systems to suit the vision and empower and motivate organisational members accordingly. The leader should also be passionate about the vision, remain emotionally committed to the vision and behave consistently with the vision. As for organisational members, they should share the leader’s vision, be emotionally committed to the vision and use the vision as a guide in their daily business activities. A leader who does so can expect to be able to sustain his/her business performance in the long run.

Built upon the Sufficiency Economy research by Kantabutra et al. (2010) and Kantabutra (2011), Kantabutra & Siebenhüner (2011) have examined Sufficiency Economy businesses and identify five domain constructs of measures: geosocial development, broad stakeholder focus, perseverance, moderation and resilience. In this paper, these constructs are adopted as five predictors of corporate sustainability. Example measured items for the constructs are as follow:

**Geosocial development** is operationally defined as the extent to which a CEO respondent indicates that his organisation (1) is willing to help to train competitors (2) operates while continuously developing society (3) continuously and systematically promotes environmental development activities (4) systematically encourages employees to train on life skills development.

**Broad stakeholder focus** is operationally defined as the extent to which a CEO respondent indicates that (1) stakeholders of their company are not limited to customers, employees and shareholders or owners (2) shareholders or owners are not the most important company stakeholders (e.g. managers should not try to always maximise their values) (3) the objective of CSR activities is not to bring more profits in the future (4) competitors should share knowledge.

**Perseverance** is operationally defined as the extent to which a CEO respondent indicates that his organisation (1) has a system to promote innovation development in products, services and/or processes (2) has employees that try their best to deal with the company’s problems, not just a quick fix (3) has employees that try their best to maximise customer satisfaction (4) has goal-oriented employees.

**Moderation** is operationally defined as the extent to which a CEO respondent indicates that his organisation (1) does not always focus on expanding the business (2) does not have a policy that promotes products and/or services that maximise short-term profits (3) recognises that employee layoffs are not the most effective way to
reduce costs in times of financial crisis (4) considers half-truths to promote products and/or services as unacceptable, as the company does not lie to customers.

**Resilience** is operationally defined as the extent to which a CEO respondent indicates that his organisation (1) develops technology that is consistent with its corporate strategy (2) continuously develops manufacturing/service processes to minimise loss of resources (3) promotes effective technology utilisation and development in products, services and processes well in advance (4) effectively develops new products/services until they are commercially successful. With an attempt to enhance construct validity of “resilience”, additional items will also be considered. They are (5) how long the business has been in operation, (6) to what extent the firm was “forced” to reduce staff in times of crisis, and (7) how soon after a crisis it recommenced paying dividends.

**STAKEHOLDER THEORY**

From the review of the literature, it appears that businesses adopting the philosophy of Sufficiency Economy are responsible for a wide range of stakeholders. This practice is highly similar to the western derived theory of Stakeholder. In general, “stakeholder” is defined as “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of an organisation’s objectives” (Freeman, 1984 p.46). Stakeholder theory is an organisational management and ethic theory highlighting values and morality as the basic characteristics of organisational management (Phillips et al., 2003). The concept of corporate governance in the past emphasising short-term monetary outcomes has faced counter-productive and negative consequences in both business and society (Perrini, Russo, Tencati, & Vurro, 2011). Thus, it is believed that long-term sustainability of enterprises requires a management approach more sensitive towards the interests and the benefits of all stakeholders (Oruc & Sarikaya, 2011), although doing so may limit their short-term profitability. For instance, The Honeybee leadership, as an approach to corporate sustainability, promotes a firm’s responsibility and moral commitment towards a wide range of stakeholders including shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers and the society and environment (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011a, 2011b). Stakeholder theory, therefore, suggests that the needs of shareholders cannot be achieved unless the needs of other stakeholders are met (Jamali, 2008); and attempts made by enterprises to meet the demands of their stakeholders are not only to avoid the possible pressures from the stakeholders but are also to create a better society. However, literature relating to stakeholder focus suggested that “stakeholders can affect or be affected: They can have power over the firm or can be dependent on it” (Fassin, 2012 p.85). In other words, stakeholders have relationships with organisations in two ways – (1) receiving benefits from what a firm has delivered and (2) delivering wealth to the firm in return (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). The major challenge for executives and stakeholder theorists is to understand the means to enhance the relationship between the firm and its stakeholders by offering benefits through the firm’s activities and policies (Post et al., 2002).

Research into Sufficiency Economy businesses in Thailand reveals some strong relationships between the Sufficiency Economy business practices and stakeholders. For instance, Puntasen et al. (2003) suggest that fairness to consumers, workers, customers and suppliers was considered as one of the seven key business practices consistent to the Sufficiency Economy philosophy. Kantabutra’s (2010) study has addressed three out of ten sufficiency economy business practices that are significantly relevant to the stakeholder theory: (1) genuinely value and continuously develop employees. Do not lay off employees even in times of economic difficulty; (2) maintain a genuine concern for the wide range of stakeholders including future society and generations; (3) share with others, including knowledge sharing with competitors to develop the market to benefit the society and consumers. More recently, stakeholder focus is implied in all domain predicting constructs of the study by Kantabutra & Siebenhüner (2011).

Sirgy (2002) reviewed different types of stakeholders in the literature (e.g. Freeman, 1984; Lerner & Fryxell, 1994; and Morgan & Hunt, 1994) and proposed that stakeholders could be more comprehensively categorised into three groups. First, internal stakeholders are individuals in management positions or departments, which are set up within an organisation (e.g. chief executive, department, group of committee). The company, therefore, is able to fully control or negotiate within these groups of stakeholders. Second, external stakeholders are groups or individuals that are not from an organisation, but they have exchanged values and resources with the organisation over time (e.g. customers, shareholders, creditor, suppliers, employees, media, distributors, local communities, and surrounding environment). The firm serves external stakeholders with the purpose of obtaining certain resources needed for the firm’s survival and growth (Sirgy 2002). Third, distal stakeholders are groups that indirectly influence the survival and growth of the organisation through external stakeholders.
These groups are government sectors, labor union, associations, education organisation and non-profit organisation.

Relationships between three types of stakeholders were found. According to Sirgy (2002), a person who is in the director position (internal stakeholder) has the power to manage or direct the business activities whereas employees (external stakeholder) have to follow the directions delivered by their director of the department and receive remunerations by a firm in return. A personnel manager also attempts to serve employees’ needs in order to gain positive working outcomes and long term retention of employees. Moreover, the firm director serves social and economic benefits to the local community because “employees reside in the local community and the quality of community life is an important factor in employee recruitment and retention” (Sirgy 2002 p. 149). Marketing and public relations managers convince the consumer advocacy organisation (distal stakeholder) to perceive a positive corporate image of the firm and this, in turn, will generate a positive brand image among consumers. More importantly, three groups of stakeholders have different needs/wants, which, in some situations, may lead to conflicts of interest. For instance, to improve service quality of an airline, a customer may want quick check-ins and the simplest baggage-screening processes whereas the government agent may require more thorough processes due to security concerns.

In this paper, we focus on the practices of executives/managers (comparable to internal stakeholders) that impact external and distal stakeholders. Practices performed by executives and managers are considered as Sufficiency Economy business sustainability. These practices could be identified and measured by adopting Kantabutra & Siebenhüner’s (2011) five domain constructs of measure. External stakeholders in this conceptual paper are identified as any group of suppliers, distributors, customers, employees, shareholders, creditors, media and local communities who can affect or be affected by the achievement of an organisation’s objectives. Distal stakeholders in this conceptual paper are identified as any group (e.g. government sectors, labor unions, associations, education organisations and non-profit organisations), which can affect or be affected by the achievement of an organisation’s objectives.

SUSTAINABILITY PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES

In terms of outcomes from Sufficiency Economy businesses, a past study has derived sustainability performance outcomes from a convenient sample comprising 112 mid-level managers and business owners (Kantabutra & Siebenhüner, 2011). These outcomes are grouped into three domain constructs of capacity to deliver competitive performance, capacity to endure social and economic crises and capacity to maintain market leadership.

In the study by Kantabutra & Siebenhüner (2011), findings indicate that (a) perseverance is a direct predictor of a firm’s capacity to deliver competitive performance, endure crises and maintain market leadership; (b) geosocial development and broad stakeholder focus are two direct predictors of a firm’s capacity to deliver competitive performance; (c) resilience and moderation are two indirect predictors of a firm’s capacity to deliver competitive performance; (d) geosocial development, broad stakeholder focus, moderation and resilience are four indirect predictors of a firm’s capacity to endure crises; and (e) geosocial development, moderation and resilience are three indirect predictors of a firm’s capacity to maintain a market leadership.

Based on prior research above, we adopt three domain constructs of sustainability performance outcomes from Kantabutra & Siebenhüner (2011). Examples of measured items for each construct are shown below:

**Capacity to deliver competitive performance** is operationally defined as the extent to which a CEO respondent indicates that his organisation (1) is recognised in the market as a leader (2) has competitive overall performance in the market (3) has a good environmental preservation record according to external evaluator reports.

**Capacity to endure social and economic crises** is operationally defined as the extent to which a CEO respondent indicates that his organisation (1) can always successfully survive a crises (2) can always respond to unexpected technology changes (3) has trade partners, including suppliers, who never leave his organisation in times of difficulty.

**Capacity to maintain a market leadership** is operationally defined as the extent to which a CEO respondent indicates that his organisation (1) has overall competitive quality products and services (2) has trade partners who are satisfied with working with his organisation (3) maintains that 50% of their total customer base is made up of repeating customers.
In addition to the three outcomes of sustainable enterprise above, some other studies of Sufficiency Economy businesses further suggest that business practices of a firm could create “benefits and happiness” as an outcome to its relevant groups of stakeholders; and this outcome, in turn, will help a business to build and maintain positive relationships with its stakeholders (Inthararatana, 2007; Kanchanarangsinont et al., 2011; and Puntasen et al., 2012). Benefits and happiness are outcomes from practices where a firm gives and/or dedicates something beneficial to others, helps others to have a good living quality and relief from sadness, helps people who are in an inferior position and contributes benefits to the society (Kanchanarangsinont et al., 2011). Giving in this context is initiated by an individual’s intrinsic attempt to assist others in receiving benefits and happiness without expecting anything in return (Kanchanarangsinont et al., 2011; and Puntasen et al., 2012). However, sustainable business practices of a firm should first fulfill benefits and happiness to its staff within the organisation through a stable employment environment and welfares. Then, the firm could expand the outcomes of the practices to the broader society through knowledge sharing, not taking financial advantage while purchasing-selling products, generating jobs and additional income for the community, delivering useful products to the community, and conducting activities that are beneficial to the society and environment in whole. (Kanchanarangsinont et al., 2011; Kunchorn Na Ayudhathaya, 2007; Puntasen et al., 2012).

Relationships between sustainable business practices and benefits and happiness are not only found in Sufficiency Economy businesses but also in other areas of corporate sustainability. For instance, in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) literature, an organisation will only gain positive outcomes from its CSR practices if the firm first delivers benefits to its stakeholders (Bhattacharya, Korschun, &Sen, 2009). Maignan et al., (2005) also found that in order to respond to customer needs and create superior customer satisfaction, Market Orientation (MO) organisations must also focus on benefits given to other stakeholders. Kunchorn Na Ayudhathaya (2007) suggested that sustainable growth from business practices should not only benefit a firm but also its society and environment in the form of contributing benefits to all relevant groups that affect or are affected by a firms operation.

In terms of evaluating sustainability performance outcomes, a firm should evaluate the outcomes from both corporate and stakeholder sides to be sustainable. Specifically, in order for executives to create superior sustainability outcomes, they have to create both actual sustainability performance as well as a comparable degree of perceived value from sustainability performance to stakeholders (Peloza, Loock, Cerruti, & Muyot, 2012). That is, the effectiveness of stakeholder-oriented practices of a firm should not only be evaluated from the firm perspective but also from the stakeholder’s perspective.

Therefore, this conceptual paper will focus on perceived benefits and happiness of external and distal stakeholders as the two intervening variables. Perceived external and distal stakeholders benefits and happiness are defined as the extent to which an external or distal stakeholder perceives that he or she receives the following benefits from the firm: monetary and non-monetary benefits; tangible and intangible benefits; utilitarian (or extrinsic) and hedonic (or intrinsic) benefits (Chandon, Wansink, & Laurent, 2000; Post et al., 2002; Vargo, Nagao, He, & Morgan, 2007).

STRUCTURAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

Based on the literature review, a structural model (Figure 1) is derived, showing relationships between the independent domain variable of Sufficiency Economy business practices and the dependent variable of sustainability performance outcomes with perceived benefits and happiness of: (1) external stakeholders and (2) distal stakeholders as intervening variables. Based on the literature, we also hypothesise a direct positive relationship between the Sufficiency Economy business practices and the sustainability performance outcomes. We also hypothesise reciprocal effects between perceived benefits and happiness, and sustainability performance outcomes.

Based on the structural model, the following directional hypotheses are derived.

\[ H_1: \text{Sufficiency Economy business practices directly, positively predict perceived benefits and happiness of external stakeholders} \]

\[ H_2: \text{Sufficiency Economy business practices directly, positively predict perceived benefits and happiness of distal stakeholders} \]

\[ H_3: \text{There is a reciprocal, positive relationship between perceived benefits and happiness of external stakeholders and sustainability performance outcomes} \]
H₁: There is a reciprocal, positive relationship between perceived benefits and happiness of distal stakeholders and sustainability performance outcomes
H₂: Sufficiency Economy business practices directly predict enhanced sustainability performance outcomes

![Diagram of the structural model]

Figure 1: The structural model

CONTRIBUTIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Clearly, future research is needed to test the five hypotheses above. One critical area to test is whether Sufficiency Economy business practices really predict enhanced sustainability performance outcomes and enhanced benefits and happiness of stakeholders as found in Western theories. Another area to test is whether benefits and happiness of stakeholders really lead to sustainability performance outcomes and vice-versa. If supported by future research, the proposed model will have important managerial implications for business leaders who wish to sustain their organisational success in many different ways. Specifically, Peloza, Loock, Cerruti, & Muyot (2012 p.74) have suggested that “there is often a major gap between stakeholder perception and a firm’s performance”. This proposed study will show appropriate practices that a Sufficiency Economy business should deliver to each relevant group of stakeholders in order to maximise benefits and happiness as an outcome to them. In addition, as stakeholders have relationships with organisations in two ways (Donaldson & Preston, 1995), this research will gain an insight into how perceived benefits and happiness of stakeholders could deliver value, including benefits and happiness, to the firm in return.

REFERENCES


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